

4. OE Alphabet and pronunciation.

The system of writing in OE was changed with the introduction of Christianity. Before that, the English used the runes – symbols that were very vague, that might at the same time denote a sound, a syllable or a whole word.

Runes are the 24 letters (later 16 in Scandinavia and 30 or more in Anglo-Saxon England) of an ancient Germanic alphabet used from the 2^d or 3^d to the 16th century. Perhaps derived ultimately from the Etruscan alphabet, the runic alphabet was used mainly for charms and inscriptions, on stone, wood, metal, or bone. Each letter had a name, which was itself a meaningful word. The rune , for instance, could stand for either the sound “f” or the fehu, “cattle”, which was the name given to the rune.

They were of specific shape, designed to be cut on the wooden sticks, and only few people knew how to make them and how to interpret them. Runic inscriptions that came down from the oldest settlers on the isles are few, and the language is not what might be called OE – it was rather an ancient language which might be very close to the languages of other Germanic tribes. The story of runes might be very interesting in itself, yet what we are going to study was written in an alphabet dating back to the 7th century; it was Latin alphabet with few specifically English additions. Some English sounds had no counterpart in Latin, so three signs developed from runes were added, plus ligature ae, now well known as a transcription symbol.

The Latin alphabet was carried throughout medieval Europe by the Roman Catholic church – to the Irish and Merovingians in the 6th century and the AngloSaxons and Germans in the 7th. The oldest surviving texts in the English language written with Latin letters date back to c.700.

So the letters of the OE alphabet were as follows, and they denoted the following sounds:

1. a [a] *an* (go) *and* (and)
2. ae [ae] *aet* (that)
3. b [b] *ban* (bone)
4. c [k] *caru* (care) and [] before front vowel *cild* (child)
5. d [d] *deor* (deer; in old times animal)
6. e [e] *mete* (meat; in old times food)
7. f [f] *findan* (find) and [v] in intervocal position *lufu* (love)
8.  was one of the remnants of the runic alphabet called *joh* (yoke) and it had several readings
 - [g] *an* (go)
 - [j] *ear* (year)
 - [] at the beginning of the word before back vowels and after *n* and between two back vowels: *sor ian* (sorrow), *fol ian* (follow), *uma* (man, human), *da as* (days)
9. h [h] *ham* (home), *him* (him), *hunto* (hunting)
10. i [i] *hit* (it), *him* (him), *lim* (limb)
11. l [l] *lytel* (little), *lif* (life), *lufu* (love)
12. m [m] *man* (man), *macian* (make)
13. n [n] *nama* (name), *neah* (near)
14. o [o] *fon* (catch), *mona* (moon)
15. p [p] *pera* (pear), *up* (up)
16. r [r] *riht* (right), *rin an* (ring), *wyrcan* (work)
17. s [s] *sittan* (sit), *sin an* (sing)

18. t [t] *treo* (tree), *tellan* (tell)
19. o was developed from the rune *thorn* [0] *oaet* (that), *oirda* (third), *oin* (thing); [o] in intervocal position *ooer* (other), *brooor* (brother)
20. u [u] *wudu* (wood)



book.pdf

21. w [w] in original OE texts it was p *wynn* from the rune meaning joy: *winnan* (win), *weoroan* (become)
22. x [ks] *oxa* (ox)
23. y [y] *fyllan* (fill), *lytel* (little)

The stress in OE was dynamic, and shifted to the first syllable. Originally in common Indo-European the stress was free; the stress in the OE words was always on the first syllable (verbs with prefixes, however, had the stress on the root vowel). The nouns having the same prefix had the stress on the first syllable too: *and* 'swarian – 'andswaru

Lecture 2 Old English period. Historical Background

Archaeological digs reveal that the British Isles were occupied during the Bronze Age, between 2000 and 1500 BC. But history as we know it began with the Celts, those warring tribes that had invaded eastern Europe between the fifth century BC and the beginning of the Roman conquests.

The First Celtic Occupants

It was at the beginning of the Iron Age, between the eighth and sixth centuries BC, that Celts began to occupy the British Isles. They settled not only in Ireland, but throughout Great Britain. These Celtic tribes were numerous (listed here by their Latin designations): Caledones, Damnonii, Novantae, Selgovae, Votadini, Carvetii, Brigantes, Parisi, Deceangli, Ordovices, Silures, Demetae, Cornovii, Corieltauvi, Dobunni, Durotriges, Dumnonii, Icenii, Catuvellauni, Trinovantes, Cantiaci, Atrebatas, Belgae, and Regni.

Each of these peoples (themselves divided into many tribes) spoke its own Celtic language (Indo-European family). Intercomprehension must have been relatively straightforward from one person to the next, but more difficult the further one tribe lived from the other. For example, Caledonians, who lived in the north, probably had trouble understanding southern Celts such as the Dumnonii, Durotriges, Belgae, Regni, Cantiaci, etc. We know that the Celts of Britain could understand certain Celts of Gaul, such as the Caletes, Osismii, Veneti, Carnutes, etc., who lived on the other side of the English Channel. Julius Caesar's remarks in his *Gallic Wars* (Book I), although about the continental Gauls rather than the Celts of *Britannia*, are a fitting summary of the Celtic languages in general:

All Gaul is divided into three parts, one of which the Belgae inhabit, the Aquitani another, those who in their own language are called Celts, in our Gauls, the third. All these differ from each other in language, customs and laws. The river Garonne separates the Gauls from the Aquitani; the Marne and the Seine separate them from the Belgae. Of all these, the Belgae are the bravest, because they are furthest from the civilization and refinement of [our] Province, and merchants least frequently resort to them, and import those things which tend to effeminate the mind; and they are the nearest to the Germans, who dwell beyond the Rhine, with whom they are continually waging war; for which reason the Helvetii also surpass the rest of the Gauls in valour, as they contend with the Germans in almost daily battles, when they either repel them from their own territories, or themselves wage war on their frontiers. One part of these, which it has been said that the Gauls occupy, takes its beginning at the river Rhone; it is bounded by the river Garonne, the ocean, and the territories of the Belgae; it borders, too, on the side of the Sequani and the Helvetii, upon the river Rhine, and stretches toward the north. The Belgae rise from the extreme frontier of Gaul, extend to the lower part of the river Rhine; and look toward the north and the rising sun. Aquitania extends from the river Garonne to the

Pyrenaean mountains and to that part of the ocean which is near Spain: it looks between the setting of the sun, and the north star.

