

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ХАРКІВСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
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**Методичні рекомендації для самостійної роботи
студентів за навчальною дисципліною
Історія англійської мови**

рівень вищої освіти перший (бакалаврський)
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освітня програма Англійська мова та література і переклад та друга іноземна мова; Німецька мова та література і переклад та англійська мова; Французька мова та література і переклад та англійська мова: Переклад (іспанська та англійська мови); Переклад (китайська та англійська мови): Переклад (арабська англійська мови)
спеціалізація 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - англійська 035.043 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - німецька 035.051 Романські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - іспанська 035.055 Романські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - французька 035.060 Східні мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - арабська 035.065 Східні мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша - китайська
вид дисципліни вибіркова
факультет іноземних мов

Методичні рекомендації схвалено
на засіданні кафедри англійської філології
Протокол від “ 26” червня 2025 року № 21

Завідувач кафедри англійської філології та методики викладання
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 Ірина МОРОЗОВА

Методичні рекомендації погоджено науково-методичною
комісією факультету іноземних мов

Протокол від “30” червня 2025 року № 7

Голова науково-методичної комісії

факультету іноземних мов

 Анна КОТОВА

Загальні положення щодо організації самостійної роботи студентів

Самостійна робота студентів є основним засобом оволодіння навчальним матеріалом у час, вільний від обов'язкових навчальних дисциплін і регламентується «Положенням про організацію освітнього процесу у Харківському національному університеті імені В.Н. Каразіна». Університет має забезпечувати для осіб, які навчаються, професійну підготовку на рівні кращих університетів світу, формування необхідних фахових і загальних компетентностей, зокрема: *вміння самостійно навчатися і критично мислити*

Самостійна робота студентів кафедри англійської філології та методики викладання іноземної мови за навчальною дисципліною «Історія англійської мови» передбачає опрацювання навчального матеріалу, пропонованого у курсі, підготовку реферату /доповіді-проєкту про розвиток англійської мови, підготовку до усних відповідей, тощо.

Навчальний час, відведений на самостійну роботу, регламентується навчальним планом і складає 58 годин для денної форми навчання та 80 години для студентів заочної форми навчання. Зміст самостійної роботи визначається робочою програмою навчальної дисципліни, методичними матеріалами, завданнями та вказівками науково-педагогічного працівника.

Контроль засвоєння навчального матеріалу дисципліни, віднесеного на самостійну роботу, є обов'язковим. Форми контролю визначаються робочою програмою навчальної дисципліни і передбачають виконання контрольних робіт, включених до навчального плану, індивідуальних завдань, тестів, рефератів, презентацій, проєктів, винесення самостійно засвоєного матеріалу на підсумковий семестровий контроль (разом з матеріалом, що вивчався при проведенні лекційних занять), перехресний контроль студентів, причому у кожному випадку не виключено й feedback від викладача, тощо.

Зміст та організація самостійної роботи студентів за навчальною дисципліною «Фонетика англійської мови»

Відповідно до навчального плану, загальний обсяг навчальної дисципліни для студентів складає 3 кредити. Обсяг самостійної роботи складає 58 годин для денної форми навчання та 80 годин для заочної форми навчання.

Розподіл годин для самостійної роботи по темах

Семестр 1	Денна форма	Заочна форма
Тема 1.	29	40
Тема 2.	29	40
Усього годин	58	80

Завдання для самостійної роботи

Introduction

The History of the English Language appeared as a serious science in the 19th century. Every science has its object, subject and aims. The **object** of The History of the English Language is the English Language itself, its phonetic, grammatical and lexical aspects. The **subject** of The History of the English Language is:

- main changes in the phonetic structure and spelling of the language at different stages of the development of the language; the evolution of the grammatical system; the growth and development of the vocabulary.

All these changes are considered against the background of the main historical events that took place in the country.

The **aim** of The History of the English Language is to study the changes mentioned above.

The History of the English Language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest written texts in English are dated in the 7th century. The earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or 4th centuries A.D.

Language is constantly changing, at different speed and at different linguistic levels (phonetics, grammar, lexicon). The linguistic history explains many features of present-day language. A language can be studied **synchronically**:

- a certain period in the history of the development of a language is taken (fixed time boundaries) – **horizontal study**;
- each level of a language is studied (phonetics, grammar, lexicon);
- different functional varieties of a language are studied (different dialects of this period).

or diachronically:

- all periods in the history of the development of a language are taken – **vertical study**;
- only one level of a language is studied (phonetics or grammar or lexicon);
- only one functional variety of a language is studied (e.g. Standard English).

These two types of studying a language are closely interconnected and create a full picture of the development of a language. The History of the English Language is interconnected with **other linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines**:

1. General Linguistics – provides us with general linguistic laws and rules valid for any language.
2. History – historical events that take place in a country influence to a great extent the language of this country.
3. Theoretical Phonetics – provides us with main phonetic notions and helps to explain phonetic phenomena.
4. Theoretical Grammar – provides us with main grammatical notions and helps to explain grammatical phenomena.

5. Lexicology - provides us with main lexicological notions and helps to explain lexical phenomena.

6. Cultural Studies – helps to understand better the connection between the culture and the language of the country and their mutual influence.

7. Literature – gives us examples of the languages of this or that historical period and these works of literature serve as the material for the language research.

Main Periods in the History of the English Language

The historical events that took place on the British Isles have influenced the linguistic situation in the country greatly. The table below shows the interconnection between the history and the language situation:

Dates	Events	Population	Languages
Old English Period			
7 th c. B.C.	Celtic Invasion	Celts	Celtic Dialects
7 th c. B.C. – 410 A.D.	Roman Invasion	Celts, Romans	Celtic Dialects, Latin
mid.5 th c. – late 6 th c.	Anglo-Saxon Invasion	Celts, Anglo-Saxons	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects!
597	Introduction of Christianity	Celts, Anglo-Saxons	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects, Latin
after 8 th c.	Scandinavian Invasion	Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians (Danes)	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects, Latin, Scandinavian Dialects
Middle English Period			
1066	Norman Conquest	Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians, Normans	Celtic Dialects, Middle English Dialects , Latin, French
late 14 th c.	English – official language of the country	the English	Middle English Dialects, London Dialect (standard)
New English Period			
1475	Introduction of Printing (William Caxton)	The English	English (New English)
16 th – 17 th c.	Expansion of the British Empire	The English	English – national language spreading overseas
Modern English Period			
20 th c.	English – a global language		

Thus, the main periods in the language evolution are (rough dates are given):

1. **Old English Period** – prewritten (450-700)
– written (700-1100)

(see short survey of this period in The History of the English Language in Brief by Soloshchuk L.V, 2015, p. 5-15).

2. **Middle English Period** – 1100-1500

(see short survey of this period in The History of the English Language in Brief by Soloshchuk L.V, 2015, p. 85-93)

3. **New English Period** – 1500- present time (see short survey of this period in The History of the English Language in Brief by Soloshchuk L.V, p. 93-102).

Old English Period in the History of the English Language

1. When the first people arrived to Britain 50000 B.C. it was still part of the continent. Later, **5000 B.C.**, at the end of the Ice Age, Britain became an island separated from the rest of Europe by the English Channel.

2. The first distinctive inhabitants of the British Isles were **the Iberians** who came from the territory of present-day Spain around **3000 B.C.** They were known for their stone work and battle axes made of stone.

3. **The Beaker Folk** who came from Eastern Europe around **2000 B.C.** were known for their pottery.

4. **The Picts** came around **1000 B.C.** They were considered to be a mixture of the Celts and the Iberians and were called so because they were covered all over with paintings and tattoos. Their language is still a mystery for the scholars – it can be easily read but the scholars cannot decode it (cannot understand what is written).

5. The next to come were **the Celts**. They arrived in **700 B.C.** from the territory of Central and Northern Europe. There were **2 main Celtic tribes** that settled in the British Isles:

Tribe	Scots	Britons
Place of Settlement	first they settled in <u>Ireland</u> and then moved to <u>Scotland</u> and intermixed with the Picts	settled in the <u>south-east of England</u>
Celtic Languages	The Gaelic Branch	The Brittonic Branch
	1. Irish/Erse (Ireland)	1. Breton (Brittany, modern France)
	2. Scotch Gaelic (the Scottish Highlands)	2. Welsh (Wales)
	3. Manx (dead; the Isle of Man)	3. Cornish (dead; Cornwall)

6. The Romans:

55 B.C. – Julius Caesar attacked Britain. Reasons:

- economic (tin ore, corn, slaves);
- political (the Romans fought with the Celts of Gaul on the continent who found shelter in Britain and were supported by the Celts of Britain).

Soon after his arrival, Julius Caesar left Britain with many slaves and riches.

