

Introduction to English

19-X-2020

Intro. Some basics

ENGLISH	
1. Old English	UP TO THE END of XI CENTURY
2. Medieval	UP TO THE LAST QUARTER of XV CENTURY
3. Modern English	FROM THE END of XV CENTURY TO PRESENT DAY

Intro. Some basics

3.1. Early Modern English

(1500-1800)

3.2. Late-Modern English

(1800-

Present)

1.1. Old English

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian—the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands – that is called Old English. **Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.**

These invaders pushed the original, **Celtic-speaking** inhabitants out of what is now England into **Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland**, leaving behind a few Celtic words.

1.2. Old English

Also influencing English at this time were the **Vikings**. **Norse invasions**, beginning around 850, brought many **North Germanic words** into the language, particularly in the north of England, and influenced **grammar** greatly. Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem **Beowulf**, lasted until about 1100.

This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the **Norman Conquest**.

2.1. Middle English

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD at the battle of Hastings. **The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French (?) known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots. As a result, many words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romanic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots (not always, of course).** Sometimes French words replaced Old English words, other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, or even two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English.

2.2. Middle English

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted a modified English as their native tongue.

About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. The laboring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman. **This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English.**

The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's Canterbury Tales.

2.3. Middle English

By **1362**, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over, in that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.

3.1. Early Modern English

The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language.

Elizabethan English, has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer.

Many words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases are his.

3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press.

William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476 (the first printed book in Britain – translation of the History of Troy).

Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common.

The printing press brought standardization to English.

The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard.

Spelling and grammar became fixed, and **the first English dictionary was published in 1604.**

3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English.

The first was the Great Vowel Shift.

This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter “e” at the end of words became silent. In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century.

The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

3.2. Late Modern English

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. **The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society.** This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. **The second was the British Empire.** At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

And maybe the Third?

**English is the language of Global Pop Culture,
Communication systems,
Computer Technologies and the Internet.**

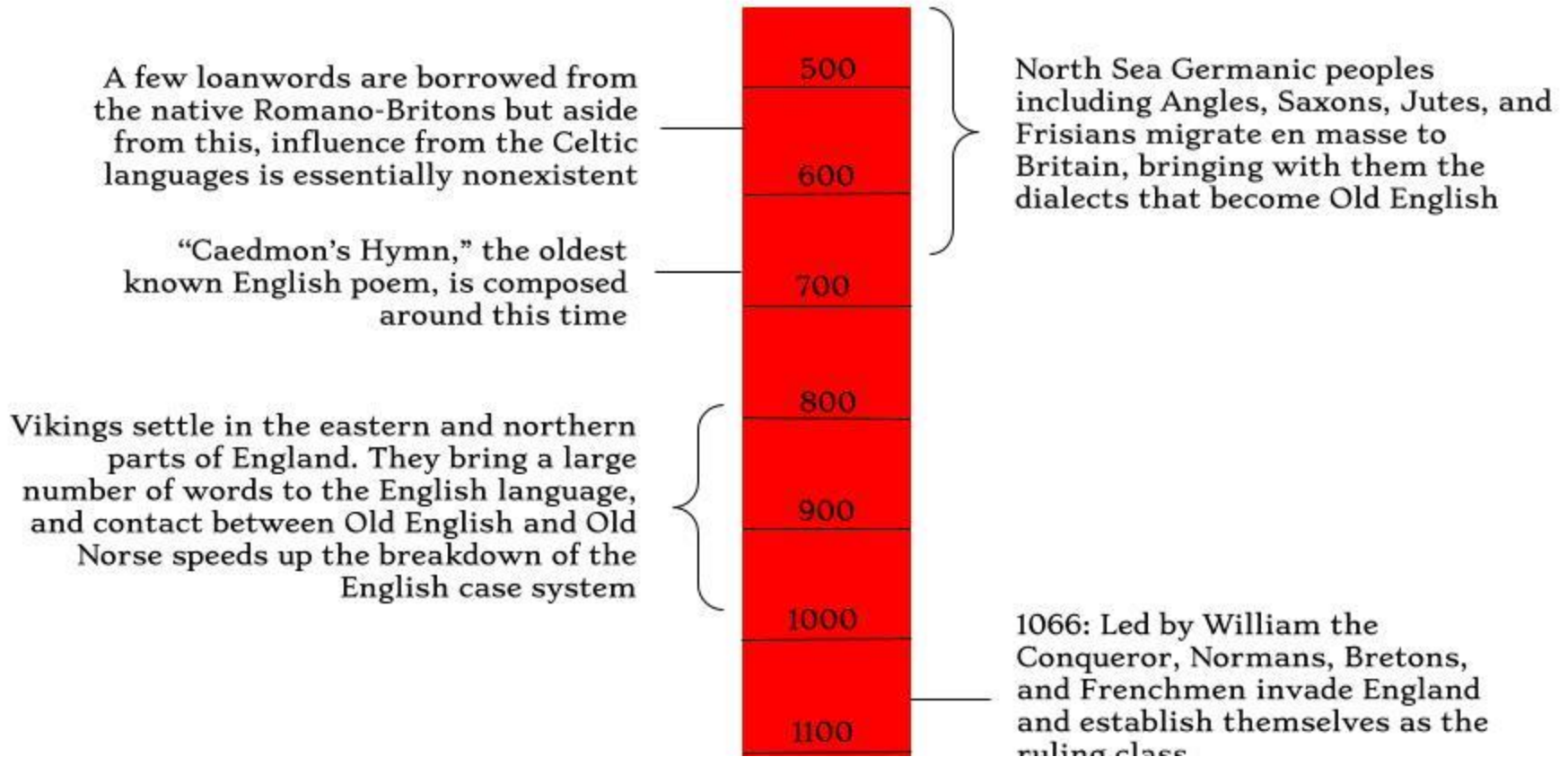
English

Now take a look at another scheme of [English periods](#)

