People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education
Hassiba Ben Bouali University of Chlef
Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of English

First-Year Master's Pedagogical Handbook of the History of the English Language

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Academic Year: 2024-2025

History of the English Language

First-Year Master's Lectures on History of the English Language

Course Description

These lectures make first-year Master's students acquainted with the subject of History of the English Language. They entail illustrations of the linguistic shifts that occurred throughout the history of the English language, particularly in the old and middle eras. The main objective of the lectures on the History of the English Language is to provide students with an understanding of how English has evolved over time, including its origins, changes, and influences from other languages, such as Germanic languages, Norse, French, and Latin. These lectures also equip students with a historical perspective on English and offer them insights into the pronunciation, grammar, structure, and lexicon of the language at different historical stages, mainly the Old and Middle English linguistic epochs.

Course details

Course title: History of the English Language

Credit hours: 1h30 per week

N° of weeks: 14-16 Weeks/ Semester (21.30 hours/S)

Level: M1

Coefficient: 1

Credits: 1

UED 1 (O/P): Evolution of the English Language

Evaluation Method: An examination per semester

Course Prerequisites

In order to attain a good understanding of the history of the English language, the students should have a prior knowledge of: 1) the linguistic system of English, including phonology, morphology and syntax; 2) the outcomes of language contact; 3) history of England and its political, cultural, and social developments.

Course Objectives

Semester 1: Old English

- By the end of the semester, the students will have acquired an insight into the origins of the English language.
- The students will have understood one of the major historical periods and the oldest version of the English language (OE).
- The students will have understood the major changes in English sounds, grammar, syntax and lexicon.
- A room will have been given to the students to discuss the most prominent aspect of the OE.

Semester 2: Middle English

- The students will have understood one of the major historical periods and the new version of the English language, Middle English (ME), spoken from 1150 to 1500.
- The students will comprehend the significant alterations in English sounds, grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.
- The students will be given a room to discuss the most significant component of the ME.

Preface

This pedagogical handbook, designed for first-year master's students, is an introduction to the history of the English language. Its major objective is to provide the students with insights into the evolution of the English language, particularly how Middle English (ME) evolved from Old English (OE) and into the characteristics of both versions, starting from the smallest unit – the speech sound and spelling systems – through grammar to the largest unit – the sentence and the loanwords.

This work is an outcome of about ten years of experience. Before Covid-19, the History of the English Language lectures were performed on-site. Since then, this module has been taught online. The first and second semesters, devoted to Old and Middle English, respectively, entail four units, giving attention to: 1) the English language of the two epochs; 2) its spelling and sound systems; 3) its grammar; and 4) its lexicon.

It is noteworthy that a course may require more than one session, depending on the points discussed, the learner's needs and their academic achievement.

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OLD ENGLISH

Semester 1: Old English

Lecture Plan

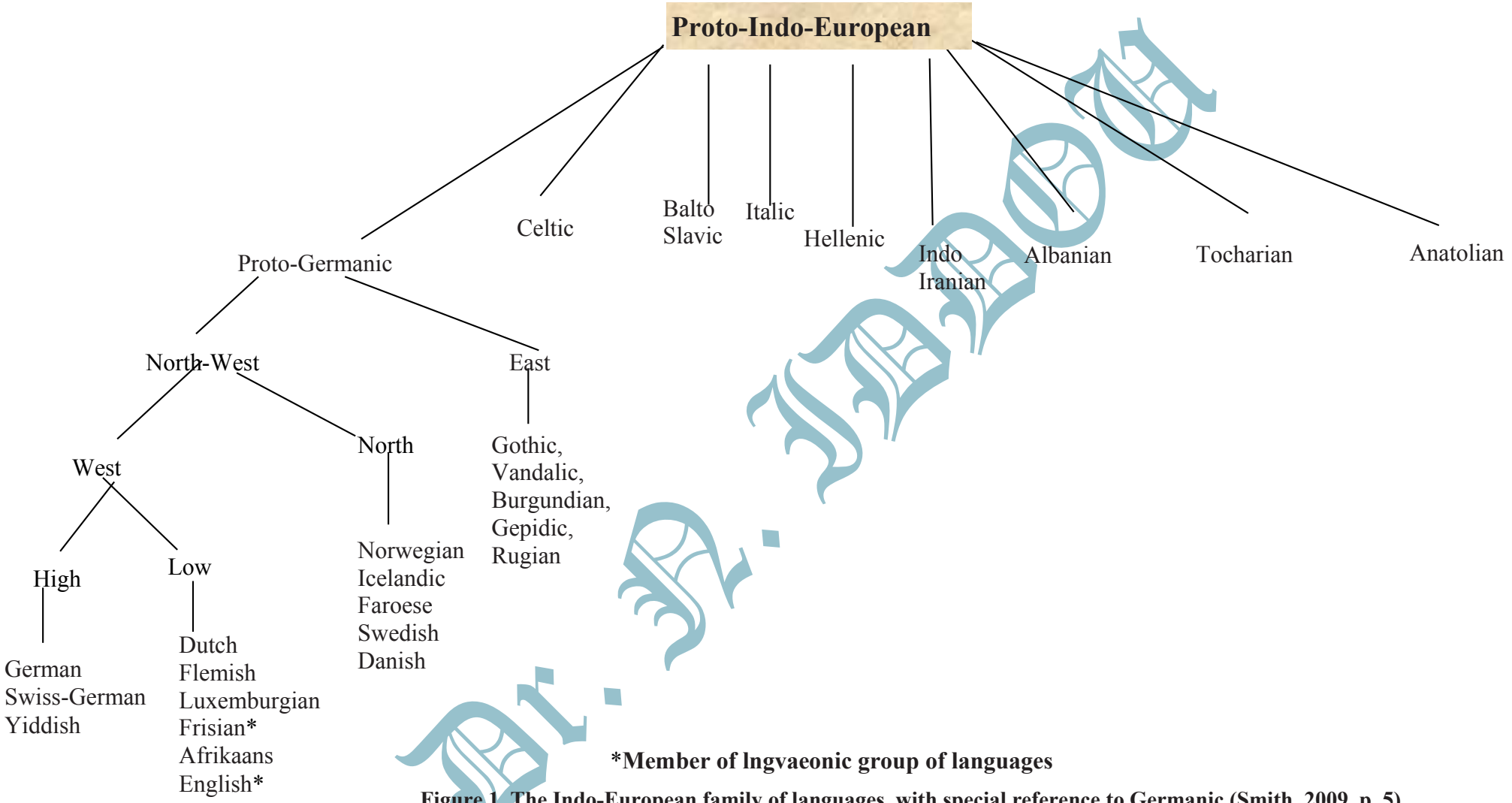
Unit:1	**Old English**
Title of the lecture: English Language	
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min	
Pre-requisites: Knowledge of the language	
Objectives of the lecture: Providing the students with an insight into the English language	
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity): The phase involves asking the students to provide the definition of the English language.	
Students' Outcomes: By the end of the lecture, the students will have had a landscape of English	
Lecture components: **1.** Introduction to the English Language **2.** English, the Proto-Germanic Language **3.** English Distinct Periods	
Informative Assessment: -Asking students questions to gauge their level of understanding.	
Exit File: Recapitulating the definition of English, its origins and historical development.	

1. Introduction to the English Language

English is a West Germanic language that originated in early mediaeval England and has developed into a global lingua franca. It evolved under the influence of other languages, such as Old Norse, Latin, and French, and is known for its extensive vocabulary and flexibility. Currently, English is extensively utilised in global communication, scientific discourse, commerce, education, and media.

2. English, the Proto-Germanic Language

English is part of a vast family of related languages called the Indo-European language family, spoken throughout extensive regions, particularly Europe, and certain regions of Asia. English evolved from one of the Germanic languages that emerged in the first millennium BC in northern Europe (Smith, 2009). The language of the first Germanic people was Proto-Germanic, which is Proto-East and Proto-North-West. The latter, in turn, gave birth to Proto-North Germanic, from which originated Present-Day Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, and Faroese, and Proto-West Germanic, from which evolved Present-Day German, Dutch, Frisian, Afrikaans, and English.



***Member of lngvaeonic group of languages**

Figure 1. The Indo-European family of languages, with special reference to Germanic (Smith, 2009, p. 5)

3. English Distinct Periods

English has witnessed an impressive and captivating change and evolution throughout history linguistically, culturally, socially, and politically. Scholars have categorized this historical development into three distinct periods or eras: Old English (OE) from 450 to 1150, Middle English (ME) from 1150 to 1500, Early Modern English, which has been in use and written from 1500 to 1700, and Present-day English (PDE) since 1700.

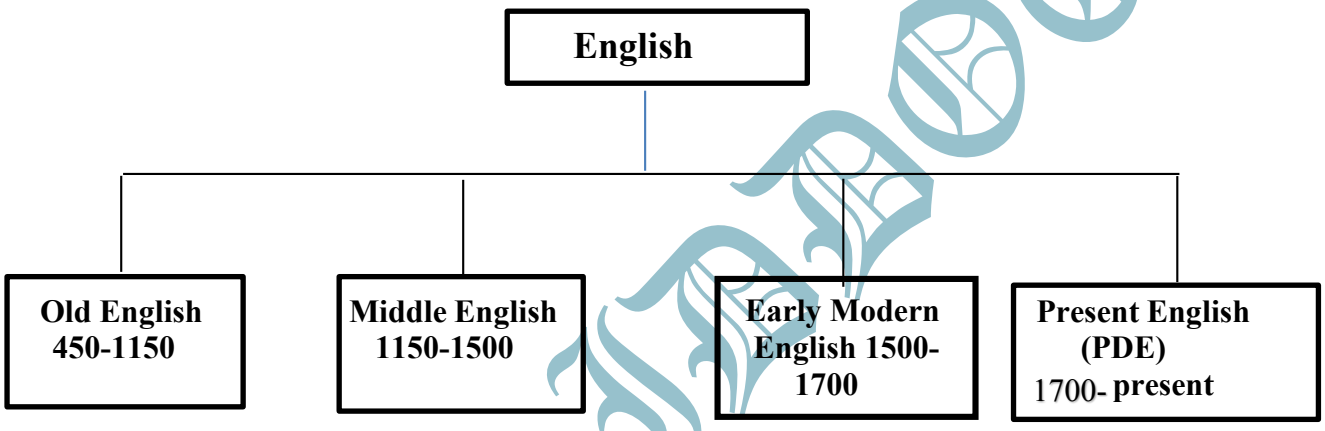


Figure 2. Periods of the English language

Lecture Plan

Unit:1 **Old English**
Title of the lecture: Old English
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the language and history of Britain
Objectives of the lecture Providing the students with an insight into Old English and its linguistic features.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves writing Old English words or sentences on the board and then letting the students guess what language it is.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have had an overview of Old English
Lecture components **1.** Old English. **2.** OE Linguistic Features **3.** OE Spelling and Phonological Systems
Informative Assessment -Evaluating the students' comprehension by asking them questions.
Exit File Recapitulating Old English, its linguistic feature and its spelling and phonological systems.

1. Old English

Old English (OE), also previously known as Anglo-Saxon, was the oldest version of the English language, spoken and written in England from 450 to 1150. The emerging word 'Anglo-Saxon' in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the commonest name for the OE, was adapted in the seventeenth century from Latin "Anglo-Saxionicus" (Quirk & Wrenn, 1957). It emerged following the Anglo-Saxon colonisation of Britain, which united several Germanic tribes, including the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The offspring of these migrants were known as "gens anglorum" (English people), a community brought together by their common language (Momma & Matto, 2008). This era witnessed the language taking shape dependently on a number of influences, notably the Celtic languages of the indigenous Britons and the Latin from the Roman occupation. The Viking invasions of the 8th and 9th centuries brought Old Norse influences into the language, enriching its vocabulary and changing its grammatical structure. Two major time periods divide OE history: Early OE, which spans from roughly 700 CE to 900, and Late OE, which spans from roughly 900 to 1100.