43 A.D. – Emperor Claudius conquered Britain and it became a province of the Roman Empire. Contributions:

- paved roads;
- cities (trading centres);
- walls (protection from the Celts – e.g. Hadrian's Wall between England and Scotland);
- Latin language (literacy).

410 A.D. – the Roman Empire began to collapse and the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain and sent home to help and preserve the Empire.

8. After the **5th c.** the 3 waves of **the Germanic tribes** arrived to Britain:

Wave	1 st	2 nd			3 rd		
Tribe	Jutes or/and Frisians	Saxons			Angles		
Kingdoms	<u>Kent</u> , Isle of Wight	Sussex	Essex	<u>Wessex</u>	East Anglia	<u>Mercia</u>	<u>Northumbria</u>

The feudal system that the Germanic tribes brought with themselves had led to the isolation of each tribe and political disunity (feudal wars). As a result, this period witnessed a great **dialectal diversity**. The most important dialects were the dialects of the 4 most powerful kingdoms:

Old English Dialects

Kingdom	Kent	Wessex	Mercia	Northumbria
Dialect	Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian	Northumbrian
Spoken	in Kent, Surrey, the Isle of Wight	along the Thames and the Bristol Channel	between the Thames and the Humber	between the Humber and the Forth
Origin	from the tongues of Jutes/ Frisians	a Saxon dialect	a dialect of north Angles	a dialect of south Angles
Remarks		9th c. – Wessex was the centre of the English culture and politics. West Saxon – the bookish type of <u>language</u> (Alfred the Great – the		8th c. – Northumbria was the <u>centre of the English culture</u>

		patron of culture and learning)		
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The first historian who started to record the history of the Germanic tribes on the British Isles and is considered to be the first English historian is **Bede the Venerable**, an English monk, who wrote “The Ecclesiastical History of the English People”.

The most important dialect in the Old English period was the **WEST SAXON DIALECT**.

8. Christianity – 597 (6th c.)

There were 2 forces that worked together to spread Christianity in Britain:

- missionaries from Rome (founded the religious centre in Canterbury);
- missionaries from Ireland (the Celts were already christened).

Consequences:

- centralization of the country;
 - development of the culture and learning (monasteries, schools, etc.);
- Latin was the language of the church and learning.

9. In the 8th – 9th c. Britain was raided and attacked by **the Danes/Scandinavians/Vikings**. The only king who was able to keep them at bay was Alfred the Great of Wessex. In **878** the Treaty of Wedmore was signed and England was divided into **Wessex** (belonged to Alfred) **and Danelaw** (belonged to the Danes). But as soon as the Scandinavian dialects also belonged to the Germanic group, the Danes soon linguistically merged into the local Old English dialects leaving some Scandinavian elements in them.

Old English Written Records

Alphabets

The first Old English 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 **Futhork** (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);
- the symbols were angular due to the fact that they had to be carved on hard materials;
- the number of symbols: GB – 28-33; on the continent – 16-24).

Best known Runic Inscriptions:

1. **Frank's Casket** – a box with 4 sides made of whale bone, each side contained a picture in the center and runic inscriptions around the picture that told the story of the whale bone in alliterative verse.

2. **Ruthwell Cross** – was found near the village of Ruthwell, Scotland, it is a 15 feet tall stone cross ornamented in all sides with runic inscriptions that are actually a passage from a religious poem “The Dream of the Rood”.

Old English Alphabet

The Old English Alphabet was borrowed from Latin, but there were also some letters that were borrowed from the Runic Alphabet:

- (“thorn”) = [θ] and [ð]
- (“wynn”) = [w]
- (“mann”) = stood for OE word “man”
- (“dæƿ”) = stood for OE word “day”

Some new letters were introduced:

- ƿ = [g] and [j];
- ð/p/ƿ/ð = [θ] and [ð];
- æ = a ligature of [a] and [e];
- œ = a ligature of [o] and [e].

Rules of Reading:

They resemble the modern rules, with several exceptions though:

1. f = [v] --- 1. between vowels;
s = [z] 2. between a vowel and a voiced consonant ([r, m, n, l, d, etc.]).

ð/p = [ð]

2. ƿ – [j] – between and after front vowels ([e, i, æ]);
– [g] – initially and between back vowels ([a, o, u]).
3. cƿ = [gg].
4. c = [k].
5. n = [ŋ] when followed by [k] or [g].

Old English Written Records

Most of the Old English manuscripts were written in Latin characters. The Latin Alphabet was modified by the scribes to suit the English language (some letters were changed and some new letters were added (see examples above)). The

Old English manuscripts that give us the examples of the language of that period are:

- personal documents containing names and place names;
- legal documents (charters);
- glosses to the Gospels and other religious texts (Latin-English vocabularies for those who did not know Latin good enough to understand the texts);
- textual insertions (pieces of poetry).

Old English Poetry

1. Among the earliest textual insertions in Old English are the pieces of Old English poetry. They are to be found in “The Ecclesiastical History of the English People” written in Latin in the 8th c. by Bede the Venerable, an English monk. These two pieces are:

- 5 lines known as “Bede’s Death Song”;
- 9 lines of a religious poem “Cædmon’s Hymn”.

2. All in all we have about 30 000 lines of OE verse from many poets, but most of them are unknown or anonymous. The two best known Old English poets are **Cædmon and Cynewulf** (Northumbrian authors).

3. The topics of Old English poetry:

- **heroic epic** (“Beowulf”, the oldest in the Germanic literature, 7th c., was written in Mercian or Northumbrian but has come down to us only in a 10th c. West Saxon copy. It is based on old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons and features the adventures and fights of the legendary heroes);

- **lyrical poems** (“The Wanderer”, “The Seafarer”, etc. Most of the poems are ascribed to Cynewulf);

- **religious poems** (“Fate of the Apostles” (probably Cædmon), “Dream of the Rood”, etc.).

4. The peculiarities of Old English poetry:

- written in Old Germanic alliterative verse:
 - the lines are not rhymed;
 - the number of the syllables in a line is free;
 - the number of stressed syllables in a line is fixed;
 - the line is usually divided into 2 halves, each half starts with one and the same sound; this sound may be repeated also in the middle of each half (a great number of synonyms (e.g. *beorn*, *sec*, *ζuma*, *wer* were all the synonyms of “man”) and metaphorical phrases or compounds describing the qualities or functions of a thing (e.g. *hronrād* “whale-road” (for “sea”); *bānhūs* “bone-house” (for “a person’s body”); *hēapū-swāt* “war-sweat” (for “blood”))).

Old English Phonetics

All the Germanic Languages of the past and present have common linguistic features that are not shared by other groups of languages in the Indo-European family (Slavonic group, Romance group, etc.). These features are characteristic of the Germanic group only. They appeared during the period of the Proto-Germanic Language, before it split into a certain number of the Germanic languages. First of all we are going to discuss the common Germanic phonetic features.

Word Stress/Accent

Indo-European (Non-Germanic)

1. free stress (movable, i.e. can appear in any part of a word (root, prefix, suffix));
2. pitch stress (musical)

Proto-Germanic

1. fixed stress (can't move either in form- or word-building and is usually placed on root or prefix);

2. dynamic stress (force, breath stress)

German

English

ˈLiebe

ˈwhite

ˈlieben

ˈwhiteness

ˈlieberhaft

ˈwhitish

geˈliebt

ˈwhitewash

The Proto-Germanic type of stress led to the formation of the following peculiarities of the Germanic languages as compared to non-Germanic Indo-European languages:

- **phonetic** – as a result of the fixed position of the stress the unstressed syllables were becoming weaker and weaker, they got less distinct and neutral sounds (such as “schwa”) appeared;
- **morphological** – as a result of the fact that the stress was fixed on the root and the syllables following the root were always unstressed and weak, many Germanic languages began to lose suffixes and grammatical endings and became ANALYTICAL LANGUAGES.

E.g.:	Old English (OE)	[ˈsunu]	
	Middle English (ME)	[ˈsunə]	
	New English (NE)	[ˈsun]	
	Modern English (ModE)	[ˈsʌn]	(the word “son”)

Vowels undergo different types of changes:

1. **Qualitative change** – affects the quality of a sound (e.g. [o → ʌ]).
2. **Quantitative change** – affects the length of a sound (e.g. [i → i:]).
3. **Dependent/positional change** – a change that occurs in certain position or in certain phonetic conditions (e.g. *bit* – *bite* [bɪt → baɪt]).

4. Independent/spontaneous change – affects a certain sound in all positions irrespective of phonetic conditions and serves to distinguish a grammatical phenomenon (ablaut).

Main tendencies in Vowel Changes in the Germanic Languages:

1. Short vowels → become neutralized.
2. Long vowels → become short and more open.
→ become diphthongized and more closed.

Proto-Germanic Vowel System:

Short Vowels	i	e	a	o	u
Long Vowels	i:	e:	a:	o:	u:

Old English Vowels

Unstressed vowels were weakened and dropped.

