## History of English

Lecture 1. Introduction

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# The Aim of Studying the History of the Language

The purpose of studying the history of the English language is to account for the present-day stage of the language to understand and know the complicated system we use, i.e. its grammatical structures, phonetics and vocabulary.

# The Inner and the Outer History of the Language

- The outer history of the language is the events in the life of the people speaking this language and the history of literature affecting the language, i.e. the history of the people reflected in their language.
- The inner history of the language is the description of the changes in the language itself, its grammar, phonetics, vocabulary and spelling

#### The Periods in the History of English

• Old English (OE) is the period between the 6<sup>th</sup> and the 11<sup>th</sup> centuries (other linguists consider it to have lasted from 450 to 1150). This is the period of the English nationality taking shape. There are some written records left, from which we know that the language of that period had some distinctive features. This period is also described as the period of full inflections, since during most of that period the endings of the noun, the adjective, and the verb are preserved more or less unimpaired;

• **Middle English** (ME) is the period between the end of the 11<sup>th</sup> and the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century (or from 1150 to 1500). This is the period of the English nationality gradually becoming a nation. During this period the inflections, which had begun to break down towards the end of the OE period, became greatly reduced, and it is consequently known as the period of levelled inflections;

• New English (NE) or Modern English is the period lasting from the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century up to now. By the time we reach this stage in the development a large part of the original inflectional system has disappeared entirely and we therefore speak of it as the period of lost inflections. This period is subdivided into two subperiods:

**Early New English** (ENE) – from the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> to the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. It is the period of the language standards and norms formation;

**Late New English** (LNE) – from the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century up to now. This is the period of all the norms having taken their shape.

# The Indo-European Family of Languages

- In 1583 Thomas Stephens, an English Jesuit missionary in Goa, noted similarities between Indian languages, specifically Konkani, and Greek and Latin.
- The first account to mention Sanskrit came from Filippo Sassetti (born in Florence, Italy in 1540 AD), a Florentine merchant who traveled to the Indian subcontinent and was among the first European observers to study the ancient Indian language, Sanskrit.
- In 1647 the Dutch linguist and scholar Marcu Zuerius van Boxhorn noted the similarity among Indo-European languages, and supposed the existence of a primitive common language which he called "Scythian".
- The hypothesis re-appeared in 1786 when Sir William Jones first lectured on similarities between four of the oldest languages known in his time: Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and Persian.

#### Classification

Anatolian languages
Greek language
Indo-Iranian languages
Indo-Aryan languages
Iranian languages

Italic (Romance) languages
Celtic languages
Armenian language
Tocharian language
Baltic languages
Slavic languages
Albanian language
Germanic languages

#### Germanic Languages

- East Germanic dialects were spoken by people who migrated to southeastern Europe. The principal dialects were Gothic, Vandalic and Burgundian. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.
- North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Estonian and is not an Indo-European language). The ancient North Germanic dialects were Old Norwegian, Old Danish, Old Swedish and Old Icelandic.

• West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, English and others. The West Germanic group of dialects consisted of the dialects of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians and others, originally spoken in Western Europe. To this group belong: Old High German, Old Low Franconian which is basis of modern Dutch in Holland and Flemish in modern Belgium; Old Saxon or Old Low German and Old Frisian and Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), two closely related languages, Frisian survives now in the Dutch province of Frisland, in a small part in Schleswig.

## 7 FEATURES OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

1. The Germanic verbal system was simplified.
Indo-European distinctions of tense and aspect
(indicates whether an action or state is viewed with
regard to beginning, duration, incompletion, etc.)
were lost except for the present and preterite (past)
tenses. These two tenses are still the only ones
indicated by inflection in Modern English.

2. Germanic developed a preterite tense (called weak or regular) with a dental suffix, -d or -t (e.g. *fish*, *fished*, etc.). Germanic languages thus have two types of verbs, weak (regular) and strong (irregular). Strong verbs indicate tense by an internal vowel change (e.g. *swim*, *swam*, *swum*). The weak form is the living method of inflection, and many originally strong verbs have become weak.

3. Germanic developed weak and strong adjectives. The weak declension was used when the modified noun was preceded by another word which indicated case, number, and gender. The strong declension was used in other situations. These declensions are no longer found in modern English, but compare these examples from Old English: *ba geongan ceorlas* 'the young fellows' and *geonge ceorlas* 'young fellows.' (The weak adjective ends in -an while the strong adjective ends in -e.)

- 4.The Indo-European free accentual system allowed any syllable to be stressed. In Germanic the accent (or stress) is mainly on the root of the word, usually the first syllable.
- 5. Several Indo-European vowels were modified in the Germanic languages. For example, Indo-European /a:/ became /o:/. Compare Latin *mater* and Old English *modor*.

#### Qualitative Ablaut

The qualitative Ablaut is the alteration of different vowels, mainly the vowels [e]/[a] or [e]/[o].