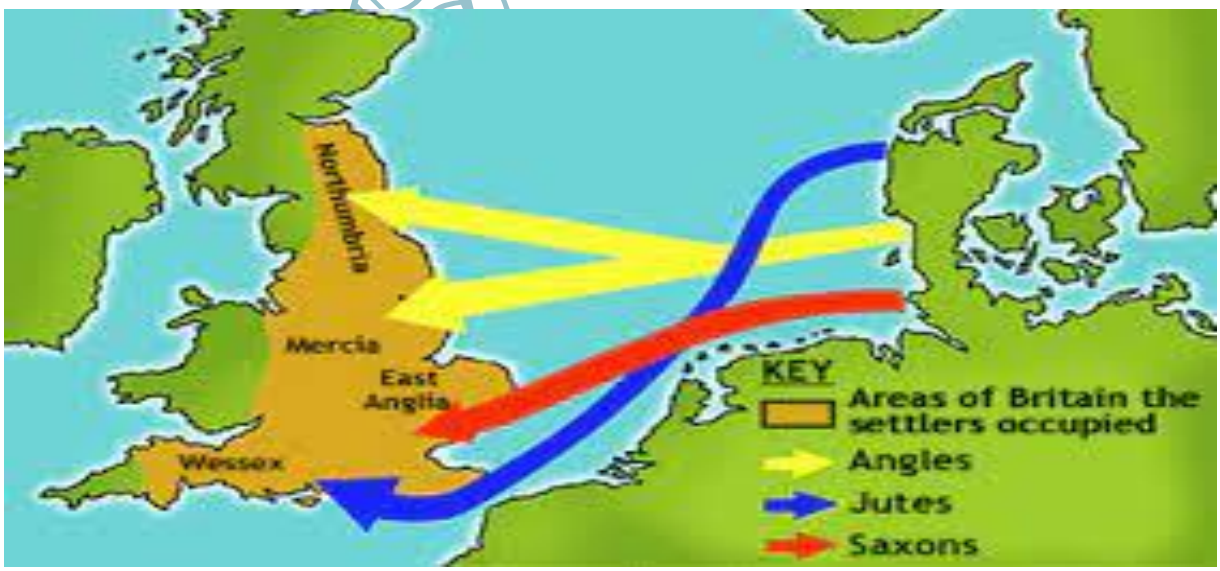


Figure 3. The Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes colonising Britain

2. OE Linguistic Features

The linguistic features of Old English illustrate its extensive historical background, including a unique phonology, intricate inflectional system, and varied lexicon. Comprehending the linguistic characteristics of Old English not only elucidates the language itself but also uncovers the cultural and historical narratives that influenced its development. OE linguistic features which significantly differed from Modern English as illustrated below:

3. OE Spelling and Phonological Systems

Old English, with its diverse range of consonants and vowels, significantly contributed to the development of modern English. Modern English scripts still retain most Old English scripts, which served as a starting point for Modern English spelling and pronunciation, while some have disappeared or shifted to other sounds. These changes may be **external**, due to factors like language contact, or **internal**, due to children transforming vowels and consonants of the language they are exposed to, based on their observations and how the new generations of speakers perceive and use the language (Gelderen, 2006). It is commonly asserted that Old English lacked 'silent' graphemes (letters), such that each grapheme corresponded to a phoneme. For instance, <c> in cnoll / knoll /, meaning 'summit' in PDE, and the <w> in wrecan /wreak /, meaning 'avenge' in PDE (Smith, 2009).

A a	Æ æ	B b	C c	D d	Ð ð	E e	F f
a	ash	be	ce	de	eth	e	eff
a	æ	b	c	d	ð	e	f
[ɑ/ɑ:]	[æ/æ:]	[b/v]	[k/ʧ]	[d]	[θ/ð]	[e/e:]	[f/v]
G ȝ	H h	I ı	L l	M m	N n	O o	P p
yogh	há	i	ell	emm	enn	o	pe
ȝ (g)	h	i	l	m	n	o	p
[g/ɣ/j/ʤ]	[h/ç/x]	[ɪ/i:]	[l]	[m]	[n/ŋ]	[o/o:]	[p]
R ɾ	S ſ ʃ	T t	U u	P ƿ	X x	Y ẏ	Þ þ
err	ess	te	u	wynn	eks	yr	thorn
r	s	t	u	ƿ (w)	x	y	þ
[r]	[s/z]	[t]	[u]	[w]	[ks/xs/çs]	[y/y:]	[θ/ð]

Figure 4. Old English alphabet and the sounds they represent in IPA

Lecture Plan

Unit:2 Old English Spelling & Sound Systems
Title of the lecture: Old English Consonants
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the English language consonants
Objectives of the lecture Yielding students an understanding of Old English consonants
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves asking the students the question about the English sounds they know
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have grasped the Old English consonantal system.
Lecture components Old English Consonants **1.** Consonant Clusters **2.** Consonant Gemination
Informative Assessment Evaluating the students' comprehension by comparing Old English Vs. Modern English consonantal systems.
Exit File Summarising Old English consonantal system.

Old English Consonants

Many OE consonants have the same sounds as their PDE equivalents (Gelderen, 2006; Smith, 2009).

<b>: in **b**indan, meaning 'bind'.

<p>: in **p**rēost, meaning 'priest'.

<t>: in **t**unge, meaning 'tongue'.

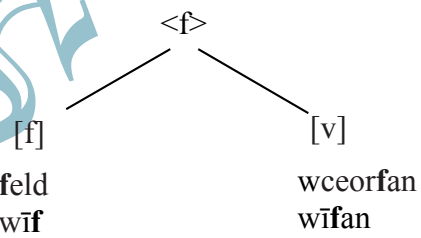
<d>: in **d**ēofol, meaning 'devil'.

<m>: in **m**acian, meaning 'make'.

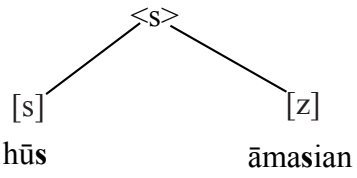
<n>: in **n**ama, meaning 'name'.

<w>: in **w**īd, meaning 'wide'.

<f>: at the very beginning, the grapheme **<f>** had not its **<v>**counterpart. Therefore, people pronounce [f] initially, finally, or next to voiceless consonants, and [v] elsewhere, such as in intervocalic positions (between two vowels). For instance, **f**eld, meaning 'field', wceor**f**an, meaning 'cut, carve', and wī**f**an, meaning 'wives'.

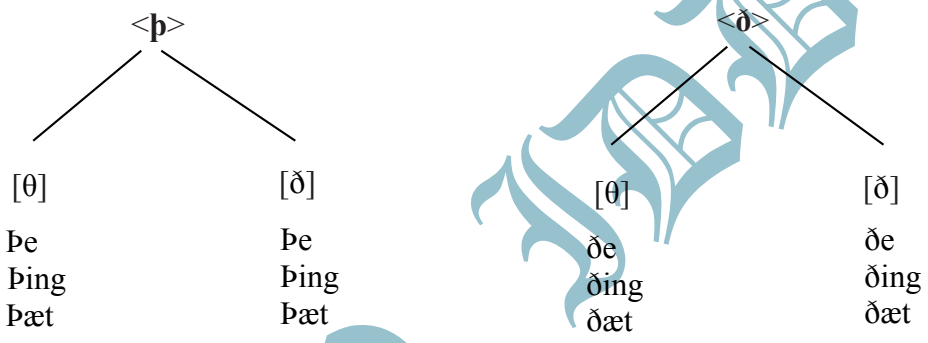


<s>: this grapheme also had not its **<z>** counterpart. Based on its phonetic context, we pronounce it as [s] initially, finally, or next to voiceless consonants, and as [z] elsewhere, such as in intervocalic positions (between two vowels). For example, hūs 'house', āmasian 'amaze'.



OE words, initially pronounced with [v] and [z], are loans coming, respectively, from French (or Latin via French), and from Greek. Greek emerged in the 16th and 17th centuries, exerting a significant influence on OE. Examples of French loan terms include veal, village, veil, vain, and vital; Greek loan terms entail zoo, zodiac, zebra, zenith, zinc, zombi, and zone (Gelderen, 2006).

<þ> and **<ð>:** these graphemes, that stand for voiceless and voiced dental fricatives [θ], [ð], were used interchangeably. Examples would be pronouns þe or ðe, 'who' or 'that'; Þing or ðing, 'thing'; þæt or ðæt, 'that' (adverb).



<c>: this grapheme represented a set of sounds, based on its phonetic context. It was pronounced [k] when preceded or followed by one of the back vowels / a, o, u /, or followed by a consonant, e.g., sceo**c** 'shake or shock'; bōc 'book'; cāf 'keen' or 'eager.'; cōl 'cool'; cū 'cow'; cyning 'king'; cnāwan 'know'. It is also pronounced [k] when precede by a front vowel, in words like līc 'body'; sprǣc 'speech or language'.

It is pronounced [tʃ] when followed by the front vowels /e, i/ in words like ceorl 'man' or 'peasant'; cild 'child' cēace 'cheek'

<g>: it was pronounced [g] initially after back vowels or consonants, e.g., gast 'ghost', god 'good'. It was also pronounced as [j] initially and medially before i /ī, e/ē, as in gīet 'yet'; gē 'you'; þegen 'thane'. Another sound represented by <g> was a **voiced palatal fricative**, very

close to a strongly aspirated [j] as it might be stressed in year. This realisation occurs before or after front vowels, e.g., stigrap ‘stirrup’. However, in words in which front vowels were originally back vowels, the grapheme <g> was pronounced /**g**/, e.g., ges ‘geese’ from Germanic g**a**nsiz; gylt ‘guilt’ from Germanic g**u**ltiz; gyrdan ‘to gird’ from Germanic g**u**rdjan (Williams, 1975).

The grapheme **<g>** was also pronounced as [ɣ], Arabic /غ/, inside a word before or after a back vowel, e.g, lagu [laɣu] ‘law’; and between <l, r>, and back vowels, e.g., hālga ‘saint’, and after back vowels, as in genōg ‘enough’.

<**h**>**:** Initially, this grapheme was usually pronounced as [h] that we use today, e.g., hāl ‘whole’ or ‘healthy’; hūs ‘house’; hæð ‘heath’ or ‘moor’. After front vowels, the grapheme <**h**> represented a **voiceless palatal fricative,** represented by **[ç]** in the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), and similar to the /h/ in German ‘ich’, e.g., niht [niçt] ‘night’. It was realised as a **voiceless velar fricative [x],** Arabic /خ/**,** after back vowels, e.g., fuht [fuxt] ‘moist’ and when it is final after a vowel, e.g., seah [sæəx] ‘saw’.

1. Consonant Clusters

Old English had consonant clusters that have undergone changes throughout history. Some of these consonant clusters have completely disappeared from the current English spelling systems, others have undergone metathesis (sound inversion), some have experienced changes to their sound systems, and the rest have lost their initial sound. Below is an illustration of these consonant clusters:

<cg>: it emerged by the end of the eleventh century and represented [dʒ], as in hecg [hedʒ] ‘hedge’; geþicgean [jəˈθiː.dʒæn] ‘take’; hrycg ‘ridge’; ecgclif ‘clif’.

<hl>: hlēo ‘shelter’ or ‘protection’; hlāf ‘loaf’; hlīfan ‘ to climb’; hlēapan ‘to leap’; hlæw ‘cave’.