Stressed vowels underwent some changes:

- **splitting** – 1 phoneme split into several allophones which later become separate phonemes

e.g. → a
 a → ã
 → æ

Rise of Diphthongs

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:

Sounds	Diphth.	Gothic	OE
a + u →	ea:	<i><u>au</u>so</i>	<i><u>ea</u>re</i> (ear)
e + u →	eo:	<i><u>beu</u>dans</i>	<i><u>bēo</u>den</i> (king)
(i + u)→	(io:) (dialectal variant)	<i><u>diu</u>ps</i>	<i><u>dīo</u>p</i> (deep)

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

Monoph.	Diphth.	Influence	Gothic	OE
æ →	ea	before /	<i><u>a</u>lls</i>	<i><u>ea</u>ll</i> (all)

æ →	ea	before <i>h</i>	<i>ahta</i>	<i>eahta</i> (eight)
e →	eo	before <i>r</i>	<i>herza</i>	<i>heorte</i> (heart)
æ →	ea	after <i>sk'/k'</i>	<i>skadus</i>	<i>sceadu</i> (shade)
æ: →	ea:	after <i>j</i>	<i>jâr</i>	<i>zêar</i> (year)

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:

before palatal mutation	after palatal mutation	Gothic	OE
a → o → æ →	e	<i>badi</i>	<i>bedd</i> (bed)
a: →	æ:	<i>dails</i>	<i>dælan</i> (deal)
ö/ō →	ë/ē	<i>mōtjan</i>	<i>mētan</i> (meet)
û/ū →	ÿ/ȳ (labialised) (new!)	<i>fulljan</i>	<i>fyllan</i> (fill)
ěä/ēā → ěö/ēō →	īē/īē (new!)	<i>eald</i> (early OE)	<i>iēdra</i> (late OE)

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)

	Monophthongs							+	Diphthongs		
Short	ī	ĕ	ă	æ	ō	ū	ŷ		ěö	ěă	ĭě
Long	ī	ē	ā	æ	ō	ū	ỹ		ēō	ēā	īē

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.

Consonants

The comparison of the Germanic and non-Germanic languages within the Indo-European family reveals regular correspondences between German and non-German consonants.

First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law) – in the 19th Jacob Grimm, a German scholar, discovered the existence of regular correspondence between Indo-European (IE) and German consonants and subdivided them into 3 groups:

№	Consonant Correspondences		Examples			
			Old		Modern	
	IE	PG	Non-German (Latin)	German (OE)	Non-German (Italian)	German (English, German)
1	[bh,dh,gh] → aspirated voiced stops	[b, d, g] non-aspirated voiced stops	<i><u>b</u>hrāta</i> (Hind)	<i><u>br</u>ōþor</i>	<i><u>br</u>am</i>	<i><u>br</u>other, <u>Br</u>uder</i>
			<i><u>rud</u>hira</i> (Hind)	<i><u>rē</u>ad</i>	-	<i><u>re</u>d</i>
			<i><u>h</u>ostis</i>	<i><u>g</u>iest</i>	<i><u>g</u>icmь</i>	<i><u>g</u>uest, <u>G</u>ast</i>
2	[b, d, g] → voiced stops	[p, t, k] voiceless stops/plosives	<i><u>lab</u>are</i>	<i><u>p</u>ōl</i>	<i><u>bol</u>omo</i>	<i><u>p</u>ool, <u>P</u>fuhl</i>
			<i><u>dec</u>em</i>	<i><u>t</u>ien</i>	<i><u>d</u>ieci, <u>d</u>ecьmь</i>	<i><u>te</u>n</i>
			<i><u>g</u>enu</i>	<i><u>c</u>nēo</i>	<i><u>g</u>inocchio</i>	<i><u>k</u>nee, <u>K</u>nie</i>
3	[p, t, k] → voiceless stops/plosives	[f, θ, h] voiceless fricatives	<i><u>p</u>edis</i>	<i><u>f</u>ōt</i>	<i><u>p</u>iedi</i>	<i><u>f</u>oot, <u>F</u>uß</i>
			<i><u>t</u>res</i>	<i><u>br</u>ēo</i>	<i><u>tr</u>e, <u>m</u>pu</i>	<i><u>th</u>ree</i>
			<i><u>c</u>ordis</i>	<i><u>h</u>eort</i>	<i><u>c</u>uore</i>	<i><u>h</u>earth, <u>H</u>erz</i>

Verner's Law – Carl Verner, a Danish scholar (19th c.), explained the consonant correspondences as a gradual historical process (a change takes place in the course of time):

Consonant Correspondences			Latin	OE	ModE
1. [p, t, k]	[f, θ, h]	[v, ð/d, g]	<i>se<u>p</u>tem</i>	<i>seof<u>e</u>n</i>	<i>se<u>v</u>en</i>
→	→	voiced	<i>pa<u>t</u>er</i>	<i>fæ<u>d</u>er</i>	<i>fa<u>th</u>er</i>

voiceless stops/plosives	voiceless fricatives	fricatives	<i>socrus</i>	<i>swaiho</i> (Gothic)	<i>Schwager</i> (Germ)
2. Rhotacism			<i>ausis</i> (Lithuanian)	<i>Auso</i> (Gothic)	<i>ear, Ohr</i> (Germ)
[s] →	[z] →	[r]			

P.S.: these processes usually happened on condition that the consonants were situated between vowels and if preceded by an unstressed vowel.

Modern Examples: *seethe* – *sodden*, *death* – *dead*, *was* – *were*.

Second Consonant Shift – happened in the 9th c. in Old High German and today we can observe it comparing English and German:

Consonant Correspondences		English	German
1. [t] → →	[ts]	<i>two</i>	<i>zwei</i>
	[s]	<i>water</i>	<i>Wasser</i>
2. [θ] →	[d]	<i>three</i>	<i>drei</i>
3. [d] →	[t]	<i>daughter</i>	<i>Tochter</i>
4. [k] →	[h]	<i>make</i>	<i>machen</i>

OE Consonants

OE consonants underwent the following changes:

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

[ð] →	[d]	<i>rauðr</i> (Icelandic)	<i>rēad</i> (OE) (red)
[v] →	[b]	-	-
[ɣ] →	[g]	<i>guma</i> (Gothic)	<i>zuma</i> (OE) (man)

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

6. Loss of Consonants:

- sonorants before fricatives (e.g. *fimf* (Gothic) – *fif* (OE) (five));
- fricatives between vowels and some plosives (e.g. *sæȝde* (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)).

Linguistic Features of the Germanic Languages

Grammatical Features

The Proto-Germanic and the Old Germanic Languages were SYNTHETIC, i.e. the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position in the sentence or by auxiliary words.

The grammatical forms of the words were built by means of:

1. Suppletion (inherited from Indo-European) – the usage of 2 or more different roots as forms of one and the same word:

Part of Speech	Indo-European Non-Germanic Languages		Germanic Languages	
	Italian	українська	English	German
Personal Pronouns	<i>io, mio, mi/me</i>	<i>я, мене, мені</i>	<i>I, my, mine, me</i>	<i>ich, mich, mir</i>
Adjectives	<i>buono, migliore, ottimo</i>	<i>добрий, краще, найкращий</i>	<i>good, better, best</i>	<i>gut, besser, bester</i>
Some Verbs	<i>essere, sono, e', ero, saro', etc.</i>	<i>є, був,</i>	<i>be, is, are, am, was, were</i>	<i>sein, bin, ist, sind, war, gewesen, etc.</i>

2. Inflections (inherited from Indo-European) – though in the Germanic languages inflections were simpler and shorter than in other Indo-European languages.

Let's take **the system of declensions** as an example. In PG it was well-developed but in the Old Germanic languages, due to the stress that was fixed on the root and the weakening of the end of a word as a result, the declensions started to disappear. While the nouns and adjectives still preserved **stem-suffixes**, they had declensions but once the stem suffixes started to weaken and disappear, the declensions were lost as well and the endings were simplified and got fewer:

Word Structure			
PG	<i>mak-oj-an</i>	root + <u>stem-suffix</u> (word-deriv.)	+ gram. ending(form-marker)
Old Germanic Languages	<i>mac-ian</i>	stem (root melted with stem-suffix)	+ gram. ending

3. Sound Interchange – the usage of interchange of vowels and consonants for the purpose of word- and form-building (e.g.: English: *bear* – *birth*, *build* – *built*, *tooth* – *teeth*; German: *gebaren* – *Geburt*)

Ablaut/Vowel Gradation – an independent vowel interchange, unconnected with any phonetic conditions (phonetic environment/surrounding) used to differentiate between grammatical forms of one and the same word. The Germanic ablaut was consistently used in building the principle forms of strong verbs.