- Old Icelandic (baby)
- Old High German
- CF.: Russian (ford, wade)
- Latin (clothes)
- German

bera (to give birth) – barn

stelan (to steal) – stal (stole)

бреду (I stroll, I wade) – брод

tego (to cover, to cloth) – toga

finden - fand

### Quantitative Ablaut

stage

 Quantitative Ablaut means the change in length of qualitatively one and the same vowel: normal, lengthened and reduced.

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    [e:] [e] [--]
    patēr patěr patros
    (nominative case, (vocative case, case, lenghtened stage) normal stage) reduced
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- Quantitative ablaut
- Gothic qiman (to come) qums (the arrival)
- Qualitative ablaut
- Old High German stelan (to steal) stal (stole)
- Quantitative +qualitative ablaut
- Old English findan (to find) fand (found, past tense) fundan (founf, past participle)

6. Two consonant shifts occurred in Germanic. In the First Sound Shift (commonly known as Grimm's Law) the Indo-European stops *bh*, *dh*, *gh*, *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, *k*, and *g* underwent a series of shifts. The Second Sound Shift (also known as the High German Sound Shift) affected the high but not the low Germanic languages, so English was not affected.

### Grimm's Law

English: wife, Proto-Germanic: wiban (from former gwiban), Old Saxon, Old Frisian: wif, Dutch: wijf, Old High German: wib, German: Weib, Old Norse: vif, Icelandic: vif, Faroese: viv,

\*gwh→gw→w

Danish, Swedish, Norwegian: viv

Change	Germanic (shifted) examples	Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates				
*p→f	English: foot,, Dutch: voet, German: Fuß, Gothic: fōtus, Icelandic, Faroese: fótur, Danish: fod, Norwegian, Swedish: fot	Ancient Greek: πούς (pūs), Latin: pēs, pedis, Sanskrit: pāda, Russian: под (pod), Lithuanian: pėda, Latvian pēda				
*t→þ [θ]	English: third, Old High German: thritto, Gothic: þriðja, Icelandic: þriðji	Ancient Greek: τρίτος (tritos), Latin: tertius, Gaelic treas, Irish: trí, Sanskrit: treta, Russian: третий (tretij), Lithuanian: trečias, Latvian trīs				
*k→h [x]	English: hound, Dutch: hond, German: Hund, Gothic: hunds, Icelandic, Faroese: hundur, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: hund	Ancient Greek: κύων (kýōn), Latin: canis, Gaelic, Irish: cú, Welsh ci				
*kw→hw [xw]	English: what, Gothic: hua ("hwa"), Danish hvad, Icelandic: hvað, Faroese hvat, Norwegian: hva	Latin: quod, Gaelic: ciod, Irish: cad, Sanskrit: ka-, kiṃ, Russian: ко- (ko-), Lithuanian: ką', Latvian kas				
*b→p	English: warp; Swedish: värpa; Dutch: werpen; Icelandic, Faroese: varpa, Gothic wairpan	Latin: verber				
*d→t	English: ten, Dutch: tien, Gothic: taîhun, Icelandic: tíu, Faroese: tíggju, Danish, Norwegian: tí, Swedish: tío	Latin: decem, Greek: δέκα (déka), Gaelic, Irish: deich, Sanskrit: daśan, Russian: десять (desyat'), Lithuanian: dešimt, Welsh deg, Latvian desmit				
*g→k	English: cold, Dutch: koud, German: kalt, Icelandic, Faroese: kaldur, Danish: kold, Norwegian: kald, Swedish: kall,	Latin: gelū				
*gw→kw	English: quick, Frisian: quick, queck, Dutch: kwiek, Gothic: qius, Old Norse: kvikr, Danish: kvik, Icelandic, Faroese: kvikur, Swedish: kvick, Norwegian kvikk	Lithuanian: gyvas, Latvian dzīvs				
*bh→b	English: brother, Dutch: broeder, German: Bruder, Gothic: bropar, Icelandic, Faroese: bróðir, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian: broder	Sanskrit: bhrātṛ, Russian: брат (brat), Lithuanian: brolis, Old Church Slavonic: братръ (bratru), Latvian brālis				
*dh→d	English: door, Frisian: doar, Dutch: deur, Gothic: daúr, Icelandic, Faroese: dyr, Danish, Norwegian: dør, Swedish: dörr	Irish: doras, Sanskrit: dwār, Russian: дверь (dver'), Lithuanian: durys, Latvian durvis				
*gh→g	English: goose, Frisian: goes, Dutch: gans, German: Gans, Icelandic: gæs, Faroese: gás, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: gás	Russian: гусь (gus')				

Tocharian A: kip, B: kwipe (vulva)

#### Verner's Law

PIE	*р		*t		*k		*k* *x*		*s	
Grimm	*f		*θ							
Verner	*f	*v	*θ	*ð	*х	* <b>Y</b>	*Xw	*yw	*s	*z

7. Germanic has a number of unique vocabulary items, words which have no known cognates in other Indo-European languages. These words may have been lost in the other Indo-European languages, borrowed from non-Indo-European languages, or perhaps coined in Germanic. Among these words are Modern English rain, drink, drive, broad, hold, wife, meat, fowl.