Language History, Ettap 2

Study Guide

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## Time table

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<td>I</td>
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<td>HB213</td>
<td>SG 1–44</td>
<td>Perspectives: Language classification; Language change Germanic invasion of Britain</td>
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<td>Explaining today’s language features through history</td>
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<td>VI</td>
<td>Dec 18</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>Moodle resources</td>
<td>Vocabulary and summing up</td>
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## Literature


**Etymological dictionaries** (for previous forms and meanings of a word):

- *The Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* is available via UB
Aims

The general aim of the course is to provide the student with a basic knowledge of language change and, in particular, of the history of the English language. This knowledge will help the student understand the existence of specific phenomena in the English language. These phenomena may concern grammar, pronunciation, orthography and morphology, and may to some degree explain difficulties learners experience while trying to learn English.

Objectives of the course

After the course, the student should be able to meet the following objectives:
(S)he should be able to
- explain the relationship between the various Indo-European languages, and suggest classifications.
- list the languages in Europe that are not Indo-European.
- describe and explain different causes of language change.
- define and handle central terms which are used in descriptions of the history of the English language.

As regards the history of English, the student should be able to account for the following aspects:

Social:
Important invasions of Great Britain and their consequences.
How the different societies in English history were organised and how these social structures have affected the English language.
The political organisation of the country in various periods and its effects on the language.
The standardisation of English; when it took place, its mechanisms and ideology.

Phonology:
Important sound changes which explain irregularities in spelling and oddities among related word-forms in Present-day English. These sound changes are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound Changes</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I-umlaut</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Great Vowel Shift</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle English lengthening</td>
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<tr>
<td>and shortening</td>
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<tr>
<td>Weakening in unstressed</td>
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<td>syllables</td>
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Morphology:
Morphological irregularities in Present-day English as a result of historical developments.
The reason for and consequence of the major morphological changes through the history of the English language.

Spelling:
Different spelling traditions and oddities in English as a result of these. E.g. Norman changes, etymological respelling, effects of sound changes.

**Semantics:**

The major ways in which the meaning of a word may change.
Specialization, generalization, amelioration, pejoration, weakening, euphemism.

**Vocabulary:**

The major contributors of loan-words to English. (Latin, Scandinavian, French)
Criteria for the identification of the source and the time period of the borrowing.
Typical semantic fields where loan-words occur, specified for each language.

The student should also be able to illustrate changes with the help of examples.

**Methods**

This course is intended to give you an overview of the history of the English language. The overall aim is to give you an idea of how English got its present shape. Therefore it may be claimed that present-day English, in a sense, defines what we will focus our interest on. We will look at language history chronologically and our main concern will be change. In particular we will consider changes that have created irregularities in present-day English in terms of grammar and spelling but we will also look at changes that have obscured the close relation between many Swedish and English words. Moreover, since change in language is very often intimately linked with changes in society, we will be concerned with English history.

Taken together this means that there will be quite a lot to take into account. Accordingly, it seems to be a good idea to read the book and the compendium continuously as the course proceeds.

The lessons are of two types: lectures and group seminars. In the lectures, I will focus on some main points and try to highlight important matters. I will also give more thorough explanations in cases where the books, to my mind, are not precise enough or unclear. Questions constitute an important dimension in any lecture, and I hope that you will not hesitate to interrupt me. However, I am confident that you will find it easier to do so if you have read the relevant pages before the lesson.

The seminars will be dominated by you, the students. We will talk about exercises that you are to have worked with before we meet. You will get the opportunity to evaluate and discuss your answers with your fellow students and me. It is very important that you come well prepared to the seminars, otherwise I think you will find them rather useless. Anything unclear should be discussed during the seminars. Exercises that you get before the seminar should have been solved before we meet, as you will be given specific tasks to work on at the seminars.

**Working language**

We read, write and discuss in English. Consequently your discussions should be in English during the seminars too.
Preparations

See the lesson outlines.

Assessment

This part of the course is worth 60p. You will be examined through an individual portfolio task (40p) and two online quizzes (20p). These are described in more detail in Moodle.

The score on the test will be added to the score you received for the Language Variation part of the course. For the grade Godkänd, you should have approximately 66 marks and for the grade Väl Godkänd, you should have around 85%.