Jacob Grimm has subdivided all the verbs into **two groups** according to the way they build their principle forms:

		Strong Verbs (irregular)	Weak Verbs (regular)
		called so because they have preserved the richness of forms since the time of Proto-Germanic	called so because they have lost their old Proto-Germanic forms and acquired new ones
form-building		vowel interchange + gram. ending	suffix –d/t (a Germanic invention!!!)
E.g.	OE	<i>re<u>i</u>san – ra<u>i</u>s – r<u>i</u>sum – r<u>i</u>sans</i>	<i>ma<u>a</u>cian – ma<u>o</u>de – ma<u>o</u>d</i>
			<i>ce<u>a</u>pan – ce<u>p</u>te – ce<u>p</u>t</i>
	ModE	<i>ri<u>s</u>e – ro<u>s</u>e – ri<u>s</u>en</i>	<i>ma<u>k</u>e – ma<u>d</u>e – ma<u>d</u>e</i>
			<i>kee<u>p</u> – ke<u>p</u>t – ke<u>p</u>t</i>

Parts of Speech

In OE 9 parts of speech had already been distinguished:

changeable	1. Noun	Nominal Categories: Number, Case, Gender, Degrees of Comparison, Determination
	2. Adjective	
	3. Pronoun	
	4. Numeral	
	5. Verb	Verbal Categories: Tense, Mood, Person,

		Number, Voice, Aspect, Order, Posteriority
unchangeable	6. Adverb (only Degrees of Comparison)	-
	7. Prepositions	-
	8. Conjunctions	-
	9. Interjections	-

Below all notional parts of speech will be discussed, their categories described and the meanings of these categories stated as related to the Old English Period.

Noun

Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl).

Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N).

Case – Nominative (Nom) (agent), Genitive (Gen) (attribute), Dative (Dat) (instrument, indirect/prepositional object), Accusative (Acc) (recipient, direct/prepositionless object).

System of Declensions

In OE there were **25** declensions of nouns. All nouns were grouped into declensions according to:

- stem-suffix;
- Gender.

We will mention only the most numerous declensions/stems here:

Strong Vocalic Stems		Weak Consonantal Stems	
Stem-suffix	Gender	Stem-suffix	Gender
a-stem	M, N	n-stem	M, N, F
o-stem	F	r, s, nd-stems	M, N, F
i-stem	M, N, F	root-stem	M, F
u-stem	M, F		

a-stem – the most numerous declension (M, N):

Case	Masculine		Neuter	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom, Acc	<i>fisc</i>	<i>fiscas</i>	<i>dēor</i>	<i>dēor^[ss]</i>
Gen	<i>fisces</i>	<i>fisca</i>	<i>dēores</i>	<i>dēora</i>
Dat	<i>fisce</i>	<i>fiscum</i>	<i>dēore</i>	<i>dēorum</i>

Traces of a-stem in Modern English:

- **-es** (M, Sg, Gen) → 's (*student's book*) – Possessive Case;
- **-as** (M, Pl, Nom) → **-(e)s** (*watches, books*) – plural ending for the majority of nouns;
- **-[ss]** (N, Pl, Nom) → **zero ending** (*deer, sheep*) – homogeneous Sg and Pl.

n-stem (M, N, F):

Case	Masculine	
	Singular	Plural
Nom	<i>nama</i>	<i>naman</i>
Gen	<i>naman</i>	<i>namena</i>
Dat	<i>naman</i>	<i>namum</i>
Acc	<i>naman</i>	<i>naman</i>

Traces of n-stem in Modern English:

- **-an** (M, Pl, Nom) → **-en** (*oxen, children, brethren*) – irregular plural ending.

root-stem – never had stem-suffix, words consisted of just a root (M, F):

Case	Masculine	
	Singular	Plural
Nom, Acc	<i>fōt</i>	<i>fēt</i>
Gen	<i>fotes</i>	<i>fōta</i>
Dat	<i>fēt</i>	<i>fōtum</i>

Traces of n-stem in Modern English:

- **root-sound interchange** (M, Pl, Nom) → **root-sound interchange** (*men, geese, mice*) – irregular Plural.

Adjectives

Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl).

Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N).

Case – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc) + **Instrumental** (Instr).

Instrumental Case was used to express instrumental meaning but only in the adjective while the noun stood in Dative Case:

by/with + Adjective (Instr) + Noun (Dat)

Degrees of Comparison – positive, comparative, superlative.

Determination (Definiteness/Indefiniteness) – today this category has to do with the Article but in OE there were no articles and definiteness/indefiniteness was expressed with the help of inflections of the Adjective, i.e. the inflections of the Adjective helped to determine whether a noun was definite or indefinite.

In OE there existed the weak and strong declensions of the Adjective.

Historically the Adjective is a younger class of words as compared to the Noun. So it has borrowed many of its categories and inflections from the Noun and the Pronoun.

The Adjective had the following categories:

Gender: It still existed in OE but was the first category to disappear in the 11th c.

Case At the end of OE Period Instrumental Case fell together with Dative Case due to the homonymy of inflections;

- All other cases disappeared by the end of the 13th c. also due to the homonymy of inflections (see the table below).

System of Declensions

The system of declension was inherited from PG. 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). So an adjective did not belong to a particular declension, its declension depended on several factors that will be mentioned below:

Type of Declension		Strong (definite)		Weak (indefinite)	
Borrowed inflections		from a-stem and o-stem		from n-stem	
Factors for distinguishing type of declension		– Adj used <u>attributively without</u> any <u>determiners</u> (demonstrative pronouns); – Adj used <u>predicatively</u> .		– Adj preceded by a <u>demonstrative pronoun</u> or <u>Genitive Case</u> of a noun;	
Gender		Neuter		Neuter	
Number		Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
OE Cases	Nominative	<i>blind^[I ss]</i>	<i>blind^[I ss]</i>	<i>blinde</i>	<i>blindan</i>
	Genitive	<i>blindes</i>	<i>blindra</i>	<i>blindan</i>	<i>blindra</i>
	Dative	<i>blindum</i>	<i>blindum</i>	<i>blindan</i>	<i>blindum</i>
	Accusative	<i>blind^[I ss]</i>	<i>blind^[I ss]</i>	<i>blinde</i>	<i>blindan</i>
	Instrumental	<i>blinde</i>	<i>blindum</i>	<i>blindan</i>	<i>blindum</i>
ME	Cases disappeared	<i>blind^[I ss]</i>	<i>blinde</i>	<i>blinde</i>	<i>blinde</i>

There were exceptions from the rule: some adjectives were declined always strong (*eall* (all), *maniċ* (many), *ōþer* (other)), others – always weak (*ilca* (same)).

The endings of the adjectives showed the agreement between a noun and an adjective. There were a lot of homonymous forms (e.g. **-um** (OE) – N, Sg, Dat, strong; N, Pl, Dat, strong; N, Pl, Dat, weak; N, Pl, Instr, strong; N, Pl, Instr, weak; **-e** (ME) – N, Pl, strong; N, Sg, weak; N, Pl, weak) → the distinction between the declensions faded in **ME** and the declensions disappeared as far as there was no necessity any more to keep them.

Number

There were some homonymous forms in Singular and Plural in both declensions (see the table above: e.g. **-um** (OE) – N, Sg, Dat, strong; N, Pl, Dat, strong; **-e** (ME) – N, Sg, weak; N, Pl, weak), so the category of Number disappeared together with the system of declensions.

Degrees of Comparison

In **OE** there were three ways of formation of the degrees of comparison:

Way of formation	Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
inflections	<i>soft</i>	<i>softra</i>	<i>softost</i>
root-sound interchange + inflections	<i>lonċ</i>	<i>lenċra</i>	<i>lenċest</i>
suppletion	<i>ċōd</i>	<i>bettra</i>	<i>betest</i>

Pronoun

Classification:

1. **Personal** (Noun-Pronouns (had some categories of the Noun and resembled the Noun in syntactic function)).

They had the following categories:

- **Person** – 1st, 2nd, 3rd;
- **Number** – Singular (Sg), Plural (Pl) + **Dual** (1st, 2nd pers. (we both, you both) when only two persons were meant);
- **Gender** – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N) – only in 3rd person!;
- **Case** – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc).

2. **Demonstrative** (Adjective-Pronouns (had some categories of the Adjective and resembled the Adjective in syntactic function)).

They had the following categories:

- **Number** – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
- **Gender** – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N);
- **Case** – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc) +

Instrumental (Instr).

3. **Interrogative** – unchangeable.

4. **Indefinite** – unchangeable.

Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns will be discussed more precisely in Lecture 17.

Numeral

Classification:

1. **Cardinal** – *ān* (one), *twēȝen* (two), *þrēō* (three) – had the categories of Gender and Case. All the other cardinal numerals were unchangeable.

2. **Ordinal** – were unchangeable

Old English VERB

Classification:

Finite: They had the following categories:

- **Tense** – Present and Past (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), *ȝān* (to go), *dōn* (to do).