<hn>: hnesce ‘soft’ or ‘delicate’ (nesh in some English dialects); hniscan ‘ to move’ or ‘to stir’; hnutu ‘nut’.

<hr>: hræfn ‘raven’; hring ‘ ring’; hrēo ‘rough’ or ‘harsh’; hrēð ‘honor’ or ‘fame’; hruse ‘earth’.

Old English consonant clusters **<hl>**, **<hn**>, and **<hr>** have apparently disappeared from both spelling and sound systems in Present-day English, where, in most cases, the grapheme **<h>** was dropped.

<hw>: hwīl ‘while’; hweþer ‘ whether’; hweol ‘ wheel’; hwita ‘white’. OE words spelled with **<hw>** are seemingly subjected to metathesis (sound inversion) to become **<wh>** in Present-day English. However, the inversion appears to affect only the spelling system, while the sound system remains as such, i.e., all the words with a consonant cluster **<wh>** are pronounced **/hw/** which is phonetically represented as **[ʍ]** in IPA; for example, **wh**at /**hw**ɒt/ [ʍɒt]; **wh**ite /**hw**aɪt/ [ʍaɪt]; **wh**ether /**hw**eðə/ [ʍeðə]; whale /hweɪl/ [ʍeɪl].

<ng>: this consonant cluster is realised as **[ŋg]** as the outcome of the assimilation of **[n]** to **[ŋ]** before a velar **[k]** or **[g]**; for example, singan /siŋgan/; hring /hring / [xriŋg]; longa /loŋga/ ‘long’; bringan /brɪŋgan/ ‘to bring’; sanga /sæŋga/ ‘ song’.

<sc>: this digraph was earlier realised as [sk] in all contexts. However, later, it was pronounced as [ʃ], e.g., scip [ʃip] ‘ship’; fisc [fiʃ]; scēam [ʃe:am];. It seems that **<sc>** is pronounced as [ʃ] only in a frontal environment (before or after a front vowel). In a back environment (before or

after a back vowel), this consonant cluster is realised as [sk], for example, scol [skol] ‘school’; scolde [skold] ‘should’; sculan [skulan] ‘to be obliged to’ or ‘should’; āscian [askian] ‘ask’; Scottas [ˈscottɑs] ‘Scots’; hniscan [hniskan].

<wr>: wræstlung ‘wrestling’; wraþ - meaning ‘wrath’ or ‘anger’; writan ‘to write;’ wringan ‘to wring’. It is also to be noted that the grapheme<w> in this cluster became silent.

2. Consonant Gemination

Another linguistic feature that one can easily notice is ‘gemination’, meaning consonant doubling. OE contains numerous words with geminated consonants, such as offrian ‘to offer’ or ‘to sacrifice’, frogga **‘**frog’ and hoppian ‘to hop’ or ‘to leap’. The gemination of consonants often indicates a different meaning or grammatical function. A few examples of this distinctive feature can be cited as follows:

<**cc**>: sæ**cc** ‘sack’ or ‘bag’; <**c**> in sæ**c** ‘container’ or ‘vessel’

<**nn**>: su**nn**e ‘sun’ and ma**nn**e ‘the accusative or dative singular form of mann ‘man’; <**n**> in su**n**u ‘son’ and ma**n**e ‘mane’

<**ss**>: cy**ss**an ‘kiss’; <**s**> in cy**s**an ‘to cause’ or to ‘produce’

<**tt**>: fæ**tt** ‘fat’; **<t>** in fæ**t** ‘vat’ or ‘container’

<**ðð**>: moð**ð**e ‘moth’; **<ð>** in mo**ð**e, an alternative form of mūð ‘mouth’

As far as the grammatical function of these words is concerned, it is worth noting that the geminated form fæ**tt** refers to an adjective, while fæ**t** is an object.

Lecture Plan

Unit:2 Old English Spelling & Sound Systems
Title of the lecture: Old English Vowels
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites: Knowledge of the English language Vowels
Objectives of the lecture: Introducing the students to Old English vowels.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity): This stage involves asking the students questions about the English vowels they are acquainted with.
Students' Outcomes: By the end of the lecture, the students will have acquired Old English vowels.
Lecture components: Old English Vowels. **1.** Short Vowels **2.** Long Vowels **3.** Diphthongs
Informative Assessment Assessing the students' comprehension by comparing Old English Vs. Modern vowels.
Exit File Briefing Old English vowels.

Old English Vowels

Old English had a complex vowel system that markedly contrasted with Modern English. Vowels in Old English were characterised by both length and quality, which changed the meaning of the word.

1. Short Vowels

OE embraces the following seven short vowels:

<ɑ>: catte ‘cat’, nɑmɑ ‘name’

<e>: bedd ‘bed’, mete ‘meat’;

<u>: full ‘full’, lufu ‘love’, wund ‘wound’;

<y>: fyllɑn ‘fill’;

<æ>: rætt ‘rat’, bæþ ‘bath’;

<i>: hit ‘it’, cild ‘child’;

<o>: god ‘god’, nosu ‘nose’

OE short vowels underwent two processes: vowel breaking and vowel fronting. The former, which emerged around the seventh century, refers to the act of breaking the front vowels into two sounds (diphthongs): *æ* into eɑ, *e* into eo, and *i* into io or eo, before l and r when followed by another consonant, and before h; for example, *ald* → *eald*; *half* → *healf*; *werc* → *weorc*, *Picts* → *Peohtas*. These diphthongs seemingly end in a back vowel as they are followed by back consonants (Gelderen, 2006). Vowel fronting, also called i-umlaut, on the other hand, refers to the act of transforming a back vowel into a front vowel; for example the back vowel [o] in the OE verb **cōljɑn** ‘to make cool’ that was changed into the front vowel [e] to be pronounced [kelan]. Similarly, the OE back vowel [u] in the OE verb **guldjɑn** [ɣuldjɑn] was

changed into the front vowel [y]. Therfore, the word became **gyldan** [ɣyldan], and later [gyldan]. Obviously, vowel fronting took place when the high front sound [j] affected the back vowels before it disappeared.

2. Long Vowels

The OE long vowels are displayed as follows:

<ā>: bān 'bone'; fāran 'to fare'

<æ>: lædan 'to lead'; wæpen 'weapon'

<ē>: dēman 'to deem'; mētan 'meet'

<ī>: wīf 'wife'; bītan 'bite'

<ō>: gōd 'good'; bōtian 'to boot'

<ū>: hūs 'house'; mūs 'mouse'

<ȳ>: mȳs 'mice'; hȳdan 'hide'

It's crucial to note that the macron (-) that distinguished long vowels from short vowels altered the meaning of words, such as god 'God' and gōd 'good'; biddan 'to pray' and bīdan 'to await'; ful 'full and fūl 'foul'; ac 'but' and āc 'oak'; is 'is' and īs 'ice'.

3. Diphthongs

Contrary to Modern English diphthongs that are of one type, Old English diphthongs are split into two length-based sorts: short and long diphthong, discussed as follows:

3.1. Short Diphthongs

OE short diphthongs are basically the outcome of the vowel breaking that has already been mentioned. In other words, they evolved from short vowels that turned into diphthongs. They are as follows:

<ea>: it was realised as [æə] or [jæ]; for instance, eald [æəld] 'old'; ceal [ʃjæl] 'shall'.

<eo>: feoh [feəx] ‘money’, ‘property’.

<ie>: ieldrɑ [ɪəldrɑ] ‘elder’

<io>: mioluc [mɪəluk] or [mɪoluk] ‘milk’

3.2. Long Diphthongs

Again, OE long diphthongs are distinguished from short diphthongs by macron (-). They are displayed as follows:

<ēɑ>: it was realised as [æ:ə] or [jæ:]; for instance, bēɑm [bæ:əm] ‘tree’; cēɑce [ʧjæ:k] ‘cheek’

<ēo>: it was pronounced as [ɛo] or [eo]; for example, flēogɑn [flɛoɣɑn] or [fleoɣɑn] ‘to fly’

<īe>: hīerɑn [hiərɑn] ‘to hear’

<īo>: it was realised as [io] or [iə]; an example would be līoht [lioxt] or [liəxt] ‘light’.

Lecture Plan

Unit:3 **Old English Grammar**
Title of the lecture: OE Grammatical Inflexion
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites: Knowledge of the English language grammar
Objectives of the lecture Making the students acquainted with Old English grammar.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves writing Old English words and then letting the students guess their Modern English equivalents.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have grasped Old English grammatical inflexion.
Lecture components 1. Nouns 2. Pronouns 3. Adjectives 4. Verbs 5. Adverbs 6. Numerals
Informative Assessment Asking the students to form Old English words with inflexions.
Exit File Recapitulating Old English grammatical inflexion rules.

OE Grammatical Inflexion

OE, as a synthetic language, had a grammatical system that was based on inflections. Linguistic aspects such as inflectional word forms and flexible word order contributed to the complexity and intricacy of the OE as opposed to the PDE. One of the OE outstanding grammatical features was the inflecting system, called declension. OE relied heavily on declension as it highlighted the grammatical categories of nouns, pronouns and adjectives with respect to case**,** number**,** and gender**.**

1. Nouns

Nouns, one of the key segments in the OE sentence structure, had different forms based on their grammatical functions. That is to say, the form of a noun would change depending on whether it functions as a subject (nominative case), an object (accusative case), shows possession (genitive case), or acts as an indirect object (dative case). Nouns also fall into three groups: masculine, feminine, and neuter. These genders affected the declension of nouns, adjectives, and articles (such as 'sē,' 'sēo' 'þaet') based on case (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative) and number (singular, plural); for instance, sē ealdɑ bēam 'the old tree' (masculine), sēo elde beorc 'the old beech-tree' (feminine), and þaet elde lēaf 'the old leaf' (neuter).They also function according to the grammatical agreement rather than the logical contrast between masculine, feminine, and neuter; for example, OE bōc 'book' is feminine; wīfmann 'woman' is masculine; mægden 'girl' is neuter. According to Quirk & Wrenn (1955), 45% of nouns are masculine, 30% are feminine, and 25% are neuter.

1.1. Masculine Declension

The general masculine declension is one of the most prevalent noun patterns in Old English. The following table illustrates this pattern:

Table 1. OE masculine declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

Masculine Declension	
Singular	**Plural**
stān 'stone' (nominative, accusative)	stānas (nominative, accusative)
stānes (genitive)	stāna (genitive)
stāne (dative)	stānum (dative)

1.2. Feminine Declension

The following table displays how the OE feminine nouns were declined.

Table 2. OE feminine declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

Feminine Declension	
Singular	**Plural**
lār 'teaching' (nominative)	lāra/lāre (nominative)
lāre (accusative)	lāra/lāre (accusative)
lāre (genitive)	lāra/lārena (genitive)
lāre (dative)	lārum (dative)

1.3. Neuter Declension

The table below discloses the process of declining the OE neuter nouns.

Table 3. OE neuter declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

Neuter Declension	
Singular	**Plural**
Scip 'ship' (nominative)	scipu (nominative)
Scip (accusative)	scipu (accusative)
scipes (genitive)	scipa (genitive)
scipe (dative)	scipum (dative)

2. Pronouns

OE pronouns were also subjected to declension based on number, case, and gender (3rd person singular). In other words, OE pronouns were declined in multiple cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, and dative); additionally, 3rd-person singular pronouns (like 'he,' 'she,' and 'it') were inflected according to their gender. In terms of number, what distinguished OE from PDE was the presence of dual pronouns, in addition to singular and plural pronouns. The following table illustrates the declension process that OE pronouns underwent.