Aujourd'hui, les langues celtiques sont en net déclin: seuls le breton en France (l'ancienne Armorique), le gallois au pays de Galles, l'irlandais et l'écossais ont survécu:

Group	Languages
Gaulish	Gaulish†, Celtiberian†
Brythonic	breton, gallois, cornique†
Gaelic	Irish, Scottish, Manx†

It should be noted that numerous immigrants arriving in Canada during the 18th and 19th centuries still spoke Gaelic, Irish, or Scottish.

The Roman Occupation



In 55 BC, Julius Caesar landed to the south of the island of Great Britain, then still called "Britain" or Britannia (in Latin). But his two invasions (55 and 54 BC) seem to have had little effect on the history of Roman Britain, for they resulted in neither annexation nor colonial settlement. Then in 43 AD, the Emperor Claudius invaded Britain with four Roman legions (roughly 40,000 men). Occupation went no further north than Hadrian's Wall (95 km long), which today separates England from Scotland; at the time, *Britannia* did not include Scotland (Caledonia) or Ireland (Hibernia).

The Romans believed that the Celtic "natives" were less developed and civilized than they were, and that it was their duty to make them conform to their lifestyle and cultural values. Thus they formed cities and created a vast network of roads covering the entire country, while a hierarchy of civil servants managed the country and the army ensured that order reigned.

Latin was the common language for both Romans and local inhabitants. However, Romanizing the island's inhabitants—whom the Romans called **Brittones** (or "Britons")—was done rather superficially, and old-time Celtic persisted, at least in the countryside. In other words, "Britons" continued to speak a variety of Celtic languages, with the exception of the local élites, who were generally bilingual, and for whom Romanization was clearly successful.

Rural populations were not assimilated by the Roman occupants. Latin was no more than a foreign language, no doubt necessary to maintaining harmonious relations with the Romans. The Latinization of cities was more successful, but not to the extent that inhabitants had to change languages.

Then in the third century came the first Viking incursions on the island of *Britannia*. In the fourth century, following the great reforms of the Emperor Diocletian (284–305), the province of *Britannia* was divided into *Britannia Superior* to the west and *Britannia Inferior* to the east (see map above). Subsequent increases in Germanic attacks also contributed to the decline of the Roman Empire in Britain. Roman legions withdrew from the island permanently in 407.

The Arrival of Germanic Tribes

Beginning in 450, the **Angles**, a Germanic people from what is today Schleswig-Holstein (south of Denmark), settled on the southern coasts of *Britannia* and drove back the Celts to Cornwall and Wales. Once settled in England, the Germanic tribes borrowed a number of terms from the Celtic vocabulary; all that remain today are *bin* (Old English *binn*, manger), *brock* (O.E. *brocc*, badger), and *dun* (O.E. *dunn*, dull brown). The legend of King Arthur has preserved the memory of the fierce resistance of "Britons" (synonym for "English").

Although all of these Germanic invaders—**Angles**, **Saxons**, **Friesians**, **Jutes** (from Jutland in Denmark), even **Franks**—came from different places (albeit from the same civilization), they identified themselves either as **Angles** or **Saxons**, whence the name **Anglo-Saxon**. To the north was the **Scotti** kingdom, which gave its name to the country, Scotland.

In seventh century *England* there were seven major Germanic kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex (East), Wessex (West), Sussex (South), and Kent. At this time, Germanic tribes still spoke their original languages (Old Norse, Frankish, Friesian, Saxon, Anglian, etc.), all of them stemming from common or proto-Germanic. Thus, although English did not yet exist, the peoples who had settled there would become the ancestors of a language whose evolution was just beginning. Between the mid-fifth century and the beginning of the seventh century, Celts from *Britannia* (essentially Cornwall and Wales) were chased from the island by the Angles, Jutes, and Saxons. Crossing the Channel, they sought refuge in Armorica (today's French Brittany), where they introduced the Breton language. Eventually, the Britons in turn pushed the Gallo-Romans east of Armorica (which meanwhile had become Brittany) and then came up against the Franks, who nevertheless left them much to themselves. Ties between Brittany, Cornwall, Wales, and Ireland remained close, and conferred a strong enough sense of identity to fend off the Franks.

The Germanic invasions in *Britannia* caused placenames to change in relatively short order. Thus, insular Britain (*Britannia*) became **England**, the "land of the Angles." At first, Roman Armorica was called by its Latinized Gaulish name of *Letavia*—a name the Welsh preserved in their word for Brittany, *Llydaw*—then became *Britannia Minor* ("Little Britain"), as opposed to *Britannia Major* ("Great Britain"). Over time, the Latin form of *Britannia* evolved in France into *Bretanie* (whence the English *Brittany*), then *Bretaigne*, and finally *Bretagne*. Bretons gave the Quimper region the name *Cornouailles* (the furthestmost southwestern region of Great Britain called *Cornwall*). Gaul eventually became **France** (from the name Franks).

Old English (or Anglo-Saxon): 700 to 1100

The Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) period extended from about 700 to the 11th century. Other Germanic nations joined the Anglo-Saxons already settled in Britain, such as the **Jutes** of Jutland (Denmark) and a number of **Friesians**. The Jutes took over the southern part of the island as well as

the Isle of Wight off the south shore, while the **Angles** settled in the north of England and the **Saxons** in the southwest after confining the Celts to the west (Wales and Cornwall).

War led the numerous Germanic kingdoms to merge, obliterating the traces of Roman organization and changing *Britannia* to the land of the Angles and Saxons. Following the Christianization of the Welsh and Irish in the fifth century and Scots in the sixth, the Saxon kingdoms were evangelized under Pope Gregory the Great (590–604).