Evaluation

At the end of the course you will be given the opportunity to evaluate the course: methods, material, structure, teacher etc. It will be combined with a self-assessment – what you have done, how much time you have put into the course, etc. It is very important for the improvement of the course that you take the evaluation seriously. This evaluation will be conducted at our final meeting.
Lesson outlines

Lesson I - Perspectives
Introduction/Lecture

Content
Language perspectives
Language classification: typology vs genealogy
The Indo-European language family
Language change
Germanic invasion of Britain

Objectives
After the lesson the student should be able to
• contrast the two perspectives used in language studies,
• describe two important ways of classifying languages,
• identify Indo-European languages and describe their relations,
• evaluate critically various ways of describing relations between languages,
• identify and describe causes of language change

Preparation
Read: SG 1–44

The Indo-European Language Family

When we look at the vocabulary of most European languages, it is quite clear that they are related somehow. There are too many similarities that it cannot be a coincidence. Below you find a collection of six European languages, five show obvious similarities, whereas one is decidedly different. Which one?

These similarities were first noticed by Sir William Jones, a linguist and lawyer living in India. He noticed that there were words in Greek, Latin, Sanskrit and English that were quite similar both in form and meaning. In the research that followed scholars identified what is now called the Indo-European language family.

The metaphor here is that of a family and languages thus have “mothers” and “sisters”. A very common way of illustrating the relationship between languages is a genealogical tree (Swedish: släktträd) and again you can see the metaphor.
As we saw above the idea of relatedness builds very much on similarity between words in two languages. Actually such similarities could be explained in two ways:
• The words have a common origin (i.e. they are cognates)
• The words have been borrowed from one language (loanwords)
The word *cognate* comes from Latin *co-gnatus* ['together’–’born’], so if we say that two words are cognates they go back to a common origin often far back in time. Swedish *fader*, English *father*, Latin *pater* and Sanskrit *pitr* are examples of cognates.

To be able to exclude loanwords it is important to take into account regular recognizable sound patterns when we look at different languages. Let me illustrate. Below you find a collection of words in German, English and Swedish. They are all cognates except in one row where we find examples of borrowing. Identify the row and which language was the original source of the word.

Some words in English, German and Swedish

(Adapted from Barber, 58-59.)

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<td>Unus</td>
<td>Odin</td>
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<td>Okto</td>
<td>Octo</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nio</td>
<td>Naoi</td>
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<td>Ennea</td>
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<td>On</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Yüz</td>
<td>Hekaton</td>
<td>Centum</td>
<td>Sto</td>
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</table>