Table 4. OE pronoun declension (adapted from Gelderen, 2006)

Pronouns									
1st Person			2nd Person			3rd Person			
Singular	Dual	Plural	Singular	Dual	Plural	Singular			Plural
						Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
ic (Nom.)	wit (Nom.)	wē (Nom.)	þū (Nom.)	git (Nom.)	gē (Nom.)	hē (Nom.)	hēo (Nom.)	hit (Nom.)	hīe (Nom.)
mē (Accu.)	unc (Accu.)	ūs (Accu.)	þē (Accu.)	inc (Accu.)	ēow (Accu.)	hine (Accu.)	hīe (Accu.)	hit (Accu.)	hīe (Accu.)
mīn (Gen.)	uncer (Gen.)	ūre (Gen.)	þīn (Gen.)	incer (Gen.)	ēower (Gen.)	his (Gen.)	hiere (Gen.)	his (Gen.)	hiera (Gen.)
mē (Dat.)	unc (Dat.)	ūs (Dat.)	þē (Dat.)	inc (Dat.)	ēow (Dat.)	him (Dat.)	hiere (Dat.)	him (Dat.)	him (Dat.)

Nom.= Nominative; Accu.= Accusative; Gen.= Genitive; Dat.= Dative

In addition to the above mentioned pronouns, OE, like PDE, had interrogative pronouns: hwā 'who' and hwelc 'which'. With regard to relative pronouns 'who, whom, which, and that,' the latter did not have a room in OE. The interrogative pronouns used to function in OE like indefinite pronouns; for example, thus hwā can also mean 'anyone, someone'.

Contrary to PDE, which has determiners, including definite and indefinite articles, and demonstratives, OE did not have definite and indefinite articles. However, it had two groups of demonstratives such as þes 'this, these' and se 'that, those.' It is noteworthy that despite the absence of the indefinite article in the OE, **sum** 'a certain' and **ān** 'one' where used to fulfil some of its functions (only in certain contexts); additionally, the OE demonstrative **se** was used in the contexts where the definite article is used nowadays. OE had two types of demonstratives: the se- type and the þes-type (Smith, 2009). The latter have been respectively referred to by Momma & Matto (20008) as simple demonstratives and compound demonstratives. The following tables show the decline process that these OE demonstratives underwent.

Table 5. The OE sē-type demonstrative declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

The sē-type demonstratives			
Singular			**Plural**
Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**	**All genders**
sē (Nom.)	sēo (Nom.)	þæt (Nom.)	þā (Nom.)
þone (Accu.)	þā (Accu.)	þæt (Accu.)	þā (Accu.)
þǣs (Gen.)	þǣre (Gen.)	þæs (Gen.)	þāra (Gen.)
þǣm (Dat)	þǣre (Dat)	þǣm (Dat)	þǣm (Dat)

Table 6. The OE þes-type demonstrative declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

The þes-type demonstratives			
Singular			Plural
Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
þes (Nom.)	þēos (Nom.)	þis (Nom.)	þās (Nom.)
þisne (Accu.)	þās (Accu.)	þis (Accu.)	þās (Accu.)
þisses (Gen.)	þisse (Gen.)	þisses (Gen.)	þissa (Gen.)
þissum (Dat.)	þisse (Dat.)	þissum (Dat.)	þissum (Dat.)

3. Adjectives

OE adjectives, which almost all were declined, were of two sorts: weakly declined and strongly declined. The former were adjectives preceded by definite articles, and the latter were adjectives, in the predicate, following the verb 'to be'. Numerous strong and weak adjective endings correspond to those of strong and weak nouns, respectively; however, the endings of strong adjectives have been derived from determiners rather than from nominal paradigms. Indeclinable adjectives, being few, e.g., fela 'many,' make the noun they modify be present in the genitive case. The table below demonstrates the declension of the OE adjectives:

Table 7. OE adjective declension (adapted from Smith, 2009)

Adjectives								
Strong					**Weak**			
Singular			**Plural**		**Singular**			**Plural**
Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**	**Masculine/feminine**	**Neuter**	**Masculine**	**Feminine**	**Neuter**	**All genders**
gōd (Nom.)	gōd (Nom.)	gōd (Nom.)	gōde (Nom.)	gōd (Nom.)	gōda (Nom.)	gōde (Nom.)	gōde (Nom.)	gōdan (Nom.)
gōdne (Accu.)	gōde (Accu.)	gōd (Accu.)	gōde (Accu.)	gōd (Accu.)	gōdan (Accu.)	gōdan (Accu.)	gōde (Accu.)	gōdan (Accu.)
gōdes (Gen.)	gōdre (Gen.)	gōdes (Gen.)	gōdra (Gen.)	gōdra (Gen.)	gōdan (Gen.)	gōdan (Gen.)	gōdan (Gen.)	gōdra/gōdena (Gen.)
gōdum (Dat.)	Gōdre (Dat.)	gōdum (Dat.)	gōdum (Dat.)	gōdum (Dat.)	gōdan (Dat.)	gōdan (Dat.)	gōdan (Dat.)	gōdum (Dat.)

Aligning with PDE, OE had absolute comparative, and superlative adjectives. The comparative end in –ra, and the superlative end in -ost(a), -(e)st(a).

Table 8. OE adjectives (adapted from Smith, 2009; Quirk & Wrenn, 1955)

Adjectives	Comparative adjective	Superlative adjective
lēof 'dear'	lēofra 'dearer'	lēofost 'dearest'
blīþe 'happy'	blīþra	blīþost
earm 'poor'	earmra	earmost
heard 'hard'	heardra	heardost
glæd 'glad'	glædra	glædost
eald 'old'	yldra	yldest
geong 'old'	gingra	gingrest
gōd 'good'	betra/betera/bettra	betst/ betsta/ betest/ betesta
yfel 'evil'	wyrsa	wyrst/ wyrsta/ wirst/ wierst/ wierrest/ wierresta

4. Verbs

OE verbs did not function the exact same way as nouns, pronouns and adjectives did in relation to declension. They had their own inflection system which did not depend on case and gender. In other words, they differed in terms of the way they were inflected and features they marked. OE verbs were declined based on person (1st, 2nd, or 3rd), number (singular or plural), tense (present or past), and mood (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative) and voice (active, passive). Like PDE, OE had three types of verbs: strong, weak, and irregular verbs. Strong verbs that, according to Quirk & Wrenn (1955), represent about one-quarter of the verbs, had a vocalic inflection (change affecting the vowel of the stem). Weak verbs, on the other hand, according to the same authors, represent almost three-quarters of the verbs. They had a consonantal inflection (change affecting the consonant). Finally, irregular verbs that represent

only about one-fifth of the verbs. Most of these verbs display features of both vocalic and consonantal inflections. Examples of these OE verbs would be strong verb bindan 'to bind', hē band 'he bound', hē bindeþ/bint* 'he binds'; weak verb lufian 'to love', hē lufode 'he loved', hē lufaþ 'he loves'; irregular verb wesan 'to be', ic wæs 'I was', ic eom 'I am.' The following tables, adapted from Smith (2009), illustrate the inflection of OE verbs.

Table 09: Old English verbs inflected for the Present Indicative Mood

bindan 'to bind'			
Mood	**Tense**	**Number**	
Indicative	**Present**	**Singular**	**Plural**
		binde (1st person)	bindaþ (all persons)
		bindest/bintst (2nd person)	
		bindeþ/bint (3rd person)	

Table 10: Old English verbs inflected for the Present Subjunctive Mood

bindan 'to bind'			
Mood	**Tense**	**Number**	
Subjunctive	**Present**	**Singular**	**Plural**
		binde (all persons)	binden (all persons)

Table 11: Old English verbs inflected for the Preterite Indicative Mood

bindan 'to bind'			
Mood	**Tense**	**Number**	
Indicative	**Preterite**	**Singular**	**Plural**
		band (1st person)	bundon (all persons)
		bunde (2nd person)	
		band (3rd person)	

Table 12: Old English verbs inflected for the Preterite Subjunctive Mood

bindan 'to bind'			
Mood	**Tense**	**Number**	
Subjunctive	**Preterite**	**Singular**	**Plural**
		bunde (all persons)	bunden (all persons)

Table 13: Old English verbs inflected for the Imperative Mood

bindan 'to bind'			
Mood	**Tense**	**Number**	
Imperative		**Singular**	**Plural**
		bind (2nd person)	bindaþ (2nd person)

Table 14: Old English verbs inflected for the Present and Past Participles

bindan 'to bind'	
Present Participle	**Past Participle**
bindende	(ge)bunden

5. Adverbs

Many OE adverbs derived from adjectives by adding the suffix **-e** to the adjective stem (Smith, 2009; Quirk & Wrenn, 1955), and the suffixes *-lice, -inga (-unga)* (Quirk & Wrenn, 1955); for example *heard* 'hard, harsh'→ *heard**e*** 'harshly'; *cræftlic* 'skilful'→*craeftlic**e*** 'skilfully'; *slōw* 'slow'→ *slowe* 'slowly'; *beorht* 'bright'→ *beohrt**e*** 'brightly; *blind* 'blind'→ *blindlīce* 'blindly'; *open* 'open'→ *openlīce* 'open'; *eall* 'entire'→ *eallunga* 'entirely'; *nīwe* 'recent' → *nīwinga* 'recently'. PDE adverbial marker '-ly' originated from OE '-lice'. For the sake of simplicity, the latter has been weakened to become '-ly'. It is crucial to note that OE had comparative and superlative adverbs, but differently than PDE. Adverbs of comparison and adverbs of superiority compare actions and qualities and describe the highest degree of an action, respectively. OE comparative and superlative adverbs had the same endings as comparative and superlative adjectives in that comparative adverbs end in **–re** and superlative adjectives end in **-est** and **–ost** (Quirk & Wrenn, 1955), as illustrated in the following table:

Table 15: OE comparative & superlative adverbs (adapted from Quirk & Wrenn, 1955, pp. 35-36)

Adverbs	Comparative adverbs	Superlative adverbs
ǣr 'before, earlier'	ǣrra 'more earlier'	ǣrest 'earliest'
lange 'long'	lengre	lengest
seldan 'seldom'	seldor/seldnor	seldost
luflīce 'lovingly'	luflīcor	luflīcost
oft 'often'	oftor	oftost
hrað 'quickly'	hraðor	hraðost

6. Numerals

English has two types of numerals: cardinal (1, 2, 3, 4...) and ordinal numerals (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th,...).

Table 16: OE cardinal and ordinal numerals Quirk & Wrenn, 1955, pp. 35-36)

Cardinal	Ordinal
1.ān	Forma/fyrsta/fyrmest
2.twā	ōðer
3.þrȳ	þridda
4.fēower	fēorða
5.fīf	fīfta
6.syx	siexta
7.seofon	seofoða
8.eahta	eahtoða
9.nigon	nigoða
10.tīen	tēoða
11.endleofan	endleofta
12.twelf	twelfta

13.þreōtyne	þreōteōða
20.twentig	twentigoða
21.ān and twentig	ān and twentigoða
30.þrītig	þrītigoða
70.hundseofontig	hundseofontigoða
80.hundeahtatig	hundeahtatigoða
90.hundnigontig	hundnigontigoða
100.hundtēontig, hund(red)	hundtēotigoða
110. hundendleofantig	hundendleofantigoða
120. hundtwelftig	hundtwelftigoða
200.tū hund(red)	Not recorded
1000.þūsend	Not recorded

The first three cardinal numbers are declined. Cardinal ān 'one' is declined like strong and weak adjectives (See table 7). It is noteworthy that weak forms are usually used in the sense 'alone'. With regard to numbers twā 'two' and þrēo 'three', they are declined as shown in the following tables adapted from Smith (2009):

Table 17: OE twā 'two' declension

twā		
Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**
twēgen (Nom.)	twā (Nom.)	twā/tū (Nom.)
twēgen (Accu.)	twā (Accu.)	twā/tū (Accu.)
twēgra/ twēga/ twēgea (Gen.)	twēgra/ twēga/ twēgea (Gen.)	twēgra/ twēga/ twēgea (Gen.)
twǣm (Dat.)	twǣm (Dat.)	twǣm (Dat.)