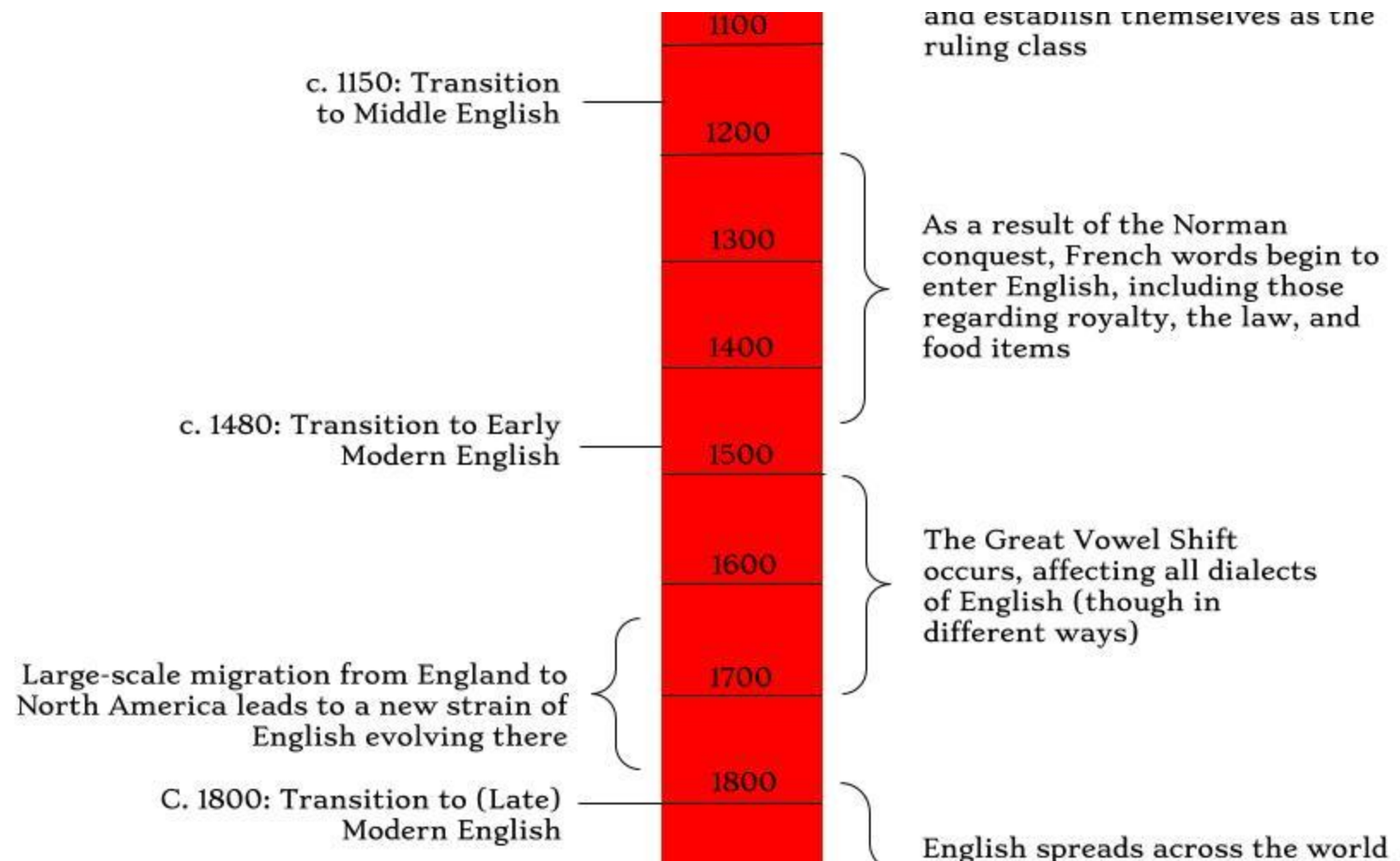


English

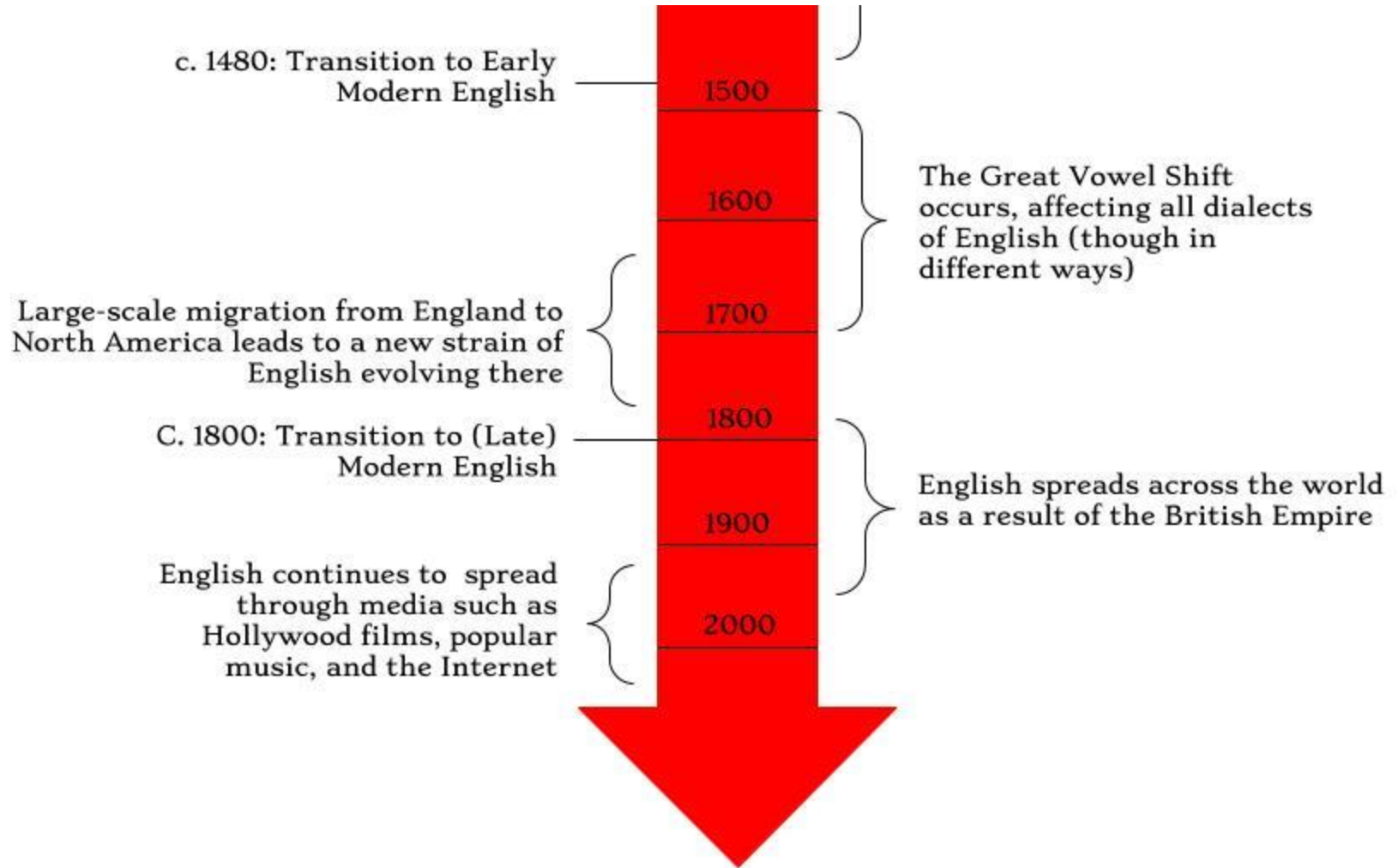
Now take a look at another scheme of [English periods](#)



English



English



Indo-European languages

✓ Indic (including Sanskrit and its descendants),

I. Indic (including Sanskrit and its descendants),

II. Iranian [ɪ'reɪnɪən],

III. Armenian [ɑ:'mi:nɪən],

IV. Hellenic [he'li:nɪk](Greek),

V. Albanian [æ'l'beɪnɪən](or Illyrian),

VI. Italic (including Latin and the Romance languages),

VII. Celtic ['keltɪk], ['seltɪk],

VIII. Baltic ['bɔ:ltɪk, 'bɒlt-],

IX. Germanic (including English, German, Dutch, and the Scandinavian languages),

X. Slavic (Russian, Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbian, Croatian etc.)

XI. Anatolian [ænə'təʊlɪən] (Hittite and other extinct languages),

XII. Tocharian [tə'kɛ:rɪən, -'kɑ:rɪən]an extinct group from central Asia).



Old English

O.E. mere

Latin mare

Russian море

O.E. beon

Latin fui

RU быть

O.E. cwene

Greek gyne

RU жена.