Bone | Bein | ben
---|------|------
Stone | Stein | Sten
Oak | Eiche | Ek
Home | Heim | Hem
Rope | Reif | Rep
Goat | Geiss | Get
Boat | Boot | Båt
One | Ein | En
```
From Pyles and Algeo (1993:68-69)

Find the correct place in the language tree for the listed words in the picture. Note that there are more languages than numbered slots.
Why do languages change?

I. The nature of society

It has been observed that changes in society often cause changes in a language.

1. New vs. old
   Part of language affected: vocabulary.
   We live in an ever-changing world. New objects and ideas are continually being created, and new words have to be formed to account for these things. Consider examples such as computer, CD-player, tamaguchi
   A functional need for new terms/words. More examples: ________________________________________________________________________

2. Social prestige
   Parts of language affected: vocabulary, pronunciation.
   If a change occurs among a group of people with whom another group want to identify, the latter group will often change their speech in the new direction. Cf. the spread of [R].
   The change is usually towards the elite, but also in other directions: Prestige is a matter of identification.
   Remember from sociolinguistics: covert prestige
   More examples: ________________________________________________________________________

3. Imperfect learning
   Parts of language affected: The whole system: vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax
   Change may be the result of one part of the population learning the language as a second language; cf. “rinkebysvenska”, pidgins, creoles.
   The minority language forms a substratum. The influence is called substrate influence.

4. Geography
   Parts of language affected: vocabulary, pronunciation.
   When people have frequent contact, their speech varieties tend to converge. If, on the other hand, there is little contact (for some reason), differences will occur in the end, and the varieties drift apart.
   Often we find that isolated groups, who have had little contact with other areas, retain old speech forms.
   Examples: ________________________________________________________________________

5. Fashion
   Part of language: vocabulary.
   For different reasons, most of them obscure, words and phrases may become fashionable for a while:
   E.g. Swedish uppgradera, typ, time-out.
   Other examples: __________________________________________________________________
   Words and phrases can also be worn out; felt to be clichés, or felt to have lost most of their meaning:
   Swedish, häftigt, värsta, katastrof.
II. The nature of language

There are features in language that can explain changes – conditioned changes.

1. The principle of minimum effort – economy.

We tend to take short cuts in the movement of our speech organs. This fact accounts for some changes, but these changes are by no means universal. There is no simple directionality in language change: We cannot predict that a change will take place, but afterwards we may conclude that it took place because of this or that pattern. Cf. *fussy* vs. *fuzzy*.

a) assimilation

One sound changes influenced by another.

complete or total assimilation: *cupboard* /ˈkʌbɔrd/

partial assimilation: in + possible = impossible.

In a finer distinction we can also find contact assimilation (in both cases above) and distant assimilation, in which the sounds are not adjacent.

In addition, there is also

regressive assimilation: Swedish *dricka* from originally *drinka* (compare Eng. *drink*), so the change has happened to the sound closer to the beginning of the word.

progressive assimilation: English *mill* from Old English *myln* – the change has happened to the sound closer to the end of the word.

b) loss

Consonant and vowels are frequently lost in unstressed positions, often at the end of words.

Consonant clusters are often simplified. *Castle, Christmas*

syncope – loss of sounds inside words: *interest* /ˈɪntrəst/

apocope – loss of final sounds: Old English *nama* /a/ PDE name /-/

c) metathesis

reverse the order of two phonemes in a word.

OE *þridda* – PDE *third*; cf. Sw. *tredje*.

d) extra phoneme:

Sometimes ease of pronunciation can lead to the insertion of an extra phoneme. Note that these extra sounds are phonologically predictable; they share some features with the preceding or following sound. Try to identify these features in the examples below.

OE *þrunor* – PDE *thunder*

PDE *thumb* – Sw. *tumme*

length [lɛŋkθ], athlete [ˈæθəliːt]

2. Analogy – a different kind of economy

Irregular features in the grammar of a language are often influenced by regular patterns. It takes less of an effort to remember regular patterns than irregular. However, if the irregular pattern is quite powerful, it may not change.

Swedish: *nysa* – *nös* – *nysit* or *nysa* – *nyste* – *nyst*? (What about *frysa*, *rysa*, *mysa*, *lysa*)
English: show – showed – shown or show – showed – showed?
Cf. also the kind of mistakes children make, and beginners. Swedish: gamlare English: goed

The rarer a word is, the more likely it is to be affected by analogy, and become regular. Compare: what kind of words are irregular verbs and nouns in English?

Well, those that are very common (man, woman, child, mouse, wife; eat, drink, think etc.). They have been in the language since Indo-European times and are irregular because plural and tenses were signalled differently in those days.

The other category of irregular nouns comprises words borrowed from Latin or Greek primarily. Most of these have alternative plural: curriculum – curricula or curriculums. As a rule, the foreign plural has stayed if the word has mainly a scientific or academic use. To these people, then, it will be an every-day word, much like wife and sheep.