Table 18: OE þrēo 'three' declension

þrēo	
Masculine	**Feminine/ Neuter**
þrīe (Nom.)	þrēo (Nom.)
þrīe (Accu.)	þrēo (Accu.)
þrēora (Gen.),	þrēora (Gen.)
þrim (Dat.)	þrim (Dat.)

Basically, the cardinals 4-19 are not declined when used attributively. However, when used alone they carry endings as follows: Nom. Accu. Masc. and Fem. **–e**, Neut. **-u**, Gen. **-a**, Dat. **–um**; for example fīf men 'five men' and ic sēo fīf**e** 'see five'. Numerals ending in -tig are sometimes declined as neuter nouns, with a Gen. Sing. (See table. 3); for example þrītiges mīla brād 'thirty miles wild'. Ordinal numbers, on the other hand, are always declined following the weak adjective pattern (See table 7), aside from ōþer 'second' which is always declined as a strong adjective (Smith, 2009).

Lecture Plan

Unit:3 **Old English Grammar**
Title of the lecture: OE Sentence Structure
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the English syntactic structure.
Objectives of the lecture Familiarising the students with Old English syntactic structure.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This step consists of writing a grammatical sentence in both Modern and Old English versions and then asking the students to spot the difference.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have acquired the syntactic structure of Old English sentences.
Lecture components **1.** Subject Immediately Followed by the Predicator (SVO) **2.** Subject Separated from the Predicator by Other Elements (S + X + V) **3.** Predicator Followed by the Subject (VSO or VS)
Informative Assessment Asking the students to turn Old English sentences into Modern English ones and vis-versa.
Exit File Rehearsing syntactic structure of Old English sentences.

OE Sentence Structure

Conversely to PDE, OE had a flexible sentence structure resulting from its rich inflectional system indicating case, gender, number, tense, etc. The grammatical function-based forms of OE resulted in significant sentence structure flexibility, enabling easy understanding even when the word order changed; for instance

Se hlāford bindeþ þone cnapan.

Þone cnapan bindeþ se hlāford.

The above two sentences have the same meaning, 'The lord binds the servant', in spite of their different structures. However, this flexibility was not as extensive as one might anticipate, as OE had three types of word order. They are: 1) Subject immediately followed by the predicator (verb phrase); 2) Subject separated from the predicator by elements of the clause coming in between; 3) Predicator followed by the subject. The first type is usually found in main the clause; the second type mainly occurs in the subordinate clause; and finally, the third type appears in questions, and in main clauses introduced by some adverbials, particularly þā 'then', þær 'there', þider 'thither'.

1. Subject Immediately Followed by the Predicator (SVO)

It is a construction in which the subject (S) consistently precedes the verb (V), followed subsequently by the object (O). This word order is regularly found in OE in main clauses due of what is called the Verb-second rule; and it occurred in subordinate clauses when the object was particularly long or heavy (Momma & Matto, 2008, p. 58). Examples are:

1. Se cnapa lufode þone gōdan hlāford. (Se cnapa (S), lufode (V), gōdan hlāford (O))

   'The servant loved the good lord.'

2. Se beorht cyning gefēng his dōm. (Se beorht cyning (S), gefēng (V), his dōm (O))

   'The bright king received his judgment.'

3. Hē sēah þæt wēn (Hē (S), sēah (V), þæt wēn (O))

   'He saw the hope.'

2. Subject Separated from the Predicator by Other Elements (S + X + V)

Old English allowed various elements, such as objects, adverbials, or other sentence components, to be placed between the subject and the verb. This resulted in more intricate sentence structures, although the subject usually remained the first element. It is to be noted that SOV (Subject+ Object+ Verb) structure is the most common in OE (Momma & Matto, 2008). Following the examples:

1. Ic, on gēarweorce, gemyndige þæt. (Ic (S), on gēarweorce (adverbial phrase), gemyndige þæt (VP)).

   'I, on work of the year, remember that.'

2. Se mann, þā hē tō his dōmes cōm, sāwe þæt. (Se mann (S), þā hē tō his dōmes cōm (adverbial phrase), sāwe þæt (VP)).

   'The man, when he came to his judgment, saw that.'

3. Hē þā ealle hēah ārǽstan ne frēogan. (Hē (S), þā ealle hēah ārǽstan (O), ne frēogan V)).

   'He did not fear all the high leaders.'

4. Se cyning þā hēafdu drēogan wiste. (Se cyning (S), þā hēafdu (O), drēogan wiste(VP)).

   'The king knew how to endure the hardships.'

3. Predicator Followed by the Subject (VSO or VS)

Questions, emphatic constructions, and poetry were the primary contexts for this type of word order, making it less common than the other two types. The inversion of subject with verb took place for a range of syntactic and stylistic reasons. Examples of this type are:

1. Lufode se cyning þā wīf (Lufode (V), se cyning (S), þā wīf (O)).
   'The king loved the woman.'
2. Sende wē þā wēn (Sende (V), wē (S), wēn (O)).
   'We sent the hope.'
3. Gebōcian hīe (Gebōcian (V), hīe (S)).
   'They prayed.'
4. Cwæþ se cyning þæt (Cwæþ (V), se cyning (S), þæt (O)).
   'The king said that.'
5. gehyrest þu eadwacer (gehyrest (V), þu (S), eadwacer (O)).
   'Do you hear, Eadwacer?'

It is noteworthy that VOS was also one of the OE sentence structures, but it extremely rarely occurred; for example, Sægde þæt heofon 'heaven said that', where the verb 'sægde' (said) is followed by the object 'þæt' (that), and then the subject 'heofon'.

Lecture Plan

Unit:4 **Old English Lexicon**
Title of the lecture: OE Lexicon
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites: Understanding of the concept of affixation, compounding and borrowing.
Objectives of the lecture Introducing the students to the Old English-derived words, compound words, and borrowed words.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) The phase incites citing words from Old English and a set of other languages and letting the students guess about their English equivalents.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have learnt the Old English-derived words, compound words and loanwords.
Lecture components **1.** Affixation-based Lexicon **2.** Compounding-based Lexicon **3.** Borrowing
Informative Assessment Asking the students to give their own examples.
Exit File Recapitulating Old English-derived words, compound words, and loanwords.

OE Lexicon

Old English is a West Germanic language that evolved from the languages spoken by the Anglo-Saxons, who were a group of tribes that migrated to Britain from present-day Germany and Denmark. It had a vocabulary that was in use approximately from 450 to 1150 AD. Its origins are a fascinating blend of history, culture, and linguistic evolution. It was shaped by a variety of languages, starting from Celtic, the language of the indigenous people of Britain, West Germanic language that was the base of OE, Old Norse and Latin, especially during and after the Christianisation of Britain. Some of the strategies contributing to the development of OE vocabulary were affixation, compounding, and borrowing.

1. Affixation-based Lexicon

Affixation refers to the process of adding affixes, or bound morphemes, to the stem. As far as OE is concerned, affixes played a significant role in the morphology of its lexicon. The following examples (from Smith, 2009, and Quirk & Wrenn, 1955) illustrate how new words came as an outcome of affixation.

1- Nouns, particularly abstract feminine nouns, formed from verbs by the use of the suffix '-ung' or sometimes '-ing'; for example, weorþung 'honour' (weorþian 'to honour', verb). Agent nouns were formed through the suffix '-end', e.g., wrecend 'avenger', (wrecan 'to avenge').

2- Nouns formed from adjectives by means of the suffixes -nes(s)/ -nis/-nys, -dōm, and -scipe, e.g., wīsdōm 'wisdom' (wīs 'wise'), beorhtnes 'brightness' (beorht 'bright'), wærscipe 'caution' (wær 'cautious, wary').

3- Adjectives formed from nouns via suffixes -cund, -fæst, -ful, -ig, -isc, -lēas, -lic and -sum; for example, dēofolcund 'diabolical, devilish' (dēofol 'devil'), wynnfæst 'pleasant' (wynn 'joy'), synnful 'sinful' (synn 'sin'), blōdig 'bloody' (blōd 'blood'), mennisc 'human' (menn 'humans'), drēamlēas 'joyless' (drēam 'joy'), munuclic 'monastic' (munuc 'monk'), wynnsum 'delightful' (wynn 'joy').

4- Adverbs formed from adjectives by means of the suffixes -e, -lice and -inga/-unga, e.g., deepe 'deeply' (dēop 'deep'), fæste 'firmly' (fæst 'firm'), rihte 'rightlty'(riht 'right'), wīde 'widely' (wīd 'wide'), blindlīce 'blindly' (blind 'blind'), sōðlīce 'truly' (sōð 'true'), openlīce 'opnely' (open 'open'), frēondlīce 'amicably' (frēondlīc 'friendly'), eallunga 'entirely' (eall 'entire'), nīwinga 'recently' (nīw 'recent'), yirringa 'angrily' (yirrig 'angry').

As opposed to suffixes, OE had a single prefix, 'ge-,' which was used for a set of purposes. It transforms the infinitive aspect of the verb into its perfect form. I was also used to turning the intransitive verbs into transitive. Finally, some words with the prefix 'ge-' reflect the idea of association and collectiveness. Examples would be respectively cited:

bindan 'bind' (infinitive) → gebunden 'bound', fēran 'go'→ gefēran 'reach', gefēra 'comrade', gelīc 'similar', gehwær 'everywhere'.

2. Compounding-based Lexicon

OE compound words were formed by combining independent words**,** and these compounds resulted in words that could operate as nouns and adjectives. The latter were formed as follows:

2.1. Nouns

Nouns were prefixed three different ways:

- **Prefixed with nouns:** bōccræft 'literature'; deōðdæg 'day of death'; folclagu 'law of the people'; mannslyht 'man-slaughter'; tūngerēfa 'district officer'. There were some prefixed nouns that happened to be subjected to inflection; for example, Englalond 'England'; hellewīte 'torment of hell'; Sunnandæg 'Sunday'.
- **Prefixed with adjectives:** eallwealda 'the Almighty'; godspel/ gōdspel 'godspel'; hēohburg 'capital'; wīdsæ 'ocean'.
- **Prefixed with adverbs:** eftsīð 'return'; inngang 'entrance'.

2.2. Adjectives

Adjectives also have different prefixes as shown below:

- **Prefixed with nouns:** beadurōf 'bold in battle'; dōmgearn 'eager for glory'; fyrdhwæt 'bold in arms'.
- **Prefixed with adjectives:** glēawhidȳg 'wise-minded'; efeneald 'of equal age'; scīrmæled 'brightly adorned'.
- **Prefixed with adverbs:** felamōdig 'very brave'; ærwacol 'early awake'; welwillende 'benevolent'.

According to Quirk & Wrenn (1955, p. 108), there is another type of adjectives where the second element is a noun; for example, brūnecg 'bright edged'; glamōd 'glad-hearted'; mild heort 'gentle'; cetrecedferhð 'stout-hearted'; yerrmōd 'angry'.

3. Borrowing

OE, as any other language, could not be a pure language on its own. It borrowed words from other languages, namely Celtic, French, and Greek, and to a larger extent from Norse and Latin. These borrowings resulted from conquests, religion, trade, and cultural exchange. They served as lexical gap fillers and reflected prestige.

3.1. Norse Loans

The Norse impact on Old English (OE) was significant, particularly following the Viking invasions and colonisation in England from the 8th to the 11th centuries. The Norse influence was particularly significant in northern and eastern England, regions immediately affected by Norse settlement; for example, take 'to take' (Norse taka); get 'get, to obtain' (Norse geta); law 'law, rule' (Norse lag); they 'they' (Norse þeir); sky 'cloud, cloudy sky' (Norse sky); egg 'egg'(Norse egg).

