

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ АГЕНТСТВО ПО ОБРАЗОВАНИЮ
Государственное образовательное учреждение высшего профессионального
образования
«Дагестанский государственный педагогический университет»»

УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Проректор по учебно-методической работе
Регистрационный номер ___ 323 _____
« ____ » _____ 200__ г.

Кафедра английской филологии

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

по дисциплине «История английского языка»

033200.00 Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью
шифр и название по учебному плану
050300 Филологическое образование, 050303 Иностранный язык
шифр в соответствии с ОКСО и наименование

Махачкала 2009 г.

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Учебно-методический комплекс «История английского языка» составлен в соответствии с требованиями Государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования/Основной образовательной программой по специальности

– 033200.00 «Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью».

В учебно-методическом комплексе излагается методика изучения курса «История английского языка». Отдельными главами представлены программа курса, планы практических занятий, задания для самостоятельной работы, тестовые задания. Рекомендуется преподавателям и студентам филологических факультетов университетов педагогических учебных заведений.

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ВЫПИСКА ИЗ
ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОГО ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОГО СТАНДАРТА
ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

Специальность 033200.00 Иностранный язык
с дополнительной специальностью

ДПП.Ф.02

История языка

90

Предмет истории языка. Основные законы исторического развития языка. Сравнительно-исторический метод изучения языков. Основные этапы исторического развития изучаемого языка, становление национального литературного языка в связи со становлением нации. Формирование системы изучаемого языка в различные исторические периоды его развития (фонетика, грамматика, лексика, графика). Литературный язык и диалекты..

Пояснительная записка

Учебно-методический комплекс по дисциплине «История английского языка» включает в себя: рабочую программу курса, планы лекционных и семинарских занятий, задания для самостоятельной работы, тематику выпускных квалификационных работ, рейтинговую систему контроля знаний студентов, а также список литературы.

Курс лекций и тестовая форма сдачи последующего экзамена составлены так, чтобы от более раннего периода развития английского языка общения учащиеся смогли перейти к более поздним, а затем и настоящему периоду развития английского языка. Содержание всех форм работы и заданий соответствует требованиям Государственного образовательного стандарта.

Учебная и рабочая программы по курсу «История английского языка» разработаны для студентов 3 курса Института иностранных языков отделения английского языка Дагестанского государственного педагогического университета по специальности 033200.00-Иностранный язык с дополнительной специальностью.

Цели и Задачи

курса «История английского языка»

«История английского языка» – один из курсов учебного плана университетской подготовки лингвистов-филологов, призванный обеспечить студентов основополагающими постулатами и категориями науки о языке, методах его исторического изучения.

Одну из своих задач история английского языка видит в системном изучении развития и формирования современного английского языка с древнейших, засвидетельствованных письменными памятниками, времен до настоящего времени.

Изучение истории языка, изменений на всех уровнях его структурной организации с привлечением методики системного анализа и интерпретации языковых изменений с опорой на исторические условия существования языка значительно облегчает сам процесс усвоения языка, формирование диалектического подхода к его осмыслению.

Требования к уровню освоения содержания и организации учебного материала по курсу

Дисциплина обеспечивает теоретические и практические знания в области истории языка и развития его лексической и грамматической системы.

Отбор материала основывается на необходимости предоставить студентам-филологам современную научную информацию об основных периодах истории английского языка:

- о принципах синхронического и диахронического описания языков;
- о системе древнеанглийского языка в синхронии;
- о системе среднеанглийского языка, которая должна рассматриваться как в синхронии, так и в диахронии с опорой на материал древнеанглийского периода;
- об особенностях развития фонетической, лексической, морфологической и грамматической систем английского языка на протяжении двух периодов;
- о новоанглийском периоде английского языка и основных тенденциях развития национального английского языка на протяжении трех исторических периодов.

Ключи к заданиям по анализу текстов различных периодов позволяющие использовать их для самоконтроля;

Задания для самостоятельной работы, дающие возможность студентам творчески осмыслить материал и провести небольшую работу исследовательского характера, оформленную в виде письменной итоговой курсовой или экзаменационной работы;

Содержательное наполнение дисциплины обусловлено как задачами дисциплины, так и взаимодействием ее с другими лингвистическими дисциплинами. Предлагаемая дисциплина строится на основе коммуникативно-прагматического подхода в обучении.

Контроль знаний осуществляется в рамках модульно-рейтинговой системы в ДМ, включающих текущую, промежуточную и итоговую аттестации. По результатам текущего и промежуточного контроля составляется академический рейтинг студента по каждому модулю и выводится средний рейтинг по всем модулям.

По результатам итогового контроля студенту засчитывается трудоёмкость дисциплины в ДМ, выставляется дифференцированная отметка в принятой системе баллов, отражающая качество знаний, умений и навыков по курсу.

Текущая аттестация качества усвоения знаний

Качество усвоения знаний проверяется как в письменной, так и в устной форме. Проведение разных по форме и по объёму письменных работ (подготовка докладов и проектов, фонемный анализ конкретных лексических единиц) дисциплинирует студента и даёт основания для объективной оценки знаний каждого студента, позволяет самому студенту представить реальный уровень своих знаний, стимулирует подготовку к итоговой аттестации. В процессе аттестации осуществляется прослушивание и имитация отдельных слов, упражнения на развитие фонологического слуха, прослушивание аудиоматериалов и просмотр видеоматериалов.

Итоговая аттестация

Курс завершается экзаменом, на котором проверяются полученные теоретические и практические знания по истории английского языка и степень усвоения понятийного аппарата. Каждый студент пишет реферат по теоретическому вопросу. В структуру курса входят лекции и семинары в примерном соотношении: 18 часов лекционных, 18 семинарских и 36 кср.

ГЛАВА 1 ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

1.1. Объём дисциплины и виды учебной работы

Программа по истории английского языка состоит из двух разделов: общего и специального. В общем разделе рассматриваются важнейшие теоретические понятия и проблемы по истории английского языка. Специальный раздел представляет собой описание разных периодов истории английского языка на основе общих представлений, введенных в первом разделе.

В программе выделяются те особенности исторического формирования английского языка, которые необходимы студентам для дальнейшего совершенствования основных языковых навыков.

Рабочая программа включает в себя темы лекций, планы семинарских занятий, тесты контроля знаний, контрольные вопросы к экзамену и тематику рефератов. Курс «История

английского языка» рассчитан на 90 часов (22 ч. – лекц., 22 ч. – практич., 46 ч. – КСР) и читается в 5 семестре.

Объем дисциплины виды и учебной работы

№	Виды занятий	Всего часов
1	Общая трудоёмкость по ГОС	90
2	Аудиторные занятия	44
3	Лекции	22
4	Семинарские занятия	22
5	Самостоятельная работа	46
6	Вид итогового контроля	Экзамен

1.2. Содержание дисциплины и виды учебной деятельности (тематический план)

Тематический план

дисциплины «История английского языка»

по специальности «Лингвистика и межкультурная коммуникация»;

Наименование модулей и тем	Трудоёмкость, час	Аудиторная работа, час				Внеаудиторная работа, час.			Самостоятельная работа, час.
		Лекции	Практич. и семинар. зан	Лаборатор. работа	Контроль	ИРС	Реферат	Контрольная работа	
Модуль 1. История английского языка. Древнеанглийский период.									
Тема 1. Предмет истории английского языка, периодизация истории АЯ. Историческая обусловленность развития английского языка. Характеристика основных периодов истории АЯ.	12	4	2					2	4

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка (вокализм и консонантизм).	12	4	2					2	4
Тема 3. Морфологические особенности д.а. языка /существительное, глагол, прилагательное, местоимение, числительное/.	12	4			2				6
Тема 4. Синтаксис древнеанглийского предложения. Порядок слов.	8	4							4
ИТОГО	44	16	4		2			4	18

Тематический план
дисциплины «История английского языка»
по специальности «Лингвистика и межкультурная коммуникация»;

Наименование модулей и тем	Трудоемкость, час	Аудиторная работа, час				Внеаудиторная работа, час.			Самостоятельная работа, час.
		Лекции	Практич. и семинар. зан	Лаборатор. работа	Контроль	ИРС	Реферат	Контрольная работа	
Модуль 2. История английского языка. Средне- и ранненовоанглийский период.									
Тема 1. Среднеанглийский период. Скандинавское и норманское завоевание. Лексика, письменные памятники с.а. периода.	4	2							2
Тема 2. Фонетические особенности с.а. языка	8	2	2					2	2

(вокализм и консонантизм).									
Тема 3. Морфологические характеристики имени и глагола в с.а. период. Система глагольных категорий /спряжение/. Неличные формы глагола. Аналитические формы глагола.	12	4	2					2	4
Тема 4. Синтаксис в с.а. период.	4	2							2
Тема 5. Фонетические и морфологические особенности среднеанглийских диалектов.	4		2						2
Тема 6. Развитие словаря в н.а. период. Формирование литературной нормы английского языка.	4	2							2
Тема 7. Вокализм и консонантизм н.а. периода. Словарный состав английского языка.	12	4			2			2	4
ИТОГО	48	16	6		2			6	18

1.3. Рабочие планы лекций.

Модуль 1. История английского языка. Древнеанглийский период.

Тема 1. История языка: предмет, задачи и источники изучения истории языка.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Объект изучения: цели и задачи курса; Связь истории языка с другими гуманитарными дисциплинами, с историей народа.
- 2) Методы исторических исследований в лингвистике.
- 3) Источники изучения истории английского языка.

Лекция 2.

- 1) Догерманская Британия и ее колонизация римлянами; германцы в Британии; образование первых германских государств.
- 2) Письменность древнеанглийского периода. Памятники древнеанглийской письменности.
- 3) Периодизация истории английского языка. Характеристика периодов английского языка.

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Вокализм языка древнеанглийской письменности: состав гласных, их общегерманские соответствия и отражение важнейших процессов дописьменного периода.
- 2) Преломление, палатализация, перегласовка или умлаут, стяжение гласных, удлинение гласных перед группой гоморганных согласных, безударный вокализм.

Лекция 2.

- 1) Характеристика древнеанглийского консонантизма: состав согласных и классификация.
- 2) Ассибиляция палатализованных смычных, оглушение и озвончение щелевых согласных и другие изменения.

Тема 3. Морфологические особенности древнеанглийского языка.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Система частей речи в древнеанглийском языке.
- 2) Общая характеристика морфологического строя существительных в др.а.
- 3) Прилагательное: грамматические категории, сильное и слабое склонение.
- 4) Местоимение.

Лекция 2.

- 1) Общая характеристика грамматических категорий глагола в д.а.
- 2) Морфологическая классификация глаголов.
- 3) Характеристика сильных глаголов. Аблаут.
- 4) Слабые глаголы; претеритопрезентные глаголы.

Тема 4. Синтаксис древнеанглийского предложения. Порядок слов.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Характеристика синтаксиса д.а. письменности. Основные типы связи и способы их выражения;
- 2) Роль порядка слов, основные его типы.
- 3) Структурные особенности д.а. предложения.
- 4) Развитие союзного сочинения и подчинения в д.а., корреляция как способ связи.

Модуль 2. История языка: средне- и ранненовоанглийский периоды.

Тема 1. Среднеанглийский период. Лексика, письменные памятники с.а. периода.

Лекция.

- 1) Скандинавское завоевание Британии и его языковые последствия.
- 2) Норманское завоевание и языковые проблемы, развитие словаря.
- 3) Возвышение лондонского диалекта как этап сложения национального языка; письменность языка этого периода.

- 4) Характеристика лексики среднеанглийского периода. Письменность, диалекты, иноязычный элемент.

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности с.а. языка: история вокализма и консонантизма.

Лекция.

- 1) Монофтонгизация старых дифтонгов и образование новых дифтонгов, количественные изменения гласных.
- 2) Основные изменения согласных в ср.а. период. Фонологизация голоса у щелевых согласных.

Тема 3. Морфологические характеристики имени и глагола в с.а. период.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Именные части речи в с.а. период. Переосмысление минимальной структуры имени в с.а. Развитие падежной системы существительных.
- 2) Склонение прилагательных, формы сравнения в с.а.
- 3) Местоимение в с.а. период.

Лекция 2.

- 1) Система глагольных категорий /спряжение/.
- 2) Изменения в морфологии отдельных классов. Слабые глаголы.
- 3) Аналитические формы глагола.

Тема 4. Синтаксис в с.а. период.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Синтаксис в среднеанглийском: формы и способы выражения синтаксической связи в среднеанглийский период.
- 2) «Структурная законченность» как характерная особенность английского словосочетания.
- 3) Становление твердого порядка слов в предложении.
- 4) Размещение определителей в среднеанглийском.

Тема 5. Развитие словаря в н.а. период. Формирование литературной нормы.

Лекция 1.

- 1) Становление национального английского языка: внешняя история развития языка в новоанглийский период, победа абсолютной монархии.
- 2) Исторические условия формирования национального языка в н.а. период.

Лекция 2.

- 1) Роль Чосера, Уиклифа, Кэжстона в свете решения проблемы первотворца литературной нормы.
- 2) Деятельность пуристов, их роль в кодировании нормы языка.
- 3) Этимологические основы словарного состава английского языка.

Тема 6. Вокализм и консонантизм в новоанглийский период.

Лекция 1

- 1) Фонетические изменения, произошедшие в XV в. Развитие глайда в позиции между гласным заднего ряда и сонантом *l, n, m* (*smal > small*).
- 2) Великий сдвиг гласных: фонетическая и фонологическая сущность. Причины сдвига.
- 3) Отклонения от ВСГ. Датировка сдвига по Г. Суиту, О. Есперсену, Г. Уайлду.

Лекция 2

- 1) Выпадение безударных гласных окончаний в р.н.а. эпоху.
- 2) Центрированные дифтонги.
- 3) Ассибиляция согласных. Озвончение глухих щелевых.
- 4) Основы английской орфографии.

Рабочие планы семинарских занятий

Модуль 1. История английского языка. Древнеанглийский период.

Тема 1. История языка – предмет, задачи и источники изучения истории языка.

Семинар 1.

- 1) Предмет истории английского языка.
- 2) Экстралингвистическая обусловленность языка.
- 3) Периодизация истории АЯ., анализ отрывка из «Беовульфа».
- 4) Письменные памятники, анализ отрывка из «Англо-саксонской хроники».

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка

Семинар 1.

- 1) Вокализм языка древнеанглийской письменности: состав гласных, их общегерманские соответствия и отражение важнейших процессов дописьменного периода.
- 2) Преломление, палатализация, перегласовка (умлаут) и другие изменения гласных в д.а. период.
- 3) Древнеанглийский консонантизм.
- 4) Анализ отрывка из «Церковной истории английского народа».

Тема 3. Морфологические особенности древнеанглийского языка.

Семинар 3. (промежуточный контроль)

- 1) Морфологические особенности д.а. языка: существительное, прилагательное.
- 2) Сильные и слабые глаголы в д.а. период.
- 3) Анализ «Западно-саксонского священнописания».

Модуль 2. История языка: средне- и ранненовоанглийский периоды.

Тема 1. Вокализм и консонантизм среднеанглийского языка.

Семинар 1.

- 1) Количественные изменения гласных в с.а. период.
- 2) Качественные изменения гласных.

- 3) Упрощение старых дифтонгов, возникновение новых дифтонгов и долгих монофтонгов, редукция гласных.
- 4) Изменения в системе согласных.
- 5) Анализ отрывка из письменного памятника «Бегущий по свету».

Тема 2. Морфологические характеристики имени и глагола в среднеанглийский период.

Семинар 1.

- 1) Морфологические особенности имени с.а. языка. Анализ отрывка из письменного памятника «Король Хорн».
- 2) История отдельных морфологических классов глаголов в с.а. период.
- 3) Развитие аналитических форм глагола.
- 4) Анализ отрывка из «Пахаря».

Тема 3. Фонетические и морфологические особенности среднеанглийских диалектов.

Семинар 1.

- 1) Качественные изменения отдельных гласных (по диалектам).
- 2) Морфологические особенности с.а. диалектов. Основные тенденции развития падежной системы существительных в среднеанглийском (подиалектно).
- 3) Анализ отрывка из «Пролога» Дж. Чосера.

Тема 4. Вокализм и консонантизм новоанглийского периода.

Семинар 1. (промежуточный контроль)

- 4) Фонетические изменения, произошедшие в XV в. Развитие глайда в позиции между гласным заднего ряда и сонантом *l, n, m* (*smal > small*).
- 5) Великий сдвиг гласных.
- 6) Анализ отрывка из «Призыва Томаса Уска».

Модуль 1.

Тема 1. История языка: предмет, задачи и источники изучения истории языка.

Объект изучения: цели и задачи курса; Связь истории языка с другими гуманитарными дисциплинами, с историей народа. Методы исторических исследований в лингвистике. Источники изучения истории английского языка. Периодизация истории английского языка. Характеристика периодов английского языка в соответствии с изменениями общественной функции языка, с основными переменами в каждой подсистеме языка. Письменность древнеанглийского периода. Памятники древнеанглийской письменности.

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка.

Характеристика вокализма языка древнеанглийской письменности: состав гласных, их общегерманские соответствия и отражение важнейших процессов дописьменного периода. Древнеанглийское преломление, палатализация (дифтонгизация после палатализованных согласных), перегласовка или умлаут, стяжение гласных, удлинение гласных перед группой гоморганных согласных, безударный вокализм в древнеанглийском. Характеристика др.а. консонантизма: состав согласных и

классификация. Ассибиляция палатализованных смычных, оглушение и озвончение щелевых согласных и другие изменения.

Тема 3. Морфологические особенности древнеанглийского языка.

Система частей речи в древнеанглийском. Общая характеристика морфологического строя существительных в др.а. (состав категорий, типы склонений, функции падежа). Прилагательное: грамматические категории – число, род, падеж, степени сравнения. Сильное и слабое склонение. Местоимение. Общая характеристика грамматических категорий глагола в др.а. Морфологическая классификация глаголов. Характеристика сильных глаголов и аблаут в этой связи. Слабые глаголы: принципы классификации. Нерегулярные слабые глаголы 1-го класса и продуктивные глаголы 2-го класса. Претеритопрезентные глаголы.

Тема 4. Синтаксис древнеанглийского предложения. Порядок слов.

Характеристика синтаксиса языка д.а. письменности. Основные типы связи и способы их выражения; Роль порядка слов, основные его типы, анаколуп. Структурные особенности д.а. предложения. Развитие союзного сочинения и подчинения в древнеанглийском языке. Корреляция как способ связи между частями сложного предложения.

Модуль 2.

Тема 1. Среднеанглийский период. Лексика, письменные памятники с.а. периода.

Внешняя история развития английского языка в среднеанглийский период. Скандинавское завоевание Британии и его языковые последствия. Завоевание Британии норманнами и лингво-социальные условия, создавшиеся в этот период. Возвышение лондонского диалекта как этап сложения национального языка; письменность языка этого периода. Характеристика лексики среднеанглийского периода. Письменность, диалекты, иноязычный элемент.

Тема 2. Фонетические особенности с.а. языка: история вокализма и консонантизма.

Монофтонгизация старых дифтонгов и образование новых дифтонгов в среднеанглийском. Диалектные особенности отражения древнеанглийского вокализма в среднеанглийском. Количественные изменения гласных – их фонологическая сущность. Основные изменения согласных в с.а. период: условия дистрибуции согласных в древнеанглийском и их изменения в среднеанглийский период. Фонологизация голоса у щелевых согласных.

Тема 3. Морфологические характеристики имени и глагола в с.а. период.

История именных частей речи в с.а. период. Переосмысление минимальной структуры имени в с.а. Развитие падежной системы (подиалектно) существительных. Склонение прилагательных, формы сравнения в связи с распадом флексий в с.а. Местоимение в среднеанглийском. Проблема происхождения местоимений *they, their, them* в английском. Дифференциация относительных местоимений *who, which*. Система глагольных категорий (изменения в системе спряжения, изменения в морфологии отдельных классов). Слабые глаголы в среднеанглийский период. История претеритопрезентных и неправильных глаголов в с.а. период. Аналитические формы глагола (будущее относительное, страдательный залог, формы перфекта и продолженного вида, сослагательного наклонения). Неличные формы глагола.

Тема 4. Синтаксис в с.а. период.

Синтаксис в среднеанглийский период. Влияние редукции и распада окончаний на формы и способы выражения синтаксической связи в среднеанглийский период. «Структурная законченность» как характерная особенность английского словосочетания. Упрощение синтаксических моделей в среднеанглийский период. Становление твердого порядка слов в предложении. Распространение тенденции к созданию глаголов с закрепленными предлогами. Размещение уточнителей, определителей в среднеанглийском языке.

Тема 5. Фонетические и морфологические особенности с.а. диалектов.

Качественные изменения отдельных гласных (по диалектам). Развитие падежной системы существительных (подиалектно).

Тема 6. Развитие словаря в н.а. период. Формирование литературной нормы.

Сложение национального английского языка: внешняя история развития языка в новоанглийский период, победа абсолютной монархии. Исторические условия формирования национального языка в н.а. период.

Роль Чосера, Уиклифа, Кэкстона в свете решения проблемы первотворца литературной нормы. Деятельность пуристов, их роль в кодировании нормы языка. Первые грамматики и лексикография в 17-18 вв. Этимологические основы словарного состава английского языка.

Тема 7. Вокализм и консонантизм н.а. периода. Словарный состав английского языка.

Фонетические изменения гласных в 15 в. Великий сдвиг гласных. Фонетическая сущность ВСГ. Фонологическая сущность ВСГ. Мнения известных лингвистов о причинах ВСГ. Оппозиция «квантитивности», абруптивности-неабруптивности контакта у гласных. Датировка сдвига – Г. Суит, О. Есперсен, Г. Уайлд. Отклонения от ВСГ. Озвончение глухих щелевых в н.а. период. Источники центрированных дифтонгов. Ассибиляция согласных в новоанглийский период.

ГЛАВА 2. Содержание лекционного материала по курсу «История английского языка»

LECTURE 1. INTRODUCTORY. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

List of principal questions;

1. The aim of the study of the subject
2. Inner and outer history of the language
3. Chief characteristics of the Germanic languages

3.1. Phonetics

- 3.2. Grammar
- 3.3. Alphabet

1. The aim of the study of the subject

It is well known that language, whether it is English, Russian or any other, is a historical phenomenon. As such it does not stay unchanged for any considerable period of time, or for any time at all, but it is constantly changing throughout its history.

The changes affect all the spheres of the language: grammar and vocabulary, phonetics and spelling. The changes that any language undergoes are gradual and very slow but pronounced enough if you compare the stages of its development within a century or even half a century. You can imagine that with the passage of time the difference between different stages of the development of the language grows and you will easily deduce that if you speak of such a language as English the history of which embraces over fifteen centuries you will have to analyze and explain a great number of linguistic data characterizing the language at different stages of its history.

The aims set before a student of the history of the English language are as follows:

1. to speak of the characteristics of the language at the earlier stages of its development;
2. to trace the language from the Old English period up to modern times;
3. to explain the principal features in the development of modern language historically.

To achieve those aims a student will have to know the theoretical basis of the subject and to work with the text to apply the theoretical knowledge to the practical analysis of English texts at different periods of the language development.

While speaking about the importance of theoretical courses we may quote Simeon Potter's words: "We cannot know too much about the language we speak every day of our lives... knowledge is power. The power of rightly chosen words is very great, whether these words are intended to inform, to entertain or to move."

Simeon Potter, *Our language*

Thus the main purpose of studying the history of the English language is to account for the present-day stage of the language to enable a student of English to read books and speak the language with understanding and due knowledge of the intricate and complicated "mechanism" they use.

We said that the history of any language is an unbroken chain of changes more or less rapid. But though the linguistic tradition is unbroken it is impossible to study the language of over 15 centuries long without subdividing it into smaller periods. Thus the history of the English language is generally subdivided conventionally into Old English (5th—11th century), Middle English (11th*—15th century) and New English (15th century—till now).

2. Inner and outer history of the language

We are going to speak about the inner and the outer history of the English language. The outer history of the language is the events in the life (history) of the people speaking this language affecting the language, i.e. the history of the people reflected in their language. The inner history of the language is the description of the changes in the language itself, its grammar, phonetics, vocabulary or spelling.