If a word is used only fairly often, then it usually develops a regular pattern: cf. the plural of album is not alba.
Lesson II – Old English
Lecture

Content
Features of Old English: sound changes and morphology
Vikings and Normans
Features of Early Middle English: sound changes and morphology

Objectives
After the lesson the student should be able to
• identify and describe some sound changes in Old English which explain irregular patterns in present-day English,
• identify irregular morphological forms in modern English and their origin in the Old English system,
• describe the consequences of the Viking invasion of England, both linguistically and socially.
• be able to describe the immediate consequences of the Norman Conquest from the point of view of the English language and the political and social situation of medieval England

Preparation
Read SG 28–94

Questions for discussion:
1. Write the English singular and plural forms of the following words: Tjuv, ulv, löv, kalv, chef, klippa, yttertak. Is it possible to formulate a rule, which could be of help to Swedish students, on the basis of the pattern you found? (Hint: Take the Swedish words into account when you formulate the rule)
2. Why is rhinoceros noshörning in Swedish? Surely, there is no corner in the nose of a rhino.
3. The following Swedish words are related. Write down the corresponding English pairs: tand – tänder, mus – möss, blod – blöda. Observation?
4. Which of the following English verbs are irregular? conceive, eat, amalgamate, think, drink, sign, relate, satisfy, listen, teach, believe, write, contrast. Look up their origin with the help of an etymological dictionary (for example, http://www.etymonline.com/index.php or The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) available via UB’s database. Is there a pattern to be detected? If so, try to describe it.
5. Below you find a list of different types of meat. To what animals do they belong? What does the origin of these words tell us about Middle English society? beef, mutton, pork, veal, venison, poultry
A: The invasion of Germanic tribes

From Freeborn (2006:20)

B: The Viking invasion of the British isles.
C: The Danelaw and Scandinavian place names in England
Old English morphology illustrated

Old English noun declensions (a selection)

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<td>dēor</td>
<td>cild</td>
<td>oxa</td>
<td>fōt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>hund</td>
<td>dēor</td>
<td>cild</td>
<td>oxan</td>
<td>fōt</td>
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<td>Genitive</td>
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<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
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<td>fōtum</td>
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Old English demonstrative (= definite article)

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Old English personal pronouns

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<td>unc</td>
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<td>Dative</td>
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<td>uncer</td>
<td>user, ūre</td>
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<td>hit</td>
<td>hī</td>
<td>hīe, hī, hēo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire</td>
<td>him, heom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>hire</td>
<td>hira</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third person plural in Old Icelandic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>þeir</td>
<td>þau</td>
<td>þær</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>þá</td>
<td>þau</td>
<td>þær</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>þeim</td>
<td>þeim</td>
<td>þeim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
<td>þeirra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Old English adjectives

Adjectives were marked for gender, case, number and definiteness where the forms were in agreement with the gender, case and number of the head noun of the noun phrase. Thus, an adjective such as good, OE gōda, would get the following form in the phrase the good king in its nominative form: Se gōda cyning. The –a ending signals that this is masculine, nominative, singular and in the definite form.

Many adjectives were formed by adding the ending –līc to a noun, compare the Swedish adjective ending -lig. Thus a noun such as frīond (friend) could be derived into frīondīc.

Old English adverbs

In Old English, adverbs were created from adjectives according to the formula adjective + e. (Compare the Swedish formula adjective + t). Thus, the adjective deep, OE dēop, could be given the adverb for by simply adding an –e: dēope. In the same way, the adjective frīondīc could be transformed into an adverb, frīondīce, with the addition of an –e.

Old English verbs

There were two classes of verbs in Old English: Strong verbs and weak verbs.

Strong verbs, which were already an archaic type, marked different tenses by root vowel alternation as in the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PDE form</th>
<th>infintive</th>
<th>Past sg</th>
<th>Past pl</th>
<th>Past ptc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bite</td>
<td>bitan</td>
<td>bāt</td>
<td>biton</td>
<td>gebiten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sing</td>
<td>singan</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sungon</td>
<td>gesungen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>help</td>
<td>helpan</td>
<td>healp</td>
<td>hulpon</td>
