

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ПРИКАРПАТСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ ВАСИЛЯ СТЕФАНИКА

Кафедра англійської філології

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Навчально-методичний посібник

Івано-Франківськ
2014

УДК 811.111'01-04

ББК 81.432.1-0

I-41

Ікалюк Л. М., Ковбаско Ю. Г. History of the English Language : навчально-методичний посібник / Л. М. Ікалюк, Ю. Г. Ковбаско. – Івано-Франківськ : Видавництво “НАІР”, 2014. – 36 с.

Навчально-методичний посібник складено
відповідно до програмових вимог

Навчально-методичний посібник спрямований на поглиблення знань студентів із теоретичного курсу історії англійської мови і сприятиме цілеспрямованому та якісному оволодінню ними програмового матеріалу.

Посібник складається з трьох частин. Перша містить перелік теоретичних питань, які розкриваються на лекційних заняттях. Друга частина складається з теоретичних та практичних завдань для семінарських занять, спрямованих на підвищення самостійної роботи студентів, з їх подальшою перевіркою на практичних заняттях. У третій частині міститься перелік основних термінів, що повинні бути засвоєні студентами протягом курсу, список рекомендованої літератури, необхідної для самостійної роботи студентів та стислий виклад ключових питань, опрацьованих на лекційних та практичних заняттях.

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THEORETICAL PART

LECTURE 1

The Subject of Diachronic Studies in Germanistics

1. The aims of studying the history of the English language
2. Sources of the language history
3. The principles of language classification
4. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to studying the language
5. The comparative historical method
 - 5.1 The stages of the comparative-historical analysis
 - 5.2 The principles and the drawbacks of the comparative-historical analysis
6. Indo-European language family
7. Germanic languages (subgroups)
 - 7.1 Old Germanic languages
 - 7.2 Modern Germanic languages

LECTURE 2

Approaches towards the Periodization of the English Language

1. Henry Sweet's periodization of the English language
2. Historical periodization as offered by Boris Khaimovich
3. Tatiana Rastorguyeva's periodization of the English language
4. Vladimir Arakin's division of the history of English
5. The periods of the development of English as offered by Alan Markman and Erwin Steinberg

LECTURE 3

The Formation of the English Nation

1. Pre-Saxon inhabitants of the British Isles
2. Celtic tribes
3. Romans
4. Germanic invasion
5. Scandinavian invasion and the Norman Conquest
6. Introduction of Christianity

LECTURE 4

The Formation of the English National Language

1. The development of English graphemics
2. Old English territorial dialects
3. Middle English territorial dialects
4. The development of the dialect of London into a national language
5. Modern English dialects

LECTURE 5

Linguistic Features of Germanic Languages

1. Some phonetic peculiarities of the Germanic languages
 - 1.1.* The first consonant shift
 - 1.2.* Vowels
 - 1.3.* The doubling (gemination) of consonants
 - 1.4.* Rhotacism

- 1.5. Germanic fracture (or breaking)
- 1.6. The second consonant shift
2. Some common grammatical features of Germanic languages
 - 2.1. Form-building means
 - 2.2. Ablaut
 - 2.3. Word-structure
 - 2.4. Types of stems
 - 2.5. Strong and weak verbs
3. Early Germanic vocabulary

LECTURE 6

English Orthography and Phonology in Diachrony

1. Old English alphabet and pronunciation
2. Old English phonetics:
 - 2.1. Old English system of vowels
 - 2.2. Diphthongization and monophthongization
 - 2.3. Phonetic changes
 - 2.4. Old English system of consonants
3. Middle English sounds and letters
4. Middle English phonetics:
 - 4.1. Changes in the system of consonants
 - 4.2. Changes in the system of vowels
5. Early New English orthography.
6. Early New English phonetics:
 - 6.1. Early New English system of vowels

- 6.2. The development of long vowels
- 6.3. Great Vowel Shift
- 6.4. Qualitative and quantitative changes
- 6.5. Main changes in the system of Early New English consonants

LECTURE 7

English Morphology in Diachrony. The Old English Period

1. Nominal parts of speech
2. Categories of the Old English noun
3. Types of declension
4. Categories of the Old English adjective, degrees of comparison
5. Suppletivity
6. Classes of Old English pronouns and their categories
7. Categories of Old English numerals, peculiarities of their declension
8. Old English adverbs
9. Old English verb. The categories of the Old English verb
10. Morphological classification of Old English verbs
11. Non-finite forms of the Old English verb

LECTURE 8

English Morphology in Diachrony. The Middle English Period

1. The development of the noun categories
2. The article as a class of words in Middle English
3. Categories of Middle English adjectives
4. The Middle English adverb

5. Pronouns in Middle English
6. Categories of the numeral
7. The Middle English verb
8. Non-finite forms of the verb

LECTURE 9

English Morphology in Diachrony. The Modern English Period

1. General characteristics of the Early New English morphology
2. The noun categories
3. Changes in the system of the Early New English pronoun and adjective
4. The Early New English verb
5. Non-finite forms of the verb
6. The development of English analyticity
 - 6.1. The system of analytical forms in diachrony
 - 6.2. The rudiments of synthetic forms in Modern English

LECTURE 10

English Syntaxemics in Diachrony

1. The Old English syntax. General characteristics
 - 1.1. The Old English word order
 - 1.2. Ways of expressing syntactical relations
 - 1.3. Negation in the Old English sentence
 - 1.4. Verbal phrases

2. General characteristics of the Middle English syntax
3. Main changes in the Early New English syntax

LECTURE 11

English Semantics in Diachrony

1. The Old English vocabulary. Etymological characteristics of Old English words
2. The word-building in Old English
3. The Middle English vocabulary. The ways of enriching vocabulary
4. The word-building in Middle English
5. The Early New English vocabulary. The ways of its enriching
6. The Early New English word-building
7. English variants. General characteristics

PRACTICAL PART

SEMINAR 1

Theme 1: **The Subject of Diachronic Studies in Germanistic**

1. History of English in the systemic conception of English
 - 1.1 The aims and the purpose of the study of the subject
 - 1.2 Connection of the subject with other disciplines
2. Sources of the language history
3. General notes on the language study
 - 3.1 The definition of the language
 - 3.2 The function of the language
 - 3.3 The structure of the language
 - 3.4 The language classification principles
 - 3.5 Synchrony and diachrony in the language study
4. The comparative-historical method
 - 4.1 The stages of the comparative-historical method
 - 4.2 The principles of the comparative-historical method
 - 4.3 The drawbacks of the comparative-historical method
5. The Germanic group of languages
 - 5.1 Old Germanic languages
 - 5.1.1 East Germanic languages
 - 5.1.2 North Germanic languages
 - 5.1.3 West Germanic languages
 - 5.2 Modern Germanic languages
 - 5.2.1 North Germanic languages
 - 5.2.2 West Germanic languages