Strong and Weak Verbs in Comparison

Basis for Comparison	Strong Verbs	Weak Verbs
Number	300	900
Type/Origin	Indo-European (reveals <u>suppletivity</u>)	Germanic (reveals <u>dental suffix</u>)
Formation of Past Tense forms	by changing the root-vowel (ablaut): <i>sittan</i> (Infinitive) – <i>sæt</i> (Past Indefinite) (verb “to sit”)	with the help of the <u>dental suffix -t/-d</u> : <i>līcian</i> (Infinitive) – <i>līcode</i> (Past Indefinite) (verb “to like”)
Formation of Participle 2 forms	with the help of the <u>suffix -en</u> (+ sometimes root-vowel interchange): <i>fīndan</i> (Infinitive) – <i>funden</i> (Participle 2) (verb “to find”)	with the help of the <u>dental suffix -t/-d</u> : <i>cēpan</i> (Infinitive) – <i>cēped</i> (Participle 2) (verb “to keep”)
Derivation	Strong verbs were <u>root-words</u> /non-derivatives (i.e. they were not derived from some other words/roots but were the words/roots from which other words were derived)	Weak verbs were <u>derivatives from nouns, adjectives, strong verbs</u> : <i>tellan</i> (to tell) ← <i>talū</i> (a tale) <i>fyllan</i> (to fill) ← <i>fyll</i> (full) <i>fandian</i> (to find out) ← <i>fīndan</i> (to find)
Productivity	<u>unproductive</u> type (no new words employed this type of form-building)	<u>productive</u> type (new words that appeared employed this type of form-building)
Principle Forms	Infinitive Past Sg Past Pl Participle 2 <i>writan</i> – <i>wrāt</i> – <i>writon</i> – <i>writen</i>	Infinitive Past Participle 2 <i>cēpan</i> – <i>cēpte</i> – <i>cēped</i>
Classes	subdivided into 7 classes	subdivided into 3 classes

Strong Verbs and their Development

1. 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.

2. The strong verbs were subdivided into **7 classes** according to the type of vowel gradation/ablaut.

The classes that survived best through different periods of the history were classes 1, 3, 6:

Class 1	Infinitive	Past Sg	Past Pl	Participle 2
OE	<i>writan</i>	<i>wrāt</i>	<i>writon</i>	<i>writen</i>
ME	<i>writen</i>	<i>wrot</i>	<i>writen</i>	<i>writen</i>
NE	<i>write</i>	<i>wrote</i>		<i>written</i>

Class 3	Infinitive	Past Sg	Past Pl	Participle 2
OE	<i>findan</i>	<i>fand</i>	<i>fundon</i>	<i>finden</i>
ME	<i>finden</i>	<i>fand</i>	<i>founden</i>	<i>founden</i>
NE	<i>find</i>	<i>found</i>		<i>found</i>

Class 6	Infinitive	Past Sg	Past Pl	Participle 2
OE	<i>scacan</i>	<i>scoc</i>	<i>scōcon</i>	<i>scacen</i>
ME	<i>shaken</i>	<i>shook</i>	<i>shoken</i>	<i>shaken</i>
NE	<i>shake</i>	<i>shook</i>		<i>shaken</i>

Analysing the tables above, we can see that the following changes occurred:

- In ME the inflections *-an*, *-on*, *-en* were all reduced to just one inflection → *-en*.
- In NE the ending *-n* was lost in the Infinitive and preserved in the Participle 2 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 2 often had similar forms and it was hard to distinguish them (e.g. ME *writen* (Past Pl) – *writen* (Part. 2)) → the category of Number disappeared in the Verb.

Weak Verbs and their Development

1. The division of weak verbs into classes was based on the original stem-building suffix of a verb that was already hard to distinguish even in OE:

Class 1	Infinitive	Past	Participle 2	Basis for Subdivision
OE	<i>styrian</i>	<i>styrede</i>	<i>stured</i>	stem-suffix -j most verbs – with <u>front root-vowel</u> derived from <u>nouns, adjectives</u>
ME	<i>stiren</i>	<i>stirede</i>	<i>stired</i>	
NE	<i>stir</i>	<i>stirred</i>	<i>stirred</i>	

Class 2	Infinitive	Past	Participle 2	Basis for Subdivision
OE	<i>lōcian</i>	<i>lōcode</i>	<i>lōcod</i>	stem-suffix –oja most numerous class most verbs – with <u>back root-vowel</u>
ME	<i>looken</i>	<i>lookede</i>	<i>looked</i>	
NE	<i>look</i>	<i>looked</i>	<i>looked</i>	

Class 3	Infinitive	Past	Participle 2	Basis for Subdivision
OE	<i>libban</i>	<i>lifde</i>	<i>lifd</i>	3 verbs <u>only</u> : <i>habban</i> (to have), <i>libban</i> (to live), <i>seczan</i> (to say)
ME	<i>livien</i>	<i>livde</i>	<i>lived</i>	
NE	This class merged with class 1 in ME			

2. 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, as it has already been mentioned above, many originally strong verbs turned into weak (e.g. *to bake*, *to laugh*, *to help*, *to lie*, etc.). The opposite process of turning of weak verbs into strong was very rare and was mainly based on phonetic similarity between some strong and weak verbs, i.e. was a result of mere confusion that later was accepted as a norm due to its persistent and regular character (e.g. *to wear* was originally weak and became strong because of the mistaken analogy with *to swear*, *to ring* (mistaken analogy with *to sing*), *to hide* (mistaken analogy with *to ride*)).

Preterite-Present Verbs

The preterite-present verbs had the following characteristics:

- Their Present-Tense forms resembled Past-Tense forms (Germ. “Präteritum” = past tense, that's why they were called so);
- Some of these verbs did not have a full paradigm and were called “defective”;
- These verbs expressed attitude and were followed by the Infinitive without “to” (NB! Most of these verbs are present-day **modal verbs**);
- Out of **12** preterite-present verbs only **6** survived in ModE:
āȝ (ought), *cunnan* (can), *dear* (dare), *sculan* (shall), *maȝan* (may), *mōt* (must).

Numb.	Pers.	Present		Past	
		(formed like <u>Past Tense</u> of strong verbs)		(formed like <u>Past Tense</u> of weak verbs)	
		<i>cunnan</i>	<i>sculan</i>	<i>cunnan</i>	<i>sculan</i>
Sg	1 st	<i>cann</i> _{ss}	<i>sceal</i> _{ss}	<i>cuðe</i>	<i>sceolde</i>
	2 nd	<i>canst</i>	<i>scealt</i>	<i>cuðest</i>	<i>sceoldest</i>
	3 rd	<i>cann</i> _{ss}	<i>sceal</i> _{ss}	<i>cuðe</i>	<i>sceolde</i>
Pl	-	<i>cunnon</i>	<i>sculon</i>	<i>cuðon</i>	<i>sceoldon</i>

Non-Finite Forms

Participle 1

The formation of the Participle 1 was as follows:

OE	ME	NE
<i>berende</i>	<i>bering</i>	<i>bearing</i>

In **OE** Participle 1 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 (agreed with the noun in Number, Gender, Case).

Participle 2

As it has been mentioned in the table above, in **OE** Participle 2 was formed:

- in strong verbs – with the help of the suffix **-en** (+ sometimes root-vowel interchange) + often marked by prefix **ζe-**:
e.g. OE *bindan* (Infinitive) – *ζebunden* (Participle 2) (to bind)
In **ME** prefix **ζe-** was weakened to prefix **i-/y-** (e.g. ME *y-runne* (run, Part.2 from “to run”) and in **NE** it disappeared at all.
- in weak verbs – with the help of the suffix **-t/-d**:
e.g. OE *cēpan* (Infinitive) – *cēped* (Participle 2) (to keep)

Participle 2, unlike Participle 1, had two meanings of the category of Voice:

OE		NE
Active Voice	Passive Voice	
<i>ζegān</i>	<i>ζeboren</i>	<i>gone, born</i>
somebody was gone, i.e. he did it <u>himself</u> = he was the <u>subject/active doer</u> of the action	somebody was born, i.e. <u>somebody</u> <u>gave birth</u> to him = he was the <u>object/passive recipient</u> of the action	No Voice distinctions observed

Thus in **OE** Participle 2 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).

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), *ζān* (to go), *dōn* (to do).

Willan:

- had the meaning of volition;
- resembled the preterite-present verbs in meaning (attitude) and in function (was followed by the Infinitive without “to”);
- eventually became a modal verb and also together with *sculan* developed into an auxiliary for the formation of the Future-Tense forms.