<td>geholpen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Weak verbs marked tense with the help of a suffix containing a t or d, as in the two examples below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PDE form</th>
<th>infintive</th>
<th>Past sg</th>
<th>Past pl</th>
<th>Past ptc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kiss</td>
<td>cyssan</td>
<td>cyste</td>
<td>cyston</td>
<td>gecyst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>love</td>
<td>lufian</td>
<td>lufode</td>
<td>lufodon</td>
<td>gelufod</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to these patterns, verbs were inflected for person (1st, 2nd, 3rd, pl) in the present and past tense and in the subjunctive.
Lesson III – Middle English

- describe the major phonological and morphological changes in the Middle English period
- account for the most important changes in the spelling standard
- describe the consequences of these changes – as regards the structure of the language
- describe the social aspects of loan-words, i.e. what they tell us about contemporary society

Seminar

Content

Old English phonology and morphology
Middle English phonology, morphology and spelling

Objectives

After the lesson the student should be able to

- identify and describe some sound changes which explain irregular patterns in present-day English,
- identify irregular morphological forms in modern English and their origin in the Old English system,
- describe the consequences of the big invasions of England, both linguistically and socially.

Preparation

Read SG 28–94
Solve the exercise task and prepare the questions for discussion

Questions for discussion

1. Take a grammar book and look up irregular plurals. Roughly speaking, we can talk about two classes of irregular plurals. What two classes? Why haven’t these plurals become regular do you think?

2. There are a number of English adverbs and adjectives which have the same form (see e.g. in grammar book such as Gleerups Engelska Grammatik). What is typical of these words? (Hint: Think in terms of concreteness and commonality)

3. Let us reconsider the two ways that we can classify verbs: weak vs. strong (the old way in English) and regular vs. irregular (the new way). Apply both these classifications on the verbs below; that is, each verb should be classified both as weak or strong and as regular or irregular. For example walk is both a weak and a regular verb.

   Lie (’ligga’), lie (’ljuga’), lay (’lägga’), bring, run, corroborate

4. Compare the great invasions of England: the Anglo-Saxon, the Scandinavian and the Norman. Try to find similarities and differences. Relevant aspects could be social conditions after the invasion (the relation between the invaders and the inhabitants, how much of the country was conquered?), linguistic consequences
(did one language dominate?), and presence of place names reflecting the new conquerors (could reflect settlement of many people).

**Middle English Sound Changes – Vowels**

**A. Changes in quality**

**New diphongs**

/əʊ/, /ʊə/ These diphthongs go back to vocalisation of ɡ after OE a, u and ɔ and also rg and lg combinations. These diphthongs are usually spelt with a <w> in Modern English. If there is a corresponding Swedish form, it usually contains a ɡ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
<th>Present-Day English</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dragan</td>
<td>drawen</td>
<td>draw</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bugan</td>
<td>bowen</td>
<td>bow</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fugol</td>
<td>fowl</td>
<td>fowl</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sorg</td>
<td>sorwe</td>
<td>sorrow</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>āgan</td>
<td>owen</td>
<td>own</td>
<td>________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halgian</td>
<td>hallow</td>
<td>cf. Halloween</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B. Changes in quantity**

1. **Lengthening**

a) Before certain consonant groups:

| i or o (and occasionally a) before –mb |
| i or u before –nd |
| all vowels before ld |

Cf. Present-Day English *field, gold, hound, comb*, which all have Swedish equivalents with short vowels.

Note! This change did not take place if there was a third consonant following the cluster. This explains the difference in this pair: *child* – *children*. In Old English *cild* had a short vowel. Cf. also other exceptions like *lamb* and *wind*.

Nursery rhyme: The blind child climbs the golden tree.

b) In open syllables (later, in the first half of the 13th century)

IN particular /æ/, /e/, /o/ became long in open syllable, but also the other vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OE</th>
<th>ME</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e-tan</td>
<td>eat</td>
<td>/æːt/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na-ma</td>
<td>name</td>
<td>/naːma/</td>
<td>later /naːm/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ho-pian</td>
<td>hope</td>
<td>/hɔːp/</td>
<td>later /hɔːp/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An open syllable is one in which there is no consonant after the vowel. All the examples above contain two syllables and the hyphen indicates the boundary between the syllables.
The new spelling convention in Middle English of letting a mute \(<\ e >\) indicate a long vowel goes back to this sound change. After the first vowel was lengthened, the vowel in the following syllable first weakened to /ə/ and was then lost. The spelling \(<\ -e >\) was retained, however.

2. **Shortening**

a) Before two consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OE</th>