Theme 2: The Formation of the English Nation

1. Pre-Germanic Britain. The Celts
2. The Roman invasion
3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion
4. The Scandinavian invasion of Britain
5. The Norman Conquest
6. Introduction of Christianity

SEMINAR 2

Theme 3: Periods in the History of the English Language

1. Henry Sweet and his division of the English language
2. Historical periodization as offered by B. Khaimovich
3. T. Rastorguyeva's periodization of the English language
4. V. Arakin's division of the history of English
5. The periods of the development of English as offered by A. Markman and E. Steinberg

Theme 4: The Formation of the English National Language

1. The development of the English graphemics
2. Territorial dialects of the period of the Anglo-Saxon invasion
3. The dialects of the period of the Norman Conquest
4. The development of the dialect of London into a national language
5. Modern English dialects

SEMINAR 3

Theme 5: Linguistic Features of Germanic Languages

1. Some phonetic peculiarities of the Germanic Languages
 - 1.1 The doubling (gemination) of consonants
 - 1.2 Rhotacism
 - 1.3 Germanic fracture (or breaking)
 - 1.4 The second consonant shift
2. Some common grammatical features of Germanic languages
 - 2.1 Form-building means
 - 2.2 Ablaut
 - 2.3 Word-structure
 - 2.4 Types of stems
 - 2.5 Strong and weak verbs
3. Early Germanic vocabulary
 - 3.1 Native words
 - 3.2 Borrowings

SEMINAR 4

Theme 6: The Old English Orthography and Phonology

1. The Old English alphabet and pronunciation
2. The Old English phonology. Vowels
 - 2.1 Changes of stressed vowels
 - 2.2 Changes of unstressed vowels
3. Changes in the system of Old English consonants
4. Some other phonetic changes

Practical task: Prepare expressive reading of Lines 194-224 from *Beowulf*, an Old English heroic epic poem:

	þæt fram ham gefrægn	Higelaces þegn,
195	god mid Geatum,	Grendles dæda;
	se wæs moncynnes	mægenes strengest
	on þæm dæge	þysses lifes,
	æþele ond eacen.	Het him yðlidan
	godne gegyrwan,	cwæð, he guðcýning
200	ofer swanrade	secean wolde,
	mærne þeoden,	þa him wæs manna þearf.
	ðone siðfæt him	snotere ceorlas
	lythwon logon,	þeah he him leof wære;
	hwetton higerofne,	hæl sceawedon.
205	Hæfde se goda	Geata leoda
	cempan gecorone	þara þe he cenoste
	findan mihte;	fiftyna sum
	sundwudu sohte;	secg wisade,
	lagucræftig mon,	landgemyrcu.
210	Fyrst forð gewat.	Flota wæs on yðum,
	bat under beorge.	Beornas gearwe
	on stefn stigon;	streamas wundon,
	sund wið sande;	secgas bæron
	on bearm nacan	beorhte frætwe,
215	guðsearo geatolic;	guman ut scufon,
	weras on wilsid,	wudu bundenne.
	Gewat þa ofer wægholm,	winde gefysed,
	flota famiheals	fugle gelicost,
	oðþæt ymb antid	opres dogores
220	wundenstefna	gewaden hæfde
	þæt ða liðende	land gesawon,
	brimclifu blican,	beorgas steape,
	side sænæssas;	þa wæs sund liden,
	eoletes æt ende.	

<http://www.paddletrips.net/beowulf/html/benslade.html>

Theme 7: **The Middle English Orthography and Phonology**

1. The Middle English sounds and letters. Changes in the spelling system in Middle English
2. Changes in Middle English phonology
 - 2.1 Changes in the system of consonants
 - 2.2 Changes in the system of vowels
 - 2.2.1 Main changes of unstressed vowels
 - 2.2.2 Quantitative and qualitative changes of the Middle English stressed vowels

Practical task: Prepare expressive reading of Lines 1-18 from *The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer:

Whan that aprill with his shoures soote
The droghte of march hath perced to the roote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licour
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
5 Whan zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
Tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the ram his halve cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
10 That slepen al the nyght with open ye
(so priketh hem nature in hir corages);
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
15 And specially from every shires ende
Of engelond to caunterbury they wende,
The hooly blisful martir for to seke,
That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.

Theme 8: **The Early New English Orthography and Phonology**

1. Changes in the system of the Early New English orthography. The Early New English system of sounds and letters
2. Changes in the Early New English phonology
 - 2.1 The Great Vowel Shift
 - 2.2 Main changes of short vowels
 - 2.3 The changes of diphthongs
 - 2.4 Vowel changes under the influence of [r] and [l]
 - 2.5 Main changes in the system of the Early New English consonants

Practical task: Prepare expressive reading of Sonnet 138 by William Shakespeare:

When my love swears that she is made of truth
I do believe her, though I know she lies,
That she might think me some untutor'd youth,
Unlearned in the world's false subtleties.
Thus vainly thinking that she thinks me young,
Although she knows my days are past the best,
Simply I credit her false speaking tongue:
On both sides thus is simple truth suppress'd.
But wherefore says she not she is unjust?
And wherefore say not I that I am old?
O, love's best habit is in seeming trust,
And age in love loves not to have years told:
Therefore I lie with her and she with me,
And in our faults by lies we flatter'd be.