Germanic languages

Germanic languages, branch of the Indo-European language family. Scholars often divide the Germanic languages into three groups:

- ❑ **West Germanic**, including English, German, and Netherlandish(c?) ['neðələndɪʃ] (Dutch);
- ❑ **North Germanic**, including Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Faroese [ˌfɛərəu'ɪːz] = Faeroese; and
- ❑ **East Germanic**, now extinct, comprising only Gothic and the languages of the Vandals vandal ['vænd(ə)lɪz], Burgundians [bɜː'gʌndɪən], and a few other tribes. In numbers of native speakers, English, with 450 million, clearly ranks third among the languages of the world (after Mandarin and Spanish); German, with some 98 million, probably ranks 10th (after Hindi, Bengali, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, and Japanese).

Comparative Linguistics

The Three Acts of Jacob Grimm's Law

i	ii	iii
/p/ => /f/	/bh/ => /b/	/b/ => /p/
/t/ => /θ/	/dh/ => /d/	/d/ => /t/
/k/ => /kh/, /h/	/gh/ => /g/	/g/ => /k/

Comparative Linguistics

Закон первого передвижения согласных имел три этапа, названные Якобом Гриммом *актами*.

1-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские (т.е. существовавшие в индоевропейском языке-основе) глухие смычные [p], [t] и [k] переходят в глухие щелевые того же или близкого места образования:

[p] > [f]: *лат.* pes (основа слова ped- – нога, *рус.* пед-аль) ||
 гот. fōtus, *др.-а.* fōt – нога (совр. foot);
 лат. piscis || *гот.* fisks, *др.-а.* fisc – рыба (совр. fish);
 рус. про || *др.-а.* for.

[t] > [θ]¹: *лат.* tres, *рус.* три || *др.-а.* þrie – три (совр. three);
 рус. тысяча || *др.-а.* þūsend – тысяча (совр. thousand).

[k] > [x], [h] *лат.* cor (основа слова cord – сердце) || *гот.* haírto,
 др.-а. heorte – сердце (совр. heart) лат. – guod || *др.-а.*
 hvæt – что (совр. what); *рус.* кров || *др.-а.* hīōf – крыша
 (совр. roof).

Comparative Linguistics

Comparative Linguistics

COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS METHOS

GENETIC
LINGUISTICS

CONTRASTIVE
ANALYSIS

LINGUISTIC
GEOGRAPHY

GLOTTO-
CHRONOLOGY

LINGUISTIC
TYPOLOGY
AND
**CHARACTEROL
OGY**

FOCUS OF INTEREST

IDENTIFICATION
OF LANGUAGE
FAMILIES

IDENTIFICATION
OF
CONTRASTIVE
FEATURES

LANGUAGE
CONTACTS
AND
INFLUENCES

DIACHRONIC
ANALYSIS OF
LANGFUAGES
HISTORY

TYPES,
TYPICAL
FEATURES AND
UNIQUE
Palette of
features of a
language

Comparative Linguistics

2-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские звонкие смычные придыхательные [b^h], [d^h], [g^h] переходят соответственно в простые [b], [d], [g]. Пояснить это соответствие примерами из знакомых студентам языков несколько затруднительно, так как из числа известных индоевропейских языков смычные придыхательные сохранились лишь в санскритском языке. Поэтому мы остановимся на 2-м акте лишь очень кратко. Примеры:

[b^h] > [b]: *санскр.* bhāgāmi – несū, *рус.* беру||др.-а. bere – несу (совр. bear);

санскр. bhrata – брат, *рус.* брат||др.-а. brōðor – брат (совр. brother)

[d^h] > [d]: *санскр.* vidhava – вдова, *рус.* вдова|| др.-а widwe – вдова (совр. widow).

[g^h] > [g]: *инд.-евр.* *lagh, *рус.* лежать (корень лег-)||др.-а. liczean – лежать (совр. lie).

¹ Глухой межзубный щелевой [θ] обозначается в древнеанглийском языке знаком þ.

Comparative Linguistics

3-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские звонкие смычные [b], [d], [g] переходят в германских языках в глухие смычные того же места образования [p], [t], [k].

[b] > [p]: *рус.* слабый || *др.-а.* slæpan – спать (совр. sleep);

рус. болото || *др.-а.* pōl – лужа (совр. pool).

[d] > [t]: *рус.* дерево || *др.-а.* trēow – дерево (совр. tree);

рус. два || *др.-а.* twā – два (совр. two).

[g] > [k]: *рус.* горе || *др.-а.* caru – забота (совр. care);

рус. голый || *др.-а.* calu – голый (*нем.* kahl – лысый, голый);

рус. игло || *др.-а.* zeos – иго (совр. yoke).

Grimm's Law

индоевропейские
германские

b^h
b

b
p

p
f

Grimm's Law

$b^h > b > p > f$

$d^h > d > t > \theta$

$g^h > g > k > x$

$g^{wh} > g^w > k^w > x^w$

Grimm's Law

F and V

"Grimm's Law ... explains why Germanic languages have 'f' where other Indo-European languages have 'p.' Compare English *father*, German *vater* (where 'v' is pronounced 'f'), Norwegian *far*, with Latin *pater*, French *père*, Italian *padre*, Sanskrit *pita*," (Horobin 2016).