<th>PDE</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēpte</td>
<td>kept</td>
<td>cf. keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fifyne</td>
<td>fifteen</td>
<td>five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blēde</td>
<td>bled</td>
<td>bleed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mēte</td>
<td>met</td>
<td>meet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gōd-spell</td>
<td>gospel</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Before singular consonants in the first syllable of trisyllabic words. Or to express it in another way: Shortening occurred before two unstressed syllables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OE</th>
<th>PDE</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hāligdeg</td>
<td>holiday</td>
<td>cf. holy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sūberne</td>
<td>southern</td>
<td>south</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shēpherde</td>
<td>shepherd</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mōnendæg</td>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>moon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. **Unstressed vowels**

Most vowels in unstressed positions were weakened into schwa /ʊ/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OE</th>
<th>PDE</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wisđom</td>
<td>wisdom</td>
<td>/-ðam/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>būtan</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>/-ð/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ān</td>
<td>an</td>
<td>/-n/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This weakening was of very great importance for the breakdown of the Old English system of inflections.

**Middle English Spelling Convention**

In Middle English two new letters were introduced – \(v\) and \(z\) – where Old English spelt voiced and voiceless sounds in a similar way. If these letters occur in initial position in a word, it is a loanword, usually of French origin. Below you find some other important changes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Middle English</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/θ/ and /ð/</td>
<td>b or ð</td>
<td>th</td>
<td>tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʃ/</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>ch</td>
<td>child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>sc</td>
<td>sh</td>
<td>ship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u:/</td>
<td>u (ū)</td>
<td>ou, ow</td>
<td>house, nū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long vowels, e.g.: /iː/</td>
<td>i, e, o, a</td>
<td>Either double vowels,</td>
<td>food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/eː/, /oː/ and /aː/</td>
<td>(ī, ē, ō, ā)</td>
<td>or mute –e at the end.</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>o, when close to w, m, n, v</td>
<td>wundrian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Exercise on Old and Middle English sound changes

A: Look at the words below.
For the Prehistoric Old English sound changes
    a) write plausible Old English forms of the words, and
    b) try also to write the modern English forms of the words and, if possible,
    c) related modern forms which do not exhibit i-mutation.
    d) Finally write the corresponding Swedish word if there is one.

1. PrehOE *aldira
2. PrehOE *fulljan
3. PrehOE *mannis
4. PrehOE *sōcjan
5. PrehOE *langip
6. PrehOE *gōsiz
7. PrehOE *blōdjan
8. PrehOE *knuttian

B: For the following Old English words, try to determine the pronunciation of f:

wulf – wulfas
lufu
feohtan
half
hlaford

C: Middle English pronunciation and spelling
a) Indicate how these Old English words were pronounced in Middle English.
b) Furthermore, state the rule of the each sound change.
c) A third task is to write the modern form of the very same words.

    1. OE sceld
    2. OE lagu
3. OE galga
4. OE wīsdōm
5. OE þrote
6. OE feld
7. OE swelgan
8. OE mete

Explain the different pronunciation of the underlined sounds in these words: (NB, only one word has changed. One word retains the original pronunciation of the vowel.

white – Whītsunday
fīve – āfīfteen
chīld – chīldren
hōly – hōoliday

Give the Middle English spelling of these Old English words.

sunu
hūs
tēþ
wulfas
lufu
Lesson IV – Late ME and EME
Lecture

Content
Late Middle English
Early Modern English
Late Modern English

Objectives
After the lesson the student should
• describe the political and social situation of medieval England and give explanations for the reinstatement of English as official language
• account for new features in the verbal and pronominal system of English
• describe the view of language that existed in these periods and describe the consequences of this view.
• reconstruct and describe the Great Vowel Shift and understand its consequences
• give example of words whose spelling was affected by the spelling standard that developed in the Early Modern English period, including the phenomenon etymological respelling
• account for the origin of RP

Preparation
Read SG 94-142, 179-188

Questions for discussion
1. Compare the attitudes towards correctness in our days with those of the 17th and 18th centuries in England. What similarities and differences can you find?

2. Why could it be legitimately claimed that the Great Vowel Shift and other changes that took place at that time (15th - 18th cent.) are of great importance (indirectly) to Swedish school children?
The Great Vowel Shift

Front Vowels:

ME time /tiːm(ə)/

ME green /greːn/

ME meat /mæːt/

ME name /naːm(ə)/

ME day /daɪ/

Back Vowels:

ME loud /luːd/

ME boot /boːt/

ME stone /stɔːn/

ME law /laʊ/
Lesson V – Complexities of English described