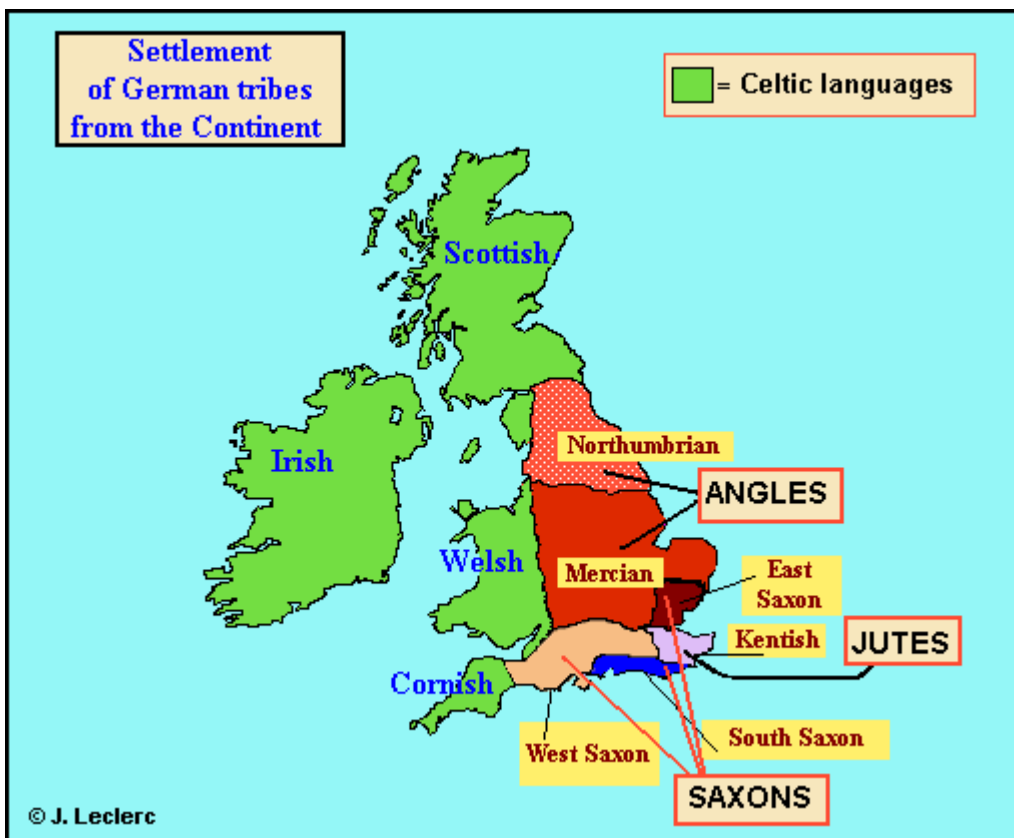
While the ancient Celtic nations were being driven back in the west of Britain (*see map of Britannia above*), the Vikings returned in the eighth ninth 9th centuries to vanquish all the Saxon kingdoms except Wessex. As they spoke **Old Norse**, the Vikings brought with them new northern words, roughly thirty of them, including call (Old English ceallian: "cry"), fellow (feolaga: "partner"), husband (O.E. husbonda: "head of the house"), law (O.E. lagu: "establish"), wrong (O.E. wrangr: "crooked," "unjust"), etc. Thus England remained dominated by Wessex. In time, the Danes settled in the east of England and formed a kingdom called Danelaw (Danalagu: "region where Danish law holds sway").

Anglo-Saxon

In the ninth century, thanks in part to the influence of Alfred the Great (Anglo-Saxon king of Wessex from 871 to 878), the western Saxon kings became the first sovereigns of all England and **West Saxon**, the dominant language of prose literature. Meanwhile, the Catholic church had continued to christianize the region and had brought back **Latin**. The resulting English was then further mixed with **Latin**, **Saxon**, and **Old Norse** words. Named after these German and Danish warriors, the Germanic language **Anglo-Saxon** represents the first period of English, or **Old English**. The Anglo-Saxon language of these peoples remained, however, fragmented into dialects.

Linguistically, the Germanic kingdoms gave birth to the three major dialectal groups found in Old English:

- **West Saxon** (Wessex), as well as East Saxon and South Saxon
- Kentish (Kent)
- **Anglian**, including Mercian and Northumbrian



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

Loan Words

By comparison with modern English, the Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) vocabulary appears rather limited today, with approximately 24,000 lexical units to at least 500,000 in contemporary English, if not more than one million. Old English was influenced by Old Norse, Celtic, Latin, and certain Scandinavian languages.

Old Norse

Much of the vocabulary of Old English and Old Norse was identical, though intercomprehension between the two languages was not a given. Today's English has roughly one million words that can be traced to ancient Scandinavian origins through Old Norse: *bag*, *birth*, *bread*, *cake*, *to die*, *egg*, *happy*, *husband*, *law*, *to lift*, *root*, *same*, *to seem*, *sky*, etc.

Celtic Languages

Borrowings from certain Celtic root words gave rise to some doublets in standard English: *whole/hale*, *no/nay*, *shirt/skirt*, *scream/screech*, *edge/egg*. Old English also borrowed some proper nouns from Celtic languages (Belfast, Cardiff, Dublin, Glasgow, Avon, etc.) as well as many common nouns, such as *bannock*, *cart*, *down*, and *mattock*. Most modern English words with Celtic origins—from Welsh, Scots Gaelic, or Irish—are fairly recent loan words.

Latin

Already at the time, words with Latin origins were numerous —there were roughly 150 of them . Many actually derived from Greek: altar, mass, priest, psalm, pear, etc. Most of these words—often religious terms— were introduced through the spread of Christianity. At this time, members of the clergy and scholars used Latin, and scientists readily used Greek. This Latinization of English enriched the language with many words and gave a "Mediterranean flavour" to the "Nordic language," or a "Latin flavour" to the "Germanic language."

Scandinavian Languages

There were also about forty words of Scandinavian origin introduced by the Vikings during their many invasions of Britain: are, take, cut, both, ill, ugly, etc. Of course the writing underwent numerous changes, but one can still recognize certain words: deor (deer), scort (short), disc (dish), mōna (moon), sunne (sun). Although some Old English words are unrecognizable due to their Celtic appearance: eorðe (earth), cniht (knight), cyning (king), wicu (week), gærs (grass), costung (temptation), many survived and remain almost intact today: feet, geese, teeth, men, women, lice, mice, etc.