Grimm's Law 01

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: ποῦς (poús), Latin: pēs, pedis, Sanskrit: pāda, Russian: под (pod) "under; floor", Lithuanian: pėda, Latvian pēda	*p → f [ϕ]	English: foot, West Frisian: foet, German: Fuß, Gothic: fōtus, Icelandic, Faroese: fótur, Danish: fod, Norwegian, Swedish: fot

Grimm's Law 02

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: τρίτος (tritos), Latin: tertius, Welsh: trydydd, Sanskrit: treta, Russian: третий (tretij), Lithuanian: trečias, Albanian: tretë	*t → þ [θ]	English: third, Old Frisian: thredda, Old Saxon: thriddio, Gothic: þridja, Icelandic: þriðji

Grimm's Law 03

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: κύων (kýōn), Latin: canis, Welsh: ci (pl. cwn)	*k → h [x]	English: hound, Dutch: hond, German: Hund, Gothic: hunds, Icelandic, Faroese: hundur, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: hund

Grimm's Law 04

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: quod, Irish: cad, Sanskrit: kád, Russian: ко- (ko-), Lithuanian: kas	*k^w → hw [x^w]	English: what, Gothic: hwa ("hwa"), Icelandic: hvað, Faroese: hvat, Danish: hvad, Norwegian: hva

Grimm's Law 05

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: verber "rod", Homeric Greek: ῥάβδος (rabdos) "rod, wand", Lithuanian: virbas	*b → p [p]	English: warp, West Frisian: werpe, Dutch: werpen, Icelandic: verpa, varpa, Faroese: verpa, Gothic wairpan

Grimm's Law 06

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: decem, Greek: δέκα (déka), Irish: deich, Sanskrit: daśan, Russian: десять (desyat'), Lithuanian: dešimt	*d → t [t]	English: ten, Dutch: tien, Gothic: taíhun, Icelandic: tíu, Faroese: tíggju, Danish, Norwegian: ti, Swedish: tio

Grimm's Law 07

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: gelū, Greek: γελανδρός (gelandrós), Lithuanian: gelmenis, gelumà	*g → k [k]	English: cold, West Frisian: kâld, Dutch: koud, German: kalt, Icelandic, Faroese: kaldur, Danish: kold, Norwegian: kald, Swedish: kall

Grimm's Law 08

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Lithuanian: gyvas	*g^w → kw [k^w]	English: quick, West Frisian: kwik, kwyk, Dutch: kwiek, Gothic: qius, Icelandic, Faroese: kvikur, Danish: kvik, Swedish: kvick, Norwegian kvikk

Grimm's Law 09

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Sanskrit: bhrātr̥	*b^h → b [b]/[β]	English: brother, West Frisian, Dutch: broeder, German: Bruder, Gothic: broþar, Icelandic, Faroese: bróðir, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian: broder

Grimm's Law 10

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Sanskrit: mádhu 'honey', Homeric Greek: μέθυ methu	*d^h→d [d]/[ð]	English: mead, East Frisian: meede, Dutch: mede, Danish/Norwegian: mjød, Icelandic: mjöður, Swedish: mjöd

Grimm's Law 11

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: χήν (khēn), Sanskrit: hamsa (swan)	*g^h → g [g]/[ɣ]	English: goose, West Frisian: goes, guos, Dutch: gans, German: Gans, Icelandic: gæs, Faroese: gás, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: gås

Grimm's Law 12

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Homeric Greek: ἐάφθη (eáph thē) "sang, sounded", ὀμφή (omphē) "voice"	*g^{wh} → gw [g^w] (After n)	English: sing, West Frisian: sjonge, Dutch: zingen, German: singen, Gothic: siggwan, Old Icelandic: syngva, syngja, Icelandic, Faroese: syngja, Swedish: sjunga, Danish: synge/sjunge

Grimm's Law 13

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Sanskrit: gharmá-, Avestan: garəmó, Old Prussian: gorme	*g^{wh} → gw → b, g or w (Otherwise merged with existing g and w)	English: warm, West Frisian: waarm, Dutch, German: warm, Swedish: varm, Icelandic: varmur

Verner's Law

Grimm's law stated that the Indo-European *p*, *t*, and *k* sounds changed into *f*, *th* or *d*, and *h* in the Germanic languages. Verner noticed that Grimm's law was valid whenever the accent fell on the root syllable of the Sanskrit cognate, but, when the accent fell on another syllable, the Germanic equivalents became *b*, *d*, and *g*.

Verner's Law

This was also the case with *s* and *r*. Technically, this rule states that in the Germanic branch of Indo-European, all non-initial voiceless fricatives (spirants) became voiced between voiced sounds if they followed an unaccented syllable in Indo-European or Sanskrit. For example, Sanskrit *bhrātar*, with the accent on the root syllable, corresponds to Gothic *brōþar*, but Sanskrit *pitā*, accented on the final syllable, corresponds to Gothic *fadar*.

Historical Phonetic Laws

Indo-European	Germanic	Phonetic Laws
/p/ /t/ /k/	[f] [θ] [kh]	Grimm's Law
/p/ /t/ /k/	[β] [w] [ð] v	Verner's Law

Verner's Law

The Proto-Germanic verb *['we.sa.nan] 'to be, live, dwell.' The first and third person singular, past, *['was], was not preceded by an unstressed syllable (the word is mono-syllabic after all) and so the fricative remained voiceless [s], as in Old English wæs 'was.'

However, the plural past forms carried **the stress on the second syllable**, *[wē.'zum] '(we) were, lived, dwelled.' Since the syllable before the fricative was not stressed, it became voiced [z].

Verner's Law

However, another sound change, known as **rhotacism**, changed all Proto-Germanic non-final *[z] into West-Germanic *[r]. Good illustrations are Gothic *máiza*, but Old English *māra* 'more, greater,' or Gothic *hazjan*, but Old English *herian* 'praise.' Therefore, the Proto-Germanic *[wē.'zum] surfaces in Old English as *wæron* 'were,' not as "wæson."

Today, the descendant word pair of *wæs-wæron*, 'was-were,' is the only example in the English language where the effects of **Verner's Law** are still visible within a single paradigm.

19-10-2020

BACK TO ENGLAND AND ENGLISH

Early Britannia [brɪ'tæniə] / Albion (f)

4cBC

In the 4th century BC the country we now call England was known as Britain.

One of the tribes who lived there was named the Britons. They belonged to the Celtic race and spoke Celtic.