It is well known that the English language belongs to the Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages. The direct and indirect evidence that we have concerning old Germanic tribes and dialects is approximately twenty centuries old. We know that at the beginning of AD Germanic tribes occupied vast territories in western, central and northern

Europe. The tribes and the dialects they spoke at the time were generally very much alike, but the degree of similarity varied. It is common to speak about the *East Germanic* group of dialects — mainly spoken in central Europe — Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian; *North Germanic* group of dialects — Old Norwegian, Old Danish, Old Swedish, Old Icelandic; and the *West Germanic* group of dialects — the dialects of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians and others, originally spoken in western Europe. The first knowledge of these tribes comes from the Greek and Roman authors which, together with archeological data, allows to obtain information on the structure of their society, habits, customs and languages.

The principal *East Germanic* language is Gothic. At the beginning of our era the Goths lived on a territory from the Vistula to the shores of the Black Sea. The knowledge of Gothic we have now is almost wholly due to a translation of the Gospels and other parts of the New Testament made by Ulfilas, a missionary who Christianized the Gothic tribes. Except for some runic inscriptions in Scandinavia it is the earliest record of a Germanic language we possess. For a time the Goths played a prominent part in European history, making extensive conquests in Italy and Spain. In these districts, however, their language soon gave place to Latin, and even elsewhere it seems not to have maintained a very tenacious existence. Gothic survived longest in the Crimea, where vestiges of it were noted down in the sixteenth century.

North Germanic is found in Scandinavia and Denmark. Runic inscriptions from the third century preserve our earliest traces of the language. In its earlier form the common Scandinavian language is conveniently spoken of as Old Norse. From about the eleventh century on, dialectal differences become noticeable. The Scandinavian languages fall into two groups: an eastern group including Swedish and Danish, and a western group including Norwegian and Icelandic. Of the early Scandinavian languages Old Icelandic is much the most important. Iceland was colonized by settlers from Norway about A.D. 874 and preserved a body of early heroic literature unsurpassed among the Germanic peoples. Among the more important monuments are the Elder or Poetic Edda, a collection of poems that probably date from the tenth or eleventh century, the Younger or Prose Edda compiled by Snorri Sturluson (1178— 1241), and about forty sagas, or prose epics, in which the lives and exploits of various traditional figures are related.

West Germanic is of chief interest to us as the group to which English belongs. It is divided into two branches, High and Low German, by the operation of a Second (or High German) Sound-Shift analogous to that described below as Grimm's Law. This change, by which West Germanic p, t, k, d, etc. were changed into other sounds, occurred about A.D. 600 in the southern or mountainous part of the Germanic area, but did not take place in the lowlands to the north. Accordingly in early times we distinguish as Low German tongues Old Saxon, Old Low Franconian, Old Frisian, and Old English. The last two are closely related and constitute a special or Anglo-Frisian subgroup. Old Saxon has become the essential constituent of modern Low German or Plattdeutsch; Old Low Franconian, with some mixture of Frisian and Saxon elements, is the basis of modern Dutch in Holland and Flemish in northern Belgium; and Frisian survives in the Dutch province of Friesland, in a small part of Schleswig, in the islands along the coast, etc. High German comprises a number of dialects and is divided chronologically into Old High German (before 1100), Middle High German (1100—1500), and Modern High German (since 1500). High German, especially as spoken in the midlands and used in the imperial chancery, was popularized by Luther's translation of the Bible into it (1522—1532), and since the sixteenth century has gradually established itself as the literary language of Germany.

3. Chief characteristics of the Germanic languages

The barbarian tribes — Goths, Vandals, Lombards, Franks, Frisians, Teutons, Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Scandinavians — lived on the fringes of the Roman Empire. All these spoke Germanic

There were several types of mutation, but the most important one was palatal mutation, or i-Umlaut, when under the influence of the sounds [i] or [j] in the suffix or ending the root vowels became more front and more closed. This process must have taken place in the 5th—6th centuries and can be illustrated by comparing words from the language of the Gothic bible (4th century) showing no palatal mutation with corresponding words in other Germanic languages of a later period:

Goth harjis *OE here* (*army*); *Goth domjan* *OE deman* (*deem*);
Goth kuni *OE cynn* (*kin*);

Traces of this tendency can be seen both in word-building and form-building as a kind of an internal flexion:

OHG gast (*guest*) — *gesti* (*guests*)
man (*man*) — *mennisco* (*human*)

Speaking about Germanic *consonans*, we should first of all speak of the correspondence between Indo-European and Germanic languages which was presented as a system of interconnected facts by the German linguist Jacob Grimm in 1822. This phenomenon is called the First Consonant Shift, or *Grimm's law*.

The table below shows a scheme of Grimm's law with the examples from Germanic and other Indo-European languages.

However, there are some instances where Grimm's law seems not to apply. These cases were explained by a Dutch linguist Karl Verner, and the seeming exceptions from Grimm's law have come to be known as *Verner's law*.

Verner's law explains the changes in the Germanic voiceless fricatives f p h resulting from the first consonant shift and the voiceless fricatives depending upon the position of the stress in the original Indo-European word, namely:

<i>Indo-European</i>		<i>Germanic</i>	
p t k s		b 5/d g z/r	
<i>Gk</i>	hepta	<i>Goth</i>	si bun (seven)
<i>Gk</i>	pater	<i>OSc</i>	fadir, <i>OE</i> faeder
<i>Gk</i>	dekas	<i>Goth</i>	tigUS (ten. a dozen)
<i>Snsk</i>	ay as	<i>Goth</i>	aiz, <i>OHG</i> er (bronze)

According to Verner's law, the above change occurred if the consonant in question was found after an unstressed vowel. It is especially evident in the forms of Germanic strong verbs, except the Gothic ones, which allows to conclude that at some time the stress in the first two verbal stems fell on the root, and in the last two — on the suffix:

<i>OE</i>	teon	teah	tu3on	to3en (to tug)
<i>OSx</i>	tiohan	toh	tugun	gitogan
<i>Goth</i>	tiuhan	tauh	tauhum	tau hans
<i>OE</i>	ceosan	ceas	curon	coren (to
<i>Old</i>	kiosa	kaus	k0rom	k0renn
<i>Goth</i>	kiusan	kaus	kusum	kusans

3.2. Grammar

One of the main processes in the development of the Germanic morphological system was the change in the word structure. The common Indo-European notional word consisted of three elements: the *root*, expressing the lexical meaning, the *inflexion* or *ending*, showing the grammatical form, and the so-called *stem-forming suffix*, a formal indicator of the stem type. However, in Germanic languages the stem-forming suffix fuses with the ending and is often no longer visible, thus making the word structure a two-element one. Nevertheless, it should be taken into account when explaining the differences in the categorial forms of words originally having different stem-forming suffixes.

It should also be mentioned that Germanic languages belonged to the synthetic type of form-building, which means that they expressed the grammatical meanings by changing the forms of the word itself, not resorting to any auxiliary words.

The Germanic *nouns* had a well-developed case system with four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative) and two number forms (singular and plural). They also had the category of gender (feminine, masculine and neuter). The means of form-building were the endings added to the root/stem of the noun.

The Germanic *adjectives* had two types of declension, conventionally called strong and weak. Most adjectives could be declined both in accordance with the strong and weak type. Agreeing with the noun in gender, case and number, the adjective by its type of declension expressed the idea of definiteness (weak declension) or indefiniteness (strong declension), the meaning which was later to become expressed by a grammatical class of words unknown in Common Germanic — the article.

The adjective also had degrees of comparison, the forms of which were in most instances formed with the help of suffixes **-iz/oz** and **-istAost**, but there were also instances of suppletivism, i.e. use of different roots for different forms — a means common for many Indo-European languages:

Goth leitils—minniza—minnists (little—less—least) *Rus* xopoiHH—jiyniue—n

The Germanic *verbs* are divided into two principal groups: strong and weak verbs, depending on the way they formed their past tense forms.

The past tense (or preterite) of strong verbs was formed with the help of Ablaut, qualitative or quantitative. Depending upon the phonetic root structure, the exact manifestation of Ablaut could be somewhat different, and accordingly strong verbs were further subdivided into classes. Weak verbs expressed preterite with the help of the dental suffix **-d/-t**. They also had stem-forming suffixes, depending on which they fell into separate classes.

There was also a small group of highly frequent suppletive verbs forming their forms from different roots, the same as in other Indo-European languages:

<i>Goth</i>	im	(/I/am)	<i>Rus</i>	ecTb
was (<i>III</i> was)		6bm		

The Germanic verb had a well-developed system of categories, including the category of person (first, second, third), number (singular and plural)¹, tense (past and present, the latter also used for expressing future actions), mood (indicative, imperative and optative) and voice (only in Gothic—active and mediopassive). The categorial forms employed synthetic means of form-building.

3.3. Alphabet

Although the people of the Germanic tribes were mostly illiterate, some of the Germanic nations had their own mode of writing, with a distinctive alphabet called runic, each letter of which was called a rune. We know that runes were used to record early stages of Gothic, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, English,

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history
 - 1.1. Principal written records
 - 1.2. Dialectal classification
 - 1.2.1. The dialects in Old English
 - 1.2.2. Old English written records
2. Inner history
 - 2.1. Phonetics
 - 2.2. Spelling
 - 2.3. Grammar
 - 2.4. Vocabulary

1. Outer history

As we have already said, the forefathers of the English nation belonged to the *western* subdivision of old Germanic tribes, and the dialects they spoke later lay the foundation of the English national language.

The history of the English language begins in the fifth century AD. when the ruthless and barbaric Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, who up to that time had lived in western Europe between the Elbe and the Rhine, started their invasion of the British Isles.

At the time of the invasion Britain was inhabited by the so-called "romanised Celts", that is, Celts who had lived under the Roman rule for over four centuries and who had acquired Roman culture and ways of life and whose language had undergone certain changes mainly in the form of borrowings from the Latin language.

The Celtic tribes, whose languages, the same as Germanic, also belonged to the Indo-European family, were at one time among its most numerous representatives. At the beginning of our era the Celts could be found on the territories of the present-day Spain, Great Britain, western Germany and northern Italy. Before that they had been known to reach even Greece and Asia Minor. But under the steady attacks of Italic and Germanic tribes the Celts had to retreat, so that in the areas where they were once dominant they have left but the scantiest trace of their presence.

The Celts who first came to Britain gradually spread to Ireland, Scotland and the Isle of Man. Their languages are represented in modern times by Irish, Scottish Gaelic and Manx. A later wave of Celtic tribes, having occupied for some centuries the central part of England, were in turn driven westwards by Germanic invaders, and their modern language representatives are Welsh, Cornish and Breton.

The Romans invaded Britannia as it was then called in 55— 54 BC when the troops of Julius Caesar and others conquered the isles. No centralised government was formed, instead there existed petty principalities under the control of local landlords. In 407 AD, with the departure of the last Roman emissary Constantine hostilities among the native tribes in England began anew. To normalise the situation the local chieftains appealed to influential Germanic tribes who lived on the continent inviting them to come to their assistance, and in 449 the Germanic troops led by Hengest and Horsa landed in Britain.

The Roman occupation of England left little mark on its future. Most of what the Romans did perished after they left, so it is with the Germanic tribes that the history of England truly begins.

The invaders, or Barbarians, as they were generally called, who came to the Isles were representatives of a by far inferior civilisation than the Romans. A bulk of the invaders came from the most backward and primitive of the Germanic tribes. They were an agricultural rather than a pastoral people. Their tribal organisation was rapidly disintegrating.

The invaders came to Britain in hosts consisting not only of warriors, but also including labourers, women and children. They plundered the country, took possession of almost all the fertile land there and partly exterminated, and partly drove away the native population to the less inhabited mountainous parts of the country — Cornwall, Wales, Scotland. The rest of the natives became slaves to the conquerors.

In view of the historical facts mentioned above it is quite clear why the language of the invaders underwent so few changes under the influence of the Celtic tongue as almost no normal intercourse between the invaded and the invaders was possible, the latter being very few and far below socially.

It should be noted that nowadays the remnants of the Celtic group of languages face the threat of complete disappearance unable to survive in the competition with English. Cornish became extinct already in the 18th century, Manx — after the second world war. Scottish Gaelic is spoken only in the Highlands by about 75 thousand people, Irish — by half a million, the figures showing a steady declining tendency, and the absolute majority of those speaking these languages are bilingual, English being no less familiar to them than their former native tongue. Although in recent years a certain revival of nationalist sentiments helped to somewhat arrest the decline, many linguists fear the inevitable disappearance of the whole branch of the Indo-European family of languages.

We have very little indirect evidence about the beginning of the Old English period — 5th—7th centuries. The first written records were dated as far back as the beginning of the 8th century, that is why the 5th—7th centuries are generally referred to as "the pre-written period" of the English language.

1.1. Principal written records of the Old English period

The principal written records that came to us through the centuries date from as far back as the 8th century. They were written with the help of the so-called "Runic Alphabet". This was an alphabet of some 26 letters, the shape of which is quite peculiar:

The image shows six Runic characters arranged in a single row. From left to right, they are: a vertical line with a small hook at the top (F), a vertical line with a larger hook at the top (T), a vertical line with a hook at the top and a small loop at the bottom (B), a vertical line with a hook at the top and a larger loop at the bottom (R), a vertical line with a hook at the top and a small loop at the bottom (K), and a vertical line with a hook at the top and a larger loop at the bottom (K).

[TuGark], or [fuBork]

We have already said that it is assumed the Runic alphabet was composed by Germanic scribes in the 11—III centuries AD. and their angular shape is due to the material those inscriptions were made on — wood, stone, bone — and the technique of "writing" — the letters were not written but carved on those hard materials. The word "rune" meant "mystery", and those letters were originally considered to be magic signs known to very few people, mainly monks, and not understood by the vast majority of the illiterate population. Among the first Old English runic inscriptions we generally mention two: the inscription on the so-called "Franks' casket" — a small box made of whalebone containing a poem about it¹, and the inscription on the "Ruthwell cross" — a religious poem engraved on a stone cross found in Scotland.

In the 7th century the Christian faith was introduced and with it there came many Latin-speaking monks who brought with them their own Latin alphabet.

The Latin alphabet was used by the majority of the people who could read and write. It ousted the Runic alphabet. But the Latin alphabet could not denote all the sounds in the English language, for example, the sounds [w], [0]. For that purpose some runes were preserved — w, f), F, or some Latin letters were slightly altered — 6 to denote the sounds [0], [3] together with the rune p.

This alphabet that is a combination of the Latin alphabet with runes and some other innovations is called "insular writing", i.e. the alphabet typical of the Isles. The majority of Old English records are written in this insular alphabet. The spelling in these early records is on the whole

phonetic and reasonably consistent, so that it is possible to learn much about the early pronunciation.

1.2. Dialectal classification of Old English written records

1.2.1. The dialects in Old English

As we have already said, the onset of invasion by the members of the four principal Germanic tribes: Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians — began about the middle of the fourth century and their conquest of England was completed within the next century and a half. By about AD 600 they established their separate kingdoms, the principal among them being:

- those formed by *the Angles*: Northumbria (north of the river Humber), Mercia (in the centre of England) and East Anglia — central eastern part of the country;
- those formed by *the Saxons* — mainly to the south of the river Thames: Wessex, Sussex and Essex;
- the one formed by *the Jutes* — Kent.

Only *the Frisians* did not form a separate kingdom, but intermarried with the population belonging to different tribes.

The prevailing importance of these seven kingdoms gave to the next two centuries the title of Heptarchy. Gradually three of the seven — Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria — began to establish some sort of domination over their smaller neighbours. It was an important step towards the achieving the eventual unity of England. Another vital factor contributing to the unity was the appearance of Christianity in England in AD 597, and afterwards the spread of Christianity and changes of the supremacy of this or that kingdom follow almost the same course.

The Old English dialects are generally named after the names of the kingdoms on the territory of which the given dialect was spoken — the Northumbrian dialect, the Mercian dialect, the Wessex dialect, etc.

Though the differences between the three types were later to assume considerable importance, they were at first slight, and records of the 8th and 9th centuries reveal that *Englisc*, as it was collectively called, had by that time emerged as an independent language. The virtually complete geographical separation of England from the Continent was a factor favouring the further development of those characteristic features that already distinguished English from its parent Germanic language.

Among the principal Old English dialects the most important for us is the Wessex dialect, as the majority of Old English written records that we have can be traced back to that dialect. But the prominence of the Wessex dialect is also based on other extralinguistic criteria.

As is known, efforts to unite England failed for a very long period of time, because as soon as one kingdom became great it was in the interests of the rest to pull it down. Some historians say that the reason for that was the lack of the strongest possible motive towards any union, namely, the presence of a foreign foe.

Such enemy appeared in the second half of the 8th century, when the Northmen, particularly the Danes, began their devastating raids on the isles. At the beginning of the 9th century, when the Danish invaders destroyed in turn the dynasties of Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia, Wessex was left as the sole survivor, and its leaders became the leaders of the emerging nation.

The most famous of all English kings, Alfred of Wessex, which would later come to be called Alfred the Great, came to the throne in 871 and is reputed to have been one of the best kings ever to rule mankind. He successfully fought with the Danes who by that time had conquered most of Eastern England and were moving southwards towards Wessex. Alfred managed to stop the Danes, although temporarily, and in 878 signed a treaty with the Danish king dividing England between them.

But Alfred's true greatness lay not in his military, but peacetime activity. He set aside a half of the revenue to be spent on educational needs, established schools where the sons of the nobility could be taught to read and write, brought in foreign scholars and craftsmen, restored monasteries and convents, published a collection of laws and enforced them. He also mastered Latin and translated many books into Anglo-Saxon and ordered the compilation of the first history book, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which was continued for more than two centuries after his death. All this allows to say that even had Alfred never fought a battle, he would still deserve a place among the greatest rulers of history.

However, after the death of Alfred the Great in 901 the supremacy of Wessex gradually began to decline, and for a time, from 1017 till 1042, the throne was occupied by Danish kings.

1.2.2. Old English written records

Old English written records which are rather numerous are generally classified either in accordance with the alphabet used or in accordance with the dialect of the scribe who wrote the record.

If we speak about the first criterion — the alphabet (runic or insular) — the first group is rather scarcely represented (Frank's casket, Ruthwell cross), the other group having many written records. But generally the records are classified in accordance with their dialect: Northumbrian (Franks' casket, Ruthwell cross, Caedmon's hymns), Mercian (translation of the Psalter), Kentish (psalms), West Saxon (The Anglo-Saxon chronicle, the translation of a philosophical treatise *Cura Pastoralis*, King Alfred's *Orosius* — a book on history).

There were also many translations from other dialects, an example of which is Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* (731 AD). Bede, a learned monk at Jarrow, is said to have assimilated all the learning of his time. He wrote on language, science and chronology and composed numerous commentaries on the Old and New Testament.

With the rise of Wessex to the dominant position among the Old English kingdoms in the 9th and 10th centuries, and thanks to the powerful influence of their learned King Alfred, the West Saxon dialect became the chief vehicle of literature. All the works of literary importance that have survived, both prose and poetry, are written in West Saxon, with only occasional traces of other dialects, and in this sense it may be regarded as typical of the Old English period.

2. Inner history

During the period the language was developing very slowly.

2.1. Phonetics

The phonetics of the Old English period was characterised by a system of dynamic stress. The fixed stress fell on the first root syllable:

agane (*gone*); 3eseon (*see*); 3aderian (*gather*)

The vowels had the following characteristic features:

a) The quantity and the quality of the vowel depended upon its position in the word. Under stress any vowel could be found, but in unstressed position there were no diphthongs or long monophthongs, but only short vowels [a], [e], [i], [o], [u].

b) The length of the stressed vowels (monophthongs and diphthongs) was phonemic, which means that there could be two words differing only in the length of the vowel: metan (*to mete, to measure*) — metan (*to meet*) pin (*pin*) — pin (*pain*) god (*god*) — god (*good*) ful (*full*) — ful (*foul*)

c) there was an exact parallelism of long **and short vowels**: Short: a o e u i as y ea eo
Long: aeuljgyeaeo **The consonants** were few. Some of the modern sounds were non-

existent ([/], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]). The quality of the consonant very much depended on its position in the word, especially the resonance (voiced and voiceless Sounds: hlaf [f] (*loaf*) — hlaforð [v] (*lord*, "bread-keeper")) and articulation (palatal and velar sounds: climbæn [k] (*to climb*) — cild [k'] (*child*)), etc.

2.2. Spelling

The Old English spelling was mainly phonetic, i.e. each letter as a rule denoted one sound in every environment. Note should be taken that the letters f, s, þ, ƿ could denote voiced consonants in intervocal positions or voiceless otherwise; the letter c was used to denote the sound [k] (palatal or velar); the letter y denoted the sound [y] (similar to German [ii] in the word "Gemüt" or Russian [и] in the word "молоко"). The letter ƿ could denote three different sounds: [j] — before or after front vowels [x], [e], [i]: ƿiefan (*give*), ƿear (*year*), daeƿ (*day*) [y] — after back vowels [a], [o], [u] and consonants [l] and [r]: daƿas (*days*), folƿian (*follow*) [g] — before consonants and before back vowels [a], [o], [u]: ƿod (*good*), ƿleo (*glee*)

2.3. Grammar

Old English was a synthetic language (the lexical and grammatical notions of the word were contained in one unit). It was highly inflected, with many various affixes. The principal grammatical means were suffixation, vowel interchange and suppletion.

Suffixation:

Ic cepe (*I keep*) — þu cepst (*you keep*) — he ceþd (*he keeps*)

Vowel interchange:

writan (*to write*) — Ic wrot (*I wrote*)

Suppletion:

ƿan (*to go*) — eode (*went*)

beon (*to be*) — Ic eom (*I am*)

þu eart (*you are*)

he is (*he is*)

There was no fixed word-order in Old English, the order of the words in the sentence being relatively free.

2.4. Vocabulary

Almost all of it was composed of native words, there were very few borrowings.

Borrowings were mainly from Latin:

a) The forefathers of English, when on the Continent, had contacts with the Roman empire and borrowed words connected mainly with trade: Cese (*cheese*), win (*wine*), seppel (*apple*)

b) They borrowed Latin words from the Romanized Celts: street (*street*), weall (*wall*), myln (*mill*)

c) Some borrowings were due to the introduction of Christianity: biscop (*bishop*), deofol (*devil*), munc (*monk*) **New words** appeared as a result of two processes: a) word derivation:

fisc+ere = fiscere (*fish — fisher*) wulle+en = wyllen (*wool — woolen*)

claene+s+ian = claensian (*dean — to cleanse*) b) word composition:

sunne + daeƿ = Sunnandaeƿ (*sun + day = Sunday*) mona + da;ƿ = Monandaeƿ (*moon + day = Monday*).

LECTURE 3.
MIDDLE ENGLISH.
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history
 - 1.1. Scandinavian Invasion
 - 1.2. Norman Conquest
 - 1.3. Formation of the English national language
2. Inner history
 - 2.1. Phonetics
 - 2.2. Grammar
 - 2.3. Word-stock

1. Outer history

1.1. Scandinavian Invasion

The end of the Old English period and the beginning of Middle English is marked by two outstanding political events — the Scandinavian invasion and the Norman conquest.

It is impossible to state the exact date of the Scandinavian invasion as it was a long process embracing over two centuries, the first inroads of the Scandinavian Vikings having began as far back as the end of the 8th century. Various Scandinavian adventurers at the head of their troops came to England wave after wave, although the English offered the invaders a stubborn resistance. At first the invaders fought with the natives, robbed and plundered the country, but later they began to settle on the lands they had managed to conquer. The part of England which suffered more from the invasion was the North-Eastern part of the country. From that part the invaders trying to conquer the whole of the country gradually proceeded to the South-West.

The kingdom that was the strongest among many existing in Britain at that time and that could consequently withstand the invasion more successfully than any other was the Wessex kingdom, especially under the rule of King Alfred the Great. King Alfred the Great was so powerful and successful in his struggle against the invaders that hostilities ceased for a time and a peace treaty was concluded — the Treaty of Wedmore, in accordance with which the territory of the country was subdivided into two parts: the south-western part remained English under the rule of King Alfred and the north-eastern part was to be Scandinavian. That part was referred to as Danelaw, or "Danes".

The Scandinavians in England remained very strong through centuries, and at the beginning of the 11th century, namely in the period between 1016 and 1042 the whole of England came under the Scandinavian rule — the conquest was completed and the Danish king was seated on the English throne. Although in 1042 England was back under English power, the English king who came to the throne — Edward the Confessor — was to be the last English king for more than three centuries.

