

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
Запорізький національний технічний університет

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ТЕКСТИ (конспект) лекцій з дисципліни

Історія англійської мови.
для студентів спеціальності 6.030500 “Філологія”

План-конспект лекцій з дисципліни «Історія англійської мови» для студентів III курсу спеціальності 7.030507 «Переклад»/ укл.: Е.О.Кущ.
Запоріжжя : ЗНТУ, 2016. 42 с.

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Затверджено
на засіданні кафедри “Теорії і
практики перекладу”

Протокол № 2
від “18” вересня 2016 р.

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1. Theoretical Aspects and Sources of the History of English. Classification of Indo-European and Germanic Languages

A language can be considered from different angles. In studying Modern English we regard the language as fixed in time and describe each linguistic level synchronically, taking no account of the origin of present-day features or their tendencies to change. It has long been recognized that a living language can never be absolutely static. It develops together with the speech community, that is, with the people who speak it. That is why the synchronic approach should be contrasted to the diachronic. When considered diachronically, every linguistic fact is interpreted as a stage or step in the never-ending evolution of language.

The evolution or historical development of language is made up of diverse facts and processes. In the first place it includes the 'internal' or structural development of the language system, its various subsystems and component parts. The description of internal linguistic history is usually presented in accordance with the division of language into linguistic levels. The main commonly accepted levels are: the phonetic and phonological levels, the morphological level, the lexical level, the syntactical level.

The evolution of language includes also many facts which pertain to the functioning of language in the speech community. These functional aspects contribute what is known as the 'external' history of the language and embrace a large number of the matters: the spread of the language in geographical and social space, differentiation of language into functional varieties (geographical variants, dialects, standard and substandard forms, etc.), contacts with other languages, the migration of tribes, economic and political events, the growth of culture and literature. Unlike human society, language undergoes no revolutions or sudden breaks. The slow rate of linguistic change is seen in the gradual spread of new features in language space.

Some factors and causes of language evolution are confined to a certain group of languages or to one language only and may operate over a limited span of time. These specific factors are trends of evolution characteristic of separate languages or linguistic groups, which distinguish them from other languages. Since English belongs to the Germanic group of languages, it shares many Germanic trends of development with cognate languages. These trends were caused by common Germanic factors but were transformed and modified in the history of English, and were combined with

other trends caused by specifically English internal and external factors. The combination of all these factors and the resulting course of evolution is unique for every language; it accounts for its individual history which is never repeated by other languages. Thus English, like other Germanic languages, displayed a tendency towards a more analytical grammatical structure, but it has gone further along this way of development than most other languages, probably owing to the peculiar combination of internal and external conditions and interaction of changes at different linguistic levels.

The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows:

English – in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, India and many other former British colonies and dominions;

German – in Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland;

Netherlandish – in the Netherlands and Belgium;

Afrikaans – in the South African Republic;

Danish – in Demnark;

Swedish – in Sweden and Finland;

Norwegian – in Norway;

Icelandic – in Iceland;

Frisian – in some regions of the Netherlands and Germany;

Faroese – in the Faroe islands;

Yiddish – in different countries.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many countries is one of two languages in a bilingual community, e.g. in Canada. The estimates for English range from 250 to 300 million people who have it as their mother tongue. The total number of speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 billion. To this rough estimate we could add an indefinite number of billingual people in the countries where English is used as an official language (over 50 countries).

All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history. The survey of their external will show where and when the Germanic languages arose and acquired their common features and also how they have developed in independent languages.

The history of the English language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest extant written

texts in English are dated back to the 7th century, the earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or 4th century A.D. The development of English, however, began a long time before it was first recorded. In order to say where the English language came from, to what languages it is related, when and how it was acquired its specific features, one must get acquainted with of the prewritten history of the Germanic tribes. Certain information about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers, especially Roman. They contain descriptions of Germanic tribes, personal names and place names. Some data are also provided by early borrowings from Germanic made by other languages. But the bulk of our knowledge comes from scientific study of extant texts.

Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages. Germanic group is one of the first major group of *the Indo-European linguistic family*, which consists of Indian, Iranian, Baltic, Slavonic, Germanic, Romanic, Celtic, Greek, Albanian, Armenian as well as Hettish and Tokharian languages. Germanic branch of Indo-European family of languages contains three subbranches: East Germanic, North Germanic, West Germanic.

The East Germanic subgroup contains dead languages: *Gothic, Burgundian, and Vandalic*. Goths were the first tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. They left the coast of the Baltic Sea and started on their great migrations. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th century Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic. This was the Silver Codex, one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group. This document throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English. The other East Germanic languages have left no written traces.

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to *the North Germanic subgroup of languages*. This subgroup contains dead and modern languages: Old Norse or Old Scandinavian (2nd - 3rd c.), Old Icelandic (12th c.), Old Norwegian (13th c.), Old Danish (13th c), Old Swedish (13th c.) as well as Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Faroese.

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt between the Oder and the Elbe. The dialectal differentiation of West German was quite distinct even at the beginning of our era. On the eve of

their great migrations of the 4th and 5th centuries the West Germans included different tribes, who speak *Anglian*, *Frisian*, *Saxon*, *Jutish*, *Franconian*, *High German*. The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German. The first written records in Old High German date from the 8th and 9th centuries. Towards the 12th century High German had intermixed with neighbouring languages and eventually developed into the literary German language.

At the later stage of the great migration period – in the 5th century – a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the English language.

2. The Earliest Period of Germanic History.

Classification of Ancient Germanic Tribes. Alphabets and Written Records of Germanic Tribes

The History of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language. PG is the linguistic ancestor of the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE languages sometime between the 15th and 10th c B.C. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community. As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of Elbe a few hundred years before our era. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

Our knowledge of the ancient Teutons is based on testimonies by Greek and Roman writers, who. The first mention about them was made by Pytheas from Massilia, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. B.C., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. His work has not come down to us; only a few fragments have been preserved by the Greek geographer Strabo (63 B.C. – 20 A.D.), the author of a large work 'Geography' (chapter 'Teutons and Guttons'), and by the Roman writer Pliny the Elder (23-79 A.D.)

In the 1st c. B.C. in 'Commentaries on the Gallic War' Julius Caesar (100-44 B.C.) described some militant Germanic tribes – the Suevians – who bordered on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. Caesar's statement that the Germans lived in tribes and tribal unions is of great value for the historians. The tribal names Germans and Teutons, at first applied to separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group.

About a century later Pliny the Elder wrote about the Teutons in his great work 'Natural History'. He gave a classification of Germanic tribes which has been basically accepted by modern historians. According to Pliny Germanic tribes in the 1st century A.D. consisted of the following groups:

1. *the Vindili* (the Goths, the Burgundians, the Vandals) – *eastern Germanic tribes*, who inhabited the eastern part of Germanic territory;
2. *the Ingvaeones* – *western Germanic tribes*, inhabited the north-western part of Germanic territory – the shores of the Northern Sea, including what is now Netherlands;

3. *the Iscaveones* (the Franks who eventually conquered Gaul and others) – *western* Germanic tribes, who occupied the western part of Germanic territory on the Rhine;

4. *the Hermiones or the Herminones* – *western* Germanic tribes, who inhabited southern part of Germanic territory (now southern Germany);

5. *the Peucini and Bastrnae* – *eastern* Germanic tribes, who live close to what is now Romania;

6. *the Hilleviones* – *northern* Germanic tribes,, who inhabited Scandinavia.

Germanic tribes were also mentioned by the great Roman historian Tacitus Cornelius (55-120 A.D). In his short work 'Germania' Tacitus characterized the social structure of the Old Germanic tribes around 100 A.D. The historian's work contains Pliny's classification. Tacitus' results were widely used by Friedrich Engels in his work 'On the History of Ancient Germans'. Quoting Pliny's classification of Germanic tribes. Engels introduced one amendment. He pointed out that group 5 (the Peucini and Bastarnae) should be included into group 1, just as they also lived in the east and Pliny didn't denote it by a generalizing term, but merely gave the names of tribes which made it up. The following classification of the Germanic tribes was accepted: the Vindili - eastern Germanic tribes; the Ingvaeones, the Istaevones, the Herminones – western Germanic tribes; Hilleviones – northern Germanic tribes. In due course these groups split into separate subgroups.

Eastern Germanic group of tribes was made of Goths, Visigoths (western Goths) and Ostrogoth (eastern Goths). Around 200 A.D. they moved south-east and some time later reached the lower basin of the Danube where they made attacks on the eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch the Visigoths invaded Roman territory, participated in the assault on Rome, moved on to southern Gaul and found the first barbarian kingdom – the Toulouse kingdom. It had been existed till the eighth century and was absorbed by native population – Romanized Celts. Eastern Goths (Ostrogoths) consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the lower basin of the Dniester and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy with Ravenna as its capital. In the 5th c. their kingdom disappeared.