<http://writing.upenn.edu/pennsound/x/Richetti-Sonnets.php>
<http://etc.usf.edu/lit2go/179/the-sonnets/>

SEMINAR 5

Theme 9: The Old English Morphology

1. The Old English noun. Categories. Declensions. Stems
2. The Old English pronoun. Classes of pronouns
3. The Old English adjective. Categories
4. The Old English adverb
5. The Old English numeral

Theme 10: The Old English Morphology: Verb

1. The Old English Verb. The categories of the Old English verb
2. Morphological classification of the Old English verbs
 - 2.1 Strong verbs
 - 2.2 Weak verbs
 - 2.3 Preterite-present verbs
 - 2.4 Irregular verbs
3. Non-finite forms of the Old English verb

SEMINAR 6

Theme 11: The Middle English Morphology

1. General characteristics of the Middle English grammatical system
2. The Middle English noun
3. The article as a class of words in the Middle English
4. The Middle English adjective
5. The Middle English adverb

6. The Middle English pronoun
7. The Middle English numeral
8. The Middle English verb
 - 8.1 Strong and weak verbs
 - 8.2 Non-finite forms of the verb

Theme 12: Essential Morphological Changes in the Early New English Period

1. General characteristics of the Early New English morphology. The noun
2. Changes in the system of the Early New English pronoun and adjective
3. Changes of the Early New English verb. The gerund

SEMINAR 7

Theme 13: Changes in the System of the English Syntax

1. The Old English Syntax. General characteristics
 - 1.1 The Old English word order
 - 1.2 Ways of expressing syntactical relations
 - 1.3 Negation in the Old English sentence
 - 1.4 Verbal phrases
2. General characteristics of the Middle English syntax
3. Main changes in the Early New English syntax

Theme 14: **Changes in the System of the English Vocabulary**

1. The Old English vocabulary. Etymological characteristics of the English words
 - 1.1 Common Indo-European and common Germanic words
 - 1.2 Loan words and poetic vocabulary
 - 1.3 Word-building in Old English. Its main types
2. The Middle English vocabulary
 - 2.1 Borrowings from Scandinavian and French
 - 2.2 The word building in the Middle English
 - 2.2.1 The use of native affixes with borrowed words
 - 2.2.2 Conversion as a new type of derivation
3. Early New English vocabulary enrichment. Word-building
 - 3.1 Conversion as the most productive way of word formation
 - 3.2 Borrowings in Early New English
 - 3.2.1 Borrowings from Latin and French
 - 3.2.2 Borrowings from other languages
 - 3.3 Etymological doublets
 - 3.4 Semantic word building
4. The expansion of English. The development of the variants of the English language

SUGGESTED READING

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GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

- ablaut** A variation in the root vowel unconnected with any phonetic conditions; in Germanic largely restricted to variation in the root vowel of strong verbs according to tense and number, e.g. *sing, sang, sung; was, were*.
- affix** A type of morpheme which is used in the derivation of new words. In English, affixes are attached either as prefixes to the beginning of words, e.g. *un-like*, or as suffixes to the ends of words, e.g. *like-ly*.
- agglutinative** Of a language or form that strings out grammatical morphs in sequence with only one category represented on each, e.g. *cat-s* 'cat + plural'.
- analytic** A term referring to language or even grammatical categories to indicate an organization through separate words in a particular order rather than one through affixes in words, which is referred to as synthetic. Grammatically, *more lovely* is analytic as compared with *loveli-er*, which is synthetic.
- assimilation** A phonological process by which two sounds become closer in pronunciation. The assimilation may be either full, cf. *immaterial*, or partial, cf. *impossible*, for both compare *inorganic*.
- back-derivation** The morphological process by which a shorter word is formed by the deletion of a morpheme interpreted as an affix, e.g. *peddle* < *pedlar*.
- bahuvrihi** A compound in which, semantically, the reference of the compound is to an entity to which neither of the elements of the compound refer, e.g. *highbrow*. Structurally the bahuvrihi compounds are exocentric.
- breaking (fracture)** The diphthongization of a vowel resulting from the development of an off-glide towards the articulatory position for the following consonant, e.g. Gc. [a] + [r] or [l] + consonant > [ea], [e] > [eo], [i] > [io].
- contraction** An Old English phonetic change which resulted in two vowels inside a word contracting into one long vowel after a consonant dropping.

creole	A language which develops out of a pidgin that has come to be used as the first language of an entire speech community.
degemination	The phonological process where by a double consonant is reduced to a single one.
digraph	A combination of two graphs (as a trigraph is of three graphs) to represent a single graphic unit, as <th> in <i>the</i> as compared with the sequence of these two graphs separately in <i>hotheaded</i> .
diphthong	A vowel in which there is a noticeable change in quality during the duration of its articulation in any given syllable. The diphthong is usually transcribed by means of the starting- and finishing-points of the articulation, as in <i>fine</i> /fain/. Diphthongs may have prominence either on the first element ('falling diphthongs') or the second element ('rising diphthongs'). The former is the more usual in all periods of English. The term 'diphthongisation' refers to the process by which a monophthong becomes a diphthong.
dissimilation	A phonological process by which two (nearly) adjacent and similar or identical sounds are made less similar, cf. L peregrinus and MoE pilgrim, where the first /r/ is dissimilated to /l/.
gemination of Gc. consonants	The process when all the consonants, except [r], were doubled in spelling or lengthened in pronunciation between a short vowel and the sound [j], sometimes [l] or [r].
gender	A term used to characterize word-class distinctions commonly known as 'masculine/feminine/neuter'. If it is a purely grammatical category not influenced by the sex of the referent it may be distinguished as 'grammatical gender', contrasting with 'natural gender', where the sex of the referent determines the gender.
gradation	The modification of a vowel in ablaut. Hence 'grade' refers to the particular ablaut form of a vowel.
grapheme	The minimal contrastive unit in the writing system of a language. Thus <A, a, a> are all non-contrastive variations, i.e. allographs, of the grapheme <a>, which contrasts with, say, .

Great Vowel Shift (GVS)	A major transformation of the ME long-vowel system, beginning in the fifteenth century, involving diphthongisation of high vowels and raising of mid ones, among other things. Thus ME /i:/ > MoE /ai/ in <i>bite</i> , /e:/ > /i:/ in <i>beet</i> , etc.
Grimm's Law	A set of Germanic changes affecting the Indo-European obstruents, accounting for consonantal relations in cognates like Lat. <i>pater</i> /E <i>father</i> , Lat. <i>tenuis</i> /E <i>thin</i> , Lat. <i>cord-</i> /E <i>heart</i> , etc.
lexeme	The minimal distinctive unit in the lexical system of a language and the abstract unit underlying a set of grammatical variants. Hence WALK (here this is the conventional representation of a lexeme, and does not refer to another entry in the glossary) has variants such as <i>walk</i> , <i>walks</i> , <i>walking</i> , <i>walked</i>). The head-words of dictionary entries are normally lexemes.
metathesis	A phonological process in which the order of two adjacent or nearly adjacent segments is reversed, cf. MoE <i>wasp</i> , <i>wopse</i> .
monophthong	A vowel in which there is no distinctive change in quality for the duration of its articulation in any given syllable. The term contrasts with diphthong. Hence 'monophthongisation' refers to the process by which a diphthong becomes a monophthong.
morpheme	The minimal distinctive unit in grammar (as opposed to phonology). Morphemes may be either lexical or syntactic, as in the two morphemes of MoE <i>boy+s</i> . Words containing only one morpheme, e.g. <i>boy</i> , are said to be monomorphemic. 'Free' morphemes can stand alone as words, e.g. <i>boy</i> , whilst 'bound' morphemes must be attached to another morpheme, whether they are used in inflexion, e.g. plural <i>-s</i> , or derivation, e.g. the prefix <i>-un</i> .
national language	The language that develops on the basis of some territorial dialects, which under certain historical conditions become generally recognized as a means of communication.
palatal mutation	A kind of regressive assimilation caused by the sounds [i] and [j] in the 6 th century. Under their influence the vowels of the preceding syllable moved to a higher front position.
palatalization of consonants	An Old English phonetic change of the velar consonants [k] and [g] before (sometimes after) front vowels and the sound [j] into [tʃ] and [dʒ].