The Scandinavian invasion and the subsequent settlement of the Scandinavians on the territory of England, the constant contacts and intermixture of the English and the Scandinavians brought about many changes in different spheres of the English language: word-stock, grammar and phonetics. The influence of Scandinavian dialects was especially felt in the North and East parts of England, where mass settlement of the invaders and intermarriages with the local population

were especially common. The relative ease of the mutual penetration of the languages was conditioned by the circumstances of the Anglo-Scandinavian contacts, i.e.: There existed no political or social barriers between the English and the Scandinavians, the latter not having formed the ruling class of the society but living on an equal footing with the English;

a) There were no cultural barriers between the two people as they were approximately the same in their culture, habits and customs due to their common origin, both of the nations being Germanic.

b) The language difference was not so strong as to make their mutual understanding impossible, as their speech developed from the same source — Common Germanic, and the words composing the basic word-stock of both the languages were the same, and the grammar systems similar in essence.

1.2. Norman Conquest

The Norman Conquest began in 1066. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe who two centuries back began their inroads on the Northern part of France and finally occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine. The French King Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans the territory occupied by them, which came to be called Normandy. The Normans adopted the French language and culture, and when they came to Britain they brought with them the French language.

In 1066 King Edward the Confessor died, and the Norman Duke William, profiting by the weakness of King Harold who succeeded King Edward on the English throne, invaded England. He assembled an army, landed in England and in a battle of Hastings on October 14, 1066 managed to defeat Harold and proclaimed himself King of England.

The Norman conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English people and the English language.

The English nobility perished through different reasons and was replaced by the Norman barons. The new king William confiscated the estates of the Anglo-Saxons nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. The Norman conquerors continued pouring into England thousands after thousands, years and years after the conquest, and during the reign of King William over 200,000 Frenchmen settled in England and occupied all positions of prominence in the country, be it in court, Parliament, Church or school.

The heritage of the Norman Conquest was manifold. It united England to Western Europe, opening the gates to European culture and institutions, theology, philosophy and science. The Conquest in effect meant a social revolution in England. The lands of the Saxon aristocracy were divided up among the Normans, who by 1087 composed almost 10% of the total population. Each landlord, in return for his land, had to take an oath of allegiance to the king and provide him with military services if and when required.

The Saxon machinery of government was immensely reinforced, with a Norman monarch and his officials as effective centralized controllers. Royal power was spread to provinces, royal justice was much more impartially done. The Normans created a strong medieval monarchy which was gradually to complete the unification of England.

The 13th century witnessed the appearance of the first Parliament, or a council of barons, which later was changed to a national Parliament, representing the nobility, clergy, knights of the shires and major cities.

The Norman conquerors, though Germanic by origin, were French by their language, habits and customs. They were a people and a class that stood aloof from the conquered English, whose habits and customs they despised and whose language they could not understand. They spoke French and addressed people in French. They taught their children French — the only language they could speak, which is noticed by many writers and scholars. And for more than two

centuries after the conquest the English country was ruled by French-speaking Kings and nobility, and the French language was the state language of the country.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the West Saxon literary language. But eventually after a prolonged struggle the English language got ascendance over French and again became the state language of the country. The victorious and defeated peoples continued to speak their own languages. The language spoken and written by the English continued to develop in accordance with tendencies already active before the conquest.

The English language emerged after the struggle, but it came in a different position. Its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words and its grammatical structure underwent material changes.

They generally mention the following decisive steps in the way upward of the English language after the Norman conquest:

- a) 1258 — Proclamation of King Henry III was published besides French also in English;
- b) 1362 — the English language became the language of Parliament, courts of law; later, at the end of the century — the language of teaching;
- c) the rule of King Henry IV (1399—1413) — the first king after the conquest whose native tongue was English.

The end of the 14th century also saw the first "English" translation of the Bible, and Chaucer was writing his "English" masterpieces. The new merchant class and the spread of lay learning were building a national civilisation, and by the end of the century French had probably died out as a spoken language.

1.3. Formation of the English national language

We can speak about the English national language as a language understood and mainly used throughout the country beginning with late Middle English — Early New English. They generally say that the end of the Middle English period and the beginning of New English is marked by the following events in the life of the English people:

1. The end of the war between the White and the Red Rose — 1485 and the establishment of an absolute monarchy on the British soil with Henry Tudor as the first absolute monarch — the political expression of the English nation.

The War of the Roses (1455—1485) was the most important event of the 15th century which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. It signified the rise of an absolute monarchy in England and a political centralisation, and consequently a linguistic centralisation leading to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

2. The introduction of printing — 1477 by William Caxton (1422— 1490).

Printing was invented in Germany by Johann Gutenberg in 1438. It quickly spread to other countries and England was among them. The first English printing office was founded in 1476 by William Caxton, and in 1477 there appeared the first book to be printed in England called *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*. The appearance of a considerable number of printed books contributed to the normalisation of spelling and grammar forms fostering the choice of a single variant over others. William Caxton established a printing-press at Westminster, from which he issued a stream of books, many of them translated from Latin and French by himself. Caxton, a native of Kent, acquired the London dialect and made a conscious choice from among competing variants, which he even described in a preface to one of his translations, saying that he had submitted it to princess Margaret, sister of the then king, and "anon she found a default in my English which she commanded me to amend."

Since that time — the end of the 15th century the English language began its development as the language of the English nation, whereas up to that time, beginning with the Germanic conquest of Britain in the 5th century and up to the 15th century, what we call the English language was no

more than a conglomerate of dialects, first tribal and then local. Indeed, a notable feature of the Middle English period is the dialectal variety that finds expression in the written documents. It was only late in the 14th century that the London dialect, itself a mixture of the southern and south-eastern dialects, began to emerge as the dominant type.

Thus, the English national language was formed on the basis of the London dialect which was uppermost among Middle English dialects due to the political, geographical, economic and "linguistic" position of London which became the capital of England already in the 11th century — before the Norman conquest and which was in the 15th century a thriving economic centre and port of England due to its geographical position near the estuary of the largest river in England. The geographical position of London as a large port and city in the centre of the country where people of the North mingled with people of the South, on the one hand, enabled the Londoners to acquire features of both southern and northern dialects, and on the other hand, the people coming to London helped to spread the London dialect all over the country.

The importance of the London dialect as the foundation of the English national language grew also because of the fact that many of the best writers of the 14th—15th centuries, and Geoffrey Chaucer among them, whose poetry achieved tremendous contemporary prestige and popularity, were Londoners or used the London dialect in their writings. As we have said, the 15th century is generally referred to as the time of the beginning of the English national language. But the literary norm of the language was established later, already in Early New English, many English authors of the forthcoming centuries contributing to it, among them such as Edmund Spenser, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Johnson and, finally, William Shakespeare.

2. Inner history

The Middle English period was a time of unprecedentedly rapid development of the language. For the first three centuries English was only a spoken language, and as such had no norm and could develop without any restraint. All the elements of the language changed fundamentally.

2.1. Phonetics

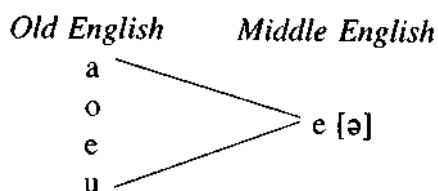
The *stress* is dynamic and fixed in the native words. But in the borrowed French words the stress was on the last syllable: licour [li'ku:r], nature [na'turr], etc.

New *consonant* sounds developed in native words:

[ʃ]	ship	[tʃ]	child	[<ʃ]	bridge
OE	scip	cild	bryc3		

The resonance of the consonant does not depend so much on the position of the consonant, and voiced consonants can appear not only in intervocal, but also in initial and other positions.

Vowels in *unstressed position* were reduced:



These sounds were in the end of the word, and it neutralised the difference between the suffixes — the main grammar means. Compare:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
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Genitive Singular *fisces* ~~~~~ — *fishes*
 Nominative Plural *fiscas* ----- "^^^^^^^" *fishes* ' ^

Vowels *under stress* underwent mainly quantitative changes. In Middle English we observe a rhythmic tendency, the aim of which is to obliterate overlong and overshort sequences. The tendency is to have in the word one long vowel + one consonant or one short vowel + two consonants.

2.2. *Grammar*

The grammar system in Middle English gradually but very quickly changed fundamentally: the Old English was a synthetic language, the Middle English at the end of the period — an analytical language. The principal grammatical means of the Old English were preserved, but were no longer principal. At the end of the Middle English period the analytical means, which began developing in Middle English, are predominant. They are:

1. analytical verb-forms (Chaucer: perfect — *hath holpen (has helped)*; passive — *engendered is (is born)*);
2. the use of prepositions for grammatical purposes (Chaucer: *drought of March*);
3. a fixed word-order began to develop.

2.3. *Word-stock*

In Middle English it underwent fundamental changes and became almost new. If in Old English the word-stock was almost completely native, in Middle English there were many borrowings. The principal sources of them were:

1. Scandinavian (those who came in the end of the Old English period) — over 500 words (*take, give, sky, wrong, etc.*);
2. French (the language of the Norman conquerors) — over 3500 words (*government, army, battle, etc.*).

Though the number of the French words is greater, all the Scandinavian words — common, colloquial, everyday, indispensable — entered the very core of the language, and their influence is very great. The French words are generally terms indispensable only in certain official spheres, but not colloquial. The Scandinavian borrowings are intensive, the French borrowings — extensive:

1. the Scandinavians and the English were *linguistically* similar (both Germanic), the English and the French — different (Germanic and Romance languages);
2. the English and the Scandinavians were similar *socially* (neither of the nations formed the upper class); the French and the English were different socially (the French-speaking people forming the ruling class, the English-speaking — the lower class);
3. the English and the Scandinavians had similar *culture*, habits, customs, traditions; the French and the English — different; that is why the assimilation of the French words could not proceed so quickly and intensively as that of Scandinavian.

The principal means of enriching vocabulary were thus outer means, i.e. borrowings.

LECTURE 4. NEW ENGLISH. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history
 - 1.1. Emergence of the nation
 - 1.2. Establishment of the literary norm
 - 1.3. Geographical expansion of English
2. Inner history
 - 2.1. Phonetics
 - 2.2. Grammar
 - 2.3. Word-stock

1. Outer history

1.1. Emergence of the nation

The 15th century is a border-line in the history of the "English" people. In 1485 there ended the War between the Roses. The end of the war meant the end of feudalism and the beginning of capitalism, a new, more peaceful era and the transition between the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. An absolute monarchy was established, the first absolute monarch being Henry Tudor. It meant a real unification of the country, political and economic, resulted in the development of capitalism and made it inevitable that one nation and one national language be established.

The first king of the period, Henry VII (1485—1509) strengthened the monarchy and provided the revenue imperative for its very existence. During his reign commerce and shipbuilding were encouraged, and the material wealth of the country increased. New lands — Newfoundland and Nova Scotia — were discovered. Following in his steps, his son, Henry VIII (1509—1547) broke away from the ecclesiastical influence of Rome, made himself head of the Church of England and of the State and transferred the property of the monasteries to himself. Dozens of large ships were built, trade continued to develop, and new territories were drawn into it. It was during the reign of Henry's son, Edward VI (1547—1553), that trade with Muscovy, or Russia, as we call it today, was opened up.

The long reign of Elizabeth I (1558—1603) was one of the most remarkable for the country, its progress in the discovery and colonizing field tremendous. Queen Elizabeth's reign was also particularly rich in learning — it was the age of Shakespeare, Sidney, Spenser, Bacon, Marlowe and many other famous names. Nevertheless, the evident achievements in foreign policy, trade and culture did not put an end to the controversy of various powerful forces in the country. Another problem which was to have far-reaching consequences was that of whether sovereignty lay with monarch or Parliament advocating the interests of the new developing classes of society. The strife between the Crown and Parliament was aggravated by religious differences. The development of the country required more regular revenue, and forced the Crown to raise taxes, which met with disapproval from Parliament.

In the XVII century Charles I (1625—1649) for over a decade ruled without Parliament, but had finally to reach a compromise, according to which the powers of Parliament were greatly extended. Henceforth one legal system was to apply to the king and his subjects alike, and no taxation was to be raised without Parliament's consent. However, when Parliament demanded further concessions, denied the king control of the army, a crisis followed which is now known under the title of the Great Rebellion. The Crown lost the ensuing war, Charles I surrendered and was executed, and for over a decade the country was ruled by Parliament alone, the most notable leader of that time being Oliver Cromwell. Granted the title of Lord Protector, he was a virtual dictator of the nation, heavily relying on the Army and disillusioning Parliament which had first brought him to power.

After the death of Oliver Cromwell the Army and Parliament were unable to agree on a government, and the restoration of monarchy that followed in 1660, when the son of the

executed king, Charles II, was invited to return to the throne, was more a restoration of Parliament than of the King himself. Charles II, who during the time of Cromwell lived in exile in France, brought with him from the Continent a keen interest in scientific development, culture and arts, together with a considerable influence of the French language spoken by his supporters.

1.2. Establishment of the literary norm

As we have said, in New English there emerged one nation and one national language. But the English literary norm was formed only at the end of the 17 century, when there appeared the first scientific English dictionaries and the first scientific English grammar. In the 17 and 18 centuries there appeared a great number of grammar books whose authors tried to stabilise the use of the language. Thus Samuel Johnson, the author of the famous Dictionary (1755), wrote that he preferred the use of "regular and solemn" pronunciation to the "cursory and colloquial." Many famous writers also greatly contributed to the formation of English, and among them, first and foremost, the great Shakespeare.

Early New English (15 — beginning of the 18 century) — the establishment of the literary norm. The language that was used in England at that time is reflected in the famous translation of the Bible called the King James Bible (published in 1611). Although the language of the Bible is Early Modern English, the authors tried to use a more solemn and grand style and more archaic expressions.

A great influence was also connected with the magazine published by Joseph Addison and Richard Steele called *The Spectator* (1711 —1714), the authors of which discussed various questions of the language, including its syntax and the use of words.

Late New English — since the 18 century.

If the gradual acceptance of a virtually uniform dialect by all writers is the most important event in the emergence of Modern English, it must be recognised that this had already gone a considerable way before 1500, and it was undoubtedly helped by Caxton's introduction of printing in 1477. The fact that the London dialect was used by him in his translations and prefaces,

and that Chaucer's works were among the books he published, led to its rapid diffusion throughout the country. But the adoption of a standard of spoken English was a slower process. It was not until Elizabeth's time that the language of the court came to be generally recognised as the best form of spoken English; and as late as the 18 , and even the early 19 century country gentlemen in their occasional visits to polite society in London were not ashamed to use dialect.

Nevertheless, despite the persistence of wide varieties in pronunciation, the basic phonetic changes that distinguish Modern English from Middle English are profound, though they are not reflected in a similar modification of spelling. The early printers, whose practice was to prove of decisive importance for the future, derived their spelling from the Middle English scribes (a fact that largely accounts for the difficulty of English spelling today). The most important of these changes was that affecting the sound of vowels and diphthongs, with the result that the "continental values" of Middle English were finally replaced by an approximation to modern pronunciation. Lesser changes also occurred in the pronunciation of consonants, though some of these have since been restored by conscious, and often mistaken, attempts to adapt pronunciation more closely to the received spelling.

1.3. Geographical expansion of English in the 17 —20 centuries and its effect on the language

Up to the 17 century the English language was spoken by the people who lived only on the British Isles (at the time of William the Conqueror there were about 2 million people), but even there in the far-away mountainous parts of the country the people preserved their own Celtic

dialects very long into the New English period. Thus in Cornwall the local dialect, Cornish died out in the 18 century. In Wales there arose a tendency to revive the local Celtic language. In 1893 the Welsh University was founded, and in 1961 the number of those speaking Welsh amounted to 650 thousand. In Ireland through centuries a struggle against English was fought. It reached its climax in 1916 with the Irish rebellion. In 1922 the Irish free state was formed and in 1949 the new state — Eire — left the Commonwealth of Nations. Now Eire occupies the whole but the Northern part of Ireland, which is a part of Britain. The number of people rose from 300 thousand to over 600 thousand, but the majority speak English.

The penetration of the English language to other parts of the globe mainly began in the 16th century together with the expansion of British colonialism. The 16 century was an age of great adventurers, and England's progress in the discovery and colonising field was tremendous. The first Virginian colony was founded; Drake circumnavigated the globe; the East India Company was established and English seamen left their mark in many parts of the world. In 1620 the famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America in the region which is now the state of Massachusetts. This marked the beginning of English in the New World.

The 18 century witnessed the coming of English to India, where nowadays the language is widely spread, although its sphere is limited to large cities and a certain social layer, and in today's India English is a state language together with the native languages of Hindi and Urdu.

In the 18 century England conquered Canada. During the 19 century the colonisation of Australia took place. In the 20 century English penetrated into South Africa.

* * *

Now about 300 million people speak English as their national language in various parts of the globe, and many times that — as a second language. To foretell the future of any language, English among them, is of course impossible, but the mere fact of its wide diffusion throughout the world is a guarantee that it will continue to change and develop.

2. Inner history

The speed of the development of the language was lesser than in Middle English. The language developed quickly at the beginning of the period and slowly — at the end (with the exception of the word-stock which develops equally quickly during the whole period). When the literary norm was formed, it, being always very conservative, prevented the change of the language, that is why the speed of the development slowed down.

2.1. Phonetics 2.1.1. The system of stress

In *native* words the stress is fixed and falls on the first root syllable (as in Old English and Middle English). Some of the borrowed words were not fully assimilated phonetically, that is why the stress falls on another syllable, those fully assimilated have the stress on the first root syllable, like in native words.

Native English words are short — they have one or two syllables, that is why it is a norm, a rhythmic tendency of the language to have one stressed syllable and one unstressed one =* in *borrowed* words there developed a system of two stresses.

Sometimes the stress is used to differentiate the words formed from the same root by the process called *conversion* (to pro'duce— 'produce).

2.1.2. Consonants

a) A new [ʒ] was introduced in borrowed words. Otherwise the changes were not so great as in Middle English.

b) Vocalisation of consonants (some consonants in some positions were vocalised — they disappeared, influencing the preceding vowel).

Ex.: [r] disappeared at the end of the words and before consonants changing the quantity of the vowel immediately preceding it:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
for	[for]	[f _{o:}]
form	[form]	[fo:m]

2.1.3. Vowels

a) In the *unstressed* position the vowels that were levelled in Middle English generally disappeared at the end of the words. Some of them were preserved for phonetic reasons only, where the pronunciation without a vowel was impossible.

Compare, for example, the plural forms of nouns:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
~ ^{as}	-es	[z] dogs [s] cats [iz] dresses

b) *All* Middle English long vowels underwent the Great Vowel Shift (in early New English, 15th—18th century). They became more narrow and more front. Some of them remained monophthongs, others developed into diphthongs.

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
he	[he:]	[hi:] e: => i:
name	[na:me]	[neim] a: => ei

2.2. Grammar

In New English it did not change fundamentally. The main changes are the strengthening of analytical features of the language:

a) In many more cases empty grammatical words are used (form-words);

b) Analytical forms of the Middle English are preserved, and in addition to them in New English non-finite analytical forms appear (in Middle English only finite forms could be analytical);

c) A fixed word-order is established.

2.3. Word-stock

The vocabulary is changing quickly. Many new words are formed to express new notions, which are numerous. Ways of enriching the vocabulary:

1. inner means (conversion: hand => to hand);

2. outer means. The sources here are numberless, as the English have not only direct, but also indirect (through books, later — TV, radio, films) contacts with all the world.

In the beginning of the Early New English (15th—16th century) — the epoch of the Renaissance — there are many borrowings from Greek, Italian, Latin.

The 17th century is the period of Restoration =>. borrowings come to the English language from French (a considerable number of these words being brought by Charles II and his court).

In the 17th century the English appear in America => borrowings from the Indians' languages are registered.

In the 18th century the English appear in India => borrowings from this source come to the English language (but these words are not very frequent, for they denote some particular reality of India, ex.: curry).

In the 19th century the English colonisers appear in Australia and New Zealand => new borrowings follow (kangaroo).

At the end of the 19th—beginning of the 20th century the English appear in Africa, coming to the regions formerly colonised by the Dutch => borrowings from Afrikaans and Dutch appear.

Old English and Middle English Russian borrowings are scarce — the contacts between the countries and their peoples were difficult. In New English there are more borrowings: sable (very dark), astrakhan, mammoth; in the 20th century — soviet, kolkhoz, perestroika, etc.

LECTURE 5. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS

List of principal questions:

1. Old English vowels
 - 1.1. Origin of Old English vowel phonemes
 - 1.2. Changes in Old English vowel phonemes
 - 1.2.1. Breaking
 - 1.2.2. Palatal mutation
 - 1.2.3. Effect of palatal mutation upon grammar and word-stock
2. Old English consonants
 - 2.1. Dependence of the quality of the consonant phoneme upon its environment in the word
 - 2.2. Grimm's law, Verner's law

1. Old English vowels

1.0. There were the following vowel phonemes in Old English

<i>monophthongs</i>	<i>diphthongs</i>
a æ e i o u y	ea eo
ā æ ē ī ō ū ŷ	ēa ēo

As we see in Old English there existed an exact parallelism between long vowels and the corresponding short vowels. Not only monophthongs but even diphthongs found their counterparts which differed from them not only in quality but also in quantity. Thus we may say that in the system of vowels both the quality and the quantity of the vowel was phonemic. All the diphthongs were falling diphthongs with the first element stronger than the second, the second element being more open than the first. Examples:

<i>monophthongs</i>	<i>diphthongs</i>
ā — a: stān — daȝas (stone) (days)	ēo — eo: cēosan — heorte (choose) (heart)
ǣ — æ: dǣd — dǣȝ (dead) (day)	ēa — ea: cēas — eald (chose) (old)
ō — o: ȝōd — ȝod (god) (good)	
ī — i: wītan — witen (write) (written)	

1.1. Origin of Old English vowel phonemes

All Old English vowel phonemes can be traced back to Common Germanic vowel phonemes. Old English monophthongs are, as a rule a further development of some Common Germanic monophthongs. For example:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>from Common Germanic</i>
[æ]	[a]
daeȝ (<i>day</i>)	dags
[i]	[i]
bindan (<i>bind</i>)	bindan
[o]	[u]
COren (<i>chosen</i>)	cusans, etc.

Some Old English monophthongs developed from Common Germanic diphthongs:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>from Common Germanic</i>
[a]	[ai]
ras (<i>wrote</i>)	rais

Old English long diphthongs are a result of some further development of Common Germanic diphthongs, though in the course of history *the quality* of the diphthong may have undergone a change:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>from Common Germanic (Gothic)</i>
ceosan (<i>choose</i>)	kiusan
ceas (<i>chose</i>)	kaus

Old English short diphthongs originated from monophthongs:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>from Common Germanic</i>
eald (<i>old</i>)	*ald
heorte (<i>heart</i>)	*herte

1.2. Changes in Old English vowel phonemes

1.2.0. *The changes* that took place in the prehistoric period of the development of the English language and which explain the difference between Old English and Common Germanic vowels were of two types: assimilative changes and independent (non-assimilative) changes.

Independent changes do not depend upon the environment in which the given sound was found. They cannot be explained, but they are merely stated.

<i>Common Germanic</i>		<i>Old English</i>
ai	>	a
a	>	s, etc.

Assimilative changes are explained by the phonetic position of the sound in the word and the change can and must be explained. Among the many phonetic assimilative changes which took place in the prehistoric period of the development of the English language and which account for the discrepancy between the Old English and the Common Germanic vowel system the most important are breaking and palatal mutation.

1.2.. 1. *Breaking*

The process of breaking took place in the 6th century. It affected two vowels — [x] and [e] when they were followed by the consonants [r], [l], [h] generally followed by another consonant.

The resulting vowel was a diphthong (hence the name "breaking" — a monophthong "was broken" into a diphthong), consequently the process may be summed up as diphthongization of short vowels [a] and [e] before certain consonant clusters.

For example:

ae > ea before r+consonant	aerm > earm (<i>ami</i>)
l+consonant	add > eald (<i>old</i>)
h+consonant	aehta > eahta (<i>eight</i>)
h final	sseh > seah (<i>saw</i>)
e > ea before r+consonant	herte > heorte (<i>heart</i>)
lc+consonant	melcan > meolcan (<i>to milk</i>)
lh+consonant	selh > seolh (<i>seal</i>)
h final	feh > feoh (<i>cattle</i>)

1.2.2. *Palatal mutation*

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

Monophthongs

a > e	*strangi ^u > strengpu' (<i>strength</i>)
ae > e	*taelian > tellan (<i>to tell</i>)
a > ae	*halian > haslan (<i>to heal</i>)

o > e *ofstian > efstan (*to hurry*)

1.2.3. Effect of palatal mutation upon grammar and word-stock

Though palatal mutation was a phonetic process it left traces in Old English grammar and word-stock.