3.2. Latin Loans

The impact of Latin on Old English (OE) was substantial, especially following the Christianization of England beginning in the 6th century. Latin served as the language of the Church, education, and governance, resulting in the incorporation of several Latin terminology into Old English, particularly in religious, intellectual, and administrative domains. The examples are: sanct 'saint' (Latin sanctus); alter 'altar' (Latin altāre); biscop 'bishop' (Latin *episcopus)*; munuc 'monk' (Latin *monachus*); candel 'candle' 'Latin *candela)*.

3.3. Celtic Loans

Despite not having a significant impact on the OE, Celtic words continue to appear in the English vocabulary and place names. These words were directly or indirectly (via other languages like Latin, Greek, and French) incorporated into the OE; for instance, Dofras 'Dover' (Celtic Dubris); puck 'poker' (Celtic puca); Lunden **'**London' (Celtic Londinios); Cent **'**Kent' (from Celtic Cantium); Afon 'Avon' (from Celtic *abona*, meaning 'river'); cof 'cup' (Celtic cob); broc 'badger' (Celtic brocc).

2.4. French Loans

Borrowing from French knew two periods, from 1066 to 1250, and from 1250 to 1500 (Gelderen, 2006, p. 99). The first period represents late OE and the beginning of Middle English. During this period, less than 1000 words were borrowed from French (Gelderen, 2006, p. 99). Examples of these words are: court (Old French curt); council (Old French conseil); honour (from French honneur).

3.5. Greek Loans

Greek, being much less influential, was indirectly incorporated into OE via Latin. Loanwords primarily pertain to the fields of science, philosophy, and religion; examples include: Bisceop ' bishop' (From Greek episkopos, via Latin episcopus); cyrce.'church' (From Greek ekklesia via Latin ecclesia); engel 'angel' (From Greek angelos via Latin angelus); scriptura 'scripture' (From Greek scriptura via Latin scriptura); dæmon 'spirit or divine power' (From Greek daimon via Latin daemon).

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MIDDLE ENGLISH

Lecture Plan

Unit:1 **Middle English**
Title of the lecture: Middle English
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the language and history of Britain
Objectives of the lecture Providing the students with an insight into Middle English and its linguistic features.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves writing Middle English words or sentences on the board and then letting the students guess what language it is.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have had an overview of Middle English
Lecture components 1. The Norman Invasion, a Brief Overview 2. Middle English. 3. ME Linguistic Features
Informative Assessment -Evaluating the students' comprehension by asking them questions.
Exit File Recapitulating Britain's invasion by the Normans, Middle English, and Middle English linguistic features.

Introduction

The transition from Old English to Middle English signifies a decisive change in the history of the English language, delineating the end of one linguistic phase and the beginning of another. This shift occurred approximately between the 12th and 14th centuries, an era known as the aftermath of the Norman Conquest, which witnessed considerable social, cultural, and political upheavals. The gradual fusion of languages and cultures during this epoch gave rise to Modern English.

The Norman Invasion, a Brief Overview

On September 28th, 1066, Duke William of Normandy landed at Pevensey Bay on the Sussex coast with an army of about 8000 men. King Harold Godwinson, who defeated, on September 25th, his half-brother, Earl Tostig, and his ally Harold 'Hardrada' (the Severe) in the North of England, marched quickly south to confront another threat, William's invasion. William's army was armed with knights and horses covered in chain-mail, while Harold's army was made of foot soldiers armed with axes and spears. The Bayeux Tapestry depicts the armies.

The two armies, with different fashions, met at Hastings on October 14th, 1066. Despite the fatigue of fighting and marching, Harold's army was highly motivated after having defeated Tostig. An arrow reportedly struck King Harold in the eye, leading to his death in the battle. After the battle, William faced little resistance as he marched north toward London. On Christmas Day 1066, he was crowned King of England by the Archbishop of York at Westminster Abbey (see Randle, 1981, pp.14-15).

This event was a significant turning point in the history of Britain; it marked the beginning of the Anglo-Norman era with its distinct language, culture, governance, and social structures that lasted for centuries.

Figure 1: Britain's invasion by the Normans

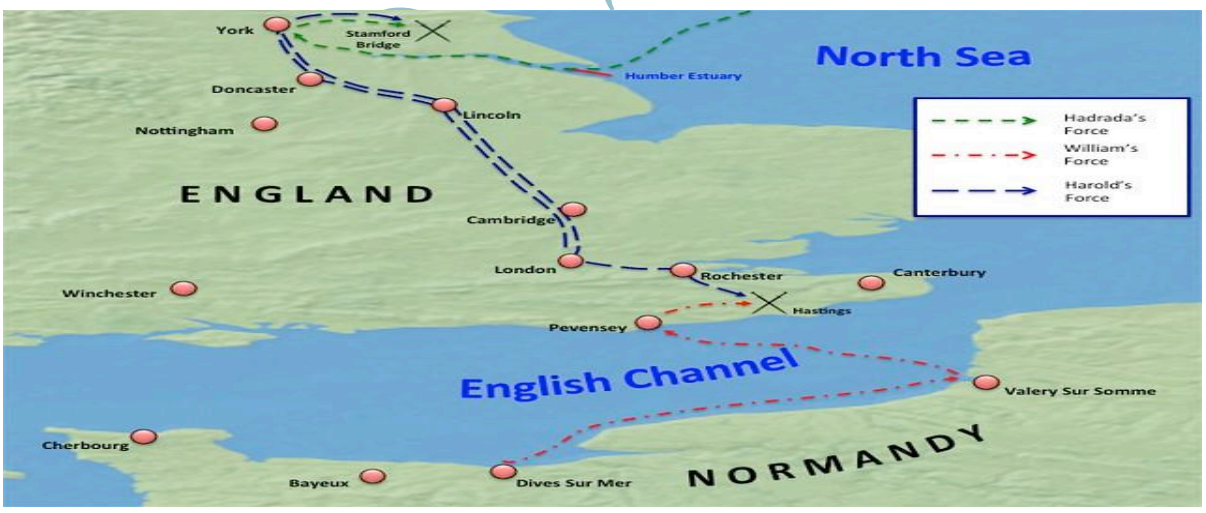

Figure 2: Harold's army marching north and south of England

Figure 3: Hasting's Battle -Bayeux Museum

Middle English

The Norman Conquest of 1066 resulted in substantial changes, with Norman French emerging as the language of the aristocracy and the elite, and English as the language of most of the English inhabitants and the peasants. This resulted in a significant incorporation of French lexicon into English, especially in the domains of law, art, and government. The shift from OE to ME occurred around 1150, particularly when the syntactic feature of OE started to experience changes (Gelderen, 2006). Middle English (ME) has been split into two lifespans: Early Middle English (EME) and Late Middle English (LME), with a division occurring about the mid-fourteenth century, approximately coinciding with Chaucer's birth around 1340 (Horobin & Smith, 2002). Two centuries after the Norman Conquest, French was predominantly used among the ruling and upper classes, for the simple reason that they lacked proficiency in English. However, they were gradually acquiring some English, as there was no official or organized effort to learn or promote it (Baugh & Cable, 2002). The coexistence of the speakers of English and the speakers of French made both parties aware of the importance

of the language of the other. Speakers of Old English, especially those from the lower classes, recognized the need to acquire French for social advancement, educational opportunities, and engagement in legal and political frameworks. Conversely, the Normans, despite their supremacy, ultimately acknowledged the utility of acquiring English for effective communication with the predominantly English-speaking community. Over time, the elite also adopted some English vocabulary, especially as the social gap between the Anglo-Normans and the English-speaking population began to decrease. Consequently, within about three generations, the Norman settlers started to consider themselves as Englishmen (Knowles, 1997). The Normans were indistinguishable from the English, a fact that raised animosity between them and the Normans of France. The links between the aristocratic Anglo-Normans and the Normans of France were literally broken when the king of France brought Normandy under central control in 1204. With the standardisation of Francien (the French version spoken in the Île-de-France, the area around Paris), the French spoken in England became less significant and deprived of its prestige while, within a short time, the Parisian French became the foreign language in England (Knowles, 1997). English was not considered a prestigious language in the Early Middle English period. However, after 1300, it emerged as the primary language for writing documents and discussing all subjects (Gelderen, 2006).

ME Linguistic Features

Middle English witnessed substantial changes at all linguistic dimensions, starting from sounds, through grammar, to the lexicon. This linguistic era was marked by the disappearance of sounds and graphemes from the sound and writing systems, then their replacement by others, a less complex grammar, the adoption of an analytical structure in place of the synthetic one,

and significant borrowing from Latin and Norman French, particularly in the fields of education, government, art, and religion.

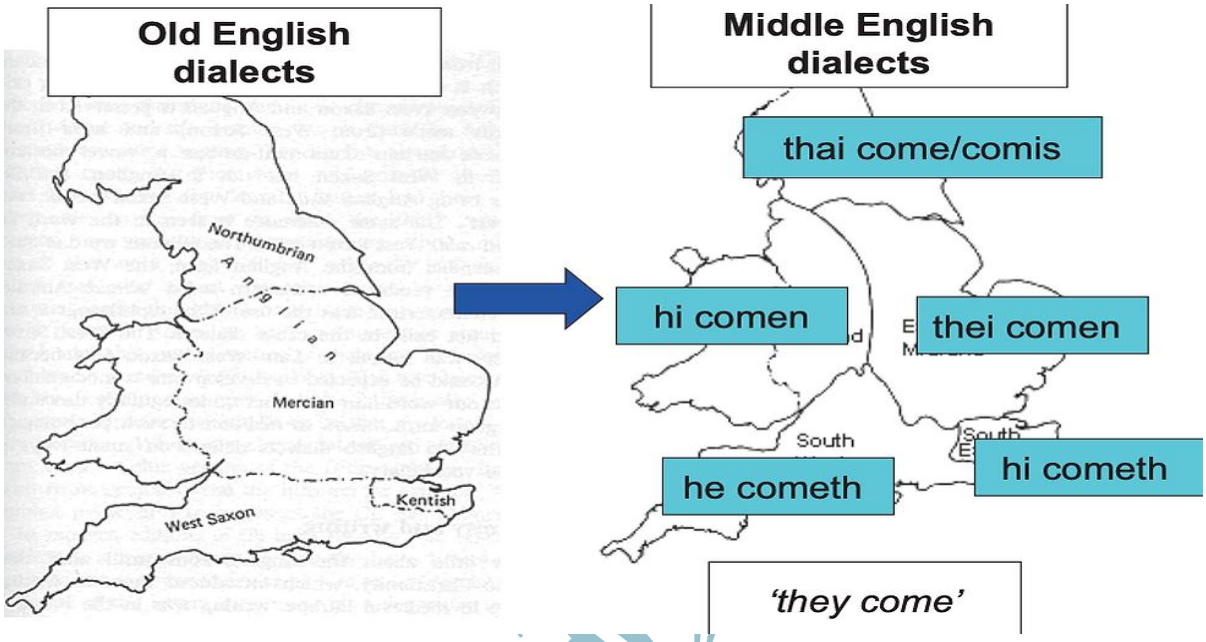

Figure 4: The linguistic map of the English language from Old to Middle English.

Lecture Plan

Unit:2 **Middle English Spelling & Sound Systems**
Title of the lecture: Middle English Consonants
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the Old English consonants
Objectives of the lecture Yielding students an understanding of Middle English consonants
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves asking the students the question about the Old English sounds they know
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have grasped the Middle English consonants.
Lecture components 1. ME Spelling and Phonological Systems 2. Middle English Consonants • Consonant Clusters
Informative Assessment Evaluating the students' comprehension by comparing Old English Vs. Modern English consonantal systems.
Exit File Summarising Middle English consonantal system.