There are still some traces of this language found in the English of today. Most of all we find them in geographical names:

dun/dum = down, dune

(the towns of Dunscore, Dunedin, Dumbarton);

avon = river: Stratford on -Avon;

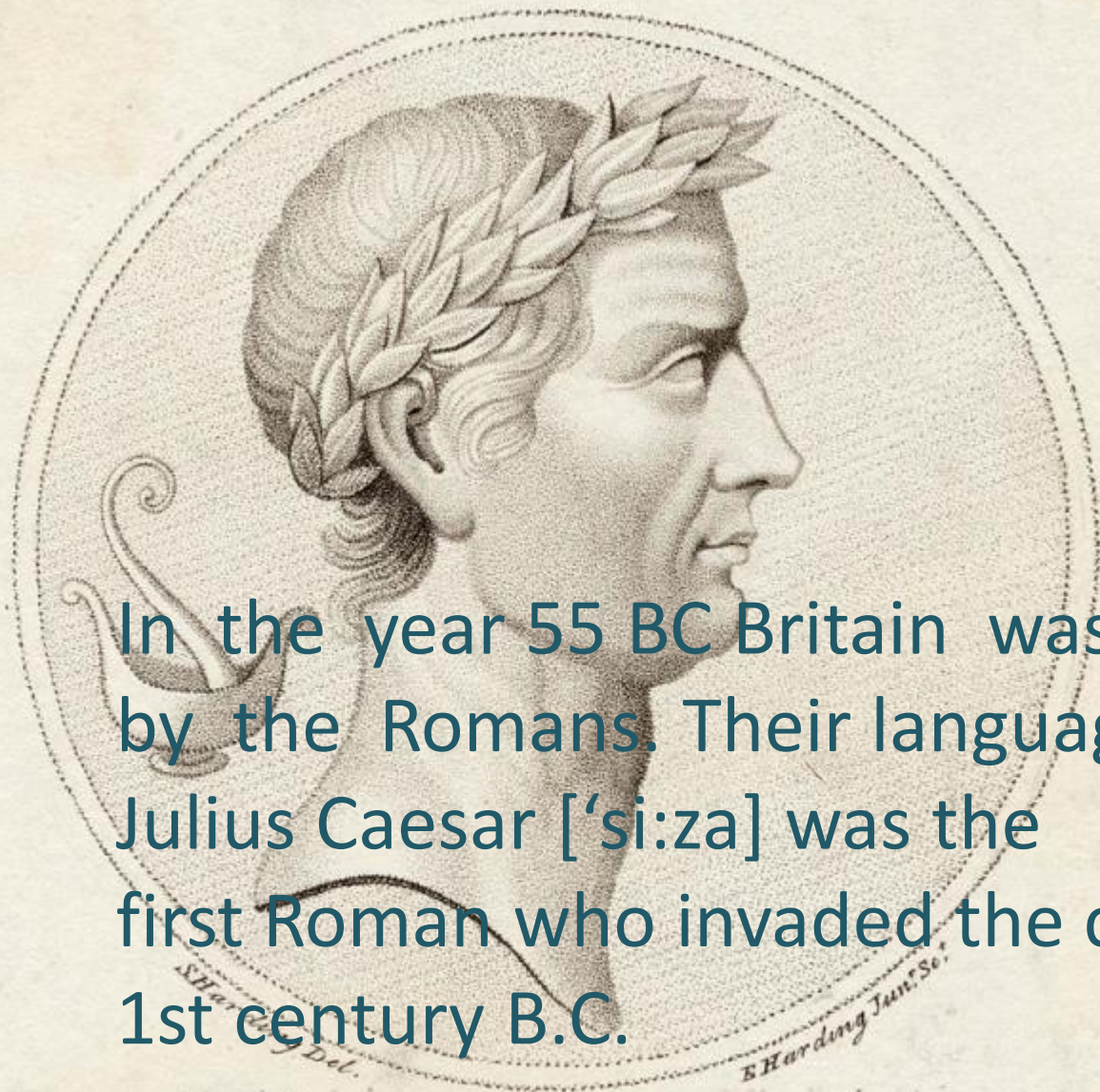
kil = wood: Kilbrook

Early Britannia

4cBC

Another Celtic tribe Gaels [geilz] lived in Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Their descendants still live there and use some words of Celtic origin, such as Loch Lomond, loch [h>k] — lake.

55BC



In the year 55 BC Britain was conquered by the Romans. Their language was Latin. Julius Caesar ['si:za] was the first Roman who invaded the country in the 1st century B.C.

JULIUS CÆSAR.

Early Britannia

1cBC

To conquer the Britons the Romans had to encamp troops all over the country.

The English cities later rose from these camps. The word **castra — camp** was later pronounced [ˈfkesta], [ˈJesta] and [ˈfsesta]. Now there are many English towns which have the Latin ending, such as Lancaster, Chester, Manchester, Worcester and others. There is a county Cheshire too.

Early Britannia

1cBC

Now guess which is which

['tʃestə]

['tʃɛfə]

['læŋkəstə]

['mæntʃɪstə]

['wʊstə]

Early Britannia



55BC

407

AD

In UK one can still find interesting remains of the Roman times, such as some ruins of public **baths** and tiled floors of Roman villas. Many of the great highways of England have been built on the military roads once made by the Romans.

A large number of English words come from Latin, e. g. street comes from **strata**, wall from **vallum**, port from **portus**, etc. The Roman occupation lasted for more than 400 years till 407 **AD** when the Romans troops left Britain.