Grammar: As a result of the process of palatal mutation there appeared vowel gradation in the system of the declension of nouns (root-stem declension). In the system of adjectives we have vowel gradation in the degrees of comparison, in the system of verbs vowel gradation is found in Old English irregular weak verbs.¹

Word-stock: Palatal mutation resulted in vowel interchange as a word building means.

<i>Adjective</i>	<i>Verb</i>
ful (<i>full</i>)	fyllan (<i>fill</i>)
<i>Noun</i>	<i>Verb</i>
dom (<i>doom</i>)	deman
<i>Verb</i>	<i>Verb</i>
sittan (<i>sit</i>)	settan (<i>set</i>)

2. Old English consonants

2.0. The Old English consonant system consisted of some 14 consonant phonemes denoted by the letters

p, b, m, f, t, d, n, s, r, l, b (9), c, 3, h.

The consonant system in Old English manifested the following peculiarities.

1. The relatively small number of consonant phonemes — only 14 phonemes.

2. The absence of affricates and fricative consonants which we now find in the language such as

[tʃ], [dʒ], [ʃ], [ʒ]

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

If the first two points require no particular explanation, the last point calls for a special comment.

2.1. Dependence of the quality of the consonant phoneme upon its environment in the word

Among the 14 consonant phonemes that existed in Old English there were at least 5 that gave us positional variants which stand rather wide apart.

1. The phonemes denoted by the letters f, ƿ, s are voiced or voiceless depending upon their phonetic position. They are generally voiced in the so-called "intervocal position" that is between vowels and voiceless otherwise.

For example:

hlaf[f] — hlaford[v]
(*bread*) (*lord, originally hldfweard — bread-keeper*)

The system of consonant phonemes that we observe in Old English involves certain peculiarities that are typical of the majority of Germanic dialects which set them (those Germanic dialects and Old English among them) apart from the majority of the Indo-European languages. Those peculiarities were mainly accounted for by two linguists — Jacob Grimm and Karl Verner, hence they are generally referred to as "Grimm's law" (or the first Germanic consonant shift) and "Verner's law"¹.

2.2. Grimm's law & Verner's law

Grimm's law explains the correspondence between certain groups of Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. Those correspondences involve three sets of Germanic consonants, consequently they generally speak of three stages of Grimm's law. But we shall speak here about only one stage which is the simplest to explain and the most consistent — the Germanic consonants [f], [θ], [h] and the corresponding consonants [p], [t] [k] we find in similar phonetic environment.

The essence of this stage of the first Germanic consonant shift is the following:

The voiceless plosive consonants [p], [t], [k] of Indo-European languages other than Germanic shifted in Germanic languages into the voiceless fricative consonants [f], [θ], [h]. It was a non-assimilative change which presumably affected Germanic languages at the beginning of the first millennium AD. Examples:

<i>Russian</i>	<i>Greek</i>	<i>Old English</i>
neHa		fama (<i>foam</i>)
UKXb	.	fIV (<i>five</i>)
TpH		Brie (<i>three</i>)
TbI		JjU (<i>thou</i>)
KpOB, KpOBJIH		hrof (<i>roof</i>)
	kardia	heorte (<i>heart</i>)
	octo	eahta (<i>eight</i>)

It should be noted, however, that these correspondences are not absolutely clear in all the cases. Some more complicated phenomena were formulated in the so-called *Verner's law*.

A careful analysis of Germanic words and the corresponding Indo-European words other than Germanic shows, however, that there are certain words or word-forms in Germanic languages where instead of the expected voiceless fricative consonants we find in Germanic languages voiced *plosive* consonants. These seeming "exceptions" to the rule are a result of the further development of the fricative consonants which appeared in Germanic languages after the first consonant shift.

The essence of this change was explained by Karl Verner — hence its name: Verner's law.

The Germanic voiceless fricative consonants [f], [θ], [h] which appeared due to Grimm's law later became voiced if they were found after unstressed vowels. Compare:

<i>Latin</i>	<i>Old English</i>
pater	faeder (<i>father</i>)

↳9 in accordance with Grimm's law, but as the stress in the word "fasder" in the prehistoric period was on the *second* syllable the voiceless fricative consonant [θ] became voiced [ð]; later the voiced fricative consonant [ð] underwent "hardening" and became [d]. Consequently the whole process of the change may be presented in the following way:

The change referred to as "Verner's law" also affected a fourth consonant — [s] in addition to the three consonants which appeared in the language under Grimm's law, i.e. [f], [θ], [h]. The [s] was also voiced after unstressed vowels — [s] > [z], later the resulting consonant [z] became [r] — the change [z] > [r] is called *rhotacism*. Verner's law explains the appearance of "consonant gradation" in some strong verbs. For instance:

I	II	III	IV
cwedan	cwæd	cwaedon	cweden (<i>say, Strong V</i>)
	ceosan	ceas	curon coren
	(<i>choose, Strong II</i>), etc.		

In Common Germanic the stress in the third and fourth verb-forms originally fell on the *second* syllable, hence the consonant [θ] and the consonant [s] which were originally in the forms cwaidon/cweden and curon/coren became voiced, i.e. *[θ] > [ð] and [s] > [z] — Verner's law, later [ð] > [d] — hardening and [z] > [r] — rhotacism

LECTURE 6. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR. NOMINAL SYSTEM

List of principal questions:

1. General survey of the nominal system
2. The noun
 - 2.1. Gender
 - 2.2. Number
 - 2.3. Case
 - 2.4. Homonymy of forms in Old English and its influence on the further development of noun forms
3. The pronoun
 - 3.1. Personal pronouns
 - 3.2. Other pronouns
4. The adjective
 - 4.1. Declension of adjectives
 - 4.2. Degrees of comparison of adjectives

0. Old English grammar

0. The Old English language was a *synthetic* language which means that all the principal grammatical notions were expressed by a change of the form of the word in the narrow meaning of the term.

The grammatical means that the English language used were primarily a) *suffixation*, b) *vowel gradation* and c) use of *suppletive forms*.

Old English was a highly inflected language. The abundance of inflections resulted from the fact that the paradigm of declension and the paradigm of conjugation were formed by many grammatical categories and there was more than one declension in the system of declension and more than one conjugation in the system of conjugation due to the splitting of the once uniform paradigm in accordance with the original structure of the word.

1. General survey of the nominal system

1.0. There were five declinable parts of speech in Old English¹: the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral, the participle. The nominal paradigm in Old English was characterised by the following grammatical categories (see Table 6.1).

As we can see, the paradigms of different parts of speech had the same number of grammatical categories but these parts of speech were different in the number of categorial forms composing a given grammatical category. Hence the system of forms of each part of speech requires special consideration.

2. The noun

2.0. The Old English noun paradigm was composed by the following grammatical categories: gender, number, case.

2.1. Gender

The category of gender was formed by the opposition of three gender-forms: masculine, feminine and neuter. All nouns, no matter whether they denoted living beings, inanimate things or abstract notions belonged to one of the three genders.

The subdivision of Old English nouns in accordance with their grammatical gender is traditional, the correspondence between the *meaning* of the word and its *grammatical gender* being hard to trace.

Some nouns denoting animals were also treated as neuter, such as *cicen* (*chicken*), *hors* (*horse*), etc.

The grammatical gender did not always coincide with the natural gender of the person and sometimes even contradicted it (thus, for instance, the noun *wif man* (*woman*) was declined as masculine).

2.3. Case

The Old English noun formed its paradigm by the opposition of three genders, two numbers and four cases. Thus, presumably, the noun had twenty-four word-forms.

On the whole the same could be observed in Common Germanic. In the course of the development of Old English, however, the original paradigm had undergone great changes due to the fusion of the original stem suffix and the original grammatical ending into one element which from the point of view of Old English is to be regarded as a grammatical ending. As a result of that fusion nouns that are known to have had *different stem-suffixes* originally in Old English acquired materially *different endings* in the same case, for example:

Nominative plural

<u>a-stem</u>	<u>o-stem</u>	<u>n-stem</u>
stan-as (<i>stones</i>)	car-a (<i>cares</i>)	nam-an (<i>names</i>), etc.

The original stem suffixes were formed both by vowels and by consonants. Thus there were two respective principal groups of declensions in Old English: the vowel declension ("strong" declension) and the consonant declension ("weak" declension).

The vowel (strong) declension comprises four principal paradigms: the a-stem, the o-stem, the u-stem and the i-stem paradigm.

The consonant declension comprises nouns with, the stem originally ending in -n, -r, -s and some other consonants.

In rare cases, however, the new form is constructed by adding the ending directly to the root. It is these words that formed the so-called root-stem declension.

The n-stem was the most important among all the consonant stem declensions. This class of nouns was composed of common words. The group was very extensive in Old English and like the a-stem declension it exhibited a tendency to spread its forms over other declensions.

The original stem-suffix -n may be observed in the majority of case forms, but very often the grammatical ending had been dropped in the pre-written period; this phenomenon gave rise to a well-marked homonymy of the noun forms of the declension. Five case forms of the masculine and the feminine genders — all the Singular with the exception of the Nominative and the Nominative and the Accusative plural are homonymous, in case of neuter nouns only four forms are homonymous, as the Accusative case of neuter nouns is homonymous to the Nominative.

Gender oppositions in this declension are also not distinct, the masculine nouns being different from the feminine only in the Nominative Singular and from the neuter — in the Nominative and the Accusative Singular.

Declension of root-stem nouns

Root-stems require special consideration. This class was not extensive and stood apart among other Old English nouns due to peculiarities of form-building which was partly retained in Modern English.

Unlike other classes the root-stem nouns such as **man** (*man, masculine*), **mus** (*mouse, feminine*) originally had no stem-suffix and the grammatical ending was added directly to the root. As a result of that in the Dative Singular and the Nominative and the Accusative Plural the root-vowel had undergone palatal mutation due to the [i]-sound in the grammatical ending of these forms. Later the ending was dropped and vowel interchange remained the only means of differentiating the given forms in the paradigm.¹ The endings of the rest of the forms are built up on analogy with those of the a-stems, hence the difference between genders can be observed only in the Genitive Singular — -es for the masculine, -e for the feminine.

2.4. Homonymy of forms in Old English and its influence on the further development of noun forms

In the prehistoric period of the development of the English language each case had an ending typical of its uninflected form. In the course of the development of the English language, however, due to various semantic and phonetic changes different cases began to develop similar endings within one and the same paradigm; this phenomenon gave rise to the well-marked homonymy of case-forms in English. The reference table given below shows the principal noun suffixes in Old English. The table serves to prove that the twenty-four word-forms which built up the noun paradigm had but nine materially different endings. The most distinct among them are:

- es — genitive singular, masculine and neuter
- a/ena** — genitive plural, all genders
- um** — dative plural, all genders
- as** — nominative and accusative plural, masculine.

As for the rest of the forms their mutual homonymy is considerable. For example, nouns with the stem originally ending in -a show gender differences only in the plural, all the forms in the singular but the nominative being homonymous, irrespective of gender and case differences.

The existence of different endings of nouns grammatically alike and homonymous endings of nouns grammatically different testifies to a certain inadequacy of the morphological devices

of the Old English noun to show the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence and a need for the development of new means to denote the grammatical meanings formerly denoted morphologically.

3. The pronoun

0. The following classes of pronouns were to be observed in Old English: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative and indefinite pronouns.

The system of declension of the pronoun was not the same for all the classes. It has at least two subsystems that should be singled out: the declension of personal pronouns on the one hand and the declension of other pronouns. Although the grammatical categories of each subsystem were the same, i. e. gender, number, case, the number of the categorial forms composing those categories was different.

3.1. The personal pronoun

¹ The Old English personal pronoun similar to the Old English noun had the grammatical categories of gender, number and case.

Gender

Three genders could be distinguished in the pronominal paradigm: masculine, feminine and neuter, but different forms for different genders were found only in the third person singular, the rest of the forms being indifferent to gender.

Masculine Feminine Neuter

Nom. Singular	he (<i>he</i>)	heo (<i>she</i>)	hit (<i>it</i>)
[∴ Nom. Plural	"~~~~~^ hT (<i>they</i>)^		

Number

! The category of number differs from that of the noun as in the first and second person we find three categorial forms: singular, dual and plural, for instance:

Singular	Dual	Plural
Ic (<i>I</i>)	wit (<i>two of us</i>)	we (<i>we</i>)

Case

The category of case is built up by the opposition of four categorial forms, similar to those of the noun: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative.

The table below may serve as an example of the declension of personal pronouns.

Unlike the Old English noun, the paradigm of which was composed of forms that mainly differed in the ending, the paradigm of the Old English personal pronouns is built up by suppletive forms and the homonymity of pronominal forms is not great. We find it only in the Dative and the Accusative cases.

3.2. Other pronouns

All Old English pronouns with the exception of personal pronouns were declined almost alike. They expressed the | grammatical categories of gender (three forms: masculine, ⁴ feminine and neuter), number (two forms: singular and plural) and case, which was built up by five categorial forms: the Nominative, the Accusative, the Dative, the Genitive and the

4. The adjective

4.1. Declension of adjectives

The paradigm of the adjective is similar to that of the noun and the pronoun, i.e. it comprises Gender, Number, Case.

The grammatical category of case was built up by five forms: the Nominative, the Accusative, the Dative, the Genitive and the Instrumental.

There were two ways of declining Adjectives — the Definite and the Indefinite declension. The adjective followed the Definite declension mainly if the noun if modified had another attribute — a demonstrative pronoun, and they were declined as Indefinite otherwise.

The grammatical suffixes — forms of cases mainly coincided with those of nouns with the stem originally ending in a vowel or -n, yet in some cases we find pronominal suffixes. For example, in the Genitive Plural, in the Dative singular, etc.

4.2. Degrees of comparison

The Adjective in Old English changed its forms not only to show the *relation* of the given adjective to other words in the sentence which was expressed by the gender, number and case of the adjective, but also to show the *degree* of the quality denoted by the adjective, i.e., the forms of the adjective in Old English could express degrees of comparison.

The degrees of comparison were expressed, the same as all other grammatical notions, synthetically, namely:

a) by means of *suffixation*:

heard — heardra — heardost (*hard*)

b) by means of *vowel gradation plus suffixation*:

eald — ieldra — ieldest (*old*)

c) by means of *suppletive forms*

36d — bettra — betst (*good*),

the first means being unquestionably the most common.

Both suffixation and the use of suppletive forms in the formation of the degrees of comparison are original means that can be traced back to Common Germanic. But the use of vowel interchange is a feature which is typical of the English language only and was acquired by the language in the prehistoric period of its development.

The origin of vowel gradation in the forms

eald — ieldra — ieldest

is a result of the process of palatal mutation which the root-vowel ea underwent under the influence of the original stem-forming suffix -i, i.e.

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
<i>degree</i>	<i>degree</i>	<i>degree</i>
eald	ieldra	ieldest
	*ealdira	*ealdist
	ealdira > ieldra	ealdist > ieldest

A similar case is observed with **strong** (*strong*), **long** (*long*),_y etc.

LECTURE 7.

OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE VERBAL SYSTEM

List of principal questions:

1. General survey of finite and non-finite forms of the verb
2. Grammatical categories of the finite forms of the verb
 - 2.1. Person
 - 2.2. Number
 - 2.3. Tense
 - 2.4. Mood
3. Morphological classification of verbs
 - 3.1. Strong verbs
 - 3.2. Weak verbs
 - 3.3. Irregular verbs

1. General survey of finite and non-finite forms of the verb

The verb-system in Old English was represented by two sets of forms: the finite forms of the verb and the non-finite forms of the verb, or verbals (Infinitive, Participle). Those two types of forms — the finite and the non-finite — differed more than they do today from the point of view of their respective grammatical categories, as the verbals at that historical period were *not conjugated* like the verb proper, but were *declined* like nouns or adjectives. Thus the infinitive could have two case-forms which may conventionally be called the "Common" case and the "Dative" case.

Common case

Dative case

writan (*to write*)

to writenne (*so that I shall write*)

cepan (*to keep*)

to cepenne (*so that I shall keep*)

drincan (*to drink*)

to drincenne (*so that I shall drink*)

The so-called Common case form of the Infinitive was widely used in different syntactical functions, the Dative case was used on a limited scale and mainly when the Infinitive functioned as an adverbial modifier of purpose, i.e.

Ic 3 a to drincenne (*I go to drink*)

The participle had a well-developed system of forms, the declension of the Participle resembling greatly the declension of adjectives. The one typically "verbal" grammatical category of the participle was the category of tense, for example:

Present tense

Past tense

writende

writen

cepende

cept

drincende druncen

2. Grammatical categories of the finite forms of the verb

As we have already said the system of conjugation mainly embraced the finite forms of the verb as the non-finite forms were not conjugated but declined. The system of conjugation of the Old English verb was built up by four grammatical categories, those of person, number, tense and mood.

2.1. Person

There were three person forms in Old English: first, second and third. For example:

First person — Ic write
Second person — pu writes
Third person — he wrltes

But we have distinct person forms only in the Indicative mood, the Imperative and the Oblique mood forms reflecting no person differences and even the Indicative mood forms changing for person only in the Singular, the plural forms being the same irrespective of person, for example:

	<i>Present tense Indicative</i>	<i>Past tense Indicative</i>
we	1 writa	1 writon
•^e	1 writas	1 writon
hie	1 writas	1 writon

2.2. Number

The grammatical category of number was built up by the opposition of two number forms — Singular and Plural

Ic write (*singular*) we writa (*plural*)

2.3. Tense

The grammatical category of tense was represented by two forms: Present tense and Past tense, for example:

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
<i>Indicative</i>	Ic write	Ic wrat
<i>Oblique</i>	Ic write	Ic write

There was no Future tense in Old English, future events were expressed with the help of a present tense verb + an adverb denoting futurity or by a combination of a modal verb (generally *sculan* (*shall*) or *willan* (*will*) + an Infinitive, for example:

Wille ic asec3an maerum peodne min aende (*I want to tell the glorious prince my mission*)

2.4. Mood

There were three mood forms in Old English: Indicative, Imperative and Oblique, for example:

<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Imperative</i>	<i>Oblique</i>
pu cepst	cep	cepe

The Indicative Mood and the Imperative Mood were used in cases similar to those in which they are used now. But the Oblique mood in Old English differed greatly from the corresponding mood in New English. There was only one mood form in Old English that was used both to express events that are thought of as unreal or as problematic — today there are two mood forms to denote those two different kinds of events, conventionally called the Subjunctive and the Conjunctive.

The forms of the Oblique Mood were also sometimes used in contexts for which now the Indicative mood would be more suitable — to present events in the so-called "Indirect speech":

He saede past land sie swiþe lan3- (*He said that that land is very long/large*).

3. Morphological classification of verbs

All Old English verbs may be subdivided into a number of groups in accordance with the grammatical means with the help of which they built their principal stems.

There were two principal means for forming verb-stems in Old English: (1) by means of vowel interchange of the root vowel and (2) by means of suffixation.

In accordance with these two methods of the formation of the verb-stems all the verbs in Old English formed two main groups — the strong verbs and the weak verbs. There were other means of the formation of verb-stems in Old English as well, but the number of verbs belonging to those groups was not large.

A.I. Smirnitsky suggested the following morphological classification of verbs in Old English.

Table 7-1. Morphological classification of Old English verbs

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

3.1. Strong verbs

The strong verbs are verbs which use vowel-interchange as the principal means of expressing different grammatical categories. They differ from weak ones not only in the manner of the building of their forms but also in the number of these principal forms. The strong verbs have four principal forms, the weak ones — three principal forms.

These terms "strong" and "weak" were introduced into the science of philology by the famous German linguist Jacob Grimm who considered strong verbs to be of "a more noble nature" as compared with weak verbs, because strong verbs conjugated by means of vowel interchange better reflected the prehistoric "golden age" of the language.

This vowel interchange, or "ablaut", which was the principal grammatical means in the conjugation of the Old English strong verbs was of two kinds: qualitative and quantitative.

The first five classes are mainly based on the qualitative ablaut; the sixth class — on the quantitative ablaut; verbs of the seventh class originally formed their principal forms by means of the so-called reduplication of the root syllable, but in the course of the development of the language that means was obliterated.

The Old English qualitative ablaut is akin to the Common Germanic ablaut and even Indo-European ablaut — its essence, as we remember, is the use of the gradation series consisting of a front vowel, back vowel and zero.

e — o — 0 i — a — 0

In Russian, for instance, they use two grades of the series: e/zero to form the category of tense:

Present tense *Past tense*
e — 6epy 0 — 6paji

Classes of the strong verbs

There were seven principal gradation series in Old English and there were seven classes of the strong verbs — from I to VII.

As we have already said, the seventh class of the strong verbs stands apart from the rest of the classes, because it was the only class formed by verbs which originally used reduplication of the root-vowel as their principal grammatical means; the sixth class of the strong verbs shows a peculiarity that is also typical only of one class within the system of the strong verbs — original quantitative gradation; the rest of the classes — from I to VII — are characterised by a certain similarity in their original grammatical means as all of them originally used the same type of qualitative ablaut, i.e. the interchange of a front vowel — back vowel — zero in the form of

i — a — 0.

The difference in the gradation series of each of the classes within the first five was mainly due to the splitting of that one gradation into variants under the influence of the vowel or the consonant of the stem that followed the vowel of gradation.

Thus in the first class of the strong verbs the vowel of gradation was followed by the vowel -i, in the second — by the vowel -u, in the third, fourth and fifth — by a sonorous consonant + another consonant, by one sonorous consonant or by a noise consonant, respectively.

The root of the verbs of the sixth class consisted only of consonants, and the purely quantitative vowel, interchange of prehistoric times developed into a quantitative and qualitative one. The verbs of the seventh class show traces of the original reduplication (addition of an extra syllable including the initial consonant of the infinitive and having the vowels -e- or -eo- in the past singular and plural)¹.

The original structure of the verb is still quite clear in the Gothic language. In table 7-3 below the bold type vowel in the Gothic verb is the vowel of gradation. As is seen from the examples, in the third and second forms of the verb there was no vowel of gradation — the zero grade of gradation.

3.2. *Weak verbs*

The Old English weak verbs are relatively younger than the strong verbs. They reflect a later stage in the development of Germanic languages.

They were an open class in Old English, as new verbs that entered the language generally formed their forms on analogy with the weak verbs.

Whereas the strong verbs used vowel-interchange as a means of differentiation among principal verb stems, the weak verbs used for that purpose suffixation, namely, suffixes -t or -d. For example:

cepan — cepte — cept (*keep*)

The strong verbs, as we remember, were "root-stem" verbs, i.e. they did not have any stem-forming suffix following the root, but they added their grammatical endings to the root directly. The weak verbs, however, had a stem-forming suffix that followed the root and preceded the grammatical ending. By way of an example we may use a Gothic verb where that original stem-forming suffix is better preserved than in English.

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
<i>Singular</i>		
I class haus-j-an (<i>hear</i>)	haus-i-d-a	haus-i-bs

Classes of the weak verbs

In accordance with the character of the stem-suffix the weak verbs are subdivided into three classes.

If the English strong verbs had four principal forms, the English weak verbs had three principal forms.

3.3. Irregular verbs

Regularity means conformity with some unique principle or pattern. It does not require any exact material marker. That is why it is said that most verbs in Old English were regular. In their conjugation they followed one of the patterns typical of this or that class of strong or weak verbs. However, there were also a few irregular verbs, conjugated in some specific way.

Irregular weak verbs

The majority of the weak verbs belonging to the 1st and 2nd classes were regular. The weak verbs of the 3rd class are considered to be irregular, because the class consists of only three verbs, following their own individual patterns of form-building. However, among the 1st class there were also some irregular verbs. This irregularity was inherent, but it was manifested in pre-historic times and in Old English differently. Here we may speak of such verbs as

tellan — talde — tald (*to tell*)

sellan — salde — said (*to sell*)

The sign of irregularity of the weak verbs in Old English was vowel interchange, a feature not typical of this group of verbs. The cause of it was the original absence of the stem-forming suffix -i- in Past Singular and Past Participle:

* talian — talde — tald

Under the influence of -i- only the form of the infinitive could change during the process of palatal mutation:

* talian > tellan;

the other two remaining unchanged, and as a result the verb acquired vowel interchange.

Irregular strong verbs

There was a group of strong verbs which in the pre-written period lost some of their forms and preserved the others, changing their lexical and grammatical meaning. Forms historically past changed so as to become present in meaning. These verbs are called preterite-present, for in the written period they build their present tense forms from the original past (preterite) ones. The new past tense forms of these verbs in Old English are built with the help of dental suffixation, like weak verbs. The majority of preterite-present verbs are defective verbs — they do not have all the forms of regular verbs, which lost their connection with the other forms and were dropped.