The Northern Germanic tribes lived in the southern coast of the Scandinavian peninsula and in Northern Denmark. They didn't participate in migrations and were relatively isolated, though they came into contacts with the western tribes after the Goths left the coast of the

Baltic Sea. Their dialectical variation was little and old Scandinavian came down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the 3rd to the 9th c. After the 9th c. the Scandinavian started out on their sea voyage. The famous Viking age from about 800 to 1050 A.D. is the legendary age of Scandinavians raids and expansion overseas at the same period. Due to overpopulation they spread over inner Scandinavia.

West Germanic tribes dwelt in lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the south. Under the pressure of Goths they went to the south and to the east. In the 4th and 5th century there were several tribes: the Franks, the High Germans, the Low Germans, the Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes, the Saxons. The Franks lived in the lower basin of the Rhine. In early Middle Ages they consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance. Towards the 8th c. their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. In 768-814 it embraced France and half of Italy and stretched up to the North and Baltic sea. Their empire broke into parts in the 9th c. The High German group of tribes didn't go far in their migration. They lived in the mountainous southern region of Germany and expanded only to the east. Low Germans inhabited low-lying northern areas of Germany.

The Angles and the Frisians (the Anglo-Frisian group), the Jutes and Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherland, Germany and southern part of Denmark. In the 5th c. started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxon and the Frisian, and, probably, the Jutes. The Frisian and the Saxon didn't take part in the invasion stayed on the continent. The area of Frisian which at one time extended over the entire coast of the North sea was reduced under the pressure of Low German tribes.

The ancient Germanic tribes used three different alphabets for their writings. These alphabets partly succeeded each other in time. The most ancient one was *runic alphabet*. The word *rune* originally meant 'secret', 'mystery' and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet, not to be found in languages of other groups.

Runes have a very peculiar look for eyes accustomed to modern European alphabets. The letters (runes) are angular; straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided. For example the rune denoting the vowel e was M, the rune denoting the consonant s was Ψ. Horizontal lines didn't exist in this alphabet. They were substituted by broken lines. This is due to

the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in hard material: stone, bone or wood. To this day the origin of runes is a matter of conjecture. Some scholars believe that it was derived either from Latin alphabet or from some other Italic alphabet close to the Latin.

Just when and where the Runic alphabet was created is not known. It is supposed that it originated at some time in the 2nd and 3rd century A.D., somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube, where Germanic tribes came into contact with Roman culture. The Runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes: Goths, Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians. There are runic inscriptions on the Golden horn which was found in Denmark. The two best known runic inscriptions are the earliest extant OE written records. One of them is an inscription on a box called “Franks Casket”, the other is a short text on a stone cross near the village of Ruthwell known as the “Ruthwell Cross”. The Franks Casket was discovered in the early years of the 19th c. in France and was presented to the British Museum by a British archaeologist A.W. Franks. The Ruthwell Cross is a 15 ft tall stone cross inscribed and ornamented on all sides. The principal inscription has been reconstructed into a passage from an OE religious poem “the Dream of the Rood”, which was also found in another version in a later manuscript. A lot of runic inscriptions were also found on movable objects: hemlets, rings, amulets, coins, etc. Eventually the Runic alphabet underwent changes with different Germanic tribes: new letters were added, some of the original ones were dropped. It is customary, for this reason to distinguish between an older and a younger Runic alphabet.

Ulfila's Gothic alphabet appeared in the 4th century. This is the alphabet of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible, a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet, with some admixture of Latin and Runic letters was created. It is known as the Silver Codex.

The latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes is *the Latin alphabet*. It is superseded both the Runic and the Gothic alphabet when a new technique of writing was introduced, namely that of spreading some colour or paint on a surface instead of cutting or engraving letters. The material used for writings was either parchment or papyrus. Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religious texts. The Latin alphabet was certainly not adequate to represent all sounds of Germanic languages. That's why letters and signs from runic alphabet were also used. Written records of Germanic tribes are given in the table 2:

Table 2

Written Records of Germanic Languages

Manuscript	Period	Dialect
Silver Codex. Ulfilas' translation of the Gospel	V-VI cc.	East Germanic: Gothic
Runic inscriptions (the Ruthwell Cross, the Franks)	VIII c.	West Germanic: Northumbrian
The Insertions in Latin texts ("Bede's Death Song Cadmon Hymn")	VIII c.	
Anglo-Saxon Charters	VIII-IX cc.	West Germanic: Kentish, West Saxon, Mercian
The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles; King Alfred's translation of Orosius World history with insertions	IX c.	West Germanic: West Saxon
King's Alfred translation of Poper Gregory the Great's Pastoral Care, a book of instructions for priest	IX c.	West Germanic: West Saxon
Beowulf, an epic of the VII or the VIII c., composed in Northumbrian or Mercian dialect	X c.	West Germanic: West Saxon copy
Glosses to the Gospel	X-XI c.	West Germanic: West Saxon
The Elder Edda, a collection of heroic songs	XII c.	North Germanic: Old Icelandic
The Younger Edda; Shorri Sturluson's prose text-book for poets	XIII c.	North Germanic: Old Icelandic

3. Linguistic Features of Germanic Languages. Phonetic Peculiarities of Germanic Languages.

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common features. Some are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic. The Germanic group acquired their specific distinctive features after the separation of the ancient Germanic tribes from other IE tribes and prior to their further expansion and disintegration that is during the period of the PG parent languages. These PG features inherited by the descendant languages, represent the common features of the Germanic group. Other common features developed later, in the course of the individual histories of separate Germanic languages, as a result of similar tendencies arising from PG causes. On the other hand, many Germanic features transformed and even lost in later history.

The peculiar Germanic system of *word accentuation* is one of the most important distinguishing features of the group. In early PG stress was movable. But in late PG the *stress was fixed on the first syllable*, which was usually the root of the word and rarely the prefix. Germanic languages inherited this phonetic features. We can observe it in the following words:

English – *be'come, be'coming, over'come; 'lover, 'loving, be'loved;*
German – *'lieben, 'liebe, ge'liebt.*

The fixed strong word stress has played an important role in the development of the Germanic languages and especially in phonetic and morphological changes. Due to the difference in the force of articulation the stressed and unstressed syllables were pronounced with great distinctness and precision, while unaccented became less distinct and were phonetically weakened. Unaccented sounds were weakened and lost. Since the stress was fixed on the root, the weakening and loss of sounds mainly affected the suffixes and grammatical endings. Many endings merged with the suffixes and lost, for example:

PG *fiskaz*, Gt *fisks*, O Icel *fiskr*, OE *fisc*.

As all grammatical endings were unaccented it was the start for the process of reduction which stopped only in the 15th c.

Germanic languages also have some peculiarities in the sphere of vowels sound, which distinguish them from other IE languages. Throughout history, beginning with PG, vowels displayed a strong tendency to change. They underwent different kinds of alteration: *qualitative* and *quantitative*, *dependent* and *independent*. *Qualitative* changes affect the quality of the

sound, e.g.: $o > a$. *Quantitative* changes make long sounds short or short sounds long, e.g.: $[i > i:]$. *Dependent* changes (also *positional* or *combinative*) are restricted to certain positions or phonetic conditions, for instance, a sound may change under the influence of the neighbouring sounds or in a certain type of a syllable. *Independent* changes (also *spontaneous* or *regular*) take place irrespectively of phonetic conditions, i.e. they affect a certain sound in all positions.

From an early date the treatment of vowels was determined by the nature of word stress. In accented syllables the oppositions between vowels were carefully maintained and new distinctive features were introduced, so that the number of stressed vowels grew. In unaccented positions the original contrasts between vowels were weakened or lost; the distinction of short and long vowels was neutralised so that by the age of writing the long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tend to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions.

The contrast of short and long is supported by the different directions of their changes. While long vowels generally tended to become closer and to diphthongise, short vowels, on the contrary, often changed into more open sounds. IE short $[o]$, $[a]$ appear as short $[a]$ in Germanic languages, e.g.: IE (Lat.) *noctem* – Germanic (Gothic) *nahts*; IE (Russian) *ночь* – Germanic *Nacht*. IE long $[o:]$, $[a:]$ appear as long $[o:]$ in Germanic languages e.g.: IE (Latin) *māter* – OE *mōdor*, Latin *flos* – OE *flōma*. This process is known as *the Germanic vowel shift*.

The quality of a stressed vowel is in some cases dependent on a following sound. The earliest manifestation of this principle has been termed as *fracture* or *breaking*. *Germanic fracture* concerns two pairs of vowels: pairs $e-i$ and $u-o$. IE e in the root syllable finds its counterpart in Germanic i , if it followed by i , j or the cluster '*nasal plus consonant*'. Otherwise in Germanic languages e is observed in corresponding words, e.g.: Lat. *medius* – OE *midde*, ME *middle*; Lat. *ventus* – OE *wind*, Lat. *edere* – OE *etan*.