In the early 11th century, Old English was a language that, despite its Celtic and Greco-Latin influences, remained firmly Germanic. Linguistic transformations of the next period, however, would produce an Anglo-Saxon unrecognizable in relation to the preceding one.

1. Word stress.

A dynamic or forced stress was employed. Word stress was fixed: it remained on the same syllable in form – and wordbuilding. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds may have two stresses, the chief being fixed on the first root morpheme. The position of stress in the words with prefixes varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown to the prefix..

2. Old English vowels. Changes of stressed vowels. Independent changes.

Fronting or palatalisation of [α] and [ɑ:]. Positional deviations or restrictions to this rule: short [a] could change to [o] or [ã] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal. The preservation of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable.

Splitting of [a] and [a:] in Early Old English

Change illustrated	E x a m p l e s		
PG OE	Other OG languages	OE	NE
æ	<i>Gt þata</i>	þæt	<i>that</i>

a	o, ã	<i>O Icel dagr</i>	dæ3	<i>day</i>
		<i>Gt mann(a)</i>	mon	<i>man</i>
	a	<i>O Icel land</i>	land	<i>land</i>
		<i>Gt magan</i>	mazan	<i>may</i>
		<i>Gt dagos,</i>	da3as	<i>days</i>
a:	æ:	<i>OHG dêr</i>	þær	<i>there</i>
		<i>OHG slâfen</i>	slæpan	<i>sleep</i>
	o:	<i>OHG mâno</i>	mōna	<i>moon</i>
		<i>O Icel mánaðr</i>	mōnaþ	<i>month</i>

Old English reflections of PG diphthongs. The diphthongs with the i-glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; with u-glides were reflected as long diphthongs [io:], [eo:], and [ea:].

Old English Reflexes of Proto-Germanic Diphthongs (or Bi-Phonemic Sequences)

Change illustrated		E x a m p l e s		
PG	OE	Other OG languages	OE	NE
a + i	a:	<i>Gt stains</i>	stān	<i>stone</i>
		<i>Gt ains</i>	ān	<i>one</i>

e + i	i:	<i>Gt</i> meins ¹	mīn	<i>mine, my</i>
		<i>Gt</i> reisan	rīsan	<i>rise</i>
a + u	ea:	<i>0 Icel</i> austr	ēast	<i>east</i>
		<i>Gt</i> auso	ēare	<i>ear</i>
		<i>Gt</i> augo (cf.. G Auge)	ēaze	<i>eye</i>
e + u	eo:	<i>Gt</i> þiudans	þēoden	‘king’
		<i>Gt</i> kiusan	cēosan	<i>choose</i>
i + u	io:	<i>Gt</i> diups	dēop, dīop ²	<i>deep</i>
¹ The vowel in <i>Gt</i> is [i:], though the spelling resembles the PG [ei]. ² In OE the diphthongs [eo:] and [io:] occur as dialectal variants.				

Assimilative vowel changes.

The front vowels [i], [e], and [æ] changed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before [h], [ll], or [l]. The change is known as breaking.

Diphthongisation of vowels could also be caused by preceding consonants. After the palatal consonants [kʰ] and [skʰ] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs with a more front vowel as their first element.

Breaking and Diphthongisation

Conditions	Change illustrated		Examples		
	Early OE	OE	Other 0G languages	WS	NE

				and OE dialects			
Breaking	before <i>l+l</i>						
	or <i>l +</i> other consonants	æ	ea	Gt	alls	eall	<i>all</i>
				Merc	all		
				North	ald	eald	<i>old</i>
	<i>h</i>	æ:	ea:	OHG	nâh	nēah	<i>near</i>
	<i>h + other</i> consonants	æ	ea	Gt	ahtau	eahta	<i>eight</i>
		e	eo	OHG	fehtan	feohtan	<i>fight</i>
	<i>r + other</i> consonants	e	eo	OHG	herza	heorte	<i>heart</i>
		æ	ea	OHG	arm	earm	<i>arm</i>
				Gt	hardus	heard	<i>hard</i>

Diphthongisation	after	sk'	e	ie	OHG	skild	sciold,	<i>shield</i>
							scyld	
					OHG	scal	aceal	<i>shall</i>
			æ	ea	Gt	skadus	sceadu	<i>shade</i>
		k'	e	ie	loan- words	cerasus (L)	deres, cyrs	<i>cherries</i>
			æ	ea		castra (L)	ceaster	<i>chester</i> (‘camp’)
	j		æ:	ea:	OHG	jâr	zēar	<i>year</i>

		e	ie	Gt	giban	ziefan	<i>give</i>
--	--	---	----	----	-------	--------	-------------

Palatal Mutation

Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in a succeeding syllable. Mutation under the influence of [i] or [j] is known as “i-Umlaut” or “palatal mutation”. Palatal mutation is the fronting and raising of vowels under the influence of [i] or [j] so as to approach the articulation of [i].

Change illustrated		Examples		
Vowels prior to Mutated palatal vowels mutation		Gt or OE (without palatal mutation)	OE (palatal mutation)	NE
æ	} e	Gt mats	mete	<i>meat</i>
a		OE sala, Gt saljan	sellan	<i>sale, sell</i>
ʊ		Gt sandjan	sendan	<i>send</i>
a:	æ:	OE lār, Gt laisjan	lāeran	‘teaching’, ‘teach’
		OE ān	āni3	<i>one, any</i>
o	e	OE dohtor	dehter	<i>daughter</i> (Nom. and Dat. sg)
o:	e:	OE bōc	bēc	<i>book, books</i>
		OE dōm		<i>doom</i>
		Gt gadōmjan	dēman	<i>deem</i>
u	y	OE full		<i>full</i>
		Gt fulljan	fyllan	<i>fill</i>

u:	y:	OE mūs	mȳs	<i>mouse, mice</i>
ea	} ie	OE eald	ieldra	<i>old, elder</i>
eo		OE feor	fierra	<i>far, farther</i>
ea:	} ie:	OE 3elēafa		<i>belief,</i>
eo:		Gt galaubjan	3elīefan	<i>believe</i>
		OE þēod	elþiēdi3 <i>adj</i>	‘tribe’, ‘of a tribe’

Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions which caused palatal mutation had disappeared in most words by the age of writing.