Seminar

Content
Late Middle English
Early Modern English
Late Modern English

Objectives
After the lesson the student should
• Be able to explain current irregularities/oddities in English using historical explanations

Preparation
Read SG 94-142, 179-188

Questions for discussion

1. If they haven’t heard the following words, many Swedes tend to mispronounce words like *adobe*, *catastrophe*, *hyperbole* and *coyote* the first time.
   a) How would a ‘naive’ person (say, an average student in Gymnasiet) pronounce them do you think?
   b) Why would it be pronounced in the way you describe? Explain briefly.
   c) What is the correct pronunciation?

2. Look at the name of this US national park: *Yosemite*.
   How is a naive reader likely to pronounce the word? Why? How should it be pronounced?

3. In Swedish we have one way of expressing ongoing activities which is not all that different from the origin of the English progressive form. Translate the following Swedish expressions into English and compare their construction with Barber’s account of the origin of the English –ing-form.

   *Var är Peter?* - *Han är på träning*
   *Att sätta något i gungning.*

4. Since EME, English has been blessed with an (official) spelling standard. The basic idea of an alphabet is the unambiguous correlation between phonemes and graphemes. However, the English system seems to exhibit opaque (and ambiguous) correlations in vowels, cf. the figure below. Find words which illustrate the relations given below. Summarise pros and cons of a strictly phonemic alphabet. The figure is adapted from Görlach, *The Linguistic History of English.*
5. Consider the use of the pronoun *thou* (and its case forms *thee* and *thy*). The extract is from the trial of Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1603. Explain why the attorney uses *thou*. Take into account the general use of *thou* and *you* in Early Modern English. (Hint: You probably need to take the actual situation into account)

*Raleigh*: I do not hear yet, that *you* have spoken a word against me; here is no Treason of mine done: If my Lord Cobham be a traitor, what is that to me?
*Attorney*: All that he did was by *thy* Instigation, *thou* Viper; for I *thou* thee, *thou* Traitor.
*(The Trial of Sir Walter Raleigh, 1603: 209)*

6. One feature that your future students of English will no doubt complain about is the English spelling system. After this course in the history of English, you should be aware of the major reasons for this. Below you find a number of words whose spelling could be difficult for people who have not become familiar with English spelling.
   a) explain *in detail* why these words may be perceived as difficult and
   b) identify the major source for the problem from a historical point of view.
   It could probably be helpful to look at the history of the word in a dictionary such as the OED.

*anchor, blood, bury, delight, facade, indict, niche, routine, victuals.*
Lesson VI - Vocabulary

Seminar

Content
Focus on vocabulary:
Loanwords
Semantic change

Objectives
After the lesson the student should be able to
• identify loan-words and classify them with respect to source, time and semantic field
• categorise words in terms of the semantic change the word has gone through,

Preparation
Read Moodle pages, various pages in SG and pdf on language change

Do Questions for discussion and exercises

Questions for discussion
1. The words below are of French origin. However, there are also native English words with very similar meaning. Find these ‘synonyms’. Try also to identify whether there is any difference between the two groups of words: aid, conceal, encounter, attempt, desire, commence, infant, profound

2. Below you find a collection of words. Some are of Anglo-Saxon (native) origin (one is actually Scandinavian), some are of French origin and some are of Latin or Greek origin.
   a) Identify which ones have similar meanings and identify the formality and age of the terms. They should form trios, with one word belonging to each of the three categories of origin (So each trio should be: one native word, one French and one Latin/Greek, and they have approximately the same core meaning.)
   b) What picture emerges if we take the three parameters into account (origin, age, formality)?
   The lexemes: term, ask, cardiac, exit, gift, holy, depart, question, consecrated,
   present, word, hearty, interrogate, go, donation, lexeme, sacred, cordial.

   Use the etymological dictionaries mentioned above for origin and age. Your intuition should help you with degree of formality and technicality.
Semantic Change

Consider the following types of semantic change.

Generalization, specialization, amelioration, pejoration, weakening or euphemism.

Specify which semantic change the following words have undergone.

1. accident (earlier: an event)
2. aroma (earlier: the smell of spices)
3. awful (earlier: cause dread or awe)
4. box (originally: a container made of box-wood)
5. carry (earlier: transport by cart)
6. clown (earlier: a rural person)
7. erotic (earlier: relating to love)
8. (go to the) restroom
9. incredible (earlier: not to be believed)
10. knight (earlier: boy or youth)
11. liquor (earlier: any liquid)
12. love child
13. marshal (earlier: a stable servant)
14. monstrously (earlier: deviating from natural)
15. pass on
16. pilot (originally: one who steers or directs the course of a ship)
17. slogan (originally: the battle cry of Scottish clans)
18. stool (earlier: fabricated object for one person to sit on)
19. success (earlier: any outcome)
20. villain (earlier: a low born person)
Loan-words

Comment on the origin of the following words. If a word is a loan-word (one is not), then:

i) give an approximate date for its arrival in English,
ii) indicate from where it came,
iii) state the criteria you used for the identification of date and original language.

Accounts of loanwords in different periods, what was typical of them, and criteria for identifying them can be found in Gramley (with links) and in Moodle:

1. prestige
2. change
3. husband
4. machine
5. church
6. sheep
7. equilibrium
8. plaintiff
9. kid
10. champagne
11. gift
12. window
13. guard
14. monk
15. estate
16. they
17. skin
18. egg
19. choice
20. school
Some extra questions for discussion and finding out

1. Find words which exemplify at least three different pronunciations of the spelling *ch*. Does the origin of the words help explain the difference in pronunciation?

2. Indicate the pronunciation of the following words **around the year 1400 AD**. Remember to indicate length where so is needed: *bread, by, far, green, louse, pound, sight* and *write*.

3. George Bernhard Shaw once suggested that, in accordance with English spelling patterns, a word like *fish* could equally well be spelt *ghoti*. Try to find the logic behind Shaw’s claim – find examples of *gh* = */θ/* etc.
Appendix: Illustrations of OE, ME and EME

Old English illustrated
The Old English version of the Prodigal Son (Luke 15:11-24), c. 1000

11. Sōdōlice sum man hæfde twēgen suna. 12. Þā cwaēð se gingra tō hīs fæder, “Fæder, syle mē mūnne dēl mīnre āhte dē mē tō gebyrē.” Þā dēlē he him āhtā. 13. Dā āfter feawum dagum ealle his þing gegaderode se gingra sunu and fērde wrecclīce on feorlē rīce and forspilde þār hīs āhta, lybbende on hīs gālsan. 14. Dā hē hīs hæfde ealle āmyrrēde, þā weard mycel hūnger on þām rīce and hē weard w geedcucode dla. 15. Þā fērde hē and folgode ānum burhsittendum men þæs rīces;þā sende hīne tō hīs tūne þēt hē hēolde hīs swīn. 16. Dā gewilnode hīs hīs wambe gefyllan of þām bēancoddum þē þā swyn ēton, and him man ne sealde. 17. Þā bebēhte hīne and cwaēð, “Ēalā hū fela yrōlinga on mīnes fæder hūse hlāf genōhne habbað, and ic hēr on hūnger forwurðe!”

11. A man hadde twei sones. 12. And the yonger of hem seide to the fadir, “Fadir, yiu me the porcioun of catel that fallith to me.” And he departide to hem the catel.

13. And not aftir many daies, whanne alle thingis weren gederid togider, the younger son wente forth in pilgrymage in to a fer cuntre; and there he wastide his goodis in lyunge lecherously.

14. And aftir that he hadde endid alle thingis, a strong hungre was on his wambe. And he roos vp, and cam to his fadir. And whanne he was yit afer, his fadir seide to his sonu: “Fæder, ic seah and weard of hīs swīn. Nū ic ne eom wyrē þēt ic þīn sunu bēo genemned.” 15. Dā cwaēð se fērde to his þēowum: “Bringað hrædē þone sēlestan geyrelan and scryðað hine, and syllað him hring on his hand and gescy þō fīs fōtum. 23. And bringað ān fētt styric and osfēlāð, and uton etan and gewistfullian. 24. For þēm þēs mīn sunu wās dēad, and hē geedcucode; hē forwearð, and hē is gemēt.”

Middle English illustrated
The Middle English version of the Prodigal Son (Luke 15:11-24), c. 1380


11. A man hadde twei sones. 12. And the yonger of hem seide to the fadir, “Fadir, yiu me the porcioun of catel that fallith to me.” And he departide to hem the catel.

13. And not aftir many daies, whanne alle thingis weren gederid togider, the younger son wente forth in pilgrymage in to a fer cuntre; and there he wastide his goodis in lyunge lecherously.

14. And aftir that he hadde endid alle thingis, a strong hungre was on his wambe. And he roos vp, and cam to his fadir. And whanne he was yit afer, his fadir seide to his son: “Fadir, ic seah and weard of hīs swīn. Nū ic ne eom wyrē þēt ic þīn sunu bēo genemned.” 15. Dā cwaēð se fērde to his þēowum: “Bringað hrædē þone sēlestan geyrelan and scryðað hine, and syllað him hring on his hand and gescy þō fīs fōtum. 23. And bringað ān fētt styric and osfēlāð, and uton etan and gewistfullian. 24. For þēm þēs mīn sunu wās dēad, and hē geedcucode; hē forwearð, and hē is gemēt.”
Early Modern English illustrated

The Prodigal Son (Luke 15:11-24) in the King James Bible (1611)

11. A certaine man had two sonnes. 12. And the yonger of them said to his father, Father, giue me the portion of goods that falleth to me. And he diuided vnto them his liuing. 13. And not many dayes after, the yonger sonne gathered al together, and tooke his iourney into a farre countrey, and there wasted his substance with riotous liuing. 14. And when he had spent all, there arose a mighty famine in that land, and he beganne to be in want. 15. And he went and ioyned himselfe to a citizen of that countrey, and he sent him into his fields to feed swine. 16. And he would faine haue filled his belly with the huskes that the swine did ete; and no man gaue vnto him. 17. And when he came to himselfe, he said, How many hired seruants of my fathers haue bread inough and to spare and I perish with hunger. 18. And when he came to himselfe, he said, How many hired seruants of my fathers haue bread inough and to spare and I perish with hunger. ... 20. And he arose and came to his father. But when he was yet a great way off, his father saw him, and had compassion, and ranne, and fell on his necke, and kissed him. 21. And the sonne said vnto him, Father, I have sinned against heauen, and in thy sight, and am no more worthy to be called thy sonne. 22. But the father saide to his seruants, Bring foorth the best robe, and put it on him, and put a ring on his hand, and shooes on his feete. 23. And bring hither the fatted calfe, and kill it, and let us eate and be merrie. 24. For this my sonne was dead, and is alieue againe; hee was lost, and is found.