phoneme	The minimal unit in the sound system of a language. The simplest test for a phoneme is substitution, i.e. if one sound, say, [p ^h] in [p ^h in] can be substituted by another, e.g. [b], and the result is a contrast in meaning, then the two sounds are realizations of different phonemes. Sounds which cannot be so substituted but which are similar, e.g. [p ^h] and [p], are members of the same phoneme, i.e. allophones of the same phoneme. Technically, separate phonemes are in contrastive distribution, i.e. can appear in the same environments, whilst allophones of the same phoneme are in complementary distribution, i.e. cannot appear in the same environments.
pidgin	A language which results from the mixture of two or more distinct languages as the result of attempts to communicate between two separate speech-communities. The pidgin language has a much reduced linguistic structure and is not the mother-tongue of any speaker. Contrast <i>creole</i> .
preterite	Past tense, although the term is often specifically used in morphology to refer to the past tense forms of a verb.
preterite-presents	A class of verbs in which the original preterite comes to acquire present tense meanings and where subsequently a new preterite is formed. Thus OE <i>witan</i> 'know', L <i>novi</i> 'I know' (not etymologically related) are both preterite in form but present in meaning.
rhotacism	The intervocal change of the Germanic [z] to [r] in the West and North Germanic languages.
root	A single morpheme which carries the meaning of a word, often used in historical linguistics to denote the original morpheme from which a word is etymologically derived.
schwa	The name of the central vowel [ə], often found in unstressed syllables in English, as in <i>another</i> /ənʌðə/. The schwa vowel is of crucial importance, but controversial, in the history of Indo-European.
Second Consonant Shift	The change of the common Germanic consonants <i>b, d, g, p, t,</i> and <i>k</i> in High German dialects.
stem	The part of a word to which inflexions are attached, e.g. MoE <i>boy-s</i> , OE <i>cniht-as</i> . This may be equivalent to the root, but is capable of containing more than one morpheme, as a result, say, of derivation, e.g. OE <i>leorning</i> , where the root is <i>leorn-</i> .

suppletion	A morphological process where by different inflexional forms of an individual word are taken from different roots, e.g. MoE <i>go</i> , <i>went</i> , where the latter derives from an earlier preterite of <i>wend</i> .
velar mutation	A regressive assimilation caused by the velar vowels [u], [o], and [a]; under their influence the front vowels [i], [e], and [æ] in the 7 th c. changed into [io], [eo], and [ea] respectively.
Verner's Law	The connection between the Germanic consonant sounds and the position of the OE stress, which was discovered by Karl Verner, a Danish linguist, in 1877.

SYNOPSIS OF THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1. THE OLD GERMANIC LANGUAGES, THEIR CLASSIFICATION AND PRINCIPAL FEATURES

Subdivision of the Germanic languages.

The English language belongs to the Germanic languages and the G/L is the branch of the Indo-European language family. First it was one language, and later there appeared 3 subgroups:

1. East-Germanic subgroup (Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian); all of them are dead.

2. North-Germanic subgroup (Old-Norse, Old-Scandinavian). Later it became Norwegian, Danish and Swedish. There was Icelandic and Faroese. The linguists say that Faroese was the language of Vikings.

3. West-Germanic subgroup: Anglian, Frisian, Scots, English, German, Dutch, Yiddish.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic Languages, especially on account of English, which in many countries is one of two Languages on a bilingual community. The total number of English speakers in the world adds up to around 1,200,000,000. Likewise, the total number of native English speakers adds up to around 350,000,000. This implies that there are approximately 850,000,000 people who speak English as an additional language.

2. COMMON PHONETIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Word Stress

It is known that in ancient IE, prior to the separation of Germanic, there existed two ways of word accentuation: musical pitch and force stress. The position of the stress was free and movable, which means that it could fall on any syllable of the word – a root-morpheme, an affix or an ending – and could be shifted both in form-building and word-building. Both these properties of the word accent were changed in PG. Force and expiratory stress became the only type of stress used. In Early PG word stress was still as movable as in ancient IE but in Late PG its position in the word was stabilized. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable, which was usually the root of the word and sometimes the prefix; the other syllables – suffixes and endings – were unstressed. The stress could no longer move either in form-building or word-building.

Consonants. Proto-Germanic consonant shift

The consonants in Germanic look ‘shifted’ as compared with the consonants of non-Germanic Languages. The changes of consonants in PG were first formulated in

terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th c. and are often called Grimm's Law. It is also known as the First or Proto-Germanic consonant shift. Grimm's Law had three acts: 1. The IE voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] became Germanic voiceless fricatives [f], [θ], [h]; 2. IE voiced stops [b], [d], [g] became Germanic voiceless stops [p], [t], [k]; 3. PIE aspirated voice stops [b^h], [d^h], [g^h] became PG voiced stops [b], [d], [g] without aspiration.

Verner's Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. According to Verner's Law all the early PG voiceless fricatives [f, θ, h] which arose under Grimm's Law, and also [s] inherited from PIE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed: f → b, θ → d, s → z and h → g.

i-mutation and its traces in Modern E.

Mutation – a change of one vowel to another one under the influence of a vowel in the following syllable.

Palatal mutation (or i-Umlaut) happened in the 6th -7th c. and was shared by all Old Germanic Languages, except Gothic (that's why later it will be used for comparison).