The group of Old English preterite-present verbs includes, among others, the following:

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Present Participle II</i>	<i>Participle II</i>
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Past Singular</i>
	<i>r</i>		
a3an	33	cunno	ahte
cunnan	cann	n	cude
			scolde
			meahte —
	moste		—
	mot		
	moton		

The Old English forms of preterite-present verbs correspond to the following pre-written forms of the verb:

<i>Pro-</i>	Infinitiv	Past Singular IT	Past Plural li		Participle II
<i>Written</i>	Infinitiv	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past Singular	Participle II

Preterite-present verbs were further to develop in a number of different ways.

The verb **33311** later developed into several words: ^x

— the infinitive *a^{an}* as a result of phonetic changes gave the New English verb **owe** with the past tense/participle II form *owed* built according to the pattern of weak verbs;

— the past participle **a3en** gave the New English adjective *own* from which there was later formed the regular verb **own** — *owned* — *owned*;

— the past tense singular **ahte** developed into the modern modal verb **ought**.

The verb **cunnan** lost its infinitive. The form **can** began to be used for the present, the past tense form acquired the dental suffix *-d*, in Middle English began to be spelled with *-ou-* instead of *-u-*, and later acquired the letter *-l-* on analogy with such verbs as **should** and **would**.

The verb **ma3an** also lost its infinitive and participle I, using the form of *mae3* for its present, and the former **meahte** gave us the present-day **might**.

The verb **mot** has preserved but one form — **must** — which goes back to its past tense form **moste** and is understood as a present tense form — it is an example of a second change of its meaning, when the new past form came to be understood as the present tense one.

The verb **sculan**, similar to other verbs of this group, lost its infinitive, using the form **sceal** for the present, and the former *sceolde* was to develop into **should**, both verbs nowadays being used as modal or auxiliary.

Suppletive verbs

Suppletion, as we know, is one of the oldest means of form-building. All Indo-European languages, and English among them, have suppletive verbs — those building different forms from different roots. Each of them is a class in itself. Among such ^yerbs we may mention the following:

beon — *wesan* (*be*)
 3an — *eode* (*go*)
 don — *dyde* (*do*)

The first verb of each of the pairs above is the root for the Present tense forms, the second— for the past.

A similar phenomenon is observed in German: *sein* — *war* — *ich bin*, Russian: *6brn>* — *ecTb*, *njiy* — *inueji*, Latin: *sum* — *fui*, French: *aller* — *je vais* — *j'irai*. In fact, the forms of the verb corresponding to the present-day *be* are derived from three different roots: *wes-*, *es-* and *be-* (for a complete paradigm of the verbs *beon/wesan* and *jan/eode* see table 7-7 on the next page).

LECTURE 8 CHANGES IN THE PHONETIC

SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH AND NEW ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. Changes in the phonetic system in Middle English J
 - 1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position
 - 1.2. Vowels under stress
 - 1.2.1. Qualitative changes
 - 1.2.2. Quantitative changes
 - 1.3. Consonants
2. Changes in the phonetic system in New English
 - 2.1. Vowels in the unstressed position
 - 2.2. Vowels under stress
 - 2.2.1. Qualitative changes
 - 2.2.2. Quantitative changes
 - 2.3. Consonants
3. Changes in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English

1. Changes in the phonetic system in Middle English

1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position

All vowels in the unstressed position underwent a qualitative change and became the vowel of the type of [a] or [e] unstressed. This phonetic change had a far-reaching effect upon the system of the grammatical endings of the English words which now due to the process of reduction became homonymous. For example:

—*forms of strong verbs*

Old English writan — wrāt — wriƿon — wriƿen with the suffixes -an, -on, -en different only in the vowel component became homonymous in Middle English:

wriƿen — wrƿt — wriƿen — wriƿen —*forms of nouns*

Old English Nominative Plural a-stem fiscaƿ

Genitive Singular fisces

Middle English for both the forms is fisces;

or

Old English Dative Singular fisce

Genitive Plural fisca

Middle English form in both cases is fisce.

1.2. Vowels under stress

1.2.1. Qualitative changes— Changes of monophthongs

Three long monophthongs underwent changes in Middle English:

2. Changes in the phonetic system in New English

2.1. Vowels in the unstressed position

Vowels in the unstressed position already reduced in Middle English to the vowel of the [a] type are dropped in New English if they are found in the endings of words, for example:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>	
nama	name	name	[neim]
wrltan	writen	write	[rait]
sunu	sone	son	[sAn]

The vowel in the endings is sometimes preserved — mainly for phonetic reason:

wanted, dresses

— without the intermediate vowel it would be very difficult to pronounce the endings of such words.

2.2. Vowels under stress 2.2.1. Qualitative changes —

Changes of monophthongs

All long monophthongs in New English (XV—XVII century) underwent a change that is called *The Great Vowel Shift*.

Due to this change the vowels became more narrow and more front. Thus:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>	,
[a] > [ei]	make	make	
[e] > [i:]	see	see	
[p] > [ou]	ston	stone	
[o] > [u:]	roote	root	
	moon	moon	

Two long close vowels: [ii] and [I] at first also became more narrow and gave diphthongs of the [uw] or [ij] type. But those diphthongs were unstable because of the similarity between the glide and the nucleus.

Consequently the process of the dissimilation of the elements of the new diphthongs took place and eventually the vowels [I] and [u] gave us the diphthongs [ai] and [au], respectively. For instance:

Middle English New English

[u] > [au]	hous	house
[T] > [ai]	time	time

Influence of the consonant "r" upon the Great Vowel Shift

When a long vowel was followed in a word by the consonant "r" the given consonant did not prevent the Great Vowel Shift, but the resulting vowel is more open, than the resulting vowel in such cases when the long vowel undergoing the Shift was followed by a consonant other than "r".

2.2.2. Quantitative changes

Among many cases of quantitative changes of vowels in New English one should pay particular attention to the lengthening of the vowel, when it was followed by the consonant [r]. Short vowels followed by the consonant [r] became long after the disappearance of the given consonant at the end of the word or before another consonant:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
[a] > [a:]	farm	farm
[o] > [o:l]	hors	horse

When the consonant [r] stood after the vowels [e], [i], [u], the resulting vowel was different from the initial vowel not only in quantity but also in quality.

2.3. Consonants

The changes that affected consonants in New English are not very numerous. They are as follows.

1) Appearance of a new consonant in the system of English phonemes — [ʒ] and the development of the consonants [dʒ] and [tʃ] from palatal consonants.

Thus Middle English [sj], [zj], [tj], [dj] gave in New English the sounds [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]. For example:

[^s ʃ] > III	Asia, ocean
[^z ʒ] > [ʒ]	measure, treasure
W > [tʃ]	nature, culture, century
[dj] > [dʒ]	soldier

Note should be taken that the above-mentioned change took place in *borrowed* words, whereas the sounds [tʃ], [dʒ], [ʃ] which appeared in Middle English developed in *native* words.

2. Certain consonants disappeared at the end of the word or before another consonant, the most important change of the kind affecting the consonant [r]:

farm, form, horse, etc. (see above, quantitative changes of vowels).

3. The fricative consonants [s], [ʒ] and [f] were voiced after unstressed vowels or in words having no sentence stress — the so-called "Verner's Law in New English":

possess, observe, exhibition; dogs, cats; the, this, that,
> there, then, though, etc.

3. Changes in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English

As we remember, the Old English spelling system was mainly phonetic.¹ However, the 13th and 14th centuries witnessed many changes in the English language, including its alphabet and spelling. As a result of these modifications the written form of the word became much closer to what we have nowadays.

In Middle English the former Anglo-Saxon spelling tradition was replaced by that of the Norman scribes reflecting the influence of French and often mixing purely phonetic spelling with French spelling habits and traditions inherited from Old English. The scribes substituted the so-called "continental variant" of the Latin alphabet for the old "insular writing". Some letters came into disuse, replaced by new means of expressing the sounds formerly denoted by them — thus the letters b ("thorn") and p ("wen"), being of runic origin, unknown to the Norman scribes,

disappeared altogether. Some letters, already existing in Old English but being not very frequent there, expanded their sphere of use — like the letter k. New letters were added — among them j, w, v and z. Many digraphs — combinations of letters to denote one sound, both vowel and consonant — appeared, mostly following the pattern of the French language.

The following letters disappeared:

5, p [3/6]	replaced by th:	bat — that
3 [g> j]	g	3 ^o d — god
	or y	3ear — year
ae [e]	e	lsetan — leten (<i>let</i>)
p [w]	w	

The *New English period* witnessed the establishment of the literary norm presupposing a stable system of spelling. However, the spelling finally fixed in the norm was influenced by many factors, objective and subjective in character, preserving separate elements of different epochs and showing traces of attempts to improve or rationalise it.

In New English with the revival of learning in the 16th century a new principle of spelling was introduced, later to be called etymological. It was believed that, whatever the pronunciation, the spelling should represent *to the eye* the form from which the word was derived, especially in words of Latin or Greek origin. Thus, the word **dett** borrowed from French **dette** was respelled as **debt**, for it could be traced to Latin **debitum**, **dout** borrowed from French **douter** — as **doubt** from Latin **dubitare**.

However, the level of learning at that age was far from perfect, and many of the so-called etymological spellings were wrong. Here it is possible to mention such words as:

LECTURE 9. CHANGES IN THE NOMINAL SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH AND NEW ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. General survey of grammar changes in Middle and New English.
2. The noun
 - 2.1. Middle English
 - 2.1.1. Morphological classification
 - 2.1.2. Grammatical categories
 - 2.2. New English
 - 2.2.1. Morphological classification
 - 2.2.1.1. Origin of irregular noun forms
 - 2.2.1.2. Grammatical categories
3. The adjective
4. The pronoun
5. The article

1. General survey of grammar changes in Middle and New English

The grammar system of the language in the Middle and New English periods underwent radical changes. As we remember, the principal means of expressing grammatical relations in Old English were the following:

- suffixation
- vowel interchange
- use of suppletive forms,

all these means being *synthetic*.

In Middle English and New English many grammatical notions formerly expressed synthetically either disappeared from the grammar system of the language or came to be expressed by *analytical means*. There developed the use of analytical forms consisting of a form word and a notional word, and also word order, special use of prepositions, etc. — analytical means.

In Middle English and New English we observe the process of the gradual loss of declension by many parts of speech, formerly declined. Thus in Middle English there remained only three declinable parts of speech: the noun, the pronoun and the adjective, against five existing in Old English (the above plus the infinitive and the participle). In New English the noun and the pronoun (mainly personal) are the only parts of speech that are declined.

2. The noun

2.1. Middle English 1.1.1. Morphological classification

In Old English there were three principal types of declensions: a-j stem, n-stem and root-stem declension, and also minor declensions i-stem, u-stem and others. These types are preserved in Middle English, but the number of nouns belonging to the same declension in Old English and Middle English varies. The n-stem declension though preserved as a type has lost many of the nouns belonging to it while the original a-stem declension grows in volume, acquiring new words from the original n-stem, root-stem declensions, and also different groups of minor declensions and also borrowed words. For example:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
<i>a-stem singular stan (stone)</i>	<i>singular stpn</i>
<i>plural stanas</i>	<i>plural stpnes</i>
<i>n-stem singular nama (name)</i>	<i>singular name</i>
<i>plural namen</i>	<i>plural namen</i>
<i>root-stem singular boc (book)</i>	<i>singular book</i>
<i>plural bee</i>	<i>plural book.es</i>
	<i>Borrowed singular corage (courage)</i>
	<i>plural corages</i>

2.1.2. Grammatical categories

There are only two grammatical categories in the declension of nouns against three in Old English: number and case, the category of gender having been lost at the beginning of the Middle English period.

Number

There are two number forms in Middle English: Singular and Plural. For example:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
<i>Singular</i>	

fisc	fish
stan	stpn
nama	name
fiscas	fishes
stanas	stones
naman	names

Case

The number of cases in Middle English is reduced as compared to Old English. There are only two cases in Middle English: Common and Genitive, the Old English Nominative, Accusative and Dative case having fused into one case — the Common case at the beginning of Middle English.

For example:

	Old English	Middle English
<i>Nominative</i>	stan nama I	
<i>Accusative</i>	stan naman r	→ <i>Common case</i> stpn name
<i>Dative</i>	stane naman J	
<i>Genitive</i>	stanes naman	⇒ <i>Genitive case</i> stpnes names

Thus we see that the complicated noun paradigm that existed in Old English was greatly **simplified** in Middle English, which is reflected in the following:

- 1) reduction of the number of declensions;
- 2) reduction of the number of grammatical categories;
- 3) reduction of the number of categorial forms within one of the two remaining grammatical categories — the category of case.

2.2. New English

The process of the simplification of the system of noun declension! that was manifest in Middle English continued at the beginning of the] New English period.

2.2.1. Morphological classification

In Old English we could speak of many types of consonant and vowel declensions, the a-, n- and root-stem being principal among them. In Middle English we observe only these three declensions:

a-stem, n-stem, root-stem. In New English we do not find different declensions, as the overwhelming majority of nouns is declined in accordance with the original a-stem declension masculine, the endings of the plural form **-es** and the Possessive **-s** being traced to the endings of the original a-stem declension masculine, i.e.:

Old English	Middle English
<i>Nominative & Accusative</i>	<i>Common Plural</i>
<i>Plural ending</i>	<i>ending</i>
-as	-es
<i>Genitive Singular</i>	<i>Genitive Singular</i>
<i>ending</i>	<i>ending</i>
-es	-s

Of the original n-stem and root-stem declensions we have in New English but isolated forms, generally referred to in modern grammar books as exceptions, or irregular noun forms.

2.2.2. *Origin of modern irregular noun forms*

All modern irregular noun forms can be subdivided into several groups according to their origin:

a) nouns going back to the original a-stem declension, neuter gender, which had no ending in the nominative and accusative plural even in Old English, such as:

sheep — sheep (OE *sceap* — *sceap*) • **deer — deer** (OE *deor* — *deor*)

b) some nouns of the n-stem declension preserving their plural form, such as:

ox — oxen (OE *oxa* — *oxan*), c) the original s-stem declension word i

child — children (Old English *cild* — *cildru*)

In Middle English the final vowel was neutralised and the ending -n added on analogy with the nouns of the original n-stem declension. This shows that the power of the n-stem declension was at the time still relatively strong.

d) remnants of the original root-stem declension, such as:

foot — feet (OE *foet* — *fet*) **tooth — teeth** (OE *t63* — *ted*)

e) "foreign plurals" — words borrowed in Early New English from Latin. These words were borrowed by learned people from scientific books who alone used them, trying to preserve their original form and not attempting to adapt them to their native language. Among such words a-c:

datum — *data*, *automaton* — *automata*, *axis* — *axes*, etc.

It should be noted that when in the course of further history these words entered the language of the whole people, they tended to add regular plural endings, which gave rise to such doublets as:

molecula — *moleculae* *and* *moleculas*, *formula* — *formulae* *and*
formulas, *antenna* — *antennae* *and* *antennas*,

the irregular form being reserved for the scientific style. 2.2.3. *Grammatical*

categories

The category of gender is formal, traditional already in Old English; in Middle English and New English nouns have no category of gender.

The category of number is preserved, manifesting the difference between singular and plural forms.

The category of case, which underwent reduction first to three and then to two forms, in New English contains the same number of case-forms as in Middle English, but the difference is the number of the nouns used in the Genitive (or Possessive) case — mainly living beings, and the meaning — mainly the quality or the person who possesses something.

the boy's book
a women's magazine
a two miles' walk

yj Inanimate nouns are not so common:

the river's bank
the razor's edge

In Modern English, however, we observe a gradual spreading of the ending -s of the Possessive case to nouns denoting inanimate things, especially certain geographical notions, such cases as "England's prime minister" being the norm, especially in political style.

3. The adjective

Only two grammatical phenomena that were reflected in the adjectival paradigm in Old English are preserved in Middle English: declension and the category of number.

The difference between the Indefinite (strong) and the Definite (weak) declension is shown by the zero ending for the former and the ending -e for the latter, but only in the Singular. The forms of the Definite and the Indefinite declension in the Plural have similar endings.

For instance:

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	a yong squier	
<i>Definite</i>	the yonge sonne	^ *

The difference between number forms is manifest only in the Indefinite (strong) declension, where there is no ending in the Singular but the ending -e in the Plural.

In New English what remained of the declension in Middle English disappeared completely and now we have the uninflected form for the adjective used for all purposes for which in Old English there existed a complicated adjectival paradigm with two number-forms, five case-forms, three gender-forms and two declensions.

As we have seen above, all grammatical categories and declensions in Middle and New English disappeared. Contrary to that degrees of comparison of the adjective were not only preserved but also developed in Middle and New English. For example:

However, we may not speak of any category if it is not represented by an opposition of at least two units. Such opposition arose only in Middle English, when the indefinite article **an** appeared.

The form of the definite article **the** can be traced back to the Old English demonstrative pronoun *se* (*that, masculine, singular*), which in the course of history came to be used on analogy with the forms of the same pronoun having the initial consonant [θ] and began to be used with all nouns, irrespective of their gender or number.

The indefinite article developed from the Old English numeral **an**. In Middle English **an** split into two words: the indefinite pronoun **an**, losing a separate stress and undergoing reduction of its vowel, and the numeral **one**, remaining stressed as any other notional word. Later the indefinite pronoun **an** grew into the indefinite article **a/an**, and together with the definite article **the** formed a new grammatical category — the category of determination, or the category of *article*.

LECTURE 10. CHANGES IN THE VERBAL SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH AND NEW ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. Non-finite forms (verbals)
2. Morphological classification of verbs in Middle English and New English
 - 2.1. Strong verbs
 - 2.1.1. Classes of the strong verbs
 - 2.1.2. Principal forms of the strong verbs

- 2.2. Weak verbs
 - 2.2.1. Classes of the weak verbs
 - 2.2.2. Principal forms of the weak verbs
- 2.3. Origin of modern irregular verbs
- 3. Grammatical categories of the English verb

1. Non-finite forms (verbals)

A comparison of the verbals in Old English and in Middle and New English shows that the number of verbals in Old English was less than that in Middle and New English. At the end of the Middle English period a new verbal developed — the Gerund, in addition to the Infinitive and the Participle existing already in Old English. The Gerund appeared as a result of a blend between the Old English Present Participle ending in '-ende' and the Old English Verbal noun ending in '-inge'. From the Verbal noun the Gerund acquired the form (the ending '-ing(e)'), but under the influence of the Participle it became more "verbal" in meaning.

In the process of English history the Verbals are gradually shifting from the system of declension into the system of conjugation. Thus in Old English the verbals existing at the time: the infinitive and the participle *could be declined* (see above, Old English). In the course of history the Infinitive (already at the end of the Old English period) and the Participle (in Middle English) lost their declension. And at the end of the Middle English and in New English they acquired elements of conjugation — the grammatical categories of order, voice and aspect (the infinitive) and the grammatical categories of order and voice (the participle and the gerund). The Old English preposition to preceding the Dative case of the infinitive loses its independent meaning and functions simply as a grammatical particle showing that the Verbal is an Infinitive.

But even in Modern English we can find such contexts where the form of the verbal is active, though the meaning is passive:

The book is worth reading. The coat needs ironing.

or the non-perfect form expresses order, i.e. is used to express events that took place prior to the action of the finite form of the verbs:

I remember doing...

I thanked him for bringing the happy tidings.

Such phenomena reflect the previous stage of the development of the English language, when the given verbals were indifferent to voice and order.

2. Morphological classification of verbs in Middle English and New English

2.0. The subdivision of Old English verbs into Strong and Weak is preserved with modifications in Middle English.

2.1. Strong verbs 2.1.1. Classes of the strong verbs

In New English, however, the original regularity that was observed in the group of strong verbs in Old English and partly in Middle English is no longer felt due to the following:

- 1) Splitting of original classes into subclasses, for example:

Old English

New English

/rise — rose — risen *First class* rlsan — ras — rison — risen

bitan — bat — biton — biten bite — bit — bitten

2) Some strong verbs of one class entering another class. Thus, the Old English verb of the 5th class:

2.1.2. Principal forms of the strong verbs

The strong Verbs in Old English had four principal forms, for example:

writan — wrat — writon — writen (*to write*) bindan — band — bundon — bunden (*to shake*)

In Middle English, however, they exhibited a marked tendency to have *the same* vowel in both the forms of the past tense, thus gradually reducing the number of the principal forms to three. In New English we have only **three principal forms** in verbs originally belonging to the group of strong verbs:

write — wrote — written

The vowel that is preserved in the Past tense is generally traced back to the vowel of Old English past tense singular. For example:

	Old English	Middle English	New English
<i>I class</i>	wrat	wrot	wrote (<i>to write</i>)
<i>II class</i>	scoc	shok	shook (<i>to shake</i>)

but sometimes it is the vowel of the original past tense plural: **Old English** bitan — bat — biton — biten **Middle English** biten — bot — biten — biten **New English** bite — bit — bitten

with the Past tense form deriving its vowel from the past tense plural form of the verb.

Sometimes the vowel of the past tense form was borrowed from the form of the past participle:

Old English stelan — stael — station — stolen **Middle English** stelen — stal — stelen — stolen **New English** steal — stole — stolen

2.2. Weak verbs

As we have said above the number of strong verbs was diminishing in Middle English and New English mainly due to the passing of some strong verbs into the weak conjugation. Weak verbs, however, were becoming more and more numerous, as they not only preserved in Middle and New English almost all the verbs that were typical of the group in Old English, but also

2.2.1. Classes of the weak verbs

In Old English there were two principal classes of the weak verbs. In Middle English some verbs that did not become irregular lost the class difference and we have but one class of verbs going back mainly to the weak verbs of the second class. For instance:

Old English II class lufian — lufode — lufod (*to love*) **Middle English** loven — lov(e)de — luv(e)d

2.2.2. Principal forms of the weak verbs

In Old English there were three principal forms of the weak verbs, for instance:

cepan — cepte — cept (*to keep*) lufian — lufode — lufod (*to love*)

In Late Middle English — Early New English, with the loss of the final -e in the second form the second and the third form became homonymous, thus we speak of *three* principal forms of such verbs as **to love** or **to keep** mainly on analogy with original strong verbs, and also because of the existing tradition as no Modern English regular verb, originally belonging to the weak conjugation, shows any trace of difference between the second and third forms.

Thus in New English due to different phonetic processes and changes on analogy the two principal groups of verbs that existed in Old English, strong and weak, gave us two principal groups of Modern verbs: regular and irregular, neither of which is directly derived from either of the Old English groups of strong and weak verbs.

2.3. Origin of modern irregular verbs

In Old English most verbs were regular, although there were a number of irregular ones. In Middle English not only the few Old English irregular verbs were preserved, but also new irregular verbs appeared. This was due, first of all, to the disappearance of the division of verbs into strong and weak, most strong verbs losing their regular pattern of conjugation and thus becoming irregular.

Another source of irregular verbs was the 1st class of weak verbs the irregularity of which was due to several reasons. In addition to the examples given above we can show three groups of verbs originally belonging to the Ist class of weak verbs, which later became irregular:

a) verbs with a long root vowel, the root ending in -t or -d:

Old English metan — mette — mett *Middle English* meten — mette — mett *New English* meet — met — met In Middle English the root vowel of the second and third forms is shortened due to the rhythmic tendency of the language requiring the shortening of all vowels if followed by two consonants. The vowel interchange in Middle English is quantitative only.

In New English the long root vowel in the first form due to the great vowel shift is changed qualitatively, so now we have both quantitative and qualitative vowel interchange in the verb.

"b) verbs with a long root vowel, the root ending in a consonant other than -t or -d:

Old English cepan — cepte — cept *Middle English* kepen — kepte — kept
New English keep — kept — kept

In Middle English the dental suffixation of the 2nd and 3rd forms is supplemented with a quantitative vowel interchange similar to that explained above, and in New English we have both vowel interchange (quantitative and qualitative) and suffixation as form-building means.

c) verbs with a short root vowel, the root ending in -t or -d:

Old English settan — sette — sett *Middle English* setten — sette — sett
New English set — set — set

No changes took place in the root vowel, the ending disappeared due to the final reduction of unstressed vowels, and now the verb forms its forms without any material manifestation.

Even in the 2nd class of weak verbs examples of irregularity can be found. One of them is the verb **to make**.