The change of IE e into Germanic i can be explained by assimilation of the sound under the influence of the i , j . Changes of IE e into Germanic i under the influence of the cluster '*nasal plus consonant*' haven't got appropriate phonological interpretation yet.

An IE *u* finds its counterpart in Germanic *u* if it followed by *u* or the cluster ‘*nasal plus consonant*’. Otherwise the IE *u* finds its counterpart in Germanic *o*, e.g.: Sanskr. *sunus* – OE *sune*; Lat. *iugu* – OE. *zeoc* (yoke).

The Gothic language has some other peculiarities. Every IE *e* becomes *i* in Gothic, and only before the consonants *r*, *h*, *h̥* it remains as *e*. Every IE *u* preserved as *u* in Gothic and only before *r*, *h*, *h̥* it changes into *o*, e.g.: Lat. *sedere* – Goth. *sitan* (*sit*).

A special kind of vowel alternation, which is usually called *gradation* or *ablaut* is not a specific feature of the Germanic languages. It was inherited by Germanic languages from ancient IE. The origin of gradation has n’t reflect any phonetic changes but was used as a special independent device to differentiate between words and grammatical forms built from the same root. Vowel gradation is found in the process of the today’s irregular verbs formation in English. It is observed in Russian: *нести* – *ноша*, *гремут* – *гром*, etc. Gradation is clearly seen in ancient Greek, more especially in conjugation: *leipo* (I leave) – *elipon* (past definite) – *leloipa* (perfect). So the root of the verb appears in three variants, distinguished by gradation: *lip-leip-loip*. Gradation is an independent vowel interchange unconnected with any phonetic conditions.

The principal gradation series used in the IE languages are qualitative gradation, when vowels differ only in quality (безы-воз) and quantitative one, that is interchange of short, long, zero vowels (Lat. *lēgi* – *lego*). The Germanic languages employed both types of ablaut – qualitative and quantitative and their combination, e.g.: Goth. *itan* – *at* (qualit.), *can* – *cawan* (quant.), *faran* – *fōr* (qual.-quant.). The system of gradation in Germanic languages is best seen in the so-called strong verbs of the Gothic languages: *reisan* – *rise* – *rais* – *risum* – *risans* (*i*: – *ai* – *i* – *i*), etc. Gradation occurs not only in root, but also in some grammatical endings of nouns and verbs.

After the changes, in Late PG, the vowel system contained the following sounds: short vowels *i*, *e*, *a*, *o*, *u* and long vowels *i:*, *e:*, *a:*, *o:*, *u:*. It is believed that in addition to these monophthongs PG had a set of diphthongs made up of more open nuclei and closer glided *ei*, *ai*, *eu*, *au* and also *iu*. Nowadays, however, many scholars interpret them as sequences of two independent monophthongs.

An essential feature of Germanic languages is their consonantal system. Germanic consonants are differentiated according to the place and manner of articulation. According to the place of articulation they are

subdivided into labial (p, b, f), labio-dental (t, d, ð) back-lingual pure (k, g, h) and back-lingual labio velar k^w, g^w, h^w. According to the manner of articulation they can be noise and sonorants. Noise are plosives subdivided into voiced (b, d, g, g^w), voiceless (p, t, k, k^w) and fricatives subdivided into voiced (b, v, g, j, g^w) and voiceless (f, þ, h, h^w, s). Sonorants are j, w, n, l, m, n.

Comparison with other languages within the IE family reveals regular correspondence between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. The consonants of Germanic look 'shifted' as compared with the consonants of non-Germanic languages. The alteration of the consonants took place in PG, and the resulting sounds were inherited by the languages of the Germanic group.

The changes of consonants in PG were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th c. and are often called Grimm's law. It is also known as the First or *Proto-Germanic consonant shift* (to be distinguished from the 2nd which took place in OHG in the 9th c.) By the terms of Grimm's Law voiceless plosives *p, t, k* developed in PG into voiceless fricatives *f, h, þ* (Act I); IE voiced plosives *b, d, g* were shifted to voiceless plosives *p, t, k* (Act II) and IE voiced aspirated plosives *bh, dh, gh* were reflected as pure voiced plosives *b, d, g* (Act III), e.g.: Lat. *pater* – Goth. *ƿadar*, Lat. *tres* – Angl *three*, Lat. *noctem* – Goth. *nahts* (Act I); Rus. *слабый* – Goth. *slepan* (sleep) Rus. *болото* – OE *pol*, ME *pool*, Lat. *decem* – OE *tien*, NE *ten*, Lat. *granum* – Goth. *kaurn*, ME *corn* (Act II); Sanscr. *bhratar* – OE *broþar*, Sanscr. *madhu* – OE *medu* (honey), Lat. *hostis* – Goth. *gast*, O Ind *vaha* – Goth *wiga* (way) (Act III).

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19th by a Danish scholar Carl Verner. They are known as *Verner's law*. Verner's law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. It refers to Act I. The voiceless plosives *p, t, k* became voiceless fricatives *f, h, þ* only in case unstressed vowels preceded them. Otherwise they became voiced plosives *b, d, g*, e.g.: Lat. *caput* – O Sax *habid*, Greek *deka* – Goth *tigus*, O Ind *matar* – O Sax *modru*.

One more voiceless fricative consonant is affected by Verner's law, the consonant *s*. Preceded by the unstressed vowel it became voice and changed into *z* in Germanic languages. Eventually this *z* became *r* in Western and Northern Germanic languages (not in Gothic). The latter change *z – r* is called *rhotacism*, e.g.: Goth *kiusan* – OE *curon* (NE *choose*),

Goth. *hausjan* – OE *hieran* (NE *hear*), Goth. *was*, *wesum* OE *was*, *waron* (*was*, *were*).

In the conjugation system one form may have its stress on one syllable, while another form of the same verb has it on another syllable. In this way alternations within the verbal system arise, which have been named grammatical alternation.

West-Germanic languages show a peculiar phenomenon in the sphere of consonants. Every consonant (with the single exception of *r*) is lengthened if it preceded by a short vowel and followed by the consonant *j*, e.g.: Goth. *satjan* – OE *settān* (*set*), Goth. *framian* – OE *fremman* (*fulfil*). This process is known as *West Germanic lengthening of consonants* or *West Germanic gemination of consonants*.

Another process peculiar to Germanic languages was the process of disappearing of nasal *ŋ* before voiceless fricatives *f*, *h*, *þ*, e.g.: Sanscr. *þoŋh* – O. Icel. *þohrte* (*to think*), Sanscr. *bronhte* – OE *brōhte* (*brought*).

4. Basic Grammatical Features of Germanic Languages. Principal Features of Germanic Vocabulary.

Like other old IE languages both PG and OG languages had a synthetic grammatical structure, which means that the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position or auxiliary words. In later history all the Germanic languages developed analytical forms and ways of word connection. In the early periods of history the grammatical forms were built in the synthetic way: by means of inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion. The suppletive way of form-building was inherited from ancient IE. The principal means of form-building were inflections. The inflections found in OG written records correspond to the inflections used in non-Germanic languages, having descended from the same original IE prototypes. Most of them, however, were simpler and shorter, as they had been shortened and weakened in PG. The wide use of sound interchanges has always been a characteristic feature of the Germanic group. This form-building (and word-building) device was inherited from IE and became very productive in Germanic, e.g.: Goth. *bairan*, O Icel *bera*, OE *beran*, NE *bear*. In various forms of the word and in words derived from one and the same root, the root-morpheme appeared as a set of variants. The consonants were relatively stable, the vowels were variable.

In early PG words consisted of 3 main components: the root, the stem-suffix and the grammatical ending. The stem-suffix was a means of word derivation, the ending – a marker of the grammatical form. In late PG the old stem-suffixes lost their derivational force and merged with other components of the word, usually with the endings. The word was simplified: the three-morpheme structure was transformed into a two-morpheme structure, for example: PG *fisk-a-s*, Goth. *fisk-s* (English *fish*). The simplification of the word structure and the loss of stem-suffixes as distinct components was facilitated or caused by the heavy Germanic word stress fixed on the root.

Most nouns and adjectives in PG and also many verbs had stem-forming suffixes. According to them they fell into groups or classes: a-stem, i-stem, ō-stem. This grouping accounts for the formation of different declensions in nouns and adjectives, and some differences in conjugation of verbs.

Groups of nouns with different stem-suffixes made distinct types of declension. So there were the following types of substantive stems in Old Germanic languages:

1. vocalic stems (-a, -ō, -i, u);
2. -n/-r/-nt-stems;
3. stems in other consonants (-s and -r stems);
4. root stems.

Declension of substantives with vocalic stems has been called strong declension. Declension of substantives with n-stems was called weak declension. Consonantal declension was presented by substantives with -n/-r/-nt-stems. Substantives with root declension never had a stem-building suffix, so their stems always coincided with their roots.