Old English Vowels

Monophthongs										Diphthongs		
Short	i	e	(œ)	æ	(ā)	a	o	u	y	(ie)	ea	eo
Long	i:	e:	(œ:)	æ:	a:		o:	u:	y:	(ie:)	ea:	eo:

3. Old English consonants.

Treatment of Fricatives.

Reflexes of Proto-Germanic Fricatives in Old English

Change illustrated		Examples		
Rhotacism Voicing or	Late OE PG	Other OG languages	OE	NE
	ð d	O Icel rauðr	rēad	<i>red</i>

Devoicing Hardening		Gt wasida [ð]	werede	wore, past of war
	v b	Gt broþar	brōþor	<i>brother</i>
	γ g	Gt guma	3uma	'man*
	v { v	Gt sibun [v]	seofon [v]	<i>seven</i>
		Gt hlaifs	hlafas {v]	<i>loaves</i>
		f	(Cf. R <i>χλεβ</i>)	hlāf [fl
	f { v	Gt wulfos	wulfas [vl	<i>wolves</i>
		f	Gt wulfs	wulf [f]
	θ { ð	Gt siupan [θ]	seopan [ð]	<i>seethe</i>
		θ	Gt saup [θ]	sead [θ]
	γ' { γ	Gt dagos	dazas	<i>days</i>
		x	Gt baurgs	buruh, burh
	s { z	Gt kiusan [s]	ceosan [z]	<i>choose</i>
		s	Gt kaus [s]	ceas [s]
z r	Gt maiza [z]	māra	<i>more</i>	
	Gt huzd	hord	<i>hoard</i>	

Hardening. The PG voiced [ð] (due to Verner's law) was always hardened to [d] in OE and other WG languages. The two other fricatives, [v] and [γ] were hardened to [b] and [g] initially and after nasals, otherwise they remained nasals.

Rhotacism. PG [z] underwent a phonetic modification through the stage of [ʒ] into[r]. This process, termed rhotacism, is characteristic not only of WG but also of NG.

Voicing and devoicing of fricatives. The PG set of fricatives [f, θ, x, s] and also those of the voiced fricatives which had not turned onto plosives, that is [v] and [γ], were subjected to a new process of voicing and devoicing. In Early OE they became or

remained voiced intervocally and between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants; they remained or became voiced in other environments.

West Germanic gemination of consonants. In all WG languages most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [j], e.g. **fuljan* > OE *fyllan* (NE *fill*). During the process, or some time later, [j] was lost, so that the long consonants ceased to be phonetically conditioned. The change did not affect the sonorant [r].

Palatalisation of velar consonants in Old English.

The velar consonants were palatalised before a front vowel, or sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by back vowel.

Palatalisation and Splitting of Velar Consonants

Change illustrated		Examples	
Before and after front vowels	In other positions	OE	NE
k	k'	cinn, birce, tácan (from *tākjan) ,	chin, birch, teach
	k	can, macian (from *makōjan)	can, make
g	g'	senzan (from *sangjan)	singe
g:	g':	ec3, bryc3	edge, bridge
	g	zan, 3rētan	go, greet
x	x'	neaht, niht	night
	x, h	hors, hlāf	horse, loaf
γ	j	dæ3, 3eard	day, yard
	γ	da3as	days

Loss of consonants in some positions.

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants, in the process the preceding vowel was probably nasalised and lengthened. Cf. Gt *fimf*, OIcel. *Fim*, OHG *fimf* > OE *fif* (NE five).

Old English consonant system.

Old English Consonants

Place of articulation		Labial, labiodental	Forelinguar (dental)	Mediolin- gual (palatal)	Back lingual (velar)	
Manner of articulation						
Noise conso- nants	plosive	voiceless	p p:	t t:	k' k':	k k:
		voiced	b b:	d d:	g':	g g:
	fricative	voiceless	f f:	θ θ: s s:	x' x':	x x: (h)
		voiced	v	ð z	γ' (j)	γ
Sonorants		m m:	n n:			
		w	r 1	j	(ŋ)	

Plan

1. The Noun. Morphological classifications of Nouns in OE. Declensions of Nouns.
2. The Pronoun. Personal pronouns, their declension. Demonstrative pronouns. Other classes of pronouns.
3. Adjectives. Declensions of Adjectives. Degrees of comparison.
4. Numerals.
5. The verb. Strong and weak verbs. Preterite-present verbs. Anomalous verbs.

Literature

- Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. M., 1983; M., 2005. - p.92-129.
- Ilyish B. History of the English language. Л. 1972. – p 63-132.
- Reznik R.V., Sorokina T.S., Reznik I.V. A History of the English Language. M., 2001. – p. 89-126.
- Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. М., 1985. – с. 45-91.
- Бруннер К. История английского языка. М., 2003. – Т.2, с.3-354.
- Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П., Беляева Т.М. История английского языка. СПб., 1998. с. 98-108, 112-116, 124-128, 131, 132-133, 133-154, 191-204, 216-224, 239-251, 292-295.
- Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М., 1998. – с. 207-301.

Morphology

Form-building. Parts of speech and grammatical categories.

1.The Noun. Its grammatical categories. The use of cases. Morphological classification of nouns. Declensions. Weak and strong declensions. Root stems. Types of plural forms.

The OE noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: number and case. In addition it distinguished three genders.

The Noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative.

Historically, 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 final syllables.

Morphological Classification of Nouns in Old English

Division according to stem

Vocalic stems				Consonantal stems		
Strong declension ¹				<i>n</i> -stems (weak declension)	Root-stems	Other minor stems: <i>r</i> -, <i>s</i> -, <i>nd</i> -
<i>a</i> -stems	<i>ō</i> -stems	<i>i</i> -stems	<i>u</i> -stems			
<i>ja</i> -stems	<i>jō</i> -stems					
<i>wa</i> -stems	<i>wō</i> -stems					

Division according to gender

MN	F	MNF	MF	MNF	MF	MNF
----	---	-----	----	-----	----	-----

Division according to length of the root-syllable

short	short	short	short			
long	long	long	long			

¹ Vocalic stems are also called the "strong" declension; one of the consonantal stems — the *n*-stems — are termed the "weak" declension.