Palatal mutation – fronting and raising of vowels under the influence of [i] and [j] in the following syllable (to approach the articulation of these two sounds). As a result of palatal mutation: [i] and [j] disappeared in the following syllable sometimes leading to the doubling of a consonant in this syllable; new vowels appeared in OE ([ie, y]) as a result of merging and splitting:

3. THE SCANDINAVIAN INVASION AND ITS EFFECT ON ENGLISH

In the 8th-9th c. Britain was raided and attacked by the Danes / Scandinavians / Vikings. Only Alfred the Great of Wessex kept them away. In 878 the Treaty of Wedmore was signed and England was divided into Wessex (belonged to Alfred) and Danelaw (belonged to the Danes). The Scandinavian dialects belonged to the Germanic group, the Danes soon linguistically merged into the local OE dialects leaving some Scandinavian elements. Scandinavian borrowings came to English from Northern and North-Eastern Dialects.

The only distinctive Scandinavian feature in Modern English: Scandinavian cluster [sk] (*sky, skill, skin, skirt*, etc.). Some Scandinavian borrowings replaced the native words (*they, take, call*, etc.). Scandinavian borrowings enlarged the number of synonyms in English: native *to blossom* – Scan. borr. *to bloom*, native *wish* – Scan. borr. *want*, native *heaven* – Scan. borr. *sky*, etc.

4. THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND ITS EFFECT ON THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

1042-1066 – King Edward the Confessor: brought up in France; had lots of Norman advisors and favourites; spoke French and wanted his court to speak it; rumour had it that he appointed William, Duke of Normandy, his successor.

However, after the death of Edward in 1066 the government of the country was in the hands of the Anglo-Saxon feudal lords and they proposed their own king – Earl Harold Godwinson of Wessex. 1066 – Harold Godwinson became king of England. William was not satisfied with this fact. He gathered a big army, there happened the Battle of Hastings, William won it, became king and was called since then William the Conqueror. After the Norman Conquest of the British Isles the Normans occupied important positions in church, government and army. William strengthened feudal system and royal power.

French borrowings started to penetrate from the South and spread northwards. French borrowings penetrated through oral and written speech and at first were adopted only by the high strata of the society (French was the L of the administration, king's court, law courts, church (as well as Latin) and army).

French borrowings enlarged the English vocabulary (a lot of new words); Some French borrowings replaced the native words (*very, river, easy*, etc.); Some French affixes were borrowed into English (*com-, sub-, dis-, -ment, -ish, -able*, etc.); French borrowings enlarged the number of synonyms in English: native *to hide* – Fr. borr. *to conceal*, native *wish* – Fr. borr. *desire*, native *smell* – Fr. borr. *odour*, etc.

5. OE DIALECTS. ME DIALECTS. THE RISE OF THE LONDON DIALECT

Kent (Kentish was spoken in Kent, Surrey, the Isle of Wight), from the tongues of Jutes/ Frisian; *Wessex* (West Saxon was spoken along the Thames and the Bristol Channel), origin from a Saxon dialect, 9th c. – Wessex was the centre of the English culture and politics. West Saxon – the bookish type of L. The most important dialect in the OE period. (Alfred the Great – the patron of culture and learning); *Mercia* (Mercian was spoken between the Thames and the Humber), a dialect of north Angles; *Northumbria* (Northumbrian was spoken between the Humber and the Forth), a dialect of south Angles; 8th c. – Northumbria was the centre of the English culture.

ME dialects. The rise of the London dialect.

OE Dialect Kentish → ME Dialect Kentish Dialect;

OE Dialect West Saxon → ME Dialect South-Western Dialects (East Saxon Dialect, London Dialect, Gloucester Dialect);

OE Dialect Mercian → ME Dialect Midland Dialects (West Midland Dialect, East Midland Dialect);

OE Dialect Northumbrian → ME Dialect Northern Dialects (Yorkshire Dialect, Lancashire Dialect).

The most important dialect in the ME period was the *London dialect*:

In the 12th -13th c. the London Dialect became the literary L and the standard, both in written and spoken form.

6. THE OE ALPHABETS. OE MAJOR WRITTEN RECORDS IN OE

The first OE written records are considered to be the runic inscriptions. To make these inscriptions people used the Runes/the Runic Alphabet – the first original Germanic Alphabet.

Runes/Runic Alphabet: appeared in the 3rd - 4th c. A.D.; it was also called Futhark (after the first 6 letters of this alphabet); the word “rune” meant “secret, mystery” and was used to denote magic inscriptions on objects made of wood, stone, metal; each symbol indicated a separate sound (one symbol = one sound);

OE Alphabet- The OE Alphabet was borrowed from Latin, but there were also some letters that were borrowed from the Runic Alphabet. Most of the OE manuscripts were written in Latin characters. The Latin Alphabet was modified by the scribes to suit the English L (some letters were changed and some new letters were added).

Among the earliest textual insertion is “The Ecclesiastical History of the English People” written in Latin in the 8th c. by Bede the Venerable, an English monk. The topics of OE poetry: *heroic epic* (“Beowulf”); *lyrical poems* (“The Wanderer”, “The Seafarer”); *religious poems* (“Fate of the Apostles”, “Dream of the Rood”).

Major written records in ME.

The flourishing of literature, which marks the second half of the 14th c. This period of literary florescence is known as the "age of Chaucer", the greatest name in English literature before Shakespeare. His work is “Canterbury Tales”, “A Legend of Good Women”. John Wycliffe (1324—1384), the forerunner of the English Reformation. His most important contribution to English prose was his translation of the BIBLE completed in 1384. The London Dialect of the beginning of the XIV cent. is represented by Adam Devi’s poems; the second half of the cent. by works of Geoffrey Chaucer, 'John Gower and 'John Wycliffe. The literary texts of the late 14th c. preserved in numerous manuscripts, belong to a variety of genres. Translation continued, but original compositions were produced in abundance; poetry was more prolific than prose.

7. MAJOR SPELLING CHANGES IN ME, THEIR CAUSES

In the course of ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling; some of them reflected the sound changes which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters by new letters and digraphs.

In ME the runic letters passed out of use. Thorn – þ – and the crossed d – ð, ð – were replaced by digraph *th*, “wyne” > double *u* – *w* -, shwa fell into disuse;

French influence: *ou*, *ie*, *ch*;

Wider use of digraphs: *sch/ssh*, *dg*, *wh*, *oo*, *ee*, *gh*;

When *u* stood close to *n*, *m*, *v* it was replaced by *o* to indicate short *u* (lufu – love);

y was used as equivalent of *i*;

ou and *ow* were interchangeable.