Old English macian — macode — macod *Middle English* maken — made — made
New English make — made — made The middle syllable of the 2nd and 3rd forms was lost, making the verb irregular.

Still another source of irregular verbs may be found in some loan words borrowed into the language in Middle English and New English. Although most borrowed verbs formed their forms in accordance with the weak verbs of the 2nd class, some of them are irregular. Here it is

possible to mention Scandinavian strong verb borrowings which preserve their original vowel interchange and thus are nowadays irregular, as:

give — gave — given take — took — taken get — got
— gotten.

Another irregular loan word is the French borrowing **to catch** (caught, caught) which is irregular, forming its forms on analogy with the verb *to teach* (taught, taught).

Thus, among New English *regular* verbs there may be encountered either native words (almost all Old English weak verbs of the 2nd class and some Old English strong verbs having lost their irregularity and forming their forms on analogy with the weak verbs of the 2nd class, such as *to help*, *to bake*, etc.) or borrowings (almost all loan verbs)

3. Grammatical categories of the English verb

In Old English the verb had four categories: person, number, tense and mood.

In Middle English and New English there gradually developed three more grammatical categories — order, voice and aspect.

These grammatical categories used a new grammatical means for the formation, namely, analytical forms. These analytical forms developed from free word combinations of the Old English verbs *habban*, *beon/wesan* + an infinitive (or participle). The way of the formation of those analytical forms was the following:

In the free word combination *habban*, *beon/wesan* + an infinitive (or participle) the first element was gradually losing its lexical meaning, and the second — its grammatical one, thus tending to become notionally and grammatically inseparable, idiomatic.

The category of *order* was the oldest, formed already in Middle English from the Old English free combination *habban* + past participle.

Hie haefdon hlera cynin3 aworbenne

(*Thex had already overthrown their king*)

The younge sonne hath in the Ram his halve
course y-runne

} ri (The yoUng sun has run its half-course in the Ram)

... Whan the sonne was to reste,

∴ So hadde I spoked with hem everichon...

(When the sun was about to rest, So I had spoken with every one of them)

The same idea of order is sometimes still expressed with the help of the combination *to be* + *participle 2*, going back to the Old English *beon* + *past participle*:

þi: This gentleman is happily arrived.
Now he is gone.

The category of *voice* appeared out of the free combination of *weorpan* (*beon*) + *past participle*:

Old English he wearp ofslae3en

(he was slain) Middle English engendered is the flour

(the flower is generated.[born])

The category of *aspect* was formed in Middle English on the basis of the free combination of *ben* (*beon*) + *present participle*: Singinge he was ... al the dai (he was singing all the day)

The grammatical categories of tense and mood which existed in Old English acquired *new categorial forms*.

The Old English present and past *tense* forms were supplemented with a special form for the future tense which appeared in Middle English out of the free combination of the Old English modal verbs "sculan" and "willan" with the infinitive. This free combination of words was split into two groups: in the first, remaining free, the modal meaning is preserved:

You **shall do** it — necessity **I will do** it — volition

in the second the independent meaning is lost and the fixed word combination is perceived as the future tense form:

I shall go there. You **will go** there.

The category of *mood* in Old English was represented by three mood forms, one for each of the moods (indicative, subjunctive and imperative). The subjunctive in Old English did not show whether the events were probable or contrary to fact, but it had two tense forms — past and present, which in the course of history developed into two subjunctive moods:

- I/he **be** present — out of the Old English present tense form of the subjunctive mood
- I/he **were** present — out of the Old English past tense form of the subjunctive mood.

The difference between these two subjunctive moods now is in the shade of probability, and not in the tense, the second one denoting events which are contrary to fact.

In addition to that at the end of Middle English and the beginning of New English two more subjunctive mood forms appeared making use of the analytical form building means:

- I/he **should be** present — to show events which are probable, though problematic
- **I should be** present 1 — to show imaginary events,
he would be present f — contrary to fact.

Here **should** and **would** are the subjunctive mood forms of the Old English **sculan** and **willan**.

LECTURE 11.

ENGLISH VOCABULARY

List of principal questions:

1. Old English
 - 1.1. General characteristics
 - 1.2. Means of enriching vocabulary
 - 1.2.1. Internal means
 - 1.2.2. External means
2. Middle English

- 2.1. General characteristics
- 2.2. Means of enriching vocabulary
 - 2.2.1. Internal means
 - 2.2.2. External means
- 3. New English
 - 3.1. General characteristics
 - 3.2. Means of enriching vocabulary
 - 3.2.1. Internal means
 - 3.2.2. External means

1. Old English

1.1. General characteristics

The vocabulary of Old English was rather extensive. It is said to have contained about 50 000 words. These words were mainly native words. They could be divided into a number of strata. The oldest stratum was composed of words coming from the Common Indo-European parent tongue.

Many of these words were inherited by English together with some other Indo-European languages from the same common source, and we shall find related words in various Indo-European languages. Compare:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>New English</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>Russian</i>
modor	mother	mater	MaTb
niht	night	nox	Hoib
neowe	new	novus	HOBWH
beran	bear	ferre	6paTb

Another layer, relatively more recent, was words inherited by English and other Germanic languages from the same common Germanic source. You will find them in many languages, but only those belonging to the Germanic group. Compare:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>New English</i>	<i>German</i>
eorde	earth	Erde
land	land	Land
sa;	sea	See
grene	green	griin
findan	find	finden

The third stratum, and that not very extensive, was made up of words that existed only in English, for instance, the word **clypian** (*to call*), the root preserved in the now somewhat obsolete word **yclept** (*named*).

The vocabulary was changing all the time, old words becoming extinct and new words entering the language, enriching it.

As is known, there are two principal ways of enriching the vocabulary of a language: internal means — those that are inherent in the language itself, and external means, which result from contacts between peoples. The English-speaking people of the period mainly used internal

means of enriching the vocabulary to adapt their language to the expression of more varied or new notions.

1.2. Means of enriching vocabulary

While creating new words the English language, as we have mentioned above, principally resorted to its own, internal means: word derivation, primarily affixation and vowel interchange, and word composition.

1.2.1. Internal means of enriching vocabulary — Word derivation

In Old English **affixation** was widely used as a word-building means.

There were very many suffixes, with the help of which new nouns, adjectives, adverbs and sometimes verbs were formed, for instance:

— noun suffixes of concrete nouns:

-ere	fisc+ere (<i>fisher</i>)	.	denoting the doer
-estre	spinn+estre (<i>spinster</i>)		of the action
-ir>3	cyn+in3 (<i>king</i>)	^	

1.2.2. External means of enriching vocabulary (Old English borrowings)

As we understand, borrowings into a language are a result of contacts with other nations. The Germanic tribes had but few contacts with other nations at the beginning of A.D., consequently the number of borrowed words in Old English was not great. The main borrowings that we can single out in Old English were Latin and **Celtic** borrowings.

— Latin borrowings

The first Latin borrowings entered the language before the Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians invaded the British Isles, i.e. at the time when they still lived on the continent. Due to trade relations with their southern powerful neighbour — the Roman empire — Germanic tribes learned a number of products that had been unknown to them, and, consequently, their names. So the *first* stratum of borrowings are mainly words connected with trade. Many of them are preserved in Modern English, such as:

pound, inch, pepper, cheese, wine, apple, pear, plum, etc.

The *second* stratum of words was composed of loan Latin words that the Germanic tribes borrowed already on British soil from the romanized Celts, whom they had conquered in the 5th century. Those were words connected with building and architecture, as the preserved nowadays:

tile, street, wall, mill, etc.

They denoted objects which the Germanic invaders encountered on the British Isles.

The *third* stratum of Latin loan words was composed of words borrowed after the introduction of the Christian religion. They are generally of a religious nature, such as the present-day words:

2. Middle English

2.1. General characteristics

An analysis of the vocabulary in the Middle English period shows great instability and constant and rapid change. Many words became obsolete, and if preserved, then only in some dialects; many more appeared in the rapidly developing language to reflect the ever-changing life of the speakers and under the influence of contacts with other nations.

2.2. Means of enriching vocabulary in Middle English

2.2.1. Internal means of enriching vocabulary

Though the majority of Old English suffixes are still preserved in Middle English, they are becoming less productive, and words formed by means of word-derivation in Old English can be treated as such only etymologically.

Words formed by means of word-composition in Old English, in Middle English are often understood as derived words.

2.2.2. External means of enriching vocabulary

The principal means of enriching vocabulary in Middle English are not internal, but external — borrowings. Two languages in succession enriched the vocabulary of the English language of the time — the Scandinavian language and the French language, the nature of the borrowings and their amount reflecting the conditions of the contacts between the English and these languages.

— Scandinavian borrowings

The Scandinavian invasion and the subsequent settlement of the Scandinavians on the territory of England, the constant contacts and intermixture of the English and the Scandinavians brought about many changes in different spheres of the English language: wordstock, grammar and phonetics. The relative ease of the mutual penetration of the languages was conditioned by the circumstances of the Anglo-Scandinavian contacts (see above, Lecture 3).

3. New English 3.1. General Characteristics

The language in New English is growing very rapidly, the amount of actually existing words being impossible to estimate. Though some of the words existing in Old English and Middle English are no longer used in New English, the amount of new words exceeds the number of obsolete ones manifold.

Both internal means and external means are used for the purpose of enriching the vocabulary, and the importance of either of them is hard to evaluate.

3.2. Means of enriching vocabulary in New English

3.2.1. Internal means of enriching vocabulary

The principal inner means in New English is the appearance of new words formed by means of *conversion*. Usually new words are formed by acquiring a new paradigm and function within a sentence. Thus, **book** (a noun) has the paradigm **book** — **books**. **Book** (a verb) has the paradigm **book** — **books** — **booked** — **booking**, etc. (The **book** is on the table - He **booked** a room.) Similarly:

man (n) — man (v)
stone (n) — stone (v) — stone (adj)
(as in "a stone bench"), etc.

3.2.2. *External means of enriching vocabulary*

Very many new words appear in New English due to borrowing. It is necessary to say here that the process of borrowing, the sources of loan words, the nature of the new words is different from Middle English and their appearance in the language cannot be understood unless sociolinguistic factors are taken into consideration.

Chronologically speaking, New English borrowings may be subdivided into borrowings of the Early New English period — XV—XVII centuries, the period preceding the establishment of the literary norm, and loan words which entered the language after the establishment of the literary norm — in the XVIII—XX centuries, the period which is generally alluded to as late New English.

— *Early New English borrowings (XV—XVII centuries)*

Borrowings into the English language in the XV—XVII centuries are primarily due to political events and also to the cultural and trade relations between the English people and peoples in other countries. Thus, in the XV century — the epoch of Renaissance, there appeared in the English language many words borrowed from the *Italian* tongue:

cameo, archipelago, dilettante, fresco, violin, balcony, gondola, grotto, volcano;

in the XVI century — *Spanish* and *Portuguese* words, such as:

armada, negro, tornado, mosquito, renegade, matador

and also *Latin* (the language of culture of the time), for instance:

— *verbs*, with the characteristic endings **-ate, -ute**:

aggravate, abbreviate, exaggerate, frustrate, separate, irritate, contribute, constitute, persecute, prosecute, execute, etc.,

— *adjectives* ending in **-ant, -ent, -ior, -al**:

arrogant, reluctant, evident, obedient, superior, inferior, senior, junior, dental, cordial, filial.

As a result of numerous Latin borrowings at the time there appeared many etymological doublets:

Latin

strictum

(*direct*) strict strait (*through French*)seniorem

senior sir

— *Indian*:

bungalow, jungle, indigo

— *Chinese*:

coolie, tea

— *Arabic*:

caravan, divan, alcohol, algebra, coffee, bazaar,
orange, cotton, candy, chess

— *Australian*:

kangaroo, boomerang, lubra — *Russian*:

Before the October Revolution the borrowings from the Russian language were mainly words reflecting Russian realia of the time:

borzoi, samovar, tsar, verst, taiga, etc.

After the Revolution there entered the English language such words that testified to the political role of this country in the world, as:

Soviet, bolshevik, kolkhoz.

Cultural and technical achievements are reflected in such borrowings as:

sputnik, lunnik, lunokhod, synchrophasotron

and recently such political terms as: glasnost, perestroika. In New English there also appeared words formed on the basis of **Greek** and **Latin** vocabulary. They are mainly scientific or technical terms, such as: telephone, telegraph, teletype, telefax, microphone, sociology, politology, electricity, etc.

LECTURE 12. ETHYMOLOGICAL STRATA IN MODERN ENGLISH

General characteristics

Native element in Modern English

- 2.1. Common Indo-European stratum
 - 2.2. Common Germanic stratum
 3. Foreign element in Modern English (borrowings)
 - 3.1. Latin element
 - 3.2. Scandinavian element
 - 3.3. French element
 4. Word-hybrids
- Ethymological doublets

1. General characteristics

The English vocabulary of today reflects as no other aspect of the language the many changes in the history of the people and various contacts which the English speakers had with many nations and countries. The long and controversial history of the people is reflected in its vocabulary and especially in the number of loan words in it, different in origin and time of their entering the language and the circumstances under which the acquisition of the foreign element took place. So large is the number of foreign words in English that it might at first be supposed that the vocabulary has lost its Germanic nature.

However, the functional role of the native element: the notions expressed by native words, their regularity and frequency of occurrence, lack of restrictions to their use in written and oral speech of different functional styles, proves that the Germanic element still holds a fundamental place, and the English vocabulary should be called Germanic.

2. Native element in Modern English

English native words form two etymological strata: the Common Indo-European stratum and the Common Germanic stratum.

2.1. Common Indo-European stratum

The words forming this stratum are the oldest in the vocabulary. They existed thousands of years B.C., at the time when it was yet impossible to speak about separate Indo-European languages, as well as about various nations in Europe. Words of the Common Indo-European vocabulary have been inherited by many modern Indo-European languages, not only

3. Foreign element in Modern English

(borrowings)

As we know, borrowed words comprise more than half the vocabulary of the language. These borrowings entered the language from many sources, forming consequently various ethymological strata. The principal ones here are as follows:

- the Latin element
- the Scandinavian element
- the French element.

3.1. Latin element

The first Latin words entered the language of the forefathers of the English nation before they came to Britain. It happened during a direct intercourse and trade relations with the peoples of the Roman empire. They mainly denote names of household items and products: apple, pear, plum, cheese, pepper, dish, kettle, etc. Already on the Isles from the Romanized Celts they borrowed such words as: street, wall, mill, tile, port, castrum (camp — in such words as Lancaster, Winchester). . . Words of this kind denoted objects of Latin material culture. v Latin words such as: altar, bishop, candle, church, devil, martyr, monk, nun, pope, psalm, etc. were borrowed after the introduction of the Christian religion (7th century), which is reflected in their meaning.

The number of these words inherited from Old English is almost two hundred.

We mentioned these words as Latin borrowings in the sense that they entered English from Latin, but many of them were Greek borrowings into Latin, such as

bishop, church, devil and many others.

Another major group of Latin borrowings entered English with the revival of learning (15th—16th centuries). Latin was drawn upon for scientific nomenclature, as at the time the language was understood by scientists all over the world, it was considered the common name-language for science. These words were mainly borrowed through books, by people who knew Latin well and tried to preserve the Latin form of the word as much as possible. Hence such words as:

antenna — antennae, index — indices, datum — data, stratum — strata, phenomenon — phenomena, axes — axes, formula — formulae, etc.

Very many of them have suffixes which clearly mark them as Latin borrowings of the time:

— verbs ending in **-ate, -ute**:

aggravate, prosecute

— adjectives ending in **-ant, -ent, -ior, -al**:

reluctant, evident, superior, cordial.

These word-building elements together with the stylistic sphere of the language where such words are used are generally sufficient for the word attribution.

3.2. Scandinavian element

Chronologically words of Scandinavian origin entered the language in the period between the 8th and the 10th centuries due to the Scandinavian invasions and settlement of Scandinavians on the British Isles, with subsequent though temporary union of two important divisions of the Germanic race. It is generally thought that the amount of words borrowed from this source was about 500, though some linguists surmise that the number could have been even greater, but due to the similarity of the languages and scarcity of written records of the time it is not always possible to say whether the word is a borrowed one or native, inherited from the same Common Germanic source.

Such words may be mentioned here, as:

they, then, their, husband, fellow, knife, law, leg, wing, give, get, forgive, forget, take, call, ugly, wrong.

As we said, words of Scandinavian origin penetrated into the English language so deeply that their determination is by no means easy. However, there are some phonetic/spelling features of the words which in many cases make this attribution authentic enough. These are as follows:

— words with the **sk/sc** combination in the spelling, as:

sky, skin, skill, scare, score, scald, busk, bask

(but not some Old French borrowings as *task, scare, scan, scape*)

— words with the sound [g] or [k] before front vowels [i], [e] [ei], in the spelling **i, e, ue, ai, a** (open syllable) or at the end of the word:

give, get, forgive, forget, again, gate, game, keg, kid, kilt, egg, drag, dregs, flag, hug, leg, log, rig. There are also personal names of the same origin, ending in **-son**: Jefferson, Johnson or place names ending in **-ly, -thorp, -toft** (originally meaning "village", "hamlet"): Whitly, Althorp, Lowestoft.

These places are mainly found in the north-east of England, where the Scandinavian influence was stronger than in other parts of England.

3.3. French element

The French element in the English vocabulary is a large and important one. Words of this origin entered the language in the Middle and New English periods.

Among *Middle English* borrowings we generally mention earlier borrowings, their source being Norman French — the dialect of William the Conqueror and his followers. They entered the language in the period beginning with the time of Edward the Confessor and continued up to the loss of Normandy in 1204.

Later Middle English borrowings have as their source Parisian French. The time of these borrowings may be estimated as end of the 13th century and up to 1500.

These words are generally fully assimilated in English and felt as its integral part:

government, parliament, justice, peace, prison, court, crime, etc.

Many of these words (though by no means all of them) are terms used in reference to government and courts of law.

Later Middle English borrowings are more colloquial words:

air, river, mountain, branch, cage, calm, cost, table, chair.

The amount of these Middle English borrowings is as estimated as much as 3,500.

French borrowings of the *New English* period entered the language beginning with the 17th century — the time of the Restoration of monarchy in Britain, which began with the accession to the throne of Charles II, who had long lived in exile at the French court:

aggressor, apartment, brunette, campaign, caprice,
 caress, console, coquette, cravat, billet-doux, carte
 blanche, etc: Later also such words appeared in the language as:
 garage, magazine, policy, machine.

It is interesting to note that the phonetics of French borrowings always helps us to prove their origin.

These phonetic features are at least two: stress and special sound/letter features. Concerning the first (stress), words which do not have stress on the first syllable unless the first syllable is a prefix are almost always French borrowings of the New English period. Words containing the sounds [ʒ] spelled not sh, [dʒ] — not dg, [tʃ] — not ch and practically all words with the sound [ʒ] are sure to be of French origin:

aviation, social, Asia, soldier, jury, literature,
 pleasure, treasure.

4. Word-hybrids

The extensive borrowing from various languages and assimilation of loan words gave rise to the formation in English of a large number of words the elements of which are of different origin — they are generally termed word-hybrids.

<i>English</i>	<i>French</i>	
be-	-cause	because
a-	-round	around
a-	curse	accuse
out	cry	outcry
over	power	overpower
fore	front	forefront
salt	cell(ar)	salt-seller
false	hood	falsehood

5. Ethymological doublets

Ethymological doublets are words developing from the same word or root, but which entered the given language, in our case English, at different times or through different channels. Classifying them according to the ultimate source of the doublets we shall receive the following:

<i>Ultimate source</i>	<i>Modern doublets</i>	<i>Period and channel</i>
		<u>Common Indo-European</u>
		native
		M F. French

The examples of various etymological strata in the Modern English vocabulary mentioned above may serve as a sufficient testimony of a long and complicated history of the English nation and the English language. They prove that language changes can be understood only in relation to the life of the people speaking the language.

ГЛАВА 3. ПЛАНЫ И ВОПРОСЫ СЕМИНАРСКИХ ЗАНЯТИЙ

3.1. РАСПРЕДЕЛЕНИЕ ЧАСОВ ПО ТЕМАМ

Модуль 1

№	Содержание лекций / семинарских занятий			
		лекция	семинар	литература
1	Предмет истории английского языка, периодизация ИАЯ.	4	2	Ил. §1-3, 5,4,§43,44 Ар. с.5-9. Ив. §1
2	Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка (вокализм).	2	2	Ил. §§49-59 Ив. §§52-60
	Фонетические особенности древнеанглийского языка (консонантизм).	2		Ар§§1,2,с. 35 Ил. §§61,63 Ар. §2,с.33 Ив. §§4-51
3	Морфологические особенности д.а. языка (существительное, прилагательное, местоимение).	2		Ил. §§104-112 Ив. §§104-120
	Морфологические особенности д.а. языка (глагол).	2	2	Ив. §§137-140,129 Ил. §§129-147
4	Синтаксис д.а. предложения. Порядок слов.	2		Ив. §§137-140,129 Ил. §§129-147
	Словарный состав д.а.языка.	2		Ив. §§212-217 Ил. §§71-81,§§229-242 Ив. §§10-14,19

Модуль 2

№	Содержание лекций / семинарских занятий			
		лекция	семинар	Литература
1	Среднеанглийский период. Скандинавское и норманнское завоевание. Лексика, письменные памятники с.а. периода.	2		Ил. §§248-261 Ив. §§11-15

2	Фонетические особенности с.а.языка (Вокализм и консонантизм).	2	2	Ил. §§269-80 Ив. §§65-75 Ар.с.115-122
3	Морфологические характеристики имени в с.а. период.	2		Ил. §§304-326 Ив. §§100-120
	Система глагольных категорий /спряжение/. Неличные формы глагола. Аналитические формы глагола.	2	2	Ив. §§163-165 Ил. §§337-351, §§355-365 Ар. §§111-114,172-174,
4	Синтаксис в с.а. период.	2		Ив. §§212-217,235-238 Ил. §§378-397, Ар. §§17-18
5	Фонетические и морфологические особенности ср.а. диалектов.		2	Ив. §§73-84, Ил. §§376-377
6	Развитие словаря в н.а. период. Формирование литературной нормы английского языка.	2		Ив. §§24-28,29,32-35, §§65-58, §§22-23 Ил. §§425-455, §§456-470
7	Вокализм и консонантизм н.а. периода. Словарный состав английского языка.	4	2	Ил. §§378-397 Ив. §§76-86

3.2. ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ВОПРОСОВ И ЗАДАНИЙ ДЛЯ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ

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. Make a table showing the relationship of English to the other languages of the Indo-European family. Show the position of English among allied Germanic languages?
4. What do we mean by the statement that two languages are "related"? Explain the relations between English and French, English and Greek, English and Welsh, English and Danish?
5. What is called the pre-written and written period of a language?
6. What alphabets employed in the history of Germanic languages do you know? Speak on the origin and structure of Germanic alphabets?
7. What is meant by a phonetic law?
8. Show carefully how Grimm's law or any apparent exception to it is illustrated by the following words: stand, father, third, sweet?
9. Write down five illustrations of Grimm's law and five illustrations of Verner's law?
10. Explain and illustrate the terms "synthetic" and "analytic" languages. Give examples of modern synthetic and analytical languages?
11. What form-building means were used in Germanic languages?