The division of nouns into declensions basing on the stem-suffixes is not peculiar to Germanic alone. It is also found in other IE languages. The Germanic languages preserved the old classification of nouns with great accuracy, added other distinctive features to the noun paradigm and, as a result, had a complicated system of noun declensions in the early periods of history.

Declension of adjectives differed from that of substantives. Every adjective was declined both according to the strong declension (with vocalic stem) and to the weak declension (with n-stem). Weak declension forms were used when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the definite article. In all other cases forms of the strong declension were used. Strong declension of adjectives didn't completely coincide with strong declension of substantives. Forms of several cases corresponded to declension of pronouns. So the strong declension of adjectives as a whole was a combination of substantival and pronominal forms.

The system of verbs in old Germanic languages consists of strong and weak verbs. The terms strong and weak verbs were proposed by J. Grimm. He called the verbs strong because they had preserved the richness of form since the age of the parent-language and in this sense could be contrasted to weak verbs lacking such variety of form. The main difference between these groups lies in the means of building of principal forms: the Present tense and Participle II. The strong verbs built their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings; they made use of IE about with certain modifications due to phonetic changes and environment. Weak verbs derived these forms by means of dental suffixes –

d, -t, b. These suffixes were inserted between the root and the ending. The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation.

The Old Germanic languages have a system of two tenses, present and past. Originally the distinction was not between tenses, but between aspects, that is between forms characterizing the way the action is developing. Every strong verb is characterized by four basic forms: the infinitive, the past singular, the past plural, the second participle. All strong verbs fall into seven classes according to the type of gradation: *reisan-rais-risum-risans*; *kuisan-kaus-kusum-kusans*; *bindan-band-bundum-bundans*; *stilan-stal-stelum- stuland*; *giban-gaf-gebum-gibans*; *faran-fōr-fōrum-farans*; *haitan-haihait-haihaotum-haitans* / *letan-lailōt-lailōtum-letans*.

The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, for the device used in building their principal forms is not found outside the Germanic group. They built the Past tense and Participle II by inserting a special suffix between the root and the ending. So suffixes d, -t, b were the markers of the Past and Participle II. Weak verbs in Germanic languages except Gothic had 3 classes. They derived their past tense and second participle by means of a dental suffix. So suffixes d, -t, b were the markers of the Past and Participle II, for example: O Icel *kalla* – *kallaða* - *kallaðr* (call-called), OE *macian* – *macode* – *macod* (make-made).

The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words and roots shared by most IE languages. They refer to a number of semantic spheres: natural phenomena, plants and animals, terms of kinship, verbs denoting basic activities of man, some pronouns and numerals. In addition to roots the common IE elements include other component of words: word-building affixes and grammatical inflexions. Words which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages. They appeared in PG or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically they also belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home life. The specifically Germanic layer includes not only roots but also affixes and word-building patterns: Gt. *hus*, *drigkan*, *land* O Icel *hús*, *Drekka*, *land*, OE *hūs*, *drincan*, *land*, Germ. *Haus*, *trinken*, *Land*.

Both etymological layers of the vocabulary – the IE and the specifically Germanic layer – are native words. In addition to native words the OG languages share some borrowings. Probably they were made at the time when the Germanic tribes lived closed together as a single community, that is in late PG, for example: Celt. *isarno*, Goth. *eisarn*, O Icel

isarn, OE *iren* (*iron*). It is known that the Teutons may have learnt the processing of iron from the Celts. A large number of words must have been borrowed from Latin prior to the migration of West Germanic tribes to Britain. These words reflect the contacts of the Germanic tribes with Rome and the influence of the Roman civilization on their life; they mostly refer to trade and warfare, for example: L *pondō*, *prunus* O Icel *pund*, *ploma*, OE *pund*, *plume* NE *pound*, *plum*.

5. Old English Period. Historical Background. Germanic Settlement of Britain. Old English Dialects. Written Records and Manuscripts

The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5th c. of our era. Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles must have been inhabited for at least fifty thousand years. Archeological research has uncovered many layers of prehistoric population. The earliest inhabitants of the British Isles were Iberian people. They were not Indo-Europeans. In the eighth century B.C. the Gaels from the Celtic tribes appeared in Britain. Other Celtic tribes (the Gaels, the Britons, the Belgae) came to Britain in three waves and immediately preceded by Teutons. Economically and socially Celts were a tribal society made up of kings, kinship groups, clans and tribes. They practiced a primitive agriculture and carried on trade with Celtic Gaul.

The first millennium B.C. was the period of Celtic migrations and expansion. Traces of their civilization are still found all over Europe. Traces of their civilization are still found all over Europe. Celtic languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before our era. Later they were absorbed by other IE languages.

In the 1st century B.C. Gaul was conquered by the Romans. Having occupied Gaul Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, on the 55 and 54 B.C. The British Isles had long been known to the Romans as a source of valuable tin ore. Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons – to obtain tin, pearls and corn, - and also for strategic reasons, since rebels and refugees from Gaul found support among their British kinsmen. Although Caesar failed to subjugate Britain, Roman economic penetration to Britain grew: traders and colonists from Rome came in large numbers to settle in the south-eastern towns. In 45 A.D. Britain was again invaded by Roman legions under Emperor Claudius and towards the end of the century was made a province of the Roman Empire. A great number of military camps were established. They eventually developed into English cities (*Manchester, Winchester*).

The Roman occupation of Britain lasted nearly 400 years; it came to an end in the early 5th c. A.D. In 410 A.D. the Roman troops were officially withdrawn to Rome by Constantine. This temporary withdrawal turned out to be final, for the Empire was breaking up due to internal and external causes, particularly the attacks of barbarian tribes (including Teutons) and

the growth of independent kingdoms on former Roman territories. The expansion of Franks to Gaul in the 5th c. cut off Britain from the roman world.

After the departure of the Roman legions the richest and most civilized part of the island, the south-east, was laid waste. Many towns were destroyed. Constant feuds among local landlords as well as the increased assaults of the Celts from the North and also the first Germanic raids from the North Sea proved ruinous to the civilization of Roman Britain.

Undoubtedly, the Teutons had made piratical raids on the British shores long before the withdrawal of the last Roman legions. The Britons fought among themselves. The 5th c. A.D. was the age of increased Germanic expansion. About the middle of the century several West Germanic tribes overran Britain and, for the most part, had colonized the island by the end of the century, though the invasion lasted in the 6th century.

Reliable evidence of the period is extremely scarce. The story of the invasion is told by Bede (673-735), a monastic scholar who wrote the first history of England. According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in 449 A.D. under the leadership of the Germanic kings, Hengist and Horsa. The invaders came in multitude, with families and clans, to settle in the occupied territories like Celts before them. The Germanic invasion was different from the Roman military conquest, although it was by no means a peaceful affair.

The invaders of Britain came from the western subdivision of the Germanic tribes. The newcomers were of the three strongest races of Germany, the Saxon, the Angles and the Jutes. The first wave of the invaders, the Jutes or the Frisians, occupied the extreme south-east: Kent and the Isle of Wight. The second wave of immigrants was largely made up of the Saxons, who had been expanding westwards across Frisia to the Rhine and to what is now known as Normandy. The final stage of the drift brought them to Britain by way of the Thames and the south coast. They set up their settlements along the south coast and on both banks of the Thames and depending on location were called South Saxons, West Saxons and East Saxons. The Saxons consolidated into a number of petty kingdoms, the largest and the most powerful of them being Wessex, the kingdom of West Saxons.

Last came the Angles from the lower valley of Elbe and southern Denmark. They made their landing on the east coast and moved up the rivers to the central part of the island to occupy the districts between the Wash and

the Humber and to the north of the Humber. They founded large kingdoms which had absorbed their weaker neighbors: East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria.

There were probably little intermixture between the newcomers and the Celtic aborigines. The invaders certainly prevailed over the natives so far as language was concerned. After the settlement West Germanic tongues came to be spoken all over Britain. The migration of the Germanic tribes to the British Isles and the resulting separation from the Germanic tribes on the mainland was a decisive event in their linguistic history. Geographical separation as well as mixture and unification of people are major factors in linguistic differentiation and in the formation of languages. Being cut off from related Old Germanic languages the closely related group of West Germanic dialects developed into a separate Germanic language – English. That is why the Germanic settlement of Britain can be regarded as the beginning of the independent history of the English language.

The history of Anglo-Saxon Britain from the 5th to the 11th c has been reconstructed from multiple sources: Bede's History, Celtic and Anglo-Saxon historical chronicle some legal documents. According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in 449 A.D. under the leadership of two Germanic kings, Hengest and Horsa. Vortigen invited them because he wanted them to help in the local war. The first wave of newcomers occupied the extreme south-east Kent and the Isle of Wight.