The letters *th* and *s* indicated voiced sounds between vowels, and voiceless sounds – initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonant.

Long sounds in ME texts are often shown by double letters or digraphs. The length of the vowel can be inferred from the nature of the syllable.

8. THE OE VOWEL SYSTEM (MONOPHTHONGS AND DIPHTHONGS). MAJOR CHANGES

Unstressed vowels were weakened and dropped. Stressed vowels underwent some changes: splitting – one phoneme split into several allophones which later become separate phonemes (e.g. *a* → {*a*, *ã*, *æ*}); merging – separate phonemes become allophones of one phoneme and then disappear and are not distinguished any more as separate phonemes (e.g. *a:* → (*o:*, *æ:*))

In PG there were no diphthongs. There was just a sequence of two separate vowels. Diphthongs appeared in OE: some (usually long diphthongs) – as a result of merging of two vowels: *a* + *u* → *ea*; *e* + *u* → *eo*; (*i* + *u* → (*io:*)) (dialectal variant).

Others (usually short diphthongs) – as a result of the influence of the succeeding and preceding consonants (breaking of [*æ*, *e*]).

Palatal Mutation/i-Umlaut Mutation – a change of one vowel to another one under the influence of a vowel in the following syllable.

Palatal mutation (or i-Umlaut) happened in the 6th -7th c. and was shared by all Old Germanic Languages, except Gothic (that’s why later it will be used for comparison).

Palatal mutation – fronting and raising of vowels under the influence of [*i*] and [*j*] in the following syllable (to approach the articulation of these two sounds). As a result of palatal mutation:

- [*i*] and [*j*] disappeared in the following syllable sometimes leading to the doubling of a consonant in this syllable;

• new vowels appeared in OE ([ie, y]) as a result of merging and splitting: a, o, æ → e; a: → æ:; ð/ō → ě/ē; ū/ū → ŷ/ÿ (labialised) (new!); ěǎ/ēā, ěō/ēō → ěě/ēē (new!)

Traces of i-Umlaut in Modern English: 1. irregular Plural of nouns (man – men; tooth – teeth); 2. irregular verbs and adjectives (told ←tell; sold ←sell; old – elder); 3. word-formation with sound interchange (long – length; blood – bleed).

OE Vowel System (symmetrical, i.e. each short vowel had its long variant).

The length of vowels was phonologically relevant (i.e. served to distinguish words): e.g. (OE) is (is) – īs (ice); col (coal) – cōl (cool); god (god) – gōd (good), etc.

The OE consonant system.

1. *Hardening* (the process when a soft consonant becomes harder)– usually initially and after nasals ([m, n]):

[ð] → [d]; [v] → [b]; [ɣ] → [g]

2. *Voicing* (the process when a voiceless consonant becomes voiced in certain positions) – intervocally and between a vowel and a voiced consonant or sonorant

[f, θ, h, s] → [v, ð, g, z] e.g. *wulfos* (Gothic) – *wulf[v]as* (OE) (wolves)

3. *Rhotacism* (a process when [z] turns into [r])

e.g. *maiza* (Gothic) – *māra* (OE) (more)

4. *Gemination* (a process of doubling a consonant) – after a short vowel, usually happened as a result of palatal mutation (e.g. *fullan* (OE) (fill), *settan* (OE) (set), etc.).

5. *Palatalisation of Consonants* (a process when hard vowels become soft) – before a front vowel and sometimes also after a front vowel

[g, ɣ, k, h] → [g', ɣ', k', h'] e.g. *c[k']ild* (OE) (child); *ecg[gg']* (OE) (edge).

6. *Loss of Consonants*: sonorants before fricatives (e.g. *fimf* (Gothic) – *fīf* (OE) (five)); fricatives between vowels and some plosives (e.g. *sægde* (early OE) – *sæde* (late OE) (said)); loss of [j] – as a result of palatal mutation (see examples above); loss of [w] (e.g. case-forms of nouns: *sæ* (Nominative) – *sæwe* (Dative) (OE) (sea).

9. GREAT VOWEL SHIFT

The change that happened in the 14th - 16th c. and affected all long monophthongs + diphthong [au]. As a result these vowels were: diphthongized; narrowed (became more closed); both diphthongized and narrowed.

ME Sounds → NE Sounds: [i:] → [ai] (mice); [e:] → [i:] (feet); [a:] → [ei] (make); [o:] → [ou] (boat); [u:] → [au] (mouse); [o:] → [u:] (moon).

This shift was not followed by spelling changes, i.e. it was not reflected in written form. Thus the Great Vowel Shift explains many modern rules of reading.

Short Vowels (ME Sounds → NE Sounds): [a] → [æ] (*that* [θat] → *that* [ðæt], *man* [man] → *man* [mæn]); [a] → [o] after [w] (*was* [was] → *was* [woz], *water*

[ˈwatə] → *water* [ˈwotə]); [u] → [ʌ] (*hut* [hut] → *hut* [hʌt], *comen* [cumen] → *come* [cʌm]).

There were exceptions though, e.g. put, pull, bull, etc.

Vocalisation of [r]: It occurred in the 16th – 17th c. Sound [r] became vocalised (changed to [ə] (schwa)) when stood after vowels at the end of the word. *Consequences*: new diphthongs appeared: [ɛə], [iə], [uə]; the vowels before [r] were lengthened (e.g. arm [a:m], for [fo:], etc.); triphthongs appeared: [aiə], [auə] (e.g. shower [ˈʃauə], shire [ˈʃaiə]).

10. THE OE NOUN SYSTEM (GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES, MAJOR TYPES OF DECLENSION)

The OE noun had 2 *grammatical categories*: number and case. Also, nouns distinguished 3 genders, but gender was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes.

The category of number consisted of two members: singular and plural. There were 4 *major cases*: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative.

The OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables.

Stem-suffixes could consist of *vowels* (vocalic stems, e.g. a-stems, i- stems), of *consonants* (consonantal stems, e.g. n-stems), of *sound sequences*, e.g. -ja-stems, -nd-stems. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a “zero-suffix”; they are usually termed “root-stems” and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e.g. OE *man*, *bōc*.

OE nouns are divided as either strong or weak. *Weak nouns* have their own endings. In general, weak nouns are easier than strong nouns, since they had begun to lose their declensional system.