Declensions of Nouns Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems)

a-stems				
Singular				
M	short-stemmed N	long-stemmed N	<i>ja</i> -stems M	<i>wa</i> -stems N

<i>Nom.</i>	fisc	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
<i>Gen.</i>	fisces	scipes	dēores	endes	cnēowes
<i>Dat.</i>	fisce	scipe	dēore	ende	cnēowe
<i>Acc.</i>	fisc	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
<i>Plural</i>					
M		short-stemmed N	long-stemmed N	<i>ja</i> -stems M	<i>wa</i> -stems N
<i>Nom.</i>	fisces	scipu	dēor	endas	cnēo(w)
<i>Gen.</i>	fisca	scipa	dēora	enda	cnēowa
<i>Dat.</i>	fiscum	scipum	dēorum	endum	cnēowum
<i>Acc.</i>	fiscas	scipu	dēor	endas	cnēo(w)
	(NE <i>fish</i>)	(NE <i>scip</i>)	(NE <i>deer</i>)	(NE <i>end</i>)	(NE <i>knee</i>)

Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems)
(continued)

Singular					
ō-stems			i-stems	u-stems	
short-stemmed		long-stemmed	short-stemmed	short-stemmed	long-stemmed
F			M	M	
Nom.	talū	wund	mete	sunu	feld
Gen.	tale	wunde	metes	sunā	felda
Dat.	tale	wunde	mete	sunā	felda
Acc.	tale	wunde	mete	sunu	felda

<i>Plural</i>					
<i>Nom.</i>	tala, -e	wunda, -e	mete, -as	sunā	felda
<i>Gen.</i>	tala (-ena)	wunda (-ena)	meta	sunā	felda
<i>Dat.</i>	talum	wundum	metum	sunum	feldum
<i>Acc.</i>	tala, -e	wunda, -e	mete, -as	sunā	felda
	(NE <i>tale</i>)	(NE <i>wound</i>)	('food', NE <i>meat</i>)	(NE <i>son</i>)	(NE <i>field</i>)

Consonantal Stems

<i>Singular</i>					
n-stems (weak declension)				root-stems	
	M	N	F	M	F
<i>Nom.</i>	nama	ēare	tunze	fōt	mūs
<i>Gen.</i>	naman	ēaran	tunzan	fōtes	mýs, mūse
<i>Dat.</i>	naman	ēaran	tunzan	fēt	mýs
<i>Acc.</i>	naman	ēaran	tunzan	fōt	mūs

<i>Plural</i>					
n-stems (weak declension)				root-stems	
	M	N	F	M	F

<i>Nom.</i>	naman	ēaran	tun3an	fēt	mýs
<i>Gen.</i>	namena	ēarena	tun3ena	fōta	mūsa
<i>Dat.</i>	namum	ēarum	tun3um	fōtum	mūsum
<i>Acc.</i>	naman	ēaran	tun3an	fēt	mýs
	(NE <i>name</i>)	(NE <i>ear</i>)	(NE <i>tongue</i>)	(NE <i>foot</i>)	(NE <i>mouse</i>)

2.The pronoun.

Personal pronouns. Their categories.

Declension of Personal Pronouns

First person			
Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
<i>Nom.</i>	ic	wit	wē
<i>Gen.</i>	mīn	uncer	ūre, ūser
<i>Dat.</i>	mē	unc	ūs
<i>Acc.</i>	mec, mē	uncit	ūsic, ūs
Second person			
<i>Nom.</i>	þū	3it	3ē
<i>Gen.</i>	þīn	incer	ēower
<i>Dat.</i>	þē	inc	ēow
<i>Acc.</i>	þēc, þē	incit, inc	ēowic, ēow
Third person			
Singular			Plural
M	F	N	All genders

<i>Nom.</i>	hē	hēo, hīo	hit	hīe, hī, hý, hēo
<i>Gen.</i>	his	hire, hierē	his	hira, heora, hiera, hyra
<i>Dot.</i>				
<i>Ace.</i>	him	hire, hierē	him	him, heom
	hine	hīe, hī, hý	hit	hīe, hī, hý, hēo

Demonstrative pronouns. There were two types of demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of that (*sē, sēo, þæt*) and the prototype of this (*þes Masc., þeos Fem., þis Neut. and þās pl.*)

Declension of *sē, sēo, þæt*

Case	Singular			Plural
	M	N	F	All genders
<i>Nom.</i>	sē, se	þæt	sēo	þā
<i>Gen.</i>	þæs	þæs	þære	þāra, þæra
<i>Dat.</i>	þæm, pām	þæm, pām	þære	þām, þæm
<i>Acc.</i>	þone	þææt	þā	þa
<i>Instr.</i>	þý, þon	þý, þon	þære	þæm, þām

Other classes of pronouns. Interrogative pronouns – *hwā*, Masc. and Fem., *hwæt*, Neut. (NE who and what). Indefinite pronouns: *ān, ániȝ, nān, nānþinȝ, nāwiht/ nōht* (NE one, any, none, nothing, ‘nothing’/ not).

3.The adjectives.

Grammatical categories. Weak and strong declension.

The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes. In the strong declension there appeared the set of endings mainly coincided with the endings of a-stems and ō-stems of nouns. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives have no parallel in the noun paradigms; they are similar to the endings of pronouns (Dat. Sing., Acc. sing.Masc., some Fem. And pl. Endings).

Therefore the strong declension is sometimes called the “pronominal” declension. As for the weak declension, it uses the same markers as n-stems of nouns except that in the Gen. pl. The pronominal ending –ra is often used instead of the weak –ena.