The period from the 5th till 11th was a transitional period from the tribal and slave-owning system to feudalism. The basic economic unit was a feudal manor; it was a self-contained economic unit as it grew its own food and carried on some small industries to cover its needs. Consequently there was little intercourse between population of neighboring areas. Tribal and clan division was gradually suppressed by townships. These conditions were reflected in the development of the West Germanic tongues brought to Britain. The economic isolation of the regions as well as the political disunity of the regions led to the formation of new geographical boundaries between the speech of different localities.

6. Old English Phonology

Apart from the differences in consonants we may see that vowels in similar words are different too. Especially prominent are the instances of numerous diphthongs in Old English *replacing* simple vowels as in *eahta jooc, meolc, heard* (eight, yoke, milk, hard), or when vowels change their I quality in certain positions as in *waster, stdn, fyllan* (water, stone, fill). Some I sounds merge, some get doubled - all these are to be studied among Old English sound changes.

The system of vowels in Old English included seven long and eight short vowels (monophthongs) (a a e e i o u y a – a a ē ē y) and four short and four long diphthongs (ea eo ie io - ēa eo j). The length of the vowel was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning: *jod* (god) - *jod* (good), *west* (west) - *west* (waste), *for* (preposition for) - *for* (past tense of the verb *ifa ran - go*). Comparing Old English sounds with the system of sound of other Germanic languages, one can see that in English it is more complicated and the origin of some sounds is blurred. Some of the sounds had counterparts in other Indo-European languages. So, for instance, such sounds as i, и can be found in similar words in other Germanic and non-Germanic Indo-European languages: Old English *niman* (Ukr. знімати); Old English *sunu* (Lat. 'sums). But the majority of sounds deviated from the way they were pronounced in other languages. So, for instance, Indo-European short *o* and *a* merged into one sound *a* in Germanic; but this *a* had several ways of development: *a - a haban - habban* (have); but *harda - heard* (hard), *arm - earm* (arm), *manna - man* (man); long Gothic *a* changed and gave several other variants, but there appeared a new long *a* from Gothic *ai*. Various changes occurred in the Old English phonology. These can be called spontaneous, independent, and assimilative, influenced by the 'surrounding sounds.

What had changed spontaneously, or independently is the following: Gothic *ai* corresponds to long *a\au* to long *ea\ lu* to long *eo* in Old English *ddud-deadi&z&d*; *aust- east* (east); *dlups-deop* (deep). These changes occurred irrespective of whatever sounds surrounded the sounds in question.

Assimilative changes are the changes that occurred in the language in specific surroundings i the sound might change when it was preceded or followed by some other sound or sound cluster. Many of the sounds that appeared in the language as a result of these changes returned to their previous quality in. the next period, some did not, but we are concerned with

these because the changes transformed the words formerly common in Germanic languages to their Anglo-Saxon variety.

There are two types of assimilation - regressive and progressive assimilation. If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive, if it influences the following it sound - it is called progressive assimilation. Both types of assimilation are found in Old English. Most common, mutilating the general Germanic picture of the sounds are:

Breaking (fracture). This is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster.

In the Northumbrian and Kentish dialects *l n-cons* does not lead to fracture of the sound *as*, which turns into *a* {*aid*, *all*).

Palatal mutation (i-umlaut) The essence of this change is that a back sound, *a* or *o*, changes its quality if there is a front sound in the next syllable. Especially frequent are the changes in the roots of the verbs influenced by the */-sound* of the suffix of the infinitive *-ian* (the suffix lost its front sound in the same process, and in the Old English we have already the result of this change, not seeing the cause of it): *a* > *ae*; *a* > *e* *wakjan* — *wasccan* (to observe, to be awake); *sandian* — *sendan* (to send) *namnian* — *nemnan* (to name) *talian* — *tsolan* — *tellan* (to tell), *salian* - *saellan* - *sellan* (to sell, originally to give) *satian* — *sastan* - *settan* (to set) *a* > *aë* *larian* - */aë ran* (to learn, to teach); *kalian* - */xæ lan* (to heal) *an* — *aënij* (any) *o* > *oe* > *e* *ofstian* - *efstan* (to hurry)

dohter - *dehter* (dative case of daughter) *o* > *oe* > *ë* *wopian* — *wepan* (to weep)

domian - *danan* (to deem, to judge) *u* > *y* *fidlian* - *fyllan* (to fill)

kunin j - *cy nin j* (king) *lx* > *y* *m Us* - *mys* (mice)

Palatal mutation was found not only in monophthongs but in diphthongs, too.

The modified system of diphthongs looks like the following: *ea* > *ie*

eald - *ieldra* (elder)

hleahian - *hliehhan* (to laugh)

eo > *ie*

feor - *fierra* (further) *J'eorij* - *jienjra* (younger)

ea > *hear ran* (hear)

jeleafa - *jellefan* (believe) *eo* > *Γe* *jetreowi* - *jetnewe* (true)

In the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects long and short *ea* mutate into long and short *e* (*eldra*, *jelefan*).

Very often palatal mutation thus distanced a noun or an adjective and a verb derived from it, for the most frequent case of palatal mutation was under the influence of the verbal (infinitival) suffix *-ian*. We find the reflexes of Old English palatal mutation in such pairs in present-day English as *sale- sell*; *tell - tale*; *doom - deem*; *full - fill* - in Old English the verb had mutated vowel *tasllan* (from *talian*) whereas the noun had no such mutation - *talū*. As we will see later, plurals of some nouns had a mutated vowel in the stem, which was very much in accordance with the rule-miff- *mys* (mouse-mice), foot - feet. Later developments of sounds in these words blurred the initial identity of the roots.

Diphthongization after palatal consonants. Diphthongs may have resulted from another process in Old English - diphthongization after palatal consonants *sk* \ *k'* and *j* (in spelling *sc*, *c*, *j*): *a* > *ea*, *skal* — *sceal* shall, *scacan* — *sceacan* (shake) *scamu* — *sceamu* (shame) *a* > *ea* *skaggxvon* — *sceawian* (to show) *e* > *ie* *jefan* — *jiefan* (give), *jetan* — *jietan* (get) *ж* > *ea* (the *as* sound was actually derived from *a*) *3&f* - *jeaf* (gave) *jast* - *jeat* (gate) *ж* > *ea* (the *aē* sound was actually derived from *a*), *jar* — *joar* (year) *o* > *eo* *scort* - *sceort* (short), *yong* - *jeonj* (young)

However, there are linguists who still doubt whether the *i* sound (that is the resulting sound, it was actually a diphthong) was pronounced. Some stick to the opinion that the letter *i* simply signified the palatal nature of the preceding sound. The words beginning with *j*, *l* and *c* (such may be found in (he texts) with non-palatalized vowel represent dialects other than West-Saxon (*junj*, *Jefan*) etc.

Back, or Velar Mutation. The formula of mutation here reminds very much that of *Ū* mutation, but the difference is that the syllable that influenced the preced vowel contained a back vowel - *o* or *u* (sometimes even *a* might serve[^] background for back mutation). Not all the dialects had this mutation, and the process was not universal (in West Saxon literary language it occurred only before the sounds *r*, *l*, *p*, *b*, *f*, *ziz*): *i* > *io* *hira* - *Mora* (their); *silufr* - *siolufr* (silver) *sifon* - *siofon* (seven) *liniu* - *liomu* (limbs) *e* > *eo* *heorot* - *heorot* (hart), *hefon* - *lieofon* (heaven) *efor* - *eofor* (boar) *a* > *ea* *saru* - *searu* (armour).

Mutation before *h*. Sounds *a* and *e* that preceded *h* underwent several changes, mutating to diphthongs *ea*, *ie* and finally were reduced to *i/y*: - *naht* - *nealit* - *niht* - *nieht* - *nyht* (night). The second may be quite easily traced to breaking, but the origin of the other three is rather vague. Probably, the very nature of the *h* sound was the reason for further development of the sound.

The words with such mutation are not very numerous, still we cannot ignore them altogether. It is observed in the past tense of the verb *majan* (may) *meahte* - *miehte* - *mihte* - *myhte* and several other words.

Contraction. Somehow or other the consonant *h* proved to have interfered with the development of many sounds. When *h* was placed between two vowels the following changes occurred: *a + h + vowel > ea* *slahan* - *slean* (slay) *e + h + vowel > eo* *selien* - *soon* (see) *i + h + vowel > eo* *tihan* - *teon* (accuse) *o + h + vowel > o* *fohan* - *fon* (catch), *hohan* - *Hon* (hang).

The Old German had no contraction, and this consonant is present the corresponding words - in corresponding present-day German words consonant is still found in spelling, though later it was lost in pronunciation, too (in the words like *sehen*).

These were qualitative changes of vowels; the significant quantitative change that is still felt in present-day English is the lengthening of vowels before the clusters *nd*, *ld*, *mb* - *bindan*, *cild*, *climban* (bind, child, climb). Further development of the sound system led to diphthongization of long vowels, and that explains the exception in the rules of reading the sounds in the closed syllables in the present-day English (the words like *climb*, *find*, *bold*, *told*, *comb*, *bomb*).