11. THE OE PERSONAL PRONOUNS, THEIR GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES AND DECLENSION. LEXICAL REPLACEMENT IN ME

Personal pronouns in OE changed in Gender, Number, Case, Person.

In OE, while nouns consistently distinguished between four cases, personal pronouns began to lose some of their case distinctions: the forms of the Dat. case of the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. were frequently used instead of the Acc. It is important to note that the Gen. case of personal pronouns had two main applications: like other oblique cases of noun-pronouns it could be an object, but far more frequently it was used as an attribute or a noun determiner, like a possessive pronoun, e.g. *sunu mīn*.

They have categories of 3 persons, 3 numbers (in 3rd person - 2), 4 cases, in 3rd person sing. 3 genders, 1, 2 persons have dual number.

Later the following changes happened to the personal pronouns:

1. Gender is still preserved (*he, she, it*) in ModE but is often denied by scholars because it is expressed lexically and practically has nothing to do with grammar.

2. Cases: -In ME the Genitive Case turned into a new class of pronouns – Possessive Pronouns (e.g. ModE *I* (pers.) – *mine* (possess.); *you* – *yours*, *he* – *his*, *she* – *her*, etc.); -The Dative and the Accusative Cases fell together and formed the Objective Case. Thus in ME there were only two cases left in the personal pronouns – Nominative and Objective (e.g. ModE *I* (Nom) – *me* (Obj); *he* – *him*, *she* – *her*).

3. Number. Dual forms disappeared in ME.

12. THE OE ADJECTIVE (GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES AND DECLENSIONS)

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instr. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dat. case expressing an instrumental meaning.

Adjectives had two declensions that had to do also with the category of determination – strong (definite) and weak (indefinite) – and unlike nouns practically all adjectives could be declined both ways (by strong and weak declension). The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners. The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns.

The development of the adjective in ME (decay of grammatical categories and declensions).

The decay of grammatical categories of the adj proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adj in the 11th c. The number of cases was reduced: the Instr. Case had fused with the Dat. By the end of OE; distinction of other cases in Early ME was unsteady. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg with the help of ending *-e*. In the 14th c. pl forms were sometimes contrasted to the sg forms with the help of ending *-e*. In the age of Chaucer the paradigm of the adj consisted of 4 forms distinguished by a single vocalic ending *-e*. Adjs ending vowels and polysyllabic adjs took no endings and could not show the difference between sg and pl forms or strong and weak forms.

Certain distinctions between weak and strong forms, and also between pl and sg are found in the works of 14th c. writers like Chaucer and Gower.

In ME the following changes happened:

- In most cases inflections *-er*, *-est* were used to form the comparative and the superlative degrees;
- Root-sound interchange fell into disuse (*long* – *longer* – *longest*), though in some cases it was preserved as an exception from the rule (e.g. *old* – *elder* – *eldest*; *far* – *further* – *furthest*);

A new way of formation of the degrees of comparison appeared: *more* + Adj (comparative) || *most* + Adj (superlative). It was applicable to all adjectives and was interchangeable with *-er*, *-est* way of formation till 17th - 18th c. In NE, during the Normalisation Period, the modern rule appeared and this way was applicable only to a certain group of adjectives.

13. THE OE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS, THEIR GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES AND DECLENSION. THE RISE OF THE ARTICLES

There were two *demonstrative pronouns* in OE: the prototype of NE *that*, which distinguished three genders in the sg. And had one form for all the genders in the pl. and the prototype of *this*. They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system: Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and Instr.

The articles have to do with the category of Determination (definiteness/indefiniteness). *Causes for Rise of Articles*:

1. In OE there were two declensions of adjectives – strong (definite) and weak (indefinite) – and the inflections of these declensions indicated whether the noun that followed the adjective was definite or indefinite. At the end of the ME Period the declensions of the Adjective disappeared and there was a necessity to find another way to indicate the definiteness/indefiniteness of a noun. Thus the articles appeared.

2. In OE the word-order was free because inflections were employed to show the relations of the words in a sentence. In ME and NE the majority of the inflections disappeared and the word-order became fixed. This meant that the first place in a sentence was usually occupied by the theme (information already known → marked with the definite article) and the second place – by the rheme (new information → marked with the indefinite article).

Definite Article. The definite article appeared from the OE demonstrative pronoun *se* (M, Sg, Nom) from the paradigm of the OE demonstrative pronoun “that” because it was often used to indicate a definite object or notion.

Indefinite Article. The indefinite article appeared from the OE numeral *ān* (one) and had the meaning of “oneness” (it still indicates only nouns in Sg, i.e. nouns indicating one object or notion).

In OE *ān* had 5-case paradigm that was lost in ME and only one form was left – *oon/one*. Later it was employed in the building of the indefinite article *a/an*.

14. THE OE VERB (GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES, MORPHOLOGICAL TYPES)

Classification:

1. Finite

They had the following categories:

- Tense – Present and Past (NB no Future! – future actions were expressed by the Present Tense forms);
- Mood – Indicative, Imperative, Superlative;
- Person – 1st, 2nd, 3rd;
- Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
- Conjugation – strong and weak.

2. Non-finite:

❖ Infinitive resembled the Noun and had the category of:

- Case – Nominative (Nom) and Dative (Dat)

e.g. Nom *beran* (uninflected) – Dat *to berenne* (inflected, indicated direction or purpose);

❖ Participles 1, 2 resembled the Verb, the Noun and the Adjective and had the following categories:

- Tense – Present (Participle 1) and Past (Participle 2);
- Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
- Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N);
- Case – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc);
- Voice – Active (Part. 1, 2) and Passive (Part 2).

Preterite-Present Verbs: There were 12 of these verbs and most of them later turned into Modal Verbs.

Anomalous Verbs: They were irregular verbs that combined the features of the weak and strong verbs. There were 4 of them – *willan* (will), *bēon* (to be), *ġān* (to go), *dōn* (to do).

15. OE STRONG VERBS AND THEIR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

The strong verbs in OE are usually divided into seven classes. Classes from 1 to 6 use vowel gradation which goes back to the IE ablaut-series modified in different phonetic conditions in accordance with PG and Early OE sound changes. Class 7 includes reduplicating verbs, which originally built their past forms by means of repeating the root-morpheme; this doubled root gave rise to a specific kind of root-vowel interchange. The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: *-an* for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past sg stem, *-on* in the form of Past pl, *-en* for Participle II.