12. What verbal and nominal categories existed in Germanic languages? Compare them with the categories of modern languages?
13. What is called the pre-written and written Old English?
14. What is the time of the written records below?
15. What is the dialect reflected in the records below?
16. How do we pronounce words in Old English texts (vowels and consonants — make use of the table in Seminar 2)?
17. How many vowels and consonants were there in Old English?
18. How does the quality of the consonant depend on the position of the word in the text?
19. Make a list of Old English vowels and analyse the differentiating features between them (in quality and quantity)?
20. Describe the Old English diphthongs and comment upon their phonological status. Explain the origin of short diphthongs in Old English: eald (New English old), tealde (New English told), earm (New English arm), feohtan (New English fight)?
21. What are the phonetic conditions of palatal mutation? Give some Old English or reconstructed forms showing these conditions. Analyse the results of palatal mutation: in form-building of nouns in the root-stem declension, e.g. Old English fot — fet (New English foot — feet), mus — mys (New English mouse — mice); in word-building of weak verbs of class 1 from noun and adjective stems, e.g. Old English dom — deman (New English doom — deem), fod — fedan (New English food — feed), fyi — fyllan (New English full — fill).
22. Make a list of Old English consonants and analyse the differentiating features between them.
23. What consonant correlations may be observed between words in English and any other Germanic languages?
24. Find in the text examples showing that voiced and voiceless fricative consonants (f/v, θ/ð, s/z) were conditioned variants (allophones) of the same phonemes?
25. What form-building means were used in the Old English "nominal system"?
26. Enumerate the grammatical categories of nouns, adjectives and pronouns and state the difference between them?
27. Into what types of declensions did the Old English nouns fall? Why are they termed "stems"?
28. Look through the noun paradigm and find instances of different means used in form-building.
29. Copy and learn the declension of an a-stem, masculine (e.g. Stan. New English stone), a root-stem (e.g. man. New English man) and an n-stem (e.g. nama. New English name) noun. Point out the forms or endings which have survived in Modern English?
30. Enumerate the grammatical categories of the finite and non-finite forms, indicating the number of members within each category?
31. Look through the verb paradigm and find instances of different form-building means used.
32. What are the main differences between the weak and the strong verbs?
33. Why did the strong verbs fall into seven classes? Point out the differences between them?
34. Copy and learn the principal forms of the strong verbs of class 1 (e.g. wrltan. New English write), class 3 (e.g. drincan, helpan. New English drink, help), class 5 (e.g. wesan. New English be)?
35. Account for the division of the weak verbs into classes and point out the differences between them?
36. With what languages of Europe is the English language most closely connected? Describe these relations in more detail?
37. What is meant by runes? Have any runic letters been admitted to the English alphabet?
38. What Old English phonemes no longer exist in New English? Give examples from the set of Old English vowels and consonants?
39. What grammatical categories of Old English no longer exist in New English? Give examples from the nominal and verbal paradigm?

40. Read and translate the text below into Modern English / Russian. Make a complete phonetic, grammar and vocabulary analysis of the text following the models of Seminar 3 and Seminar 6. Hand in your written work as Part 1 of your course project?
41. Comment on the position of French in the 12th—13th centuries?
42. Speak of the role of foreign influence in Middle English?
43. Comment on the peculiarities of Middle English borrowings, their character and distinctive features?
44. What new letters and digraphs denoting consonants appeared in Middle English?
45. Comment on the origin of the underlined letters and digraphs in the examples below?
46. with, that, shoures, droughte, every, Zepjhirus Find more examples of this kind in the text assigned for the seminar?
47. What phonetic conditions affected the length of vowels in Middle English?
48. What change affected the Old English monophthongs in Middle English? Were the changes positional or independent? Give examples from the text to illustrate points 1 and 2?
49. What changes did the unstressed vowels undergo in Middle English? How did it affect the grammatical endings?
50. Comment on the changes of the short monophthongs [x] and [y] and long monophthongs [a], [se], [y] in Middle English?
51. Speak of the Old English diphthongs in Middle English?
52. What is the origin of the Modern English consonant phonemes [ʃ], [tʃ], [ʒ] in native words? Account for the underlined consonants in: ship, child, bridge?
53. What is the origin of the diphthongs [ai], [au], [ou] in day, now, owe?
54. Read and translate the following text into Modern English / Russian. Make the phonetic analysis following the model given in Seminar 9 (analyse only the underlined words). Check your variant with the key?
55. Describe and account for the loss of inflexions in English nouns, speak about the remaining inflexions. Discuss the grammatical elements of the words children's; leaves; men; brethren's; ships?

3.3. СОДЕРЖАНИЕ ТЕМ ЛЕКЦИОННЫХ ЗАНЯТИЙ И ОБЪЕМ В ЧАСАХ.

<i>№1</i>	<i>Содержание темы</i>	<i>Кол-во часов</i>	<i>Литература</i>
1.	Предмет и задачи истории английского языка; источники изучения истории АЯ. Характеристика периодов английского языка.	4	Ил. §1-3, 5,4 Ар. с.5-9 Ив. §1 Ил. § §43,44
2.	Характеристика вокализма в древнеанглийский период: состав гласных фонем, преломление, палатализация, умлаут и другие фонетические изменения. Древнеанглийский консонантизм: состав согласных. Ассибиляция, оглушение и озвончение шелевых и другие изменения.	4	Ил. § § 49,52,53,54-57, 58,59 Ив. §§ 52-54,55,57,58,60,64,69 Ар. §1,с.31, §3 с.35, §4, с.40-41

3.	Характеристика морфологии имени в древнеанглийском: состав частей речи в д.а., категории существительных в д.а., типы склонений, функции падежей и синкретизм. Прилагательное и местоимение в древнеанглийский период.	2	Ил. §§86-103, 113-121 Ив. §§ 97,98, 121-127 Ар. §1,с.45 §2,с.46, §§3-13, с.45-60
	Глагол в древнеанглийский период: общая характеристика категорий, морфологическая классификация. Характеристика сильных глаголов, аблаут. Слабые глаголы: принципы классификации. Претерито-презентные глаголы.	2	Ив. §§157-162 Ил. §§129-142,152-162,135.136,143-147 Ив. §137-140,141 Ар. §19,с.69, §20, с. 70, §§22-24, с. 80, §22,с.78, §21,с.78
4.	Характеристика синтаксиса д.а. письменности, основные типы связи и способы их выражения. Порядок слов, анаколупф. Структурные особенности д.а. предложения.	4	Ил. §§173-228 Ив. §§212-217 Ар. §§29-33,с.88-90
№ 2	Содержание темы	Кол-во часов	Литература
1.	Скандинавское и норманнское завоевание Британии и их языковые последствия. Возвышение лондонского диалекта, как этап сложения национального языка; письменность языка этого периода.	2	Ил. §§229-242, 248-261 Ив. §§1-4,19-21, 11-15; Ар. §§5,с.24;1,2 с. 103-105; 1-11,с.154-174
2.	История вокализма и консонантизма в с.а. период: монофтонгизация старых дифтонгов и образование новых дифтонгов, количественные изменения гласных – фонологическая сущность; изменение дистрибуции согласных в среднеанглийский период.	2	Ив. §§65-75 Ил. §§269-280 Ар. §§2-4,с 115-122
3.	История именных частей речи в с.а. период: падежная система существительных, склонение прилагательных. История глагола в с.а. период: система спряжений; сдвиги в сильных и слабых глаголах. Аналитические и неличные формы глагола в с.а. период.	4	Ил. §§304-326, 337-365 Ив. §§100-120,163-165 Ар. §§1-9,с.134-136, 11-114 с.136-146 Ив. §§172-174,177-187
4.	Синтаксис в с.а. период. Формы и способы выражения синтаксической связи в среднеанглийский период. Упрощение синтаксических моделей. Становление твердого порядка слов.	2	Ив. §§260-271. Ил. §§378-385, 389-397, Ар. §§17-18 с. 151-152
5.	Фонетические и морфологические особенности среднеанглийских диалектов. Качественные изменения отдельных гласных, развитие падежной системы		Ив. §§73-84, Ил. §§376-377.

	существительных (подиалектно).		
6.	Сложение национального английского языка: исторические условия формирования национального языка в н.а. период, проблемы нормирования. Развитие словаря в н.а. период. Этимологические основы словарного состава английского языка.	2	Ив. §§22-28,29,32-35 Ил. §§425-431,442-455 Ар. §§2-5,с.180-187 Ил. §§456-470
7.	Развитие вокализма в новоанглийский период: великий сдвиг корреляции отклонения от сдвига. Консонантизм в н.а. период: ассимиляции согласных, озвончение щелевых и другие явления гласных.	4	Ил. §§474-505 Ив. §§76-86 Ив. §§65-68 Ар. §3, с. 121-122Ар. §§2,3, с.194-207

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Приложение 1.

ВОПРОСЫ ДЛЯ САМОКОНТРОЛЯ

Модуль 1.

ТЕМА 1.

1. Что изучает история языка, какова ее роль в общефилологической подготовке специалистов народного образования?
2. Назовите основные методы изучения истории языков.
3. В чем состоит условность деления истории языка на периоды?
4. Каковы принципы оценки или учета изменений при общей характеристике отдельных периодов истории современного английского языка?
5. Первые поселенцы Британских островов и какие этнические объединения людей поселились там позже?
6. Лингвоисторические последствия римской колонизации Британии.

ТЕМА 2.

1. Какие признаки берутся за основу классификации гласных в д.а.?
2. Назовите типы умлаутов, сформулируйте фонетический смысл каждого из них. Результаты какого из них подверглись фонологизации? В каких условиях и какие гласные дифтонгизировались? Каковы источники д.а. кратких дифтонгов? Изложите проблему фонематического статуса д.а. кратких дифтонгов /см. Ив. §61; Ил. §67/
3. Количественные изменения гласных и различная степень фонологизации количества в зависимости от природы последующей группы согласных /см. Ив. §69/
4. Назовите принципы /признаки классификации д.а. согласных.
5. Каковы фонематически релевантные признаки шумных смычных и щелевых?
6. Что такое ассибиляция и в какие хронологические сроки она проходила?

ТЕМА 3.

1. Какие условия обеспечивают слогу долготу, при склонении каких основ существительных важна природа слога. В чем заключается особенность склонения корневых основ?
2. Какова природа грамматического рода?
3. Каковы условия выбора типа склонения прилагательных в д.а.? Приведите формы степеней сравнения по существовавшим типам.
4. Назовите грамматические категории д.а. глагола. Какие из категориальных форм глагола, характерные для современного английского языка отсутствовали в д.а.? Как выражались их значения?
5. Что такое аблаут, прокомментируйте его отражение в формах сильных глаголов.
6. Группа нерегулярных глаголов в 1-классе слабых глаголов. В чем их аномальность?

ТЕМА 4.

1. Назовите основные типы связи и способы их выражения в д.а. языке.
2. Роль порядка слов в древнеанглийском предложении.
3. Развитие союзного сочинения и подчинения в д.а.
4. В чем смысл корреляции как способа связи между частями сложного предложения?

Модуль 2

ТЕМА 1.

1. Каковы лингвистические последствия скандинавского завоевания Англии?
2. Назовите факторы, обусловившие возвышение лондонского диалекта как основной диалектной базы литературного английского языка. В чем сущность происшедшей в д.а. период переориентации диалектной базы языковой нормы.
3. Назовите основные тематические группы скандинавских и французских заимствований в английском языке рассматриваемого периода. Перечислите формальные признаки скандинавской лексики.

ТЕМА 2.

1. Монофтонгизация старых и образование дифтонгов нового типа в с.а. период. В чем отличие новых дифтонгов от старых?
2. Остановитесь на диалектных особенностях отражения д.а. вокализма в с.а. период.
3. Условия количественных изменений в среднеанглийский период, их фонологическая сущность.
4. Условия дистрибуции согласных в древнеанглийском языке в сравнении со среднеанглийским и явление фонологизации голоса у щелевых.

ТЕМА 3.

Существительное, прилагательное, местоимение

1. Каковы основные тенденции развития падежной системы существительных в с.а. период?
2. Объясните связь распада флексии у прилагательных с историей морфологии имени в с.а. период.
3. Объясните последствия образования регулярных форм сравнения наряду со старыми умлаутированными в с.а. период.
4. Каково происхождение неопределенного артикля?
5. Когда отмечена дифференциация *who* и *which* как относительные местоимения?

Глагол

1. Какие общие тенденции определяли развитие морфологического строя глагола в с.а. период? Опишите основные изменения в парадигме спряжения глаголов.
2. Как возникли некоторые морфологические подклассы глаголов на базе первого класса слабых глаголов.
3. Какова относительная хронология аналитизации *Shall*, *Will*?
4. Средства выражения пассива в с.а. период.
5. Аналитические формы перфекта в с.а. период, два источника длительной формы.
6. Вариативность форм причастий в с.а. период, ее причины.

ТЕМА 4.

1. Какова связь между распадом окончаний и изменениями в способах оформления синтаксических связей?
2. С какими изменениями в статусе слова связано становление твердого порядка слов в предложении?
3. Каковы последствия исчезновения во многих случаях морфологических показателей числа, падежа, лица у глаголов?

4. Какие новшества появились в правилах размещения уточнителей, определителей в среднеанглийском?

ТЕМА 5.

1. Каковы диалектные особенности отражения древнеанглийского вокализма в среднеанглийский период? Качественные изменения гласных.
2. Назовите основные тенденции развития существительных в среднеанглийских диалектах.
3. К какому диалекту принадлежит форма числительного *eight*?
4. Какие окончания характерны для 3-го лица ед. числа в северном и южном диалектах?

ТЕМА 6.

1. Каких гласных коснулся Великий Сдвиг Гласных?
2. Представьте сдвиг в динамике и статике.
3. Чем вызван сдвиг, какими внутриязыковыми факторами?
4. Какие языковые последствия имели выпадение гласных окончаний.

ТЕМА 7.

1. Каким образом централизация власти в стране способствовала формированию национального языка? Назовите другие экстралингвистические факторы, подготовившие этот процесс.
2. Роль Чосера, Уиклифа, Кекстона в свете решения проблемы первотворца литературной нормы.
3. Основы английской орфографии.
4. Исключения в области фонетики, морфологии и синтаксиса.
5. Современные тенденции в развитии английского языка.

Экзаменационные вопросы

1. История языка: предмет изучения и задачи.
2. Римское завоевание Британии.
3. Германское завоевание Британии. Латинские заимствования в английском языке.
4. Первые германские королевства на территории Англии.
5. Периодизация истории английского языка (характеристика периодов.)
6. Древнеанглийский вокализм (общая характеристика).
7. Основные фонетические изменения гласных в древнеанглийском.
8. Преломление гласных в дреанеанглийском языке.
9. Заднеязычный (велярный) умлаут в древнеанглийском языке.
10. Палатализация гласных в древнеанглийский период.
11. Палатальная перегласовка в д.а. период.
12. Основные фонетические изменения согласных в древнеанглийском.
13. Категории и типы склонений имени существительного в древнеанглийском.

14. Состав категорий и принципы классификации глаголов в древнеанглийском.
15. Раннелатинские слова в вокабуляре современного английского языка.
16. Спряжение глаголов в древнеанглийском языке.
17. Сильные глаголы древнеанглийского языка.
18. Претерито-презентные глаголы в древнеанглийском языке.
19. Синтаксис предложения в языке древнеанглийской письменности.
20. Диалектное деление в древнеанглийском языке.
21. Скандинавское завоевание Британии в свете языковых последствий.
22. Норманское завоевание Британии в свете языковых последствий.
23. Французские заимствования в английском.
24. Основные фонетические изменения гласных в среднеанглийском.
25. Явление редукции гласных в среднеанглийском.
26. Качественное изменение гласных в среднеанглийском языке.
27. Количественные изменения в системе гласных в среднеанглийском языке.
28. Монофтонгизация кратких дифтонгов и возникновение дифтонгов в среднеанглийском языке.
29. Происхождение среднеанглийских дифтонгов.
30. Фонологические последствия количественных изменений гласных в среднеанглийский период.
31. История консонантизма в среднеанглийский период.
32. Изменения в морфологии имени существительного в среднеанглийском языке.
33. Система глагола в среднеанглийском языке (состав категорий и классы)
34. Становление аналитических форм будущего времени и пассивного залога в английском языке.
35. Великий сдвиг гласных и его причинно-следственная интерпретация. Датировка сдвига.
36. Фонологическая сущность великого сдвига гласных.
37. Основные случаи отклонения от великого сдвига гласных в ранненовоанглийском.
38. Комбинаторно-качественные изменения отдельных гласных в новоанглийский период.
39. Консонантизм (изменения в системе согласных) в новоанглийский период.
40. Ассибиляция группы согласных в новоанглийском языке (периода)

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ 4

КРАТКОЕ ИЗЛОЖЕНИЕ КУРСА ЛЕКЦИЙ ПО «ИСТОРИИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА» НА РУССКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Лекция 1. Введение. Общие характеристики германских языков

1. Цель изучения предмета. Любой язык представляет собой постоянно изменяющееся историческое явление. Изменения охватывают все аспекты языка: грамматику и словарь, фонетику и письменность. Основная цель изучения истории языка состоит в объяснении сегодняшнего этапа его существования, позволяющем лучше понять его современные особенности.

Внутренняя и внешняя история языка. Внешняя история любого языка - это события в жизни народа, говорящего на нем, оказывающие влияние на сам язык, это отражение истории людей в языке, на котором они говорят. Внутренняя история языка описывает изменения, происходящие в самом языке, его грамматике, словарном составе, фонетическом строе и письменности.

Основные характеристики германских языков. Германские языки принадлежат к индоевропейской языковой семье. В начале первого тысячелетия германские племена проживали на обширных территориях Западной, Центральной и Восточной Европы.

3.1. Фонетические особенности. К основным характеристикам фонетического строя германских языков относятся: динамическое ударение, фиксированное на первом корневом слоге; абляут - позиционно независимое чередование гласных в корне, суффиксе или окончании слова, способствующее формо- и словообразованию; умляут - фонетическая ассимиляция корневого гласного с гласным окончания, проявляющаяся как своего рода внутренняя флексия; передвижения согласных - регулярные фонетические соответствия согласных германских и прочих индоевропейских языков.

3.2. Грамматические особенности. Германские языки были языками синтетического строя. Именные части речи имели категории рода, числа, лагольные - времени, наклонения, лица и числа. Основными способами формообразования были окончания, а также чередование гласных в корне слова (особенно в глаголах) и в редких случаях супплетивизм - образование разных форм слова от разных корней.

Система письма. Германцы имели собственный, так называемый рунический алфавит, и фонетическую систему письма, при которой каждый звук передавался одним символом — руной. Этот алфавит появился во втором веке нашей эры и просуществовал у некоторых народов в течение всего средневековья.

Лекция 2. Древнеанглийский период. Общая характеристика

1. Внешняя история. История английского языка начинается с 5 века нашей эры, когда произошло вторжение западногерманских племен англов, саксов, ютов и фризов на Британские острова. Захватив почти все плодородные земли, они частично уничтожили, частично вытеснили, а частично подчинили себе местное население - кельтов.

1.1. Основные письменные памятники. Первые письменные памятники представляют образцы рунического письма.

В 7 веке с приходом Христианства на Британские острова пришли и многочисленные монахи, говорившие на латыни и использовавшие латинский алфавит, который постепенно вытеснил рунический, позаимствовав из него отдельные символы для обозначения звуков, отсутствовавших в латыни - так возникло так называемое инсулярное, или островное письмо.

1.2. Диалектная классификация письменных памятников.

1.2.1. В отличие от племенных диалектов германских племен до их переселения на Британские острова, диалекты древнеанглийского периода являются территориальными и именуются по названию королевств, в которых на них говорили. Наиболее важными королевствами и, таким образом, диалектами того периода были Нортумбрия (нортумбрийский диалект), Мерсия (мерсийский диалект) и Уэссекс (уэссекский диалект).

1.2.2. Основные письменные памятники периода написаны инсулярным письмом. Большинство из них относятся к уэссекскому диалекту и представлены трактатами религиозного содержания, а также хрониками, историческими и философскими трудами.

2. Внутренняя история. В течение древнеанглийского периода язык развивался крайне медленно.

2.1. Фонетические особенности. Фонетический строй древнеанглийского периода отличался фиксированным динамическим ударением, падавшим на первый корневой слог слова.

Количественные и качественные характеристики гласных звуков были позиционными, т.е. зависели от положения звука в слове. Долгота ударных гласных была фонематичной, позволяя различать слова только долготой ударного корневого гласного. Существовал полный параллелизм долгих и кратких гласных звуков, как монофтонгов, так и дифтонгов.

Согласные были менее многочисленны, чем в современном языке. В их числе не было некоторых фрикативных звуков. Имелся ряд позиционных качественных характеристик согласных, в том числе звонкость/глухость звука.

2.2. Система письма. Древнеанглийская письменность была в основном фонематична - каждой букве соответствовал один звук.

2.3. Грамматические особенности. Как и другие германские языки, древнеанглийский был языком синтетического строя с хорошо развитой системой флексий. Основными средствами передачи грамматических значений были суффиксация, чередование гласных и супплетивизм. Порядок слов в предложении был относительно свободным.

2.4. Словарный состав. Словарный состав почти полностью состоял из исконных слов. Немногочисленные заимствования были главным образом из латыни. Новые слова образовывались путем деривации (создания производных слов) и словосложения.

Лекция 3. Среднеанглийский период. Общая характеристика

1. Внешняя история.

1.1. Скандинавское вторжение. Скандинавское вторжение продолжалось в течение более двух веков, с конца 8 по начало 11 века, когда под контроль завоевателей перешла вся Англия. Скандинавское вторжение и последовавшее за ним переселение скандинавов на территорию Англии, их постоянные контакты и смешение с местным населением оказали глубокое воздействие на все аспекты английского языка. Относительная легкость взаимопроникновения языков объяснялась отсутствием каких-либо политических, социальных, культурных или языковых барьеров между их носителями.

1.2. Норманнское завоевание. Началом норманнского завоевания считается 1066 год. Норманны, скандинавское племя, переселившееся за два века до этого на территорию современной Франции, восприняли язык и культуру своей новой страны, и именно французский язык они принесли с собой на Британские острова.

В результате норманнского завоевания французский язык на два с лишним века стал языком правящих классов, языком королевского двора, парламента, судопроизводства, церкви и школы, отодвинув английский на второй план. Восстановление утраченной роли английского языка в 14 веке сопровождалось большим количеством заимствований из французского и существенным изменением грамматической структуры языка.

1.3. Образование национального английского языка.

Национальный английский язык сложился к 15 веку на базе лондонского диалекта, сформировавшегося из ранних южных и юго-восточных диалектов. Столица Англии, начиная с 11 века, Лондон был крупнейшим экономическим, политическим, а также культурным центром, в котором жили и работали многие лучшие писатели и поэты того времени. Однако литературная норма языка возникла гораздо позднее, только в новоанглийский период.

2. Внутренняя история. Среднеанглийский период был временем беспрецедентно быстрого развития языка. Этому способствовало то, что в течение первых трех веков периода английский был исключительно устным языком, не имел письменной нормы и мог изменяться без существенных ограничений. В результате все аспекты языка претерпели фундаментальные изменения.

2.1. Фонетические особенности. Фиксированное динамическое ударение сохраняется в исконных словах, в заимствованиях (особенно французских) ударение падает на последний слог слова.

Появляются новые согласные (фрикативные и аффрикаты). Качество согласных перестает быть позиционным.

Ударные гласные претерпевают количественные изменения под влиянием так называемой ритмической тенденции, усредняющей длительность слога.

2.2. Грамматические особенности. Грамматический строй в среднеанглийский период претерпевает фундаментальные изменения, превращая синтетический древнеанглийский язык в язык аналитического строя. Возникающие аналитические средства передачи грамматических значений в конце периода становятся доминирующими.

2.3. Словарный состав. Словарный состав языка в течение среднеанглийского периода почти полностью обновился за счет чрезвычайно большого числа заимствований, главным образом скандинавских и французских. Наряду с внешними источниками пополнения словаря определенную роль играли и внутренние - том числе образование производных слов с использованием исконных и заимствованных элементов.

Лекция 4. Новоанглийский период. Общая характеристика

1. Внешняя история

1.1. Становление нации. 15 век стал поворотной вехой в истории английского народа. Закончившаяся в 1485 году война Алой и Белой розы означала конец феодальной раздробленности и переход к капитализму, реальное политическое и экономическое объединение страны, появление единой нации и единого национального языка.

Новоанглийский период стал периодом великих географических открытий, присоединения к британской империи новых земель и широких контактов с носителями других языков на всех континентах, оставивших свой след в английском языке.

Именно этот период дал миру такие великие имена, как Шекспир, Спенсер, Бэкон, Марлоу и многие другие.

Относительно спокойное развитие страны было нарушено в 17 веке, когда противоречие королевской власти и парламента привело к переходу власти к последнему, казни короля, а затем, через несколько лет, реставрации монархии. Возвращение на престол сына казненного короля, прожившего более десяти лет в ссылке во Франции, знаменовало новую волну влияния французского языка.

1.2. Установление литературной нормы. Литературная норма английского языка сформировалась в конце 17 века, когда появились первые словари и грамматики, основанные на научных принципах и ставившие своей целью стабилизировать использование языка. Существенный вклад в становление литературной нормы внесли также многие знаменитые литераторы своего времени, и в первую очередь Уильям Шекспир. Стандарт разговорного английского языка установился несколько позднее.

1.3. Географическое распространение английского языка в 17—20 веках. Новоанглийский период стал периодом языкового объединения страны и вытеснения нормированным английским других языков и диалектов - кельтского, уэльского, ирландского и др.