ME Spelling and Phonological Systems

The spelling and sound system in ME underwent significant changes, primarily due to the influence of Latin and Norman French on OE spelling and sounds. Examples include the transformation of the consonant cluster ‘cw’ into ‘qu’, the monograph ‘u’ into the digraph ‘ou’, and the vowel ‘æ’ into ‘ɑ’. For instance, OE cwen became queen ‘queen’, cuðe became could ‘could’, and fæder became father ‘father’. Unlike OE, whose graphemes were more or less limited, ME had a wider range of graphemes such as <v> and <z>, which were at some point in OE allophones of <f> and <s>, respectively, when occurring in an intervocalic position. It is worth mentioning that ME does not have a standard spelling system. In other words, the same word might have different spellings according to regions.

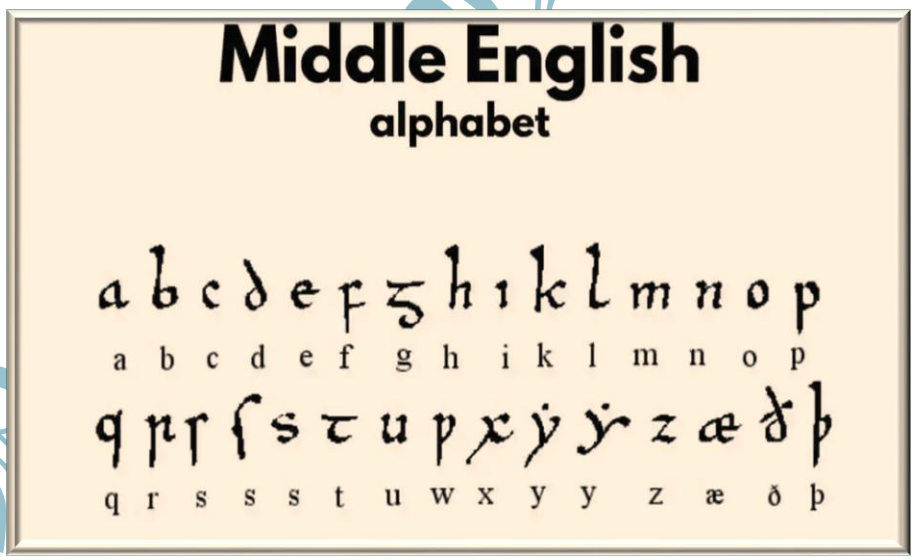

Figure 5: Middle English alphabet

1. Consonants

English consonants underwent substantial changes during the medial linguistic epoch: there were consonants and consonant clusters that disappeared, others emerged, and some others became silent. The following examples, most of which have been taken from Gelderen (2006), illustrate these processes.

<d>: OE intervocalic <d> changed into < ð >; for example, fæder 'father', mōder 'mother', garderian 'gather'.

< ð >: was first replaced by <th> and <þ>. Then, in late Middle English, <þ> ended up as <th>, which was adopted from French. However, before it took its final shape, it looked like <*y*>. Therefore, the definite article 'the' was written as '*ye*' (Gelderen, 2006, p. 113).

<v>: was introduced to be used interchangeably with <u> to represent both vowel [ʊ] and consonant [v]. <v> usually occurred initially while <u> in other contexts (Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 47); for example vppen 'up', wiues 'wives' and vertu 'virtue' (Gelderen, 200, p. 113).

<t>: in words such as Artur, Antony, and Katerine changes to <th>, thus Arthur, Anthony, and Katherine.

<z> appeared in words mainly borrowed from French and Latin; for example, blazon 'coat' and razon 'reason' from Old French 'blason' and 'raison', respectively.

<g>, <ȝ>: in some contexts in ME were first pronounced [w] and [j], and then fused with the preceding vowels to form a diphthong. Below are some examples:

Table 1. Pronunciation of <g> and <ȝ> (adopted from Gelderen, 2006, p. 117)

Old English	Middle English
boga	bow
dæg	day
seȝel	sail
nægel	nail
ploga	plow
fugol	fowl
fæger	fair
dragan	draw

- **Consonant Clusters**

<cw>: in cwene and cwic changed into <qu>. This shift may be due to borrowing from the French language.

<cn>: become later <kn> and the [k] became silent as in knowe 'know'.

<hw>: in hwat switched to <wh> what.

<hl>, <hr>, <hn>: lost their initial <h> as in hlaf 'loaf ', hraðor 'rather', hnutu 'nut', and hnacod 'naked'.

<lg>, <rg>: lost in certain contexts <g>; for example, halgian → hallow, morgen → morrow.

<sc>: shifted into <sh> [ʃ] when occurring in a front vowel environment as in scip→ship; sceal→shall; fisc→fish.

<wr>: in this cluster the <w> became silent and <r> remained pronounced as in writen 'write' and wreck 'wreck'.

In some consonant clusters where <w> occurs between <s> or <t> and a back vowel, the <w> was either deleted or became silent in later stages of English, depending on the word. This can be illustrated in the following table:

Table 2. Silence and deletion of the <w> grapheme (adapted from Gelderen, 2006, p. 118)

OE	ME	Present-day English
swa <sw>	so (<w> deleted)	so
twa <tw>	to (<w> deleted)	two (<w> silent)
sweord <sw>	sword (<w> silent)	sword
sweostor <sw>	suster (<w> deleted)	sister
an(d)swar <sw>	answere (<w> silent)	answer

Lecture Plan

Unit:2 **Old English Spelling & Sound Systems**
Title of the lecture: Middle English Vowels
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the Old English Vowels
Objectives of the lecture Introducing the students to Middle English vowels.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This stage involves asking the students questions about the Old English vowels they know.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have acquired Middle English vowels.
Lecture components Middle English Vowels. 1. Short Vowels 2. Long Vowels 3. Diphthongs
Informative Assessment Assessing the students' comprehension by comparing Old English Vs. Middle vowels.
Exit File Briefing Middle English vowels.

Vowels

The Middle English period saw the beginning of the Great Vowel Shift and the emergence of diphthongs, which both influenced the formation of the modern English vowel system.

1. Short Vowels

Middle English short vowels, as a part of a large phonological evolution, were a key element of the transition from Old English to present-day English. They represent the period when the phonological system of English underwent significant changes, marking the shift from the more complex vowel system of Old English to the simpler system found in Modern English. The table below illustrates the short vowels in Middle English:

Table 3. Middle English short vowels (adapted from Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 49)

ME short vowels	Spelling	Examples
[ɪ]	<i>, <y>	with [wɪð] 'with', lyd [lɪd] 'song'
[ɛ]	<e>	lesse [lɛs] 'smaller in amount or degree'
[a]	< a >	man [man] 'man'
[ɔ]	< o >	rok [rɔk] 'rock'
[ʊ]	< u >	Put [pʊt] 'put'

2. Long Vowels

Along with short vowels, long vowels marked a pivotal transformation in the phonological system of the language. It is important to mention that some ME long vowels shifted into diphthongs. For example, the Old English long vowels, ī as in wīf 'wife' and ū as in hūs 'house', began to shift to diphthongs, leading to more complex vowel sounds like /aɪ/ and /aʊ/, which are present in Modern English. The following table demonstrate ME long vowels:

Table 4. ME long vowels (adapted from Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 49)

ME long vowels	Spelling	Examples
[i:]	<i>, <y>, <ij>	Lif, lyf [li:f] 'life'
[e:]	<e>, <ee>	meten [me:tən] 'meet'
[ɛ:]	<e>, <ee>	mete [mɛ:tə] 'meat'
[a:]	<a>, <aa>	name [na:mə] 'name', taak [ta:k] 'take'
[ɔ:]	<o>, <oo>	bo(o)t [bɔ:t] 'boat', ho(o)m [hɔ:m] 'home'
[o:]	<o>, <oo>	mo(o)d [mo:d] 'mood'
[u:]	<ou>, <ow>	how [hu:] 'how', toun [tu:n] 'town'

3. Diphthongs

A remarkable shift occurred in relation to diphthongs. In the ME linguistic era, OE diphthongs underwent monophthongization to become reduced and simplified, whereas new diphthongs came to the surface. These emerging diphthongs were influenced mainly by Norman French and Latin. Examples, taken from Horobin & Smith (2002, p. 49), are as follows:

[aɪ] <ai, ay, ei, ey>, e.g., day, grey

[ɔɪ] <oi, oy>, e.g., joye 'joy', poynt 'point'

[aʊ] <au>, e.g., saugh 'saw'(verb)

[ɔʊ] <ow>, e.g., knowe(n) 'know'

[ɪʊ] <ew> as in newe 'new', lewed 'ignorant'

Lecture Plan

Unit:3 **Middle English Grammar**
Title of the lecture: Middle English Words (Part of Speech)
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites: Knowledge of the Old English grammar.
Objectives of the lecture: Making the students acquainted with Middle English part of speech.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity): This stage involves writing Middle English words and then letting the students guess their Modern English equivalents.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have grasped Middle English grammar.
Lecture components 1. Pronouns. 2. Nouns 3. Adjectives 4. Verbs 5. Adverbs 6. Prepositions 7. Numerals
Informative Assessment Asking the students to form Middle English words, including compound words
Exit File Recapitulating Middle English grammatical rules.

Middle English Words (Parts of Speech)

Beyond its spelling and sound systems, the English language underwent a pivotal shift that covered other linguistic levels, grammar included. Compared to OE, Middle English grammar became less complex, moving from the synthetic language type to the analytic type. This transformation manifested itself mainly in the disappearance of declensions, where word order and auxiliary words played a more central role in indicating grammatical relationships, and the beginning of more stable sentence structure, where English started transitioning toward a more fixed Subject-Verb-Object order.

1. Pronouns

Middle English pronouns saw an ongoing change, especially in their form and usage. The latter emerged when the initial 'h' in Old English third person plural shifted to th-. The transformation started first in the North, touching the nominatives. The examples below, taken from Gelderen (2006, pp. 120-121), illustrate the process:

1 (a). *wat **heo** ihoten weoren; & wonene **heo** comen*

'what they were called and from-where they came'.

1 (b). *That **hem** hath holpen whan that **they** were seeke*

'which helped them when they were ill'.

Another change that Northern England witnessed was the implementation of the feminine singular pronoun sho/she. The following examples illustrate how the OE heo/ha transformed into the new ME form:

2 (a). *Ah þah **ha** gung were ha heold …*

'but though she was young, she kept'

2 (b). *In al denemark nis wimman | So fayr so **sche***

'In all of Denmark there is no woman as fair as she'

The change also manifested itself in the early loss of the dual and early disappearance the accusative forms mec, þec, usic, eowic, hie, and hine. Late ME pronouns can be displayed in the following way:

Table 5. Late Middle English pronouns (adopted from Gelderen, 2006, p. 122)

Pronouns		**Singular**	**Plural**
First	Nom.	ic	we
	Gen.	min	ure
	Dat/ Accu.	me	our
Second	Nom.	thou	ye(e)
	Gen.	thi(n)	your
	Dat/ Accu.	thee	you
Third	Nom.	she/he	they
	Gen.	her/his	their
	Dat/ Accu.	her/him	them

Reflexive pronouns were not common in OE. It was until the late OE that the third person ones came into use, while first and second emerged in ME. For example:

9. þat þou wylt þyn awen nye nyme to **þyseluen**

that you want your own harm bring upon yourself

'that you want to take all your trouble on yourself '.

10. For I ȝelde **me** ȝederly

'Because I surrender myself promptly'.

One of the features that distinguishes ME from OE was the emergence of what is known as the 'ethic dative pronoun', used as reinforcement or emphasis of subject pronouns; for example *he wole him no thyng hyde* 'He will hide nothing' (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 94).