Dōn

This verb combined the features of the weak and strong verbs:

Infinitive	Past	Participle 2
	<u>strong</u> verb feature (root-sound interchange) + weak verb feature (dental suffix -d)	<u>strong</u> verb feature (suffix -n and prefix ζe-)
<i>dōn</i>	<i>dyde</i>	<i>zedōn</i>

ζan

This verb was suppletive and also combined the features of the weak and strong verbs:

Period	Infinitive	Past	Participle 2
OE	<i>ζān</i>	<i>ēode</i> (suppletivism + weak verb feature (dental suffix -d))	<i>ζεζān</i> (<u>strong</u> verb feature (suffix -n and prefix ζe-))
ME	<i>goon</i>	<i>wente</i> (suppletivism (from OE <i>wendan</i>) + weak verb feature (dental suffix -t))	<i>goon</i> (<u>strong</u> verb feature (suffix -n))

Bēon

This verb was highly suppletive and in OE employed **two separate words/roots** (Infinitives):

Present		OE		ME	NE
Numb.	Pers.	<i>wesan</i>	<i>bēon</i>	<i>been</i>	<i>been</i>
Sg	1 st	<i>eom</i>	<i>bēo</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>am</i>
	2 nd	<i>eart</i>	<i>bist</i>	<i>art</i>	<i>are</i>
	3 rd	<i>is</i>	<i>biþ</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>is</i>
Pl	-	<i>sint</i>	<i>bēoþ</i>	<i>are/arn</i>	<i>are</i>
Past		<i>wesan</i>		<i>been</i>	<i>be</i>
Sg	1 st	<i>wæs</i>		<i>was</i>	<i>was</i>
	2 nd	<i>wære</i>		<i>wēre</i>	<i>were</i>
	3 rd	<i>wæs</i>		<i>was</i>	<i>was</i>
Pl	-	<i>wæron</i>		<i>wēren</i>	<i>were</i>

The Development of the Syntactic System in OE

Old English was a **synthetic** language, i.e. there were a lot of inflections that showed the relations between the words in a sentence. **Syntactic connections between the words are:**

1. **Agreement** – a correspondence between 2 or more words in Gender, Number, Case, Person:
 - **relation** – correspondence between the Subject and the Predicate in Number and Person;
 - **correlation** – agreement of an adjective, a demonstrative pronoun, a possessive pronoun, Participle 1, 2 with noun in Gender, Number, Case.
2. **Government** – a type of correspondence when one word (mainly a verb, less frequently – an adjective, a pronoun or a numeral) determines the Case of another word:

e.g.: OE *niman* (to take) → noun in Acc;

OE *seczan* (to say) → noun in Dat (to whom?), noun in Acc (what?);

OE *hlusten* (to listen) → noun in Gen.

Functions of Cases

Nominative:

- Subject of the sentence;
- Predicative;
- Direct Address.

Genitive:

- possessive meaning;
- partitive meaning;
- objective meaning;
- subjective meaning;
- qualitative meaning;
- adverbial meaning.

Dative:

- Indirect Object;
- Instrumental meaning;
- Passive Subject of the sentence (*Me lycige*).

Accusative:

- Direct Object;
- adverbial meaning denoting long periods of time (*þone winter* – той зимой).

Word Order

In **OE** the word order was **free** as far as there were a lot of inflections that showed the relations between the words in a sentence. Most common word-order patterns were:

1. S + P + O (in non-dependent clauses);
2. S + O + P (when the Object was a pronoun, e.g. OE *Ic þe secðe* – literally “to you say”); (in dependent clauses, e.g. OE *þis wæs ȝefohten sibban hē of Ēāst Enþlum cōm* – literally “This battle was held when he from eastern England came” – such word order was called “**frame**” – after a connective went the Subject, it was followed by all the other parts of the sentence and the last place was occupied by the Predicate which thus created a frame together with the Subject);
3. P + S + O (in questions, e.g. OE *Hwat sceal ic sinȝan* – “What shall I sing?”); (in sentences starting with adverbial modifier, e.g. OE *Nū synt ȝeþrēade þeȝnas mīne* – literally “Now were threatened my servants”).

Negation

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

e.g. OE *Ne can ic* (“I don’t know”, or literally “Not know I”).

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

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

Multiple negation was perfectly normal:

e.g. OE *Nīs nān wisdom ne nān rēad naht onean God.* – “There is no knowledge concerning God.”

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

Old English Vocabulary

The history of words throws light on the history of the speaking community and its contacts with other people.

According to some rough counts OE vocabulary had between **23 000** and **24 000** lexical units. About only 15% of them survived in ModE.

In **OE** there were an extremely low percentage of borrowings from other languages (only **3%** as compared to **70%** in ModE). Thus OE from the point of view of its vocabulary was a thoroughly Germanic language.

Native OE words can be subdivided into 3 following layers:

1. Common IE words – the oldest and the largest part of the OE vocabulary that was inherited by the Proto-Germanic, and later by all the Germanic languages, from the Common Indo-European Language.

Semantic fields:

- **family relations** (*father, mother, daughter, brother, etc.* (except *aunt, uncle* – words of the Germanic origin));
- **parts of human body** (*eye, nose, heart, arm, etc.*);
- **natural phenomena, plants, animals** (*tree, cow, water, sun, wind, etc.*).

Parts of speech:

- **nouns** (*eye, brother, etc.*);
- **verbs** (basic activities of man) (*to be, can, may, to know, to eat, to stand, to sit, etc.*);
- **adjectives** (essential qualities) (*new, full, red, right, young, long, etc.*);
- **pronouns** (personal and demonstrative) (*I, my, this, that, those, these, etc.*);
- **numerals** (most of them) (*1-10, 100, 1000, etc.*);
- **prepositions** (*for, at, of, to, etc.*).

2. Common Germanic words – the part of the vocabulary that was shared by most Germanic languages. These words never occurred outside the Germanic group of languages. This layer was smaller than the IE layer.

Semantic fields:

- **nature, plants, animals** (*earth, fox, sheep, sand, etc.*);
- **sea** (*starve, sea, etc.*);
- **everyday life** (*hand, sing, find, make, etc.*).

Parts of speech:

- **nouns** (*horse, rain, ship, bridge, life, hunger, ground, death, winter, evil, etc.*);
- **verbs** (*to like, to drink, to bake, to buy, to find, to fall, to fly, to make, etc.*);

- **adjectives** (*broad, sick, true, dead, deaf, open, clean, bitter, etc.*);
 - **pronouns** (*such, self, all, etc.*);
 - **adverbs** (*often, again, forward, near, etc.*).
3. **Specifically Old English words** – native words that occur only in English and do not occur in other Germanic and non-Germanic languages. They are very few and are mainly derivatives and compounds (e.g. *fisher, understand, woman, etc.*).
4. **Borrowed words** – this part of OE vocabulary, as it has already been mentioned above, was a small portion of words that remained on the periphery of OE vocabulary. The words were mainly borrowed from:
- **Latin** (around 500 words only) (*abbat, anthem, alms, etc.*);
 - **Celtic dialects**:
 - common nouns (*bin, cross, cradle, etc.*) – most of them died out, some survived only in dialects;
 - place names and names of waterways:
 - *Kent, London, York, etc.*;
 - *Ouse, Avon, Evan, Thames, Dover* – all with the meaning “water”;
 - **-comb** (“deep valley”) – *Duncombe, Winchcombe, etc.*;
 - **-torr** (“high rock”) – *Torr, Torcross, etc.*;
 - **-llan** (“church”) – *Llandoff, Llanelly, etc.*;
 - **-pill** (“creek”) – *Pylle, Huntspill, etc.*

• **hybrids:**

Celtic element + Latin element	Celtic element + Germanic element
<i>Man-chester</i>	<i>York-shire</i>
<i>Corn-wall</i>	<i>Devon-shire</i>
<i>Lan-caster</i>	<i>Salis-bury</i>
<i>Devon-port</i>	<i>Lich-field</i>

Latin Borrowings in Old English

Latin has been the most long-lasting donor of borrowings to English because its influence started before the 5th A.D. (when Anglo-Saxons still lived on the Continent) and continues up to present day.

Usually Latin borrowings in OE are classified into the following layers:

1. **Continental borrowings** – words that the West Germanic tribes borrowed from Latin while they still lived on the Continent. Later, when they conquered the British Isles, they brought these words with them. These words are present in all the Germanic languages.

Semantic fields:

- **concrete objects** (household (*cup, pillow, etc.*), food (*cheese, butter, etc.*), animals (*mule, turtle, etc.*);

- **units of measurement** (*mile, pound, inch, etc.*).

2. **Borrowings after the Roman Invasion** of the British Isles (through the Romanised Celts) that lie within the following semantic areas:

- **trade** (*trade, deal, chest, flask, etc.*);

- **building** (*chalk, file, copper, etc.*);

- **domestic life** (*dish, kettle, etc.*);

- **military affairs** (*wall, street, pile, etc.*);

- **place names:**

- **-castra** (“castle”) (*Chester, Lancaster, etc.*);

- **-wich** (“village”) (*Norwich, Woolwich, etc.*);

- **-port** (“port”) (*Bridport, Devonport, etc.*).