Still, if there was a consonant after this cluster the vowel was not lengthened: *cildru* (now children).

As far as other vowel changes, we can also mention gradation, or ablaut - grammatical interchange of vowels in different forms of the verb and in word-formation (чергування голосних у корені слова).

This was frequently found in making past tenses and participles of some verbs (they will be mentioned in studying Old English verbs).

7. Old English Morphology

Pronoun as a part of speech is a very specific class of words; it does not have meaning, it simply points to something mentioned earlier or situated within the range of visibility of the speakers. Hence we can see that pronouns have frequency even greater than they have nowadays when the rules of indication have been worked out and certain correlations established.

There are several types of pronouns in Old English: personal, demonstrative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative. Not all of them are equally developed; they are different in the type of deixis; the very existence of some classes is sometimes disputed. But no one ever denied the existence of:

Personal pronouns, that constitute a system of words replacing nouns; they are also called noun-pronouns.

In Old English they had 3 persons: the first, the second and the third 3 numbers: singular, plural and the remains of the dual number in the second person 3 genders: masculine, feminine, neuter

The table of declension of the personal pronouns is as follows:

<i>Dual</i>		
Nom.	wit	3it
Gen.	<i>uncer</i>	<i>incer</i>
Dat.	Unc	inc
Acc.	uncit	incit, inc
<i>Plural</i>		
Nom.	we	hie, hi, hy, heo
Gen.	<i>ure, user</i>	<i>hira, heora, hiera, hyra</i>
Dat.	us	him, heom
Acc.	usic us	hie, hi, hy, heo

The genitive case of personal pronouns might be used as possessive; the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons were declined, and might be considered a separate class of pronouns; the 3rd person pronouns were not declined (compare them with the Ukrainian - *мій син, моя донька, моє село, мої сини, мого сина* but *його син, його донька, його село, його сини, його сина*).

The personal pronouns seem to preserve in the course of time more forms than the other classes. It is to be noted that the plural form of the personal pronouns is of a specific nature, *we* is not *ic + ic*; it is *ic + бу* or *je*; *J* is not more than one *ðū*, it is *ðū +* someone else, number indefinite.

However it is believed that polite *je* denoting only one person is found very early in the Old English (*for ðy me ðynð betre, Towswe ðyncō- because of this, I think it would be better, if you think so*, writes Alfred politely addressing Warfert bishop in the *Preface* to his translation of *Cura Pastoralis*)

In combination with personal pronouns could also serve as reflexive: *him seolfum; swa ðū self talcist (as thou sayest thyself, or to be more modern, as you yourself say); we ƿæron us sylfe (we may ourselves).*

Demonstrative pronouns are *se*(that) and *ðes* (this), the first indicating something far and the second something near; occasionally in colloquial speech the third pronoun *jeon* — yonder, something still more distant and farther. They had three genders, two numbers and five cases in the singular and four in the plural and agree in number, gender and case with the nouns they modify.

These pronouns are especially important for the development of the language because they are the most frequently used as noun determiners and through agreement it indicated the noun's number, gender and case. That was especially important because in Old English some classes of nouns already had few endings. Besides, in a number of cases they already had a weakened meaning which approached the function of an article. So, for instance, the form of the noun *sum - suna* might render the meanings of the genitive, dative and accusative in the singular and nominative, genitive and accusative in the plural. If it was modified by a demonstrative pronoun, almost no ambiguity arose:

dxs suna - gen.; ðæm suna dat.; done suna accus. sg.; da suna nom., accus., dara suna — gen. pi. des (this) had the following forms in declension.

Pronoun *hwilc* is declined like a strong adjective. *hwilc eower hsefðhundteontij sceapa* (which of you has one hundred sheep?)

and hwilcera manna faeder is /are? (and of which of the men is he the father?)

Definite pronouns include the following: *aē Ic* (each), *jehwa/asjhwa* (everyone), *jehwaet/aejhwset* (everything), *jehwilc/aējhwilc* (each, every), *sender/aejhweder* (each of two, every), *swilc* (such), *se ilea* (the same). All but the last decline like strong adjectives, and *seilca* is always declined weak. *on ddewn lacum* (on each lake) *jehwa cristenra manna* (every Christian man) *an time cymd Ure aejhwylcum* (once (one time) to each of

comes.) *aejhwerde ende II ð on sae* (each of the ends lies on the sea) *se ilea David* (this same David)

Indefinite pronouns include such as *sum*, *aemj*. They are used in preposition to nouns and are declined like strong adjectives. Another indefinite pronoun is *man*, used as in this function in the meaning *any individual, anyone, or people in general* (compare the use of pronoun *they* in present-day English, in combinations like *they say* or *man sagt* in German).

hē at *sumum cirre* wolde fandian (at some time he wanted to explore...) *aenij here don mihte* (that any army could do) *man sceolde* his here metian and horsian (that his army should be fed and supplied with horses)

Negative pronouns are formed by fusion of a negative particle *ne*-with indefinite pronoun *aenij* and numeral *an* in its pronominal function. They are *nan* and *naenij*, and are declined like the corresponding words without the particle *ne*-him *nae nij* widstod (no one opposed him) *nan* man ne bude benorSan him (no one lived to the north of him) Relative pronoun *ðe* is found fairly often in Old English texts, it introduced relative clauses and was later replaced by a group of pronouns and adverbs {*that, which, where, when, how*:

on dam aeftran jeare ðe se arcebiscop wses Jem arty rod (on the next year *in which or when* the archbishop was tortured to death...);

si o sci r hatte Halgoland ðe he on bude (his shire (land) *on which* he lived was called Helgoland).

Most historians agree that the number of *adjectives* in Old English not very significant. There are primary adjectives, dating back from old times and derivative adjectives made by adjective-forming suffixes H nouns. The adjectives of those times are similar to our Slavic adjectives, that is, this part of speech agrees with the noun it modifies in number, gender and case. Consequently, the adjectives have the same categories as the nouns do. Besides, they have categories which are purely adjectival.

The adjective in Old English had the following categories: number - the singular and the plural; gender - masculine, neuter and feminine; case 4/5 (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and partly instrumental).

Besides, the adjectives had two declensions, strong and weak (we may compare them to 2 forms in Ukrainian *зелений гай* /*зелен клен*, though in Ukrainian the second is found only in the nominative case, or Russian *красная лента/красна девица*, where the indirect cases of the latter combination will be *красны девицы, красну девицу*, etc.). The weak form

of the adjective is used after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun or a noun in the genitive case, no matter whether the adjective is before the noun or after it and may be a stable epithet to the noun. When the adjective is not so accompanied, or is preceded by an adjective of quantity or number, it is declined strong.

Specifically adjectival categories are the degrees of comparison - the positive, the comparative and the superlative. These are characteristic only for the qualitative adjectives.

All in all, each adjective might theoretically have up to sixty forms. In reality there are much fewer forms, because not all the adjectives had degrees of comparison, and case and gender endings in many cases might coincide (compare in Ukrainian: *великий будинок, велика кімната, велике вікно- великі будинки/ кімнати/вікна; великого будинку/вікна*).

The paradigm of adjectives was rich in forms. The same endings were found in declension of participles that were declined in Old English and agreed with the nouns they modified (for comparison we may take Ukrainian case endings that are almost the same for the adjectives and for the participles).

Qualitative adjectives had degrees of comparison (positive, comparative and superlative). The forms of the comparative and the superlative degree are made synthetically, by adding suffixes *-ra* and *-ost*. *est. soft - softra - softost* (soft) *blaze - blsecra - blacost* (black) The number of syllables in the adjective did not affect the rule - even polysyllabic adjectives may take these suffixes.

The above table of conjugation of verbs shows that the means of building grammatical forms differed in Old English for different groups of verbs. Most forms were made by means of vowel interchange or grammatical suffixes accompanied (or not) by inflections; one form - Participle 2 was formed either by vowel interchange or by a suffix and was sometimes marked by prefix. In addition, there are verbs that had suppletive forms.

The majority of Old English verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. In addition to these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as "minor" groups. The main difference between these groups lies in the way they form the principal forms- besides there were a few other differences in conjugation. Accordingly, the verbs may be divided into the following groups: **strong, weak, preterite-present, suppletive.**

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation and by adding certain inflections and suffixes; in some verbs gradation was accompanied by changes of consonants, but these were mainly due to the activity of assimilative phonetic processes of the period (assimilation before *t*, loss of consonants, rhotacism or Verner's Law). There were four basic forms (stems) of the strong verbs, and the use of the stems was as follows:

I - the stems with this vowel are used in the infinitive, the present tense indicative and subjunctive, the imperative mood and participle I;

II - in the past tense singular, the 1st and the 3rd person

III - in the past tense plural, 2nd person singular and Past Subjunctive

IV- in the form of the Participle II.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and that of Participle II by adding dental suffix *-d-* and *-t-* normally they did not change their root vowels apart from the cases when assimilative changes split these sounds into diphthongs.