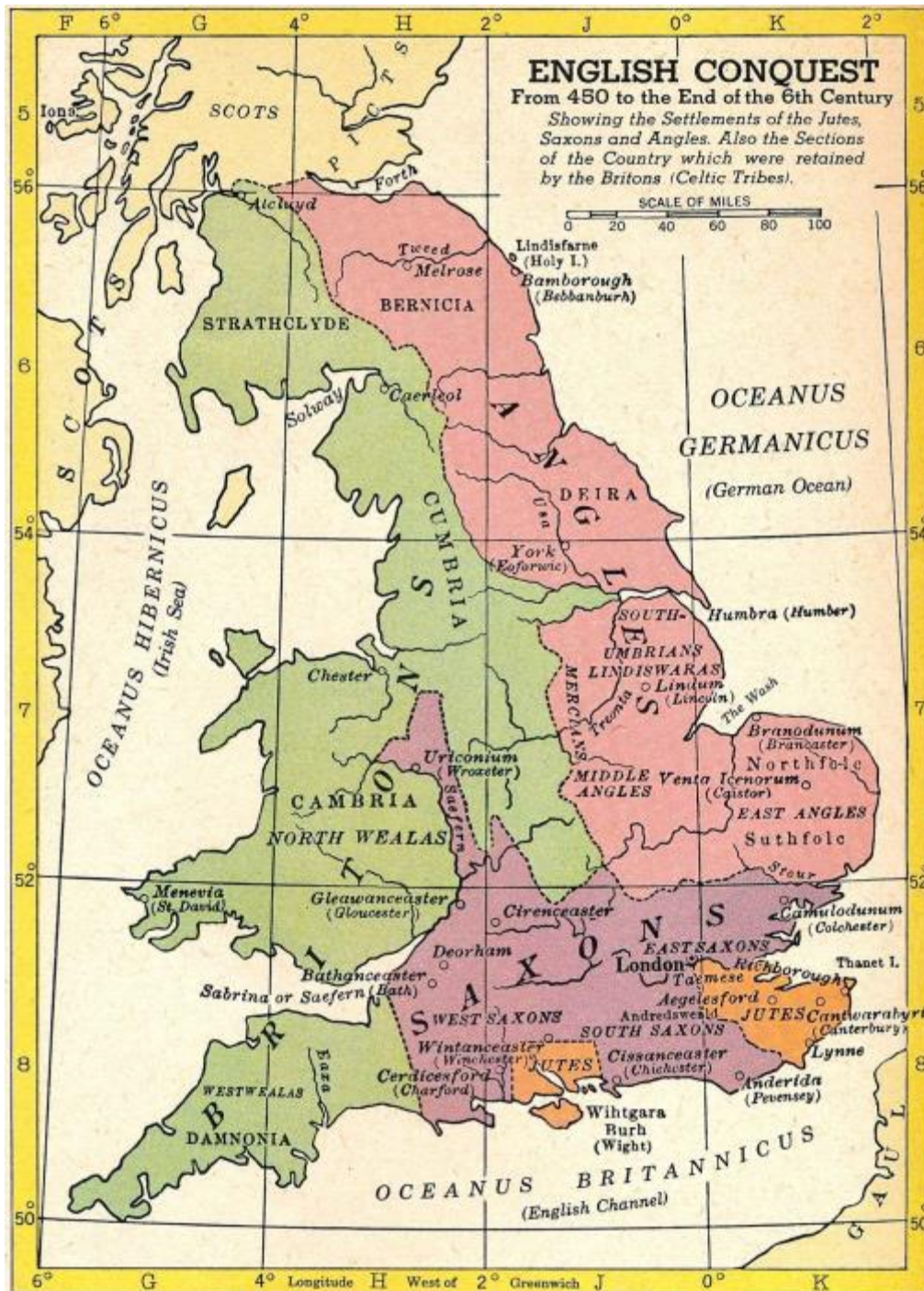
Early Britannia

410+

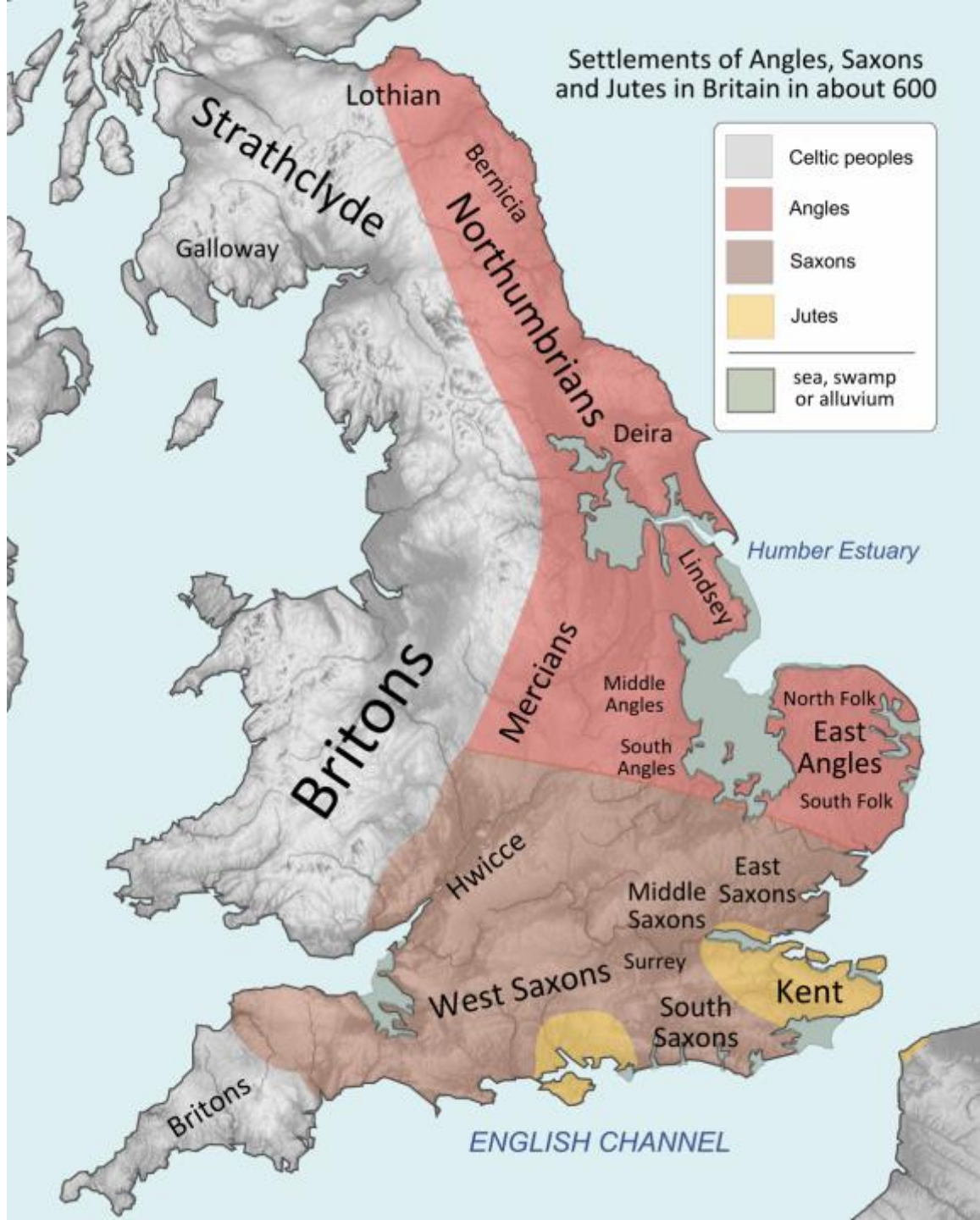
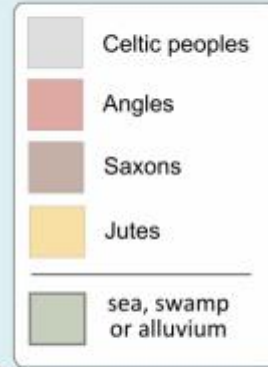
when in about 410 the Romans were withdrawn to protect Rome itself the Germanic tribes —

Angles ['æŋɡlz], **Saxons** ['sæks(ə)nz] and **Jutes** [dʒu:ts] began their invasion of Britain. They came from the shores of the North Sea and the Baltic and settled in what is now the **county of Kent**.