3. **Borrowings after the Introduction of Christianity** (597) that lie within the following semantic areas:

- **religion** (*angel, hymn, idol, pope, psalm*; from Greek through Latin – *anthem, bishop, candle, apostle, etc.*);

- **learning** (*school, scholar, master, verse, accent, grammar, etc.*);

- **everyday life** (*plant, pine, radish, cap, sock, etc.*).

Plus there appeared a lot of so-called **translation loans** – words that were translated part-for-part from Latin (e.g. *Monday* (“moon day”, from Latin *Lunae dies*), *goldsmith* (from Latin *aurifex* (*auri* = gold, *fex* = worker)), etc.).

All Latin borrowings in OE underwent **assimilation**, i.e.:

- changed their spelling according to the English rules;

- underwent some phonetic changes according to the English rules;

- were used in derivation and compounding;

- acquired grammatical categories of the English parts of speech.

Word-Formation in Old English

In OE the vocabulary mainly grew by means of word-formation. The words fell into 3 main types:

- **simple words** (root-words) – a word consisting of a root-morpheme with no derivational suffixes (e.g. OE *ȝōd* (good), *land* (land), *dæȝ* (day), etc.);

- **derived words** – a word consisting of a root-morpheme + 1 or more then one affix (e.g. OE *be-ȝinnan* (begin), *ȝe-met-inȝ* (meeting), etc.);

- **compound words** – a word consisting of more then one root-morpheme (e.g. OE *mann-cynn* (mankind), *fēower-tīene* (fourteen), etc.).

Ways of Word-Formation

Word-Derivation:

- **sound interchange** – was employed frequently, but never alone (usually was accompanied by suffixation). **Sources** of sound-interchange:

- ablaut (OE *rīdan* (V) – *rād* (N) = NE *ride* (V) – *raid* (N); OE *sinċan* (V) – *sonċ* (N) = NE *sing* (V) – *song* (N), etc.);

- palatal mutation:

- verbs from nouns (*doom* → *deem*; *food* → *feed*, etc.);

- verbs from adjectives (*full* → *fill*; *healthy* → *heal*, etc.);

- nouns from adjectives (*long* → *length*; *strong* → *strength*, etc.);

- consonantal interchanges (*death* – *dead*; *rise* – *rear*, etc.).

- **word stress** – was not frequent; it helped to differentiate between parts of speech and was used together with other means (e.g. OE *‘andswaru* (N answer) – *and’swarian* (V answer);

- **prefixation** – was a productive way (unlike in ModE):

- IE prefixes (OE **un-** (negative));

- Germanic prefixes (OE **mis-**, **be-**, **ofer-**(over-));

- prefixes were widely used with verbs, but were far less productive with the other parts of speech (e.g. OE *ċān* (to go) – *ā-ċān* (to go away) – *be-ċān* (to go round) – *fore-ċān* (to precede), etc.);

- prefixes often modified lexical meaning (e.g. OE *siþ* (journey) – *for-siþ* (death));

- there were grammatical prefixes, e.g. **ċe-**:

- was used to build Participle 2 of strong verbs (e.g. OE *sitten* (to sit) – *ċesett* (sat), etc.);

- turned durative verbs into terminative (e.g. OE *feran* (to go) – *ċeferan* (to reach), etc.).

- **suffixation** – was the most productive way, mostly applied to nouns and adjectives, seldom to verbs.

Classification of OE suffixes:

1. Suffixes of **agent nouns** (**-end** (OE *frēond* (friend)), **-ere** (OE *fiscere* (fisher)), **-estre** (feminine) (OE *bæcestre* (female baker)), etc.);

2. Suffixes of **abstract nouns** (**-t** (OE *siht* (sight)), **-þu** (OE *lengþu* (length)), **-nes/nis** (OE *beorhtnes* (brightness), *blindnis* (blindness)), **-unċ/inċ** (OE *earnunċ* (earning)), etc.);

3. **Adjectival suffixes** (**-iċ** (OE *hāliċ* (holy)), **-isc** (OE *mannisc* (human)), **-ede** (OE *hōcede* (hooked)), **-sum** (OE *lanċsum* (lasting)) etc.);

4. **New suffixes** derived from noun root-morphemes (**-dōm** (OE *frēodōm* (freedom)), **-hād** (OE *cīldhād* (childhood)), **-lāc** (OE *wedlāc* (wedlock)), **-scipe** (OE *frēondscipe* (friendship)), etc.);

5. **New suffixes** derived from adjective root-morphemes (**-lic** (OE *woruldlic* (worldly)), **-full** (OE *carfull* (careful)), **-lēas** (OE *slæplēas* (sleepless)), etc.).

Word-Composition

Word-composition – a combination of 2 or more root-morphemes – was a highly productive way of word-formation. The main patterns were:

- N + N → N (the most frequent) (e.g. OE *ζimm-stān* (gemstone), OE *mann-cynn* (mankind));
- syntactical compounds → N (e.g. OE *dæζes-ēaζe* (literally “day’s eye” = NE daisy));
- Adj + N → Adj (so-called bahuvrihi type) (e.g. OE *mild-heort* (literally “mild heart” = NE merciful), OE *ān-ēaζe* (literally “one eye” = NE one-eyed));
- N + Adj → Adj (e.g. OE *dōm-ζeorn* (eager for glory), OE *mōd-ceariζ* (sorrowful));
- V + N → N (very rare) (e.g. OE *bæc-hūs* (baking-house)).

Word composition was often accompanied by other ways of word formation mentioned above (e.g. OE *pēaw-fæst-nes* (*pēaw* = “custom” N, *fæst* = “firm” N, *nes* = “-ness” suffix)) = NE discipline).

Middle English Period in the History of the English Language. Historical Background

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 (vassals were not allowed to have big armies so they could not oppose the king; with the Oath of Salisbury each vassal promised direct loyalty to king and military help in return for land; Domesday Book provided William with information about all people and lands he possessed, he proclaimed himself

the owner of all the lands in the country). This led to the **centralization** of the country:

- Wales – was the first to join England in the 13th – 16th c.;
- Scotland – remained independent until Queen Elizabeth the 1st of England died and as far as she was childless the throne passed to James the 4th of Scotland who became James the 1st of England and unified Scotland and England. Finally, in 1707 Great Britain appeared as a country consisting of England, Wales and Scotland;
- Ireland – the attempts to conquer Ireland were made in the 12th c. but they did not prove to be successful. In 1921, after a long fight, the UK managed to keep only a small part of Ireland – Northern Ireland.

Linguistic Situation

After the Norman Conquest:

- **French** became the official language of administration (it was used in the king's court, in the law courts, in the church (as well as Latin), in the army, by the nobles in the south of England). It was also used as a language of writing and teaching as well as **Latin**.
- **English** was the language of common people in the Midlands and in the north of England. It still remained the language of the majority who were the representatives of the lower classes of society and never learned French, so the Norman barons had to learn English to be able to communicate with locals.
- **Celtic Dialects** were still used by the Celtic population in the remote areas of the country.

Actually, during the presence of the Normans the country experienced the period of bilingualism (French and English were both used in the country and started to intermix, i.e. a lot of the French words crept into the Middle English Dialects and it came to resemble present-day English a lot).

The Norman and the English drew together in the course of time and intermixed. French lost its popularity due to the fact that it was not the language of the majority and could not be used to communicate with local people. English regained its leading position with time and became accepted as the official language. The proofs are:

- The Parliamentary Proclamation of 1258 – Henry the 3rd addressed the councilors in Parliament in French, Latin and English.
- In the 14th – 15th c. legal documents (wills, municipal acts, petitions, etc.) started to be issued in English.
- 1364 – Parliament was opened with an address in English.
- 1399 – Henry the 4th accepted the throne and made a speech in English.
- Translations of the documents written in French into English.

Thus in the 14th c. **English** becomes the language of literature and administration.

Middle English Dialects

OE Dialects	Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian		Northumbrian
	↓	↓	↓		↓
ME Dialects	Kentish Dialect	South-Western Dialects	Midland Dialects		Northern Dialects
Examples	-	<u>East Saxon Dialect</u> London Dialect Gloucester Dialect	West Midland Dialect	<u>East</u> <u>Midland</u> Dialect	Yorkshire Dialect Lancashire Dialect

The most important dialect in the Middle English period was the **LONDON DIALECT**.

London Dialect

In the 12th -13th c. the London Dialect became the literary language and the **standard**, both in written and spoken form. The **reasons** why this happened:

- The capital of the country was transferred from Winchester, Wessex, to London a few years before the Norman Conquests.
- The East Saxon Dialect, that was the basis of the London Dialect got, became the most prominent in the Middle English period.
- Most writers and authors of the Middle English period used the London Dialect in their works.