In the preterite-present forms both ways were used; these verbs will be mentioned separately.

Suppletive verbs are what their name implies - they formed their forms from different stems or had peculiarities in formation of their paradigm. Two anomalous verbs *beon/wesan* and *don't* have other peculiarities of the paradigm.

8. Word-building in Old English

Apart from taking words from other languages, there were internal ways of enriching the vocabulary - word-building techniques. These were: morphological - creating new words by adding new morphemes; syntactic - building new words from syntactic groups; semantic - developing new meanings of the existing words.

Morphological word-building is the way of adding morphemes to make new words, known as affixation. Here we distinguish two major groups of affixes - prefixes and suffixes, infixes being non-characteristic for the English language. So affixation comprises suffixation and prefixation. Suffix is a morpheme that is added to the root-morpheme and which modifies its lexical meaning. Additionally, they may (and in the majority of cases do) transfer the word into another part of speech. In this treatment they will be classified according to the principle of what part of speech is formed by means of this or that suffix.

Noun-suffix *-ere* was used to form masculine nouns from stems of nouns and verbs, denoted the profession or the doer of the action (it is related to Gothic *-areis*, Lat. *-arius*): *fiscere* (fisherman), *wrltere* (writer), *bocere* (bookman), *fnjelere* (fowler, bird-catcher), *dröwere* (sufferer), *jedeahtere* (councillor), *rypere* (robber). The corresponding feminine suffix was *-estre*: *bsecestre* (woman baker), *spinnestre* (spinner), *witejestre* (prophetess), *myltestre* (prostitute).

The suffix *-end* was used to form masculine nouns from verb stems (originally the suffix of Participle II): *freond* (friend), *deinend* (judge), *feond* (hater), *haelend* (savior), *lidend* (traveller), *waldend* (ruler), *freetend* (sailor), *ceasterbüend* (citizen of a fortified town). Suffix *-inj* – was masculine. It was used to derive patronimics and to form emotionally coloured diminutives: *cyninj* (king), *eedelinj* (son of a nobleman), *dincdferdinj* (son of öincöferö), *Eanuwlfinj* (son of Eanwulf), *Wzennundinj* (son of Wasrmund), *eanninj* (poor fellow).

The suffix *linj*- variant of *-inj*; forms prevalently emotionally marked nouns from adjectives: *deorlinj* (darling), *lytlinj* (baby). The emotional connotation was also negative: *hyrlinj* (hireling). The suffix *-en* formed feminine nouns from noun stems: *jyden* (goddess), *fyxen* (female fox, vixen), *maejden* (maiden). Suffixes *-nis*, *-nes* formed feminine abstract nouns from adjectives: *jödnis* (goodness), *beorhtnes* (brightness), *hdlijnes* (holiness),

A group of derivational morphemes used in Old English may be called semi- or half-suffixes: they originated from nouns and still preserve to some extent their original meaning (compare the status of *-man* in *policeman*, *spokesman*, *sportsman* etc.): *-dan* (the noun *Ja*» meant 'doom')*freodan* (freedom), *wisdän* wisdom), *wölulöm* (unjust judgment), *swlcdctn* (betrayal); *-lác* (the noun *lác* meant 'gift, game') formed abstract nouns: *rcoflác* (robbery), *wedldc* (wedlock), *sein Id c* (fantasy, ghost - from *sclnan* - shine, appear), *wrohtldc* (calumny); *-rseden* (the noun *zascien* meant 'arrangement, agreement'): *fremdrsedn* (friendship), *mannrseden* (faithfulness); now we find it in such nouns as *hatered*, *kindred*; *-scipe/scype* (the verb *scieppan* meant 'to shape, create') formed abstract and collective nouns from noun stems: *hkifordscipe* (lordship), *freondscipe* (friendship), *folcscipe* (people), *deodscype* (people, population), *jebeorscipe* (conviviality, festivity). The suffix *-had* (the original noun *had* meant 'title, rank') formed abstract nouns from noun stems: *cildluid* (childhood), *meejdlwd* (maidenhood, virginity), *weoruldhcid* (secular life).

While noun-forming suffixes might retain the stem within its former category simply adding some meaning to it, adjective-forming suffixes invariably change the part of speech appurtenance of the stem. They are very rarely if ever added to adjective-stems but form adjectives that represent some quality in relation to some notion which is expressed in a noun or a verb: *-ede* (is related to Participle II suffix *-d*): *höcede* (hooked), *drJheafdede* (three-headed); *-en*: *jyliden* (golden), *wyllen* (woolen), *liazden* (heathen).

Adverb-forming suffix *-e* was usually added to adjective stems; this was a productive way of word-building: *wul-* *wide* (wide - widely), *hmj-lanje* (long - for a long time), *faest -fseste* (firm, fast - firmly), *histfullic - lustfulUce* (willing - willingly), *fxstlic -fssstüce* (steadfast - steadfastly). *södlíc - södlice* (true - truly), *lahlic* (lawful) - *lahlice* (lawfully)

Verbs were formed by adding the suffix *-an/ian*, *-ettan* to noun, adjective and adverb stems, sometimes this process was accompanied by adding prefixes: *hdlja* (saint) - *hdljian* (consecrate); *jeliiersum* (obedient) - *jehlersumian* (obey), *clalne* (clean) - *clLensian* (to cleanse), *Id ð* (hate, injury) - *lädettan* (to hate), *hdl* (whole, healthy) - *hälettan* (to greet, to wish health), *wyrse* (worse) - *wyrsian* (worsen), *yfel* (bad)-*yfelian* (worsen).

The use of prefixes in Old English was a productive way of forming new words, and their number exceeds that of prefixes in modern times. They were especially frequent with the verbs:

jdn - go
d-jdn - go away
be-jan - go round
fore-jdn - precede
ofer-jdn - traverse
je-jan - go, go away
settan - to place
a-settan - to place
be- settan - to appoint
for- settan - to obstruct
fore- settan - to place before
je- settan - to populate
of- settan - to afflict
on- settan - to oppress
to- settan - to dispose
nn- settan - to put down
wid- settan - to resist

Comparing the two sets of derivatives, one can see that the same prefix may add different shades of meaning to the stem. If such prefixes as *fore-* or *over-* are more or less transparent (their original prepositional meanings are preserved), one can hardly explain why are so different additional shades of meaning in the pairs *jdn* - *be-jdn* and *settan* - *besettan*. So the meaning of the prefix can be specified only in some cases, and as the same prefix may be added to several parts of speech, there is no point in classifying them along any line. Suffice it to say that the most frequent and important prefixes are: *ā-* *a-arincan* (to drown), *ateon* (to draw up), *arlsan* (to arise), *dbujan* (to bow to), *afandian* (to examine), *afön* (to receive), *dhelpan* (to help), *dslacian* (to become slack), *adrasfan* (to drive out, exile); *ast- setfleon* (to escape), *asthrihan* (to touch), *astsacan* (to deny), *aetlutan* (to hide from), *astwitan* (to reproach), *astwindan* (to escape from); *be- becuman* (to happen to), *bestri(e)pan* (to bestrip, plunder), *bethbcan* (to show), *beswican* (to deceive), *beascian* (to ask for advice), *bemetan* (to measure), *bestelan* (to steal away), *behatan* (to promise); *je-* (perfective) *jewrltan* (to write), *jesettan* (to populate), *jewinnan* (to win), *jewendan* (to proceed), *jewlfian* (to marry), *jetwaefan* (to separate); *je-* (with nouns collective, abstract meaning) *jetrywð* (loyalty, troth), *jedanc* (thought, mind), *jeweald* (power, control), *jebroöor* (brothers; comp. Ukr. *браття*), *jebtero* (behaviour, bearing), *jeldc* (tumult, commotion), *jefeolit* (battle, fight),