~480
-600
AD



Settlements of Angles, Saxons and Jutes in Britain in about 600



~600
AD

VIII AD



THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOMS, CA. 800

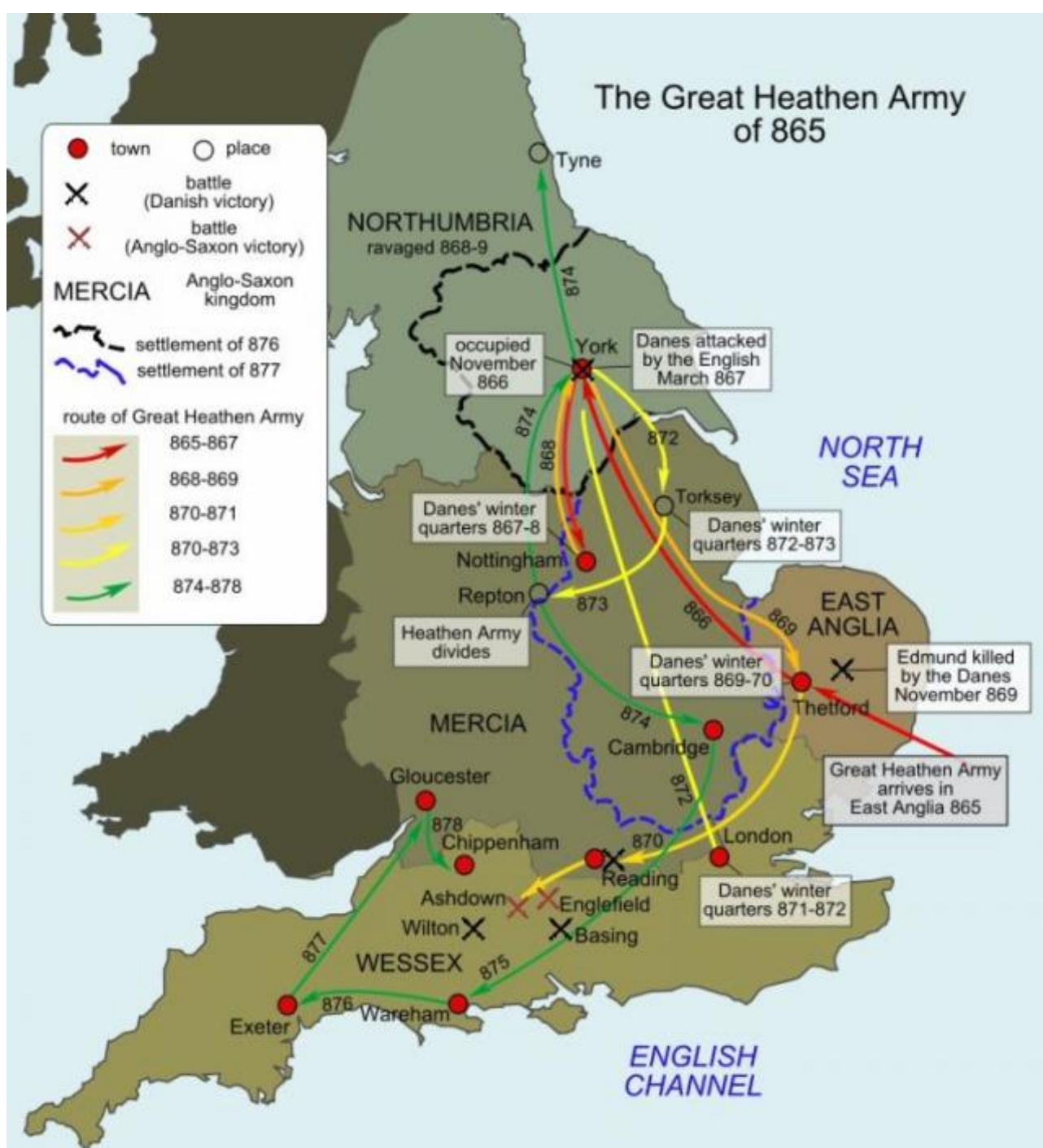
~800
AD



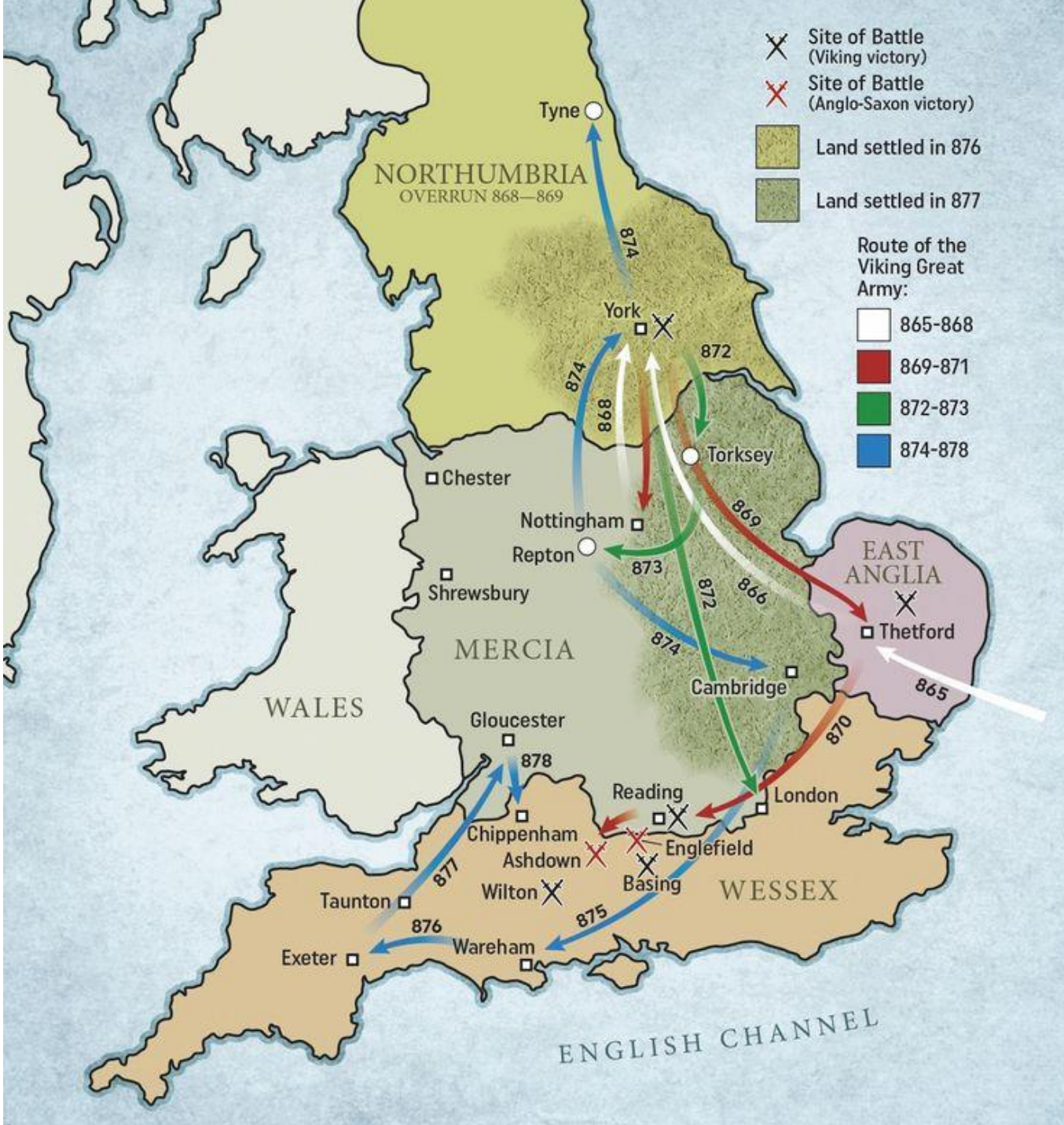
~800
AD



865-
878
AD



865-878 AD



Early Britannia



410+

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were y believed in many gods: Tu, or Tuesco, — god of Darkness, Woden — god of War, Thor — the Thunderer, and Freia —goddess of Prosperity. When people began to divide time into weeks and weeks into days, they gave the days the names of their gods.