Features of the London Dialect:

- The basis of the London Dialect was the East Saxon Dialect
- The East Saxon Dialect mixed with the East Midland Dialect and formed the **London Dialect**.
- Thus the London Dialect became more Anglican than Saxon in character
→ The London Dialect is **an Anglican dialect**.

Main Written Records of the Middle English Period

Geoffrey Chaucer and His Contribution

Geoffrey Chaucer was one of the most prominent authors of the Middle English Period and he set up a language pattern to be followed. He is considered to be the founder of the literary language of that period. Most authors of the Middle English Period tried to follow this standard.

Features of the Chaucer's Language:

- Chaucer's Language was the basis for the national literary language (15th – 16th c.).

- New spelling rules (digraphs) and new rules of reading (1 letter = several sounds) appeared as compared to the Old English.
- New grammatical forms appeared (Perfect forms, Passive forms, “to” Infinitive constructions, etc.).
- Chaucer tried to minimize the number of the French loans in the English Language.
- Chaucer introduced rhyme to the poetry.

New English Period in the History of the English Language

In the 15th – 16th c. the feudal system started to decay and bourgeois relationships and capitalism started to develop. England became a centralised state.

Introduction of Printing

The first printer of English books was **William Caxton** (1422-1491). He was born in Kent. In 1441 he moved to Flanders (a region in Belgium) and later, in 1473, he opened up his own printing press in Bruges.

1475 – the first English book was printed in Bruges by William Caxton. It was a translation of the story of Troy.

A few years later William Caxton brought his printing press to England and set it up in Winchester. Here he published the work of the famous authors of that time – Geoffrey Chaucer, John Gower, John Lydgate – and translated books from French.

Contribution of Printing:

- The works of the authors of that time were edited and brought into conformity with the London Dialect and as far as all the books were written in this dialect, it spread quickly and became the true standard of the English language;
- As far as printing allowed to multiply books in great number, they were sold and thus the literacy of the population grew;
- Before the introduction of printing different scribes could spell the same words differently; with the introduction of printing the spelling became fixed and it hasn't changed since that time though the pronunciation has changed greatly (this fact explains the difficulties of the English spelling).

Age of Shakespeare

See lectures in the English Literature on Shakespeare and his works.

The sources of information about the language:

- private letters (as far as books became available, more people became literate and started to write letters, wills, diaries, etc.);
- books for pupils and didactic works (e.g. “An Orthographie” by John Hart; “Grammatica Lingæ Anglicanæ” by John Wallis, etc.);
- lists of difficult words and dictionaries (e.g. “English-English Dictionary” (dialectal words explained with the help of the bookish English) by Henry Cockeram, etc.).

Normalisation of the English Language

Normalisation is the fixing of the norms and standards of a language to protect it from corruption and change.

Type of Standard	Written Standard	Spoken Standard
Time Limits	by the 17 th c.	end of the 18 th c.
Sources	Language of Chaucer (the London Dialect)	• private letters; • speech of characters in drama; • references to speech by scholars.
Peculiarities	1. <u>less stabilised</u> than at later stage; 2. wide range of <u>variation</u> (spelling, gr. forms, syntactical patterns, choice of words, etc.); 3. <u>rivalry with Latin</u> in the field of science, philosophy, didactics.	1. As spoken standard the scholars considered the <u>speech</u> of <u>educated people</u> taught at school as “correct English”. This was the speech of <u>London</u> and that of <u>Cambridge</u> and <u>Oxford Universities</u> .

The normalisation of the English language started in the 17th – 18th c. In 1710 **Jonathan Swift** published in his journal “The Tatler” an article titled “A Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue”. J. Swift was a purist (struggled for the purity of the language) and suggested that a body of scholars should gather to fix the rules of the language usage.

The Normalisation of the English language consisted in publishing:

1. Grammar of English:

- John Wallis, “Grammatica Lingæ Anglicanæ” (prescriptive/normative grammar);
- Robert Lowth, “A Short Introduction to English Grammar” (Lowth distinguished 9 parts of speech; made consistent description of letters,

syllables, words and sentences; rules of no-double negation (*I don't want no dinner* – incorrect!) and no-double comparison (*more better* – incorrect!) appeared, etc.).

2. Dictionaries (18th c.):

- E. Coles, “Dictionary of Hard Words” (gave explanations of hard words and phrases);
- **Samuel Johnson** – one of the best-known English lexicographers. As well as J. Swift, he was a purist and believed that the English language should be purified and corrected. He was the first to compile a dictionary that resembles the present-day dictionaries. His “**Dictionary of the English Language**” is the finest example of his hard and productive work. The dictionary also contained a grammatical section describing the grammatical structure of the language.

Теми семінарських занять

Семінар № 1. Теми:

“Evolution of the Sound System in the Middle English /Early New English Periods: Vowels.

“Evolution of the Sound System in the Middle English /Early New English Periods: Consonants. Word Stress”.

“Evolution of the Grammatical System in the Middle English/Early New English Periods: Nominal Parts of Speech: NOUN. NUMERAL”:

“Evolution of the Grammatical System in the Middle English/Early New English Periods: Nominal Parts of Speech: PRONOUN. ADJECTIVE”.

Семінар № 2. Теми:

“Evolution of the Grammatical System in the Middle English/Early New English Periods: Verb”.

“Evolution of the Grammatical System in the Middle English/Early New English Periods: Development of the Syntactic System: Phrase / Word Order / Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences”.

“Development of the English Vocabulary in the Middle English /Early New English Period: Types of Word Formation including Word Composition”.

The following students are to prepare the topic “Development of the English Vocabulary in the Middle English /Early New English Period: Borrowings”.

Submit 4 pages (format A4, font 14, interval 1,5) of the summary of one of the topics mentioned above.

For this purpose, you are to read, analyze and learn the necessary material in the textbooks recommended by the lecturer.

Make sure all the constituent elements are present in the summary. At the end indicate the sources of literature you used for producing the project (min. 2 sources).

!!!No direct copying from textbooks and other sources is allowed. You are to summarize the material in your own way. Pay your special attention to the principal changes of the Old English sound system.

Prepare presentations on the given topics in order to demonstrate them during the seminar. The presentation is to contain from 6 to 8 slides.

Вимоги до студентів

Під час виконання самостійної роботи студенти мають набути теоретичну підготовку для здійснення науково-дослідницької роботи у галузі мовознавства, мовних, лінгвокраїнознавчих та культурологічних знань і формуванні системи мовленнєвих умінь..

Форми контролю та критерії оцінювання

Навчальні досягнення студентів контролюються та оцінюються як під час поточної роботи над навчальним матеріалом, так і в кінці семестру. Поточний контроль реалізується під час виконання студентами поточних завдань, тестів, письмових контрольних робіт, усного опитування. Підсумковий контроль проходить у формі заліку. Відповідні критерії оцінювання наведено в Робочій програмі навчальної дисципліни.

Рекомендоване методичне забезпечення

1. Солощук, Л.В. (2015). *History of the English Language in Brief*. Kharkiv: KhNu, 105 p.
2. Verba, L.G. (2005). *History of the English Language*. Вінниця: Нова книга. 304 с.
3. THE CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. (2005). V. I. The Beginnings to 1066. EDITED BY RICHARD M. HOGG Smith, Professor of English Language and Medieval Literature, University of Manchester. Cambridge University Press. 7th edition. 588 p.
4. THE CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (2006). V.2. 1066-1476. EDITED BY NORMAN BLAKE, Professor of English Language and Linguistics, University of Sheffield. Cambridge University Press. 4th edition. 676 p.
5. THE CAMBRIDGE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (1999). V. 3. 1476–1776. EDITED BY ROGER LASS, Distinguished Professor of Historical and Comparative Linguistics, University of Cape Town. Cambridge University Press. 668 p.
6. Khaimovich, B.S. (1975). *A Short Outline of the History of English* Kharkov. 110 p.
7. Євченко, В.В. (2016) *History of the English Language (Історія англійської мови): навчально-методичний посібник*. Вінниця: Нова книга. 408 с.
8. Костюченко, Ю.П. (1953). *Історія англійської мови*. К.: Вища школа. 358 с.
9. Солощук Л.В. (2024). *Використання теоретичних предметів професійного спрямування (Історія англійської мови) для розвитку*

резильєнтності у студентів ВНЗ. Матеріали всеукраїнського науково-педагогічного підвищення кваліфікації «Освітній процес в умовах війни та у повоєнний період: виклики, правила, перспективи». 4 березня – 14 квітня 2024 року. Львів – Торунь : Liha-Pres. С. 291-293.

10. Baugh, A.C. & Cable T. (2005). *A History of the English Language*. Routledge. 447 p.

11. McDowall, D. (2006). *An Illustrated History of Britain*. Longman. 188 p.