jesyntu (prosperity); *for-* (adds the idea of destruction or loss) *fordön* (to destroy), *fomiman* (to take away), *forlaftan* (to leave), *forseon* (to overlook, neglect), *io Herman* (to reduce to poverty), *forbseman* (to burn up), *forbeodan* (to forbid), *forbujan* (to avoid), *forcuman* (to overcome), *forhabban* (to abstain from); *in-* *inbrinjan* (bringin), *inbiyrdnis* (inspiration), *indufan* (to dive in), *injan j* (entrance, beginning), *in jedanc* (hidden thought); *mis-* (negative) *misllcian* (to dislike), *misbeodan* (to ill-use), *mislimpan* (to go wrong), *miscwedan* (curse), *mishieran* (to disobey), *misdynan* (to give a wrong idea); *of-* *ofslean* (to kill), *ofsceamian* (to put to shame), *ofteon* (to deprive), *ofdyncan* (to displease), *ofunnan* (to refuse to grant), *ofsprinj* (offspring); *ofer-* (over) *oferseon* (to oversee), *ofercuman* (to overcome), *oferstljan* (to rise over), *oferferan* (to traverse); *on-* *ondredan* (to dread), *oncndwan* (to perceive), *onfindan* (to discover), *onsfapan* (to fall asleep), *onstellan* (to establish), *onlaenan* (to lend), *onlihtan* (to give light), *oiiseon* (to look on) *od-* *odfeallan* (to fall away), *odfleon* (to flee), *odsacan* (to deny), *odwitan* (to charge); *un-* (negative) *uncUd{unknown}*, *unforworht* (innocent), *unfrid* (enmity), *unlaju* (violations of law), *unlytel* (not little), *unscrydan* (undress), *uncrseft* (evil practice), *undsed* (evil deed), *unjylde* (excessive tax), *unrim* (countless), *unrilu* (injustice), *unweder* (storm, bad weather); *under-* *underjietan* (to understand), *underfön* (to receive), *underöeodan* (to subject to), *undersceotan* (to intercept); *ut-* (out) *utfidan* (to ride out), *utrassan* (to rush out); *wid-* *widewedan* (to reply), *widjripan* (to grapple), *widmetan* (to compare), *widascan* (to refuse), *widlmbban* (to resist), *widscorian* (to refuse).

Composition was one more way of word-building in Old English. The essence of composition as syntactic word-building is in making a new word from two or more stems. The number of compound words in Old English is significant, some of them were periphrastic nominations for some common notions and form special stylistic devices in epic poems (kennings).

The most common patterns are: N + N *äc-treö* (oak tree), *sten-brycg* (stone-bridge), *böc-crabfl* (literature), *xlmesjifu* (alms, charity), *aslmesriht* (right of receiving alms), *folclaju* (public law), *hwselhunta* (whalehunter), *cradocild* (a child in cradle, infant), *see man* (seaman), *wiMertM* (winter time), *horshweel* (walrus); Adj+N *cwicseolfor* (quicksilver), *Jöd-daed* (good deed), *Westsse* (Western sea), *wid- wej* (wide road), *ealdorbisceop* (high priest), *ealdorman* (noble man), *eald-jesJd* (old companion), *hraed-wyrde* (hasty of speech), *swyd-ferhd* (bold, rash); N + V *lustfuUian* (rejoice); V+N *bsec-hüs* (bakery); N+Adj/PII *win-sled* (drunk, satiated with wine), *bealo-*

hydij (ev]]-m\nded), *feorh- seoc* (mortally wounded), *jilp-hlaeden* (full of praise), *hrim-ceald* (frost-cold), *ealdor-lanj* (age-long), *sumor-lanj* (summer-long); Adj + Adj *heard-saslij* (unfortunate); I'll + N *boljen-möd* (having an angry mind); Adv + V *asfterfidjan* (follow, come after), *underbade* (behind).

There are compounds made from three and ever more stems; they may have derivative morphemes too: *ryhtfaederencyn* (*lyht+faederen-cyn*) direct paternal ancestry, *ryhtnordamvind* (*ryht+nordan+wind*) good wind from the north.

Among the compound words there are a lot of poetic metaphoric circumlocutions called kennings. Some notions, such as battle, warrior, had a great number of such periphrastic nomination (synonymic group of warrior, for instance had 37 such nominations only in "Beowulf")- Some examples of such words are: *jdr-berend* (spear-carrier), *jär-wija* (spear warrior), *sweord-freca* (sword-hero), *jud-beorn* (battle warrior), *jud-freca* (battle hero), *jud-rinc* (man of war, warrior), *inajo-rinc* (relative warrior), *jud-wine* (war friend), *lind-hsebbend* (shield owner), *hilde-deor* (battle beast), *nmdhaebend* (shield-owner), *jud-hafoc* (battle hawk), *liildemecj* (battle man), *here-rinc* (army hero), *dom-jeorn* (eager for fame), *byrn-wija* (armour-clad warrior) and many others.

Other notions that had synonymous kennings are: human body: *bän-eofa* (bone chamber), *bän-hüs* (house of bones) *bdn-loc*a (bone-enclosure), *lic-hdina* (body-home), *fläesc-liäm* (home for flesh), *ferhd-loc*a (spirit-enclosure); battle: *waspen-jewrixl* (weapon-exchange), *jdr-niittiinj* (encounter of spears), *citmbol-jeluuist* (collision of banners); sea: *sejl-rdd* (sail road), *laju-flöd* (water flood), *laju-ldd* (water way).

Semantic word-building is actually a metaphoric extension of meaning of a word to name something other, similar to original word in some respects. Here belong: *mud* (mouth, part of human face) —> (Humbra) *mud* (mouth, part of the river, here Humber), *wendan* (to turn) —> *wendan* (to translate), *weorc* (work) —> *weorc* (fortress) etc.

9. Principal features of Old English Syntax

Old English was largely a synthetic language. It possessed a system of grammatical forms which could indicate the connection between words. It was primarily a spoken language. Therefore the written forms of the language resembled oral speech. The syntax of Old English sentence was relatively simple. Coordination of clauses prevailed over subordination. Complicated syntactical constructions were rare. The syntactic structure of Old English can be described at the level of phrases and at the level of sentences. There were great varieties of word phrases in Old English: noun, adjective, verb patterns. They have their specific features. Noun pattern consisted of a noun as the head word and pronoun, adjective (verbal adjectives or particles), numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number, case. Nouns which served as attributes to other nouns usually had the form of Genitive case. Adjective patterns included verbs, nouns, pronouns with or without prepositions in the non-direct cases and infinitives. Verb patterns included a lot of dependent components: nouns, pronouns, infinitives, particles. Infinitives and particles were often used in verb phrases with verbs of incomplete predication (some of phrases were later transformed into analytical forms).

The main types of syntactic relations existed in Old English were **agreement, government, joining**. Agreement is one of the way of expressing syntactic relations when different words, especially adjectives and nouns were agreed in case (genitive in particular), in tantum, in gender. In government one word stands in this or that form (case) due to the other word which governs it. Joining deals with the parts of speech which have unchangeable forms (adverbs in particular). In Old English phrases attribute could precede or follow the head noun. Negations were not limited in number. The most common negative particle *ne* was placed before verbs. Verbs were often accompanied by negative words *nāht*, *nōht*, that had developed from particle *ne*. *Nōht* was lately shortened to *not* — a new negative particle. Particle *ne* attached to some verbs, pronouns, adverbs to form single words: *nān* — *ne an* — *not one*.

Parts of the sentence were represented in Old English by the Subject, the Predicate, the Object, the Attribute, the Adverbial Modifier, the Apposition. Predicates could be simple and compound (modal, verbal and nominal). Attributive groups were short. There were very few predicate

constructions. For example absolute constructions with the noun in Dative case were sometimes used in translation from Latin to imitate the Latin *Dativus Absolutus*. The objective predicative constructions (accusative with infinitive) occurred in original Old English. Predicative constructions after *habban* (*had*) contained Past Participle.

The word order in the sentence was relatively free. The presence of formal markers made it possible to miss out some parts of the sentence, which would be obligatory in an English sentence now. The Subject was not repeated but the form of the predicate showed that the action was performed by the same person as the preceding action. The formal subject was lacking in many impersonal sentences (though it was present in others). The position of the words in the sentence was often determined by logical and stylistic factors. But the word order depended on the communicative type of the sentence – a question or a statement, on the type of clause, on the presence and place of some secondary parts of the sentence. Inversion was used in questions. Full inversion was used with simple predicates and partial – with compound predicates, containing link verbs and modal verbs. If a sentence began with an adverbial modifier, the word order was inverted.

A peculiar type of word order is found in many subordinate and some coordinate clauses. The clause began with the subject followed the connective and ended with the predicate or its finite part, all the secondary parts being enclosed between them. This is the type of synthetic word order, i.e. secondary parts were inserted between the subject and the predicate or its parts. Compound and complex sentences existed in the English language since the earliest times. Coordinate clauses were mostly joined by *and*. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles have a lot of sentences which begin with *and*. Repetition of connectives at the head of each clause was common in complex sentences. Attributive clauses were joined to the principal clauses by means of various connectives, as there was no special class of relative pronouns in Old English. The main connective was the indeclinable particle *þe*, employed either alone or together with demonstrative and personal pronouns. The pronoun and conjunction *þæt* was used to introduce object and adverbial clauses, alone or with other form-words. Some clauses were intermediate between coordinate and subordinate. The joined asyndetically and their status was not clear. The structure of the complex sentences was greatly improved due to King Alfred, the greatest writer of the late 10-th – early 11-th centuries, who employed a variety of connectives that indicated the relations between the clauses with greater clarity and precision.

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