As far as the strong verbs were a non-productive class, some strong verbs turned into weak with time, i.e. started to employ -t/-d suffix in their form-building (e.g. *to climb*, *to help*, *to swallow*, *to wash*, etc.). Thus in NE only 70 strong verbs out of 300 in OE remained. The classes that survived best through different periods of the history were classes 1, 3, 6.

The following changes occurred:

- In ME the inflections *-an*, *-on*, *-en* were all reduced to one inflection → *-en*.
- In NE the ending *-n* was lost in the Infinitive and preserved in the Participle II in order to distinguish these two forms.
- In NE Past Singular and Past Plural forms were unified, usually with the Singular form preferred as a unified form because Past Plural and Participle II often had similar forms and it was hard to distinguish them.

In ModE the subdivision into classes was lost though we still can trace some peculiarities of this or that class in the forms of the irregular verbs.

16. OE WEAK VERBS AND THEIR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

W.v. form their Preterite and Participle II by addition of a dental suffix (d/t) – love, loved. Weak verbs form the majority of OE verbs. There are three major classes of weak verbs in OE. Each Wv. is characterized by 3 basic forms: Infinitive, Preterite and Participle II.

Weak verbs were not as complex as strong ones and had a greater regularity and simplicity. That's why they were productive, i.e. all borrowed verbs used weak model of form-building (suffix -t/-d) (e.g. Scand. *to skate*, Fr. *to charm*, Lat. *to decorate*, etc.) and many originally strong verbs turned into weak (e.g. *to bake*, *to laugh*, *to help*, *to lie*, etc.).

17. THE RISE OF ANALYTICAL FORMS IN VERBAL SYSTEM IN ME

In OE there were no analytical forms. They appeared later:

ME – Future Tense, Perfect, Passive and Subjunctive forms.

In OE there was no Future Tense. Future actions were expressed by Present-Tense forms and modal phrases with *sculan* (shall), *willan* (will), *mazan* (may), *cunnan* (can), etc. *Willan* had more strong modal meaning (volition) that was later weakened and almost lost. 13th – 14th c. – these forms were very common and *sculan* (shall) and *willan* (will) were completely interchangeable. 17th c. – John Wallis introduced the rule “*shall* – 1st person, *will* – 2nd and 3rd person”. In ModE there is a tendency to use *will* + 1st, 2nd and 3rd person without any distinction.

The rise of analytical forms in verbal system in NE.

NE – Continuous and Do-forms;

In NE these forms reappeared together with a synonymous form:

be + Participle I = *be* + *on/in* + Gerund (indicated a process of limited duration)

e.g.: *He was on huntinge* – He was hunting (literally, He was on hunting).

18th c. – Continuous forms became well-established.

19th c. – Continuous forms in the Passive were accepted as a norm (e.g. *The house is being built* – previously such forms were considered clumsy and non-grammatical).

Do-Forms

In NE “do-periphrasis” was used in the Past and Present of the Indicative Mood.

16th c. – “Do” was used in negative, affirmative and interrogative sentences and was freely interchangeable with the simple forms (without “do”).

17th c. – “Do” was left only in negative and interrogative sentences to keep the word-order S + P + O. In affirmative sentences “do” acquired an emphatic meaning.

18. THE OE INFINITIVE AND ITS FURTHER DEVELOPMENT. THE RISE OF THE GERUND

The Infinitive had no verbal gram categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: 2 forms which roughly corresponded to the Nom. And the Dat. Cases of nouns. The preposition *to* was used to show direction or purpose.

In ME the Infinitive lost the Dative Case (the inflected form) and only one form was left: e.g. ME (*to*) *writen*. Particle *to* remained in NE as a formal sign of the infinitive with no meaning of direction or purpose.

Gerund appears in the 12th century. OE verbal noun with suffix —ung, -ing and P1 overlapped; verbal *noun* later turned into Gerund.

19. THE OE PARTICIPLES AND THEIR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

In OE Participle I was considered Present Participle, had only the form of the Active Voice, possessed the categories of Number, Gender, Case. It was used predicatively and attributively. In ME it lost its nominal and adjectival features together with the categories of Number, Gender, Case and became unchangeable.

Participle II

In OE Participle 2 was formed in strong verbs – with the help of the suffix –en (+ sometimes root-vowel interchange) + often marked by prefix *3e-*, in ME prefix *3e-* was weakened to prefix *i-/y* and in NE it disappeared at all; in weak verbs – with the help of the suffix -t/-d.

In OE Participle II was considered Past Participle, had the forms of the Active and Passive Voice, possessed the categories of Number, Gender, Case. It was used predicatively and attributively (agreed with the noun in Number, Gender, Case).

In ME it lost the category of Voice and the categories of Number, Gender, Case and became unchangeable.

20. TYPES OF SYNTACTIC RELATIONS IN OE, ME, NE

The syntactic structure of OE was determined by two major conditions: the nature of OE morphology and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language.

Types: agreement; government; joining.

1. Agreement mainly used in attribute groups to denote the relation between an adj/pron and the substantive.

2. Government – substantive pron. stands in a certain case (Acc, Dat, Gen) depends on the head word.

3. Joining – an adj referring to a verb/adj is connected with it without any formal means.

ME:

1. Agreement – was reduced < reduced morphological system. Only agreement in number survived for strong declension adj and pron.

2. Government has no essential changes in ME;

3. Joining was widened by the reduction of agreement.

NE:

1. Agreement goes on decreasing. Only THIS and THAT still agree in number with their head word.

2. Government – only personal pron, interrogative and relative pron which are governed.

3. Joining – old wrinkles – the adj connected with the head word by joining.

21. NEGATION IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

In OE the common word for negation was *ne* (IE origin). It was simply placed before a word that was to be negated:

As a result of this position before a word the particle *ne* often fused with:

- a verb (e.g. OE *nis* ← *ne is*; *næs* ← *ne wæs*; *næfde* ← *ne hæfde* (had), etc);
- a numeral (e.g. OE *nān* ← *ne an* (none));
- a pronoun (e.g. OE *nic* ← *ne ic* (not me));
- an adverb (e.g. OE *nēfre* ← *ne āfre* (never)).

Multiple negation was perfectly normal.

Often the particle *ne* was strengthened by the particle *naht*.

In ME particle *ne* fell out of use and was replaced completely by the particle *naht* that later developed into *not*, stood mainly after a verb (V + not) and negated it.

In NE, during the Normalisation Period, no-double-negation rule appeared that prohibited more than one negative word in a sentence.