Singular					
Strong (pure <i>a</i> - and <i>ō</i> -stems)			Weak		
M	N	F	M	N	F
<i>Nom.</i> blind	blind	blind	blinda	blinde	blinde
<i>Gen.</i> blindes	<i>Dat.</i> blindes	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
blindum	<i>Acc.</i> blindne	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Instr.</i> blinde	blind	blinde	blindan	blinde	blindan
	blinde	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Plural					
			All genders		
<i>Nom.</i> blinde	blind	blinda, -e	blindan		
<i>Gen.</i> blindra	blindra	blindra	blindra, -ena		
<i>Dat.</i> blindum	blindum	blindum	blindum		
<i>Acc.</i> blinde					
<i>Instr.</i> blindum	blind	blinda, -e	blindan		
	blindum	blindum	blindum		
(NE <i>blind</i>)					

The difference between the strong and the weak declensions is also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain declension. Most adjectives could decline in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. 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.

Some adjectives were always declined strong: *eall*, *maniz*, *ōþer* (NE all, many, other), while others were always weak: adjectives in the superlative and comparative degrees, ordinal numerals, the adjective *ilca* (NE same).

The strong forms were associated with the meaning of indefiniteness, the weak forms – with the meaning of definiteness.

Degrees of comparison.

Positive, comparative, superlative degrees. Means of forming the degrees of comparison: suffixation, suffixation plus vowel interchange, suppletion.

Comparison of Adjectives in Old English

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Sufftxation	soft	softra	softost	<i>soft</i>
	wēriȝ	wēriȝra	wēriȝost	<i>weary</i>
Suffixation plus vowel interchange	3læd	3lædra	3lædost	<i>glad</i>
	1onȝ	1enȝra	lenȝest	<i>long</i>
	eald	ieldra	ieldest	<i>old</i>
	(also: ealdra	ealdost, ealdest)		
Suppletion	3ōd	bettra	bet(e)st	<i>good</i>
	lýtel	læssa	læst	<i>little</i>
	micel	māra	mæst	<i>much</i>

4.Numerals. Cardinal and ordinal numerals.

Cardinal numerals. The first three nnumerals – ān, twēȝen, þrēo_ have the forms of gender and case. Ān is declenedis declined like strong adjectives.

The declension of twēȝen:

	M	N	F
Nom.	twēȝen	tū, twā	twā
Gen.	twēȝra		

Dat.	twáem, twām		
Acc.	twēzen	tū, twā	twā

The declension of þrēo:

	M	N	F
Nom.	þrīe, þrī, þrý	þrīo þrēo	þrīo þrēo
Gen.	Þrīora, þrēora		
	þrim		
	þrīe, þrī, þrý	þrīo, þrēo	þrīo þrēo

The numerals from 4 to 19 do not decline.

4- fēower	9-niʒon
5-fīf	10-tīen, týn
6-syx, siex	11-endleofan
7-seofon	12- twelf
8-eahte	13- þrēotīne

The numerals from 13 to 19 are build adding –tine, -tiene:. Starting from 20, the numerals are build adding –tiʒ: þrītiʒ, fēowertiʒ, etc. Starting from 70 to 100, hund- is added:

70- hundseofontiʒ, 100-hundteontiʒ, 110- hundendlæftiʒ, 1000- þūsend.

Ordinal numerals.

1st- forma, firmesta, fyrest, árest	6th-siexta
2nd-ōþer, æftera.	7th-seofopa
3d-þrida	8th-eahtopa
4th-fēowera	9th-niʒopa

5th-fifta	10th-tēopa 11th-endlefta 12th-twelfta
-----------	---

The numerals from the 14th to the 19th are built with the help of the suffix –teopa?
From the 20th to the 120 – with the suffix -ti3opa.

5. The verb

Grammatical categories of the finite verbs.

The verb-predicate agreed with the noun in two grammatical categories: number and person. The category of Mood was constituted by Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense consisted of Present and Past categorial forms.

Conjugation of verbs in Old English

	Strong		Weak	
<i>Infinitive</i>	findan	beran	dēman	lōcian
	(NE <i>find</i>)	<i>bear</i>	<i>deem</i>	<i>look</i>
Present tense				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Singular 1st	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
2nd	fintst	bir(e)st	dēmst	lōcast
3rd	fint	bir(e)þ	dēmp	lōcaþ
Plural	findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Singular	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
Plural	finden	beren	dēmen	lōcien

<i>Imperative</i>					
Singular		find	ber	dēm	lōca
Plural		findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<i>Participle I</i>		findende	berende	dēmende	lōciende
Past tense					
<i>Indicative</i>					
Singular	1st	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
	2nd	funde	bære	dēmdest	lōcodest
	3rd	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
Plural		fundon	bæron	dēmdon	lōcodon
<i>Subjunctive</i>					
Singular		funde	bære	dēmde	lōcode
Plural		funden	bæren	dēmnden	lōcoden
<i>Participle II</i>		(3e)fundon	(3e)boren	(3e)dēmed	(3e)lōcod

Grammatical categories of the verbals. In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. Their nominal features were more obvious than verbal. The latter was revealed only in their syntactic combinability: they could take direct objects and be modified by adverbs.

The Infinitive had a reduced case-system: two forms which roughly correspond to the Nom. and Dat. cases of Nouns.

Nom. *beran*

Dat. *to beranne*

Participles. Part I was opposed to Part. II through Voice and Tense distinction.

Part. I was active and expressed present or simultaneous processes, while Part. II expressed states and qualities resulting from past action, was passive, if the verb was transitive.

Participles in Old English

	Voice	Active	Passive	NE
Tense				
Present		berende	—	<i>bearing</i>
		sec3ende	—	<i>saying</i>
		3an3ende	—	<i>going</i>
		farende	—	‘travelling’
Past		3e3ān	3eboren	<i>gone, born</i>
		3efaren	3esædd	‘who has departed, said’

Morphological classifications of verbs.

Strong verbs. There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. They formed their stems by means of vowel gradation (ablaut) and by adding certain suffixes.

The classes of strong verbs.