В 16 веке с экспансией британского колониализма началось проникновение английского языка в другие регионы земного шара: в 17 веке - в Северную Америку, в 18 - Индию, 19 - Австралию и 20 - Южную Африку. Сейчас английский язык является национальным языком более 300 миллионов человек во всем мире, а в качестве своего второго языка его признает во много раз большее число людей.

2. Внутренняя история. Скорость развития языка в течение всего периода постепенно замедляется, чему особенно способствует установление литературной нормы, оказывающей стабилизирующее воздействие на язык.

2.1. Фонетические особенности. Ударение в исконных словах фиксировано, в заимствованных может падать на любой слог. Ритмическая тенденция привела к возникновению вторичных ударений в многосложных словах.

Изменения в согласных звуках были не столь велики, как в среднеанглийский период. Новым явлением была позиционная вокализация согласных.

Безударные гласные на конце слов в большинстве случаев исчезли; гласные под ударением подверглись влиянию так называемого Великого сдвига - качественного изменения, в результате которого они стали более узкими и передними по месту их артикуляции

2.2. Грамматические особенности. Грамматический строй в новоанглийский период не претерпел фундаментальных изменений. Основные изменения касались усиления аналитических черт языка: расширения использования вспомогательных

слов, увеличения числа аналитических форм, укрепления фиксированного порядка слов в предложении.

2.3. Словарный состав. Словарь - самый быстро развивающийся аспект языка новоанглийского периода. Способы обогащения словарного состава языка -- как внутренние (образование производных слов, конверсия), так и внешние (заимствования). Источники последних весьма многочисленны благодаря не только прямым, но косвенным (через книги, а в 20 веке - через кино, радио, телевидение) контактам со всем миром.

Лекция 5. Фонетика древнеанглийского периода

1. Гласные древнеанглийского периода.

1.0. В древнеанглийский период существовал полный параллелизм долгих и кратких гласных, как монофтонгов, так и дифтонгов, что позволяет говорить о фонематичное качественных и количественных характеристик гласных.

1.1. Все гласные древнеанглийского периода происходят от гласных общегерманского праязыка, хотя и с некоторыми изменениями, в результате которых монофтонги могли превращаться в дифтонги и наоборот.

1.2. В доисторический период развития английского языка в гласных произошел ряд качественных изменений, объясняющих различие между древнеанглийскими и общегерманскими гласными фонемами. Эти изменения были двух видов: позиционными (или ассимилятивными) и независимыми (неассимилятивными). Наиболее важными ассимилятивными изменениями были преломление и палатальная перегласовка.

1.2.1. Результатом преломления стало появление дифтонгов из монофтонгов в определенном фонетическом окружении

1.2.2. Палатальная перегласовка привела к сужению и сдвигу вперед по артикуляции большинства гласных под влиянием последующих звуков и появлению новых гласных фонем.

1.2.3. Последствия палатальной перегласовки проявились как в грамматике, так и в словарном составе языка. В грамматике она привела к чередованию гласных в корне слова у существительных корневого склонения и в степенях сравнения прилагательных, а также у неправильных слабых глаголов. Чередование гласных в корне в результате палатальной перегласовки стало также средством словообразования.

2. Согласные древнеанглийского периода

2.0. Система древнеанглийских согласных отличалась от современной рядом особенностей. Среди них можно отметить сравнительно небольшое число фонем, отсутствие фрикативных согласных и аффрикатов, а также зависимость качественных характеристик фонемы от ее непосредственного окружения в слове. последнее привело к появлению так называемых позиционных вариантов, впоследствии развившихся в разные фонемы.

Соответствие английских согласных согласным других индоевропейских языков объясняется двумя фонетическими законами, именуемыми по имени их авторов Законом Гримма и Законом Вернера.

Лекция 6. Грамматика древнеанглийского периода. Система имени

0. Древнеанглийский язык был языком синтетического строя, предусматривавшего передачу всех основных грамматических значений изменением формы самого слова, сочетавшего в себе как лексическое, так и грамматическое значение. Он отличался большим количеством флексий как в парадигме имени, так и в парадигме глагола, и наличием нескольких вариантов формоизменения в рамках каждой парадигмы в зависимости от первоначальной структуры слова.

1. Общая характеристика системы имени. В древнеанглийском языке было пять склоняемых частей речи: существительное, местоимение, прилагательное, числительное и причастие.

2. *Существительное.* Парадигма существительного в древнеанглийский период объединяла три грамматических категории: род, число и падеж.

2.1. Категория рода была образована оппозицией трех форм: мужского, женского и среднего рода. Отнесение существительных к тому или иному роду не основывалось на их биологической принадлежности к таковым.

2.2. Категория числа была образована оппозицией форм множественного и единственного числа.

2.3. Категория падежа объединяла формы четырех падежей: именительного, родительного, дательного и винительного.

Различие в типах склонения существительных объясняется особенностями их первоначальной структуры. В общегерманском языке большинство существительных имело три элемента: корень, основообразующий суффикс и окончание. Именно этот изначальный основообразующий суффикс и является основанием для классификации существительных по группам, или "склонениям", хотя сам он в древнеанглийский период зачастую уже не виден, так как слился с корнем или претерпел некоторые иные изменения.

2.4. В доисторический период развития английского языка каждый падеж имел собственные отчетливые окончания, зависящие от типа склонения существительного и его рода. Однако впоследствии различные семантические и фонетические процессы привели к сближению окончаний в пределах одной парадигмы и появлению омонимичных падежных форм. Это послужило одной из предпосылок создания новых средств для передачи грамматических значений.

3. *Местоимение.* В древнеанглийский период существовали различные классы местоимений: личные, притяжательные, указательные, вопросительные, относительные и неопределенные. Система склонения различных типов местоимений была неодинаковой, поскольку одни и те же грамматические категории имели различное число категориальных форм.

3.1. Личные местоимения имели грамматические категории, сходные с категориями существительного. Однако различие в роде проявлялись только у существительных третьего лица единственного числа, а категория числа местоимений первого и второго лица была образована оппозицией не двух, а трех форм: единственного, множественного и двойственного числа.

Другим отличием местоимений является то, что в их парадигме широко используются супплетивные формы, а омонимия проявляется незначительно.

3.2. Все прочие местоимения склонялись подобно существительным, за исключением того, что в отличие от них некоторые местоимения имели пять падежных форм, добавляя форму инструментального падежа.

4. *Прилагательное.* Парадигма прилагательного схожа с парадигмой существительного и местоимения. Она включает формы падежей, родов и чисел.

4.1. Особенностью склонения прилагательных было наличие двух типов склонения: определенного и неопределенного, по которым могло склоняться одно и то же прилагательное. Значение данного явления было впоследствии воплощено в категории артикля, возникшей существенно позднее.

4.2. Еще одной категорией прилагательных были степени сравнения. Способы выражения значений степеней сравнения, как и других грамматических значений, были синтетическими: суффиксация, чередование гласных в корне и супплетивизм. Чередование гласных в формах степеней сравнения стало результатом палатальной перегласовки, происшедшей в дописьменный период развития языка, и не встречается в других германских языках.

Лекция 7. Грамматика древнеанглийского периода. Система глагола

1. *Общий обзор личных и неличных форм глагола.* Глагольная система древнеанглийского языка была представлена личными и неличными формами глагола, различие между которыми было более существенным, чем в настоящее время, поскольку неличные формы не только спрягались, но и склонялись, подобно именным частям речи.

2. *Грамматические категории личных форм глагола.* Система спряжения древнеанглийского глагола включала категории времени, наклонения, числа и лица.

2.1. Категория лица глагола включала формы первого, второго и третьего лица. Это различие проявлялось только в формах единственного числа изъявительного наклонения.

2.2. Категория числа была образована оппозицией форм единственного и множественного числа.

2.3. Категория времени была представлена формами настоящего и будущего времени. Значение будущего времени выражалось с помощью формы настоящего в сочетании с временным наречием или сочетанием модального глагола с инфинитивом.

2.4. Категория наклонения включала формы изъявительного, повелительного и косвенного наклонения. Последнее использовалось для выражения как нереальных, так и проблематичных действий (для чего в современном английском используется два разных наклонения), а также вместо изъявительного наклонения для передачи косвенной речи.

3. *Морфологическая классификация глаголов.* Все глаголы древнеанглийского языка можно подразделить на группы в зависимости от грамматических средств, используемых при образовании их основ -чередование гласных в корне и суффиксация.

3.1. Т. наз. сильные глаголы использовали в качестве основного средства выражения различных грамматических категорий чередование гласных в корне, или абляут. Грамматические окончания присоединялись непосредственно к корню-основе глагола.

Сильные глаголы относятся к наиболее древним глаголам языка. Существовало несколько классов сильных глаголов, отличающихся формой проявления абляута, зависящей от первоначальной фонетической структуры основы глагола.

3.2. Т. наз. слабые глаголы более новые по времени своего появления в языке. В качестве основного грамматического средства образования основы они использовали суффиксацию. Этот способ образования форм был наиболее продуктивным, и именно его использовали вновь образуемые или заимствованные глаголы, постоянно расширяя число слабых глаголов.

Слабые глаголы, в отличие от сильных, имели перед грамматическим окончанием основообразующий суффикс, в зависимости от которого их также можно разделить на несколько классов.

Лекция 8. Изменения в фонетической системе в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды

1. Среднеанглийский период.

1.1. Гласные в безударном положении. Все гласные в безударном положении претерпели качественное изменение, превратившись в нейтральный звук [ɪ]. Это фонетическое изменение оказало очень сильное влияние на грамматическую структуру языка, поскольку в результате него многие грамматические окончания слов стали омонимичными.

1.2. Гласные под ударением претерпели как количественные, так и качественные изменения.

1.2.1. Качественным изменениям подверглись три долгих и два кратких монофтонга, а также все дифтонги, которые в конце древнеанглийского периода претерпели стяжение, превратившись в монофтонги. Одновременно возникли новые дифтонги, образовавшиеся из сочетания гласного звука с согласным, подвергшимся вокализации.

1.2.2. Имелись также количественные изменения ударных гласных. Они происходили в определенных позициях, называемых удлиняющими или сокращающими.

Эти процессы оставили свой след в грамматике и словарном составе языка, приведя к возникновению чередования корневых гласных в различных формах одного и того же слова, а также появлению различных гласных в исторически однокоренных словах.

1.3. Согласные. Наиболее важным изменением в системе согласных среднеанглийского периода было возникновение фрикативного [ʃ] и аффрикат [tʃ] и [sɪz] из палатальных согласных или сочетаний с палатальным согласным, имевшихся в древнеанглийском языке. Это привело к разделению аллофонов на самостоятельные фонемы.

Самостоятельными фонемами стали и аллофоны согласных, отличавшихся в древнеанглийский период по глухости/звонкости (s/z, f/v, b/ð).

2. Новоанглийский период.

2.1. Гласные в безударном положении, нейтрализованные в среднеанглийском, в новоанглийский период опускаются и в редких случаях остаются исключительно для благозвучия.

2.2. Гласные под ударением претерпели как количественные, так и качественные изменения.

2.2.1. Все долгие монофтонги подверглись процессу, именуемому Великим сдвигом гласных, в результате которого они стали более узкими и сдвинутыми вперед по способу артикуляции. Некоторые из них при этом превратились в дифтонги. Особо

следует отметить случаи, когда за долгим гласным, претерпевавшим Великий сдвиг, следовал звук "г", который, вокализуясь, изменял предшествующий гласный, делая его более открытым и превращая монофтонг в дифтонг, а дифтонг – в трифтонг.

Определенные позиционные качественные изменения произошли и с некоторыми краткими монофтонгами ([a], [и]).

Два из четырех среднеанглийских дифтонгов ([ai], [ai]) под влиянием Великого сдвига также сузились, причем один из них, [ai], при этом превратился в монофтонг [и].

2.2.2. Количественные изменения гласных в новоанглийский период были вызваны главным образом вокализацией согласных [г] и [h], удлиняющих предшествующий краткий гласный, а в некоторых случаях и изменяя его качественно.

2.3. *Согласные.* Изменения в согласных звуках в новоанглийский период не очень многочисленны. К ним относится появление новой фонемы [з] и развитие аффрикат из палатальных согласных в заимствованных словах, а также озвончение фрикативных согласных после безударных гласных и в словах, не несущих синтаксического ударения.

3. *Изменения в алфавите и системе письма в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды.* Фонетическая система письма, существовавшая в древнеанглийском, в 13-14 веках подверглась существенным изменениям в результате деятельности переписчиков, находившихся под влиянием французских традиций письма, а также зачастую допускавших смысловые ошибки.

"Островное письмо" было вытеснено "континентальным", в результате чего были утрачены некоторые буквы, а соответствующие им звуки стали обозначаться новыми, позаимствованными из французской письменности, а также сочетаниями букв - диграфами, что также было характерно для французского языка.

Орфографическая норма возникла одновременно с литературной нормой, однако она подвергалась неоднократным попыткам ее улучшения или рационализации. В 16 веке был предложен новый принцип письма, стремившийся отразить исконную форму слова, но приводящий зачастую к ошибкам.

В то же время крупные фонетические изменения, включая Великий сдвиг гласных, практически не отразились на системе письменности. В результате в современном английском языке один и тот же звук передается зачастую разными буквами и их комбинациями, а одна и та же буква может иметь разное прочтение. Кроме того, имеется большое количество нечитаемых букв, как отражающих написание прежних периодов, так и добавленных впоследствии для обозначения особенностей чтения предшествующих букв.

Лекция 9. Изменения в системе имени в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды

1. *Общая характеристика грамматических изменений в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды.* Грамматика языка претерпела кардинальные изменения: многие грамматические значения, ранее выражавшиеся синтетическими средствами, либо исчезли, либо начали выражаться аналитически, что привело к изменению самого типа языка.

2. *Имя существительное.*

2.1. *Среднеанглийский период.* Сложная именная парадигма древнеанглийского языка в течение среднеанглийского периода существенно упрощается.

2.1.1. Морфологическая классификация. Различные типы склонений сохраняются, но происходит перераспределение числа относимых к ним существительных. Первоначальное а-склонение все больше расширяется за счет существительных других склонений, а также заимствований.

2.1.2. Грамматические категории. В системе склонения остаются только две грамматические категории: число и падеж. Количество падежей сокращается до двух: общего и родительного.

2.2. Новоанглийский период. Процесс упрощения системы склонения продолжился.

2.2.1. Морфологическая классификация. Подавляющее большинство существительных склоняется по типу а-склонения; остальных типов склонений не существует (исключения единичны).

2.2.2. Неправильные формы существительных. Все современные "неправильные" формы существительных представляют реликтовые формы малочисленных склонений или заимствования из латыни в форме и единственного, и множественного числа.

2.2.3. Грамматические категории. Количество категорий и категориальных форм среднеанглийского периода сохраняется, но уменьшается число существительных, используемых в родительном (притяжательном) падеже, а также сужается значение притяжательного падежа.

3. Прилагательное. В парадигме прилагательного в среднеанглийский период представлены грамматические категории склонения (сильное и слабое) и числа (единственное и множественное). В новоанглийский период эти категории прекращают свое существование.

Напротив, степени сравнения прилагательных получают дальнейшее развитие. При этом из трех основных средств образования форм степеней сравнения, существовавших в древнеанглийский период, продуктивной остается только одно - суффиксация, но в дополнение к нему возникает новое, аналитическое средство - использование вспомогательных слов.

4. Местоимение. Сложная парадигма местоимения в среднеанглийский период существенно упрощается. К концу среднеанглийского - началу новоанглийского периода остается только два падежа, исчезает род как грамматическое явление, а двойственное число перестало существовать еще на рубеже древнеанглийского и среднеанглийского периода.

5. Артикль. Эта категория как оппозиция определенного и неопределенного артикля возникла в среднеанглийский период. Форма определенного артикля восходит к указательному местоимению *se*, неопределенного - к числительному *an*.

Лекция 10. Изменения в системе глагола в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды

1. Неличные формы глагола. В процессе истории неличные формы постепенно теряют именные черты (элементы системы склонения), приобретая взамен глагольные (элементы системы спряжения). В среднеанглийский период также возникает новая неличная форма - герундий.

2. Морфологическая классификация глаголов в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский период

2.0. В среднеанглийский период разделение глаголов на сильные и слабые

сохраняется.

2.1. Сильные глаголы

2.1.1. В новоанглийский период в группе сильных глаголов происходят изменения. Это вызвано разделением первоначальных классов на подклассы, присоединением глаголов одного класса к другому, переходом сильных глаголов в группу слабых и в редких случаях наоборот.

2.1.2. Четыре основных формы сильных глаголов древнеанглийского периода в новоанглийском переходят в три вследствие того, что вместо разных гласных абляута все чаще употребляется одна.

2.2. Слабые глаголы. Группа слабых глаголов становится все более многочисленной, так как пополняется за счет заимствований и вновь образованных слов.

2.2.1. Классы слабых глаголов теряют свои различия, глаголы первого и третьего классов становятся неправильными.

2.2.2. В позднем среднеанглийском - раннем новоанглийском периоде вторая и третья формы слабых глаголов становятся омонимичными.

2.3. В новоанглийский период вследствие различных фонетических изменений две основных группы древнеанглийских глаголов - сильные и слабые - дали две главных группы современных глаголов: правильные и неправильные, ни одна из которых не происходит непосредственно от тех или иных групп древнеанглийских глаголов.

Основными источниками неправильных глаголов были немногочисленные неправильные глаголы древнеанглийского периода, большинство сильных глаголов, слабые глаголы первого класса, а также глаголы - скандинавские заимствования.

3. Грамматические категории английского глагола. В дополнение к древнеанглийским категориям лица, числа, времени и наклонения в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский период постепенно возникли еще три грамматических категории: залога, аспекта и временной отнесенности. Для их образования использовались новые средства -аналитические формы.

Аналитические формы стали применяться и для прежних грамматических категорий - времени и наклонения

Лекция 11. Словарный состав английского языка

1. Древнеанглийский период.

1.1. Общая характеристика. Словарный состав древнеанглийского периода был достаточно обширным. Он состоял главным образом из исконных слов. Среди них были слова, унаследованные из общего индоевропейского праязыка, слова общегерманского происхождения, а также небольшое число слов, характерных только для английского языка.

1.2. Для выражения новых значений любой язык постоянно обогащает свой словарный запас. Основными средствами пополнения словаря в древнеанглийский период были внутренние.

1.2.1. К внутренним средствам обогащения словаря древнеанглийского периода относится создание производных слов путем аффиксации или чередования гласных, а также словосложение.

1.2.2. Внешние средства обогащения словаря, или заимствования, в древнеанглийский период были не очень многочисленны. Основными заимствованиями были латинские, главным образом связанные с торговыми контактами германцев, а позднее - с введением Христианства.

2. Среднеанглийский период.

2.1. Общая характеристика. Словарный состав среднеанглийского периода изменялся крайне быстро, отражая диалектные особенности, а также влияние контактов с другими нациями.

2.2.1. Внутренние средства обогащения языка сохраняются, однако многие аффиксы становятся менее продуктивными.

2.2.2. Основными средствами обогащения словаря среднеанглийского периода становятся внешние, заимствования. Наиболее сильное влияние на английский язык оказали два языка: скандинавский и французский, хотя природа и количество заимствований из этих языков, а также их последствия были различными.

3. Новоанглийский период.

3.1. Общая характеристика. Словарный состав новоанглийского периода растет очень быстро, не поддаваясь количественному учету.

3.2. Как внутренние, так и внешние средства обогащения словаря имеют большое значение.

3.2.1. Основным внутренним средством обогащения словарного состава выступает конверсия - переход слова из одной части речи в другую.

3.2.2. Большое число заимствований новоанглийского периода отражает особенности контактов носителей языка с другими нациями.

Ранние новоанглийские заимствования представлены главным образом словами латинского происхождения (поскольку латынь была языком культуры своего времени), а также итальянскими (в связи с эпохой Возрождения, 15 век), испанскими и португальскими (16 век).

Открытие Америки принесло заимствования из языков местных народов, отражавшие реалии нового континента.

Заимствования позднего новоанглийского периода представлены словами французского происхождения (заимствованными в связи с Реставрацией монархии в Англии), а также отдельными заимствованиями из немецкого, хинди, китайского, арабского, русского и других языков.

Лекция 12. Этимологические слои современного английского языка

1. Общая характеристика. Сегодняшний словарный состав английского языка как никакой другой аспект языка отражает глубокие исторические изменения и различные контакты нации. Преобладающее число заимствований позволяет усомниться в самой природе английского языка, если не принимать во внимание превалирующую функциональную роль исконного элемента: значения, передаваемые собственными словами, частотность и регулярность их употребления, отсутствие стилевых и функциональных ограничений их использования.

2. Исконные слова английского языка представлены двумя этимологическими слоями: общеиндоевропейским и общегерманским.

2.1. Слова общеиндоевропейского происхождения относятся к самым древним словам языка, и корни их можно найти во многих других языках этой семьи.

2.2. Слова общегерманского происхождения отражают период времени вплоть до начала распада общегерманского языка на отдельные группы, происшедшего на рубеже 1 века до Н.Э. - 1 века Н.Э.

3. *Иностраный элемент* (заимствования) составляет более половины словарного состава английского языка. Основными слоями являются латинские, скандинавские и французские заимствования.

3.1. Латинский элемент представлен заимствованиями общегерманского периода (главным образом наименования бытовых предметов и продуктов); заимствованиями раннего древнеанглийского периода (через посредство кельтского языка - наименования объектов материальной культуры римлян); словами, связанными с введением Христианства в 7 веке; словами, вошедшими в язык в 15-16 веках в связи с возрождением науки (главным образом "книжные заимствования", слова научной номенклатуры). Большинство этих слов может быть достаточно легко определено благодаря характерным внешним признакам, а также семантике.

3.2. Скандинавский элемент представлен заимствованиями 8-10 веков, включающими слова повседневного обихода. Они настолько тесно переплелись с исконными словами, что точное этимологическое отнесение их к заимствованиям не всегда возможно.

5.2. Французский элемент английского словаря имеет чрезвычайно большое значение. Ранние французские заимствования относятся к периоду норманнского завоевания. Эти слова в основном относятся к сфере политической жизни, судопроизводству и государственному устройству. Большинство из них полностью ассимилировались в английском языке и не воспринимаются как заимствования. Средневековые французские заимствования представляют более обиходные слова. Заимствования новоанглийского периода, связанные с Реставрацией монархии, включают много слов - названий объектов материальной культуры Франции, жизни высшего общества и развлечений.

4. *Слова-гибриды*. Большое число заимствований из разных языков и их ассимилирование привело к возникновению в английском языке слов, состоящих из элементов, разных по своему происхождению.

Этимологические дублеты. Этимологические дублеты – это слова, развившиеся из одного корня, но вошедшие в английский язык

через посредство разных языков. Зачастую это приводит к существенному изменению как из формы, так и значения.

Приведенные примеры различных этимологических слоев современного английского словаря лишний раз свидетельствуют! о том, что 10-летняя и сложная история английского языка может быть в полной мере понята только при изучении его в тесной связи с историей жизни народа, являющегося его носителем.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

Выписка из Государственного стандарта образования.

Пояснительная записка

Требования к уровню освоения содержания и организации учебного материала по курсу

Текущая аттестация качества усвоения знаний

Итоговая аттестация

ГЛАВА 1 Программа дисциплины

1.1. Объем дисциплины и виды учебной работы

1.2. Содержание дисциплины и виды учебной деятельности (тематический план)

1.3. Рабочие планы лекций

ГЛАВА 2 Содержание лекционного материала по курсу «История английского языка»

1. Введение. Общие характеристики германских языков

2. Древнеанглийский период. Общая

3. характеристика

4. Среднеанглийский период. Общая

5. характеристика

4. Новоанглийский период. Общая

6. характеристика

5. Фонетика древнеанглийского периода

6. Грамматика древнеанглийского периода. Система имени

7. Грамматика древнеанглийского периода. Система глагола

8. Изменения в фонетической системе в среднеанглийский новоанглийский периоды

9. Изменения в системе имени в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды

10. Изменения в системе глагола в среднеанглийский и новоанглийский периоды

11. Словарный состав английского языка

12. Этимологические слои современного английского языка

ГЛАВА 3. Планы и вопросы семинарских занятий

3.1. Распределение часов по темам

3.2. Примерный перечень вопросов и заданий для самостоятельной работы

3.3. Содержание тем лекционных занятий и объем в часах.

Рекомендуемая литература:

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ 1.

Вопросы для самоконтроля; Экзаменационные вопросы

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ 2

Краткое изложение курса лекций по «Истории английского языка» на русском языке.