Early Britannia

410+

Sunday is the day of the sun,
Monday —the day of the moon,
Tuesday — the day of the god Tiesco,
Wednesday — the Woden's day,
Thursday — Thor's day,
Friday —Freia's day,
and Saturday —**Saturn's** day.



Early Britannia

410+

One Saxon poem called
Beowulf
reached our days.

One can call this period the dawn of English
literature.



Early Britannia

7C In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent.



Early Britannia

7C In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent.

The most learned people of that time were monks. Some of them began to put in writing poems and songs that reached them. Such people were called "scribes". "Scribe" comes from the Latin word "scribere" — "to write". The written Anglo-Saxons language developed on the basis of the Latin alphabet.



Early Britannia

King Alfred died (849-901) founded the first **VIII-IX** English public school for young men. He also translated the Church-history of Bede from Latin into a language the people could understand, and a portion of the Bible as well.

BRITISH ISLES - C.920AD
Viking AGE

~920
AD





Early Britannia

XC Although Beowulf was a Jute and his home is Jutland we say that The Song of Beowulf is an English poem.

The story of Beowulf was written down in the 10th century by an unknown author, and the manuscripts is now kept in the British Museum.

Early Britannia

XC When King Alfred died (849-901), fighting with the Danes soon began again.

They occupied the north and east of England (Scotland and Ireland) and also sailed over the Channel and fought in France.

The land they conquered in the North of France was called Normandy and the people who lived there the Northmen.

In the hundred years that were to follow they began to be called Normans.

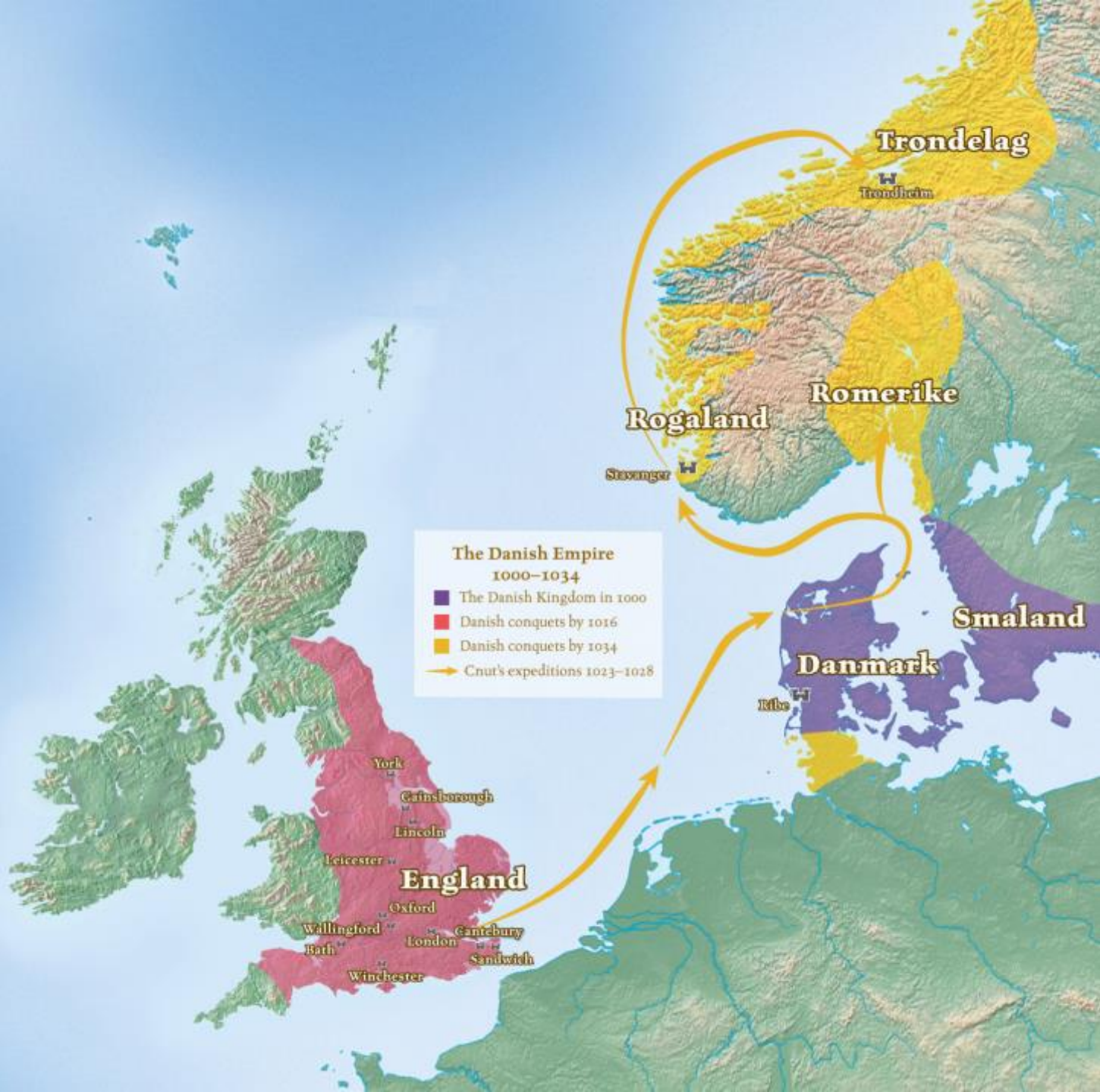
IXC
AD



1013



1013



Early Britannia

XC After a battle in 876 based on treaty Danelagh was statuted. They seized power in 1016. Danes were finally defeated in 1042 and had to leave England, but donated English such words as husband, fellow, law, wrong, verbs call (kalla) and take' (taka); Toponyms –by (byr - town), -fell (hill), thorp (village); shirt –skirt; shriek – screech; from – fro; whole – hale.

About 650 Danes words had been included.



Early Britannia

1066

In 1066 at the battle of Hastings ['heistrnz] the Norman Duke William defeated the Saxon King Harold. Again a new invasion took place. Within five years William the Conqueror was complete master of the whole of England. The Conqueror and his barons spoke Norman-French, not pure French, because the Normans were simply the same Danes with a French polish. The English language was neglected by the conquerors. Since the battle of Hastings (1066) the Saxons had been oppressed by the Normans.