Strong Verbs in Old English

Principal forms	Infinitive	Past Singular ¹	Past Plural	Participle II	NE
Classes					
1	wrītan	wrāt	writon	writen	<i>write</i>
2	(a) cēosan	cēas	curon buzon	coren bozen	<i>choose</i>
	(b) būzan	bēa3			<i>bow</i>
3	(a) findan	fand	fundon	funden holpen fohten	<i>find</i>
	(b) helpan	healp	hulpon		<i>help</i>
	(c) feohtan	feaht	fuhton		<i>fight</i>

4	beran	bær	bæron	boren	<i>bear</i>
5	(a) cweðan	cwæð	cwædon	cweden	‘say’ (obs. <i>quoth</i>)
	(b) sittan	sæt	sæton	seten	<i>sit</i>
6	scacan	scōc	scōcon	scacen	<i>shake</i>
7	(a) hātan	hēt (heht)	hēton (hehton)	hāten 3rōwen	‘call’, ‘name’
	(b) 3rōwan	3rēow	3rēowon		<i>grow</i>

Weak verbs. The weak verbs derived their Past Tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present Tense stem with the help of the dental suffix.

The classes of weak verbs.

Weak Verbs In Old English

Principal forms	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
Classes				
I	-an/-ian	-de/-ede/-te	-ed/-d/-t	
	(a) styrian	styrede	styred	<i>stir</i>
	(b) temman	teraede	temed	<i>tame</i>
	(c) dēman	dēmde	dēmed	<i>deem</i>
	(d) cēpan	cēpte	cēped	<i>keep</i>
	(e) tellan	tealde	teald	<i>tell</i>
	(f) þyncan	þūhte	þūht	<i>thin</i>
II	-ian	-ode	-od	
	lōcian	lōcode	lōcod	<i>look</i>

III	-an	-de	-d	
	libban	lifde	lifd	<i>live</i>
	habban	hæfde	hæfd	<i>have</i>

Class 1: includes regular and irregular verbs. The verbs of the Class I, being i-stems, originally contained the element [-i/-j] between the root and the endings. This caused palatal mutation of the root vowel, and the lengthening of consonants. [-i/-j] was lost in all verbs before the age of writing.

Two groups of verbs in Class I – types (e) and (f) had an interchange of root-vowels: the Infinitive had a mutated vowel like all the verbs of Class I, while the other two forms retained the original non-mutated vowel. These verbs are called irregular in Class 1

Minor groups of verbs.

Preterite-present or past-present verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms (or, more precisely, IE perfect forms, denoting past actions for the present). Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Most of these verbs had new forms of the Past tense built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also acquired the forms of the verbals: Participles and Infinitives; most of the verbs did not have a full paradigm and were in this sense “defective”

Conjugation of Preterite-Presents in Old English

Infinitive	cunnan (NE <i>can</i>)	sculan (NE <i>shall, should</i>)
Present tense		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1st	cann	sceal(l)
2nd	canst	scealt
3rd	cann	sceal(l)
Plural	cunnon	sculon

<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cunne	scule, scyle
Plural	cunnen	sculen, scylen
Participle I	—	—
Past tense		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1st	cūðe	sceolde
2nd	cūðest	sceoldest
3rd	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðon	sceoldon
<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðen	sceolden
Participle II	cunnen, cūð	—

These verbs had no Participle I; some preterite-presents built Participle I from the Present Tense stem, e. g. OE *mazon*, *mæz*, Participle I — *mazende* (*NE may*).

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Most of them did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive of which followed the preterite-present, eventually preterite-present verbs developed into modal verbs.

Anomalous verbs had irregular forms. The verb *willan* had a past tense form *wolde*. Some verbs combined the features of strong and weak verbs. OE *dōn* had a weak Past tense form with a vowel interchange and a Participle in *-n* like strong verbs: *dōn* – *dyde* – *zedōn*. *Būan* – *būde* – *zebūn*.

Suppletive verbs. Two verbs were suppletive. OE *zān* whose Past tense was built from a different root: *zān* – *eōde* – *zezān* and *wesan*, *bēon*. The verb *bēon* is an ancient IE suppletive verb. In many languages its paradigm is made up of several roots (R. БЫТЬ, ЕСТЬ). In OE the Present tense forms were the modifications of the roots **wes-* and **bhu-*. The Past tense was built from the root **wesan* on the pattern of the strong verbs of the Class 5.

Conjugation of OE *bēon*, NE *be*

	OE		NE
<i>Infinitive</i>	wesan	bēon	be
Pres. Indicative			
1st p. sg	eom/am	bēo/biom	am
2nd p. sg	eart	bist/bis	-
3rd p. sg	is	biþ	is
Pl	sint/sindon	bēoþ	are
	earon/aron		
Pres. Subjunctive			
Sg	sīe, sý	bēo	be
Pl	sīen, sýn	bēon	
<i>Imperative</i>			
Sg	wes	bēo	be
Pl	wesaþ	bēoþ	
Part.1	wesende	bēonde	being
Past Indicative			
1st p. sg	wæs		was
2nd p. sg	wære		
3rd p. sg	wæs		was
Pl	wæron		were

Past Subjunctive		-
Sg	wære	were
Pl	wæren	
<i>Part. II</i>	-	been

Syntax

Ways of expressing syntactical relations: agreement, government, joining.

The sentence. The simple sentence. The main parts, the secondary parts. Word order. Multiple negation. Compound and complex sentences. Connectives.

Lecture 8

Old English Vocabulary

Plan

1. Etymological survey of the OE vocabulary.
2. Foreign element in the Old English vocabulary.
3. Word formation in OE.

Literature

Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. M.,1983; M.,2005. - p.131-.147

Ilyish B. History of the English language. Л. 1972. – p 56-63.

Reznik R.V., Sorokina T.S., Reznik I.V. A History of the English Language. M., 2001. – p. 173-178,190-202.

Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. М., 1985. – с.92-101.

Бруннер К. История английского языка. М., 2003. – Т.1, 108-175. 355-386.

Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П., Беляева Т.М. История английского языка. СПб., 1998. с. 15-18.

Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М., 1998. – с. 155-206.

Etymological survey of the Old English Vocabulary.

Native words. Common Indo-European words, common Germanic words, specifically English words.

Foreign element in the Old English vocabulary. Borrowings from Celtic. Latin loan-words.