Relative pronouns **that/*þ*at**, **(*þ*e/the) which(e) (that)** also came to the surface during the medial linguistic era. However, the distinction between 'human' relative pronoun **who(m)** and 'non-human' **which** appeared only in Predent-day Engligh; for example, This yongeste, which that wente to the toun 'This younguest (man) who went to the town'. Additionally, the relative **which(e)** was subjected to inflection, indicating the plurality of its referent; examples would be **whiche** they weren 'who they were', **which** he was 'who he was'. '**Wiche'** was sometimes used to refer to singularity when preceded by **'the'**, for instance **the whiche point** 'Which point'. As for Who(m)/whos, they were commonly used as interrogative pronouns, while **whom** and **whos** occasionally function as relative pronouns (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 94).

2. Nouns

In contrast to OE, which inflected nouns for cases classified as nominative, accusative, genitive, and dative, ME inflected a noun phrase for number, gender, case, and person. However, the latter evolved to become more similar to PDE (Horobin & Smith, 2002). In Chaucerian English, nouns were inflected for number (singular/plural) and for the case of genitive singular (possessive). Examples would be stoon→stoones (stone, stones), and kynges (King's), respectively. There was no distinction made in terms of case in the plural in ME. For

instance, **kynges** (kings) and **kynges** (kings'). There was another option 'of', expressing inflected genitive, which emerged during late ME. It derived, on the one hand, from OE 'of', which was used to indicate the material from which something was made, and was encouraged by the French 'de' (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 93).

Plural OE nominative and accusative, ending in –as, changed into -es for all cases in ME, for instance Whan that aprill with his shoures soote 'When April with its sweet showers'. It's important to state that some ME dative nominal ended in -e; for example,

þe from Drihtene com

which from Lord-DAT came

'which came from the Lord' (see Gelderen, 2006, p. 123).

3. Adjectives

Adjectives started losing their inflected form '-e' by Late Middle English, beginning with Northern parts and Midlands. In some ME English varieties, monosyllabic words were inflected based on the number of nouns they modified; for example old man (singular) 'old man', olde men (plural) 'old men'.

OE had two distinct types of adjectives: strong and weak adjectives. The former modified indefinite nouns (without articles, possessives, or demonstratives) and had more complex inflections based on case, number and gender, while the latter modified definite nouns (with articles, possessives, or demonstratives) had simpler, more standardised inflections. This adjective distinction was inherited from the Germanic languages but dwindled across the transition from OE to ME. It started to vanish by the beginning of the fourteenth century from

the varieties spoken in the North, but it remained in the South until the fifteenth century. As a matter of fact, by Early Middle English, adjective endings became simpler and more standardised forms. The loss of inflection was one of the major keys of the shift from the synthetic to the analytic language type.

Another factor leading toward simplifying inflections and making the language more analytic was the use of 'more' and 'most' for comparatives and superlatives. Middle English had a simple pattern as to comparative and superlative forms; for instance, depe 'deep', depere 'deeper', deepest 'deepest'. These forms of adjectives are respectively known as the *positive*, *comparative* and *superlative* forms. This structure was a continuation of the patterns established in Old English but showed an increasing trend toward simplicity and regularity, moving towards a more analytic structure. For instance, OE heah 'high' → heahre 'higher'→ heahst 'highest'; ME strong 'strong'→ strenger/stronger 'stronger'→ strongest 'strongest'. It's important to note that, in ME, the suffixes -er and -est were added to the stem as regular comparative and superlative patterns for monosyllabic words, respectively. It is also noteworthy that the superlative forms differed based on the nature of the adjective, i.e., whether the adjective is strong or weak; for example, 'yongest' and 'the yongeste'. In line with PDE, Middle English knew irregular adjectives like god(e) 'good', better 'better', best(e) 'best'. As for the polysyllabic words, the suffixes ma/mo/mare/more 'more' and mast/most 'most' were added to the stem as regular comparative and superlative patterns; examples would be: most despitous 'cuellest'; mo(o)re precious, moost precious (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, pp. 106-107).

4.Verbs

In Middle English, verbs kept a significant portion of their Old English conjugational structure, albeit with a gradual simplification. This simplification ultimately serves as a foundation for the more standardised and streamlined verb forms found in modern English. A notable characteristic of Middle English verbs is the reduction of inflection. Old English verbs had distinct forms based on person, number, tense, and mood. The Middle English period saw the diminution or simplification of certain inflections, especially in the third-person singular present tense. This inclination toward simplicity persisted in early modern English. In congruence with Old English and Present-day English, Middle English verbs were split into three classes: strong verbs, weak verbs and irregular verbs.

4.1. Strong Verbs

Strong verbs constitute a significant category of verbs that produced their past tense and past participle by altering the vowel inside the root. In other words, the change in the root vowel was intended to indicate different tenses. This process is referred to as **ablaut**. For example, the verb “to fall” would have “fell” as the past tense and “fallen” as the past participle. Approximately one-third of the strong verbs in Old English appear to have become obsolete early in the Middle English period. Approximately ninety of them have left no documented evidence after 1150. Some may have been prevalent in spoken language for a period, but they are not documented, except for the occasional survival of a verb in a modern dialect. Certain forms were uncommon in Old English, while others competed with weak verbs of analogous derivation and meaning that ultimately replaced them. A Number of strong verbs possessed a

weak version, e.g., blowed for blew, knowed for knew, teared for tore, that did not prevail in standard English, while others had both forms that remained in usage, e.g., cleft-clove, crowed-crew, heaved-hove, sheared-shore, shrived-shrove (see Baugh & Cable, 2002, p. 151). Middle English strong verbs were conventionally categorised into seven classes according to their vowel gradation patterns. Each class demonstrated distinct vowel alterations, as displayed in the following table:

Table 6: Classification of Middle English strong verbs

Class I			Class II			Class III			Class IV			Class V			Class VI			Class VII		
ride	rode	ridden	break	broke	broken	sing	sang	sung	steal	stole	stolen	give	gave	given	stand	stood	stood	help	holp	holpen

4.2. Weak Verbs

In contrast to strong verbs, which used vowel alterations inside the root (ablaut) to indicate tenses, weak verbs, which constituted the predominant category of verbs and which were a Germanic innovation (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 115), constructed their past tense and past participle by appending a suffix -ed, -d –t, or -end; for example, walkian 'to walk', Walkeden 'past tense', walked 'past participle'. This pattern has highly contributed to the evolution of the contemporary English verb system, as weak verbs act as the pillar of the contemporary English verb conjugation, making its structure consistent and regular. Despite their consistency, weak verbs occasionally exhibited orthographic and phonological variance, leading to certain deviations. As Middle English transitioned into Early Modern English, weak verb conjugations became increasingly standardised, resulting in the forms we know today.

4.3. Irregular Verbs

Middle English irregular verbs were the outcome of a combination of language change, including vowel shifts, loss of inflectional ends, and external influences like Norman French. Although numerous strong and weak verb forms were preserved from Old English, they underwent transformations that rendered their conjugation increasingly irregular by contemporary standards. An example would be the verb 'to be', as displayed in the following table:

Table 7: Middle English Irregular Verbs (Adapted from Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 116)

To Be								
	Present		Preterite		Imperative		Participles	
	Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	Singular	Plural	Present	Past
1st Person	am	be	was	were			beyng(e)	be(e)(n)
2nd Person	art	be	were	were	be	be(th)		
3rd Person	is	be	was	were				
All Persons Plural	be(e)(n)/ be(e)(n)/ar(e)(n)	ar(e)(n)	were(n)	were(n)				

The rich and intricate system of verb conjugation in Middle English established the foundation for the irregular verbs in Modern English, many of which preserve remnants of these archaic forms. The system of strong and weak verbs in Middle English, along with their diverse patterns and the progressive shift towards a more streamlined grammar, was crucial in the evolution of the English language.

5. Adverbs

Middle English adverbs, like other parts of speech, underwent changes, particularly in their inflections. The Old English adverbial suffix -e, as in soft → softe, gradually disappeared during the Middle English period, especially as unstressed vowels in final syllables were reduced and lost. A propos of the OE suffix -lice, it became -ly in ME. It was used to form adverbs from adjectives and was regularised during this period, eventually becoming the dominant adverbial suffix in Modern English, as in fægerlice → fairly. Along with adjectives, adverbs in Middle English had comparative and superlative forms. The system was largely inherited from Old English but underwent simplifications during the Middle English period; for example, OE heardor 'harder', heardost 'hardest' → ME harder, hardest. Middle English Adverbs are split into two types: adjectival and non-adjectival. Adjectival adverbs are those derived from adjectives (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 112).

6. Prepositions

Throughout the Middle English era, prepositions became increasingly significant and meant for the relationships between words, compensating for the decline and ultimate disappearance of the Old English case system (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 94). Prepositions in Middle

English linked nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other sentence components to indicate relationships of space, time, cause, manner, and more aspects. A great deal of ME prepositions were inherited from Old English, with minor phonological or orthographical changes, while some others came from Norman French and Latin, reflecting the influence of the Norman Conquest. The rest of the prepositions were formed through compounding, blending, or functional shifts; for example, 'into', which is a combination of 'in' and 'to'.

7.Numerals

Middle English, like PDE, possesses two types of numerals: cardinal and ordinal numerals. The phonological and orthographical changes that these numerals witnessed reflected the end of OE and the beginning of ME. The table below demonstrates ME numerals:

Table 8: ME numerals (adopted from Horobin & Smith, 2002, pp. 113-114)

Cardinal	Ordinal
1.oon	first(e)
2. two(o)	seconde, secunde
3.thre(e)	thridde, thirde
4.four	ferthe, fourthe
5.five	fifthe
6.sixe	sixte
7.sevene	seventhe
8.eighte	eighthe
9.nine	ninthe
10.ten	tenthe
11.houndred	
12.thousand	

The first three cardinal numerals (oon, two, three) were inflected in Early Middle English based on case, gender and number, just the same way as they were in Old English. However, all other cardinal numerals were uninflected (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 114; Lass, 1992, p. 122). As for the ordinal numbers, the most prominent change was the replacement of oþer by ME 'seconde', (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, p. 114), which was borrowed from French and Latin.

Lecture Plan

Unit:3 **Middle English Grammar**
Title of the lecture: Middle English Sentence Structure
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Knowledge of the Old English syntactic structure.
Objectives of the lecture Familiarising the students with Middle English syntactic structure.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) This step consists of writing a grammatical sentence in both Old and Middle English versions and then asking the students to spot the difference.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have acquired the syntactic structure of Middle English sentences.
Lecture components ME Sentence Structure
Informative Assessment Asking the students to turn Middle English sentences into Old and Modern English.
Exit File Rehearsing syntactic structure of Middle English sentences.

Middle English Sentence Structure

Middle English sentence structure evolved significantly due to the morphological changes that occurred throughout the Middle English period, particularly the loss of inflections and the increasing reliance on word order to convey grammatical relationships (see Fischer, 1992, p.208). These changes occurred due to the simplification of the Old English case system. As case endings were reduced and eventually disappeared, word order became more rigid to convey grammatical relationships. This was a significant shift from the more flexible syntax of Old English, where case endings on nouns, pronouns, and adjectives carried much of the grammatical information. Early Middle English showed more variation and remnants of Old English structures, while Late Middle English displayed greater standardization and features closer to Modern English. The transition from more flexible to a more rigid word order will be discussed below, with examples taken from Gelderen (2006, pp. 126-132).

1- The verb **for** 'went' occurred after the adverbial and before the subject. However, this VS order had been transformed to SV in Modern English.

Example

*Þis gære for **þe king Stephne** ofer sæ to Normandi*
this year went the king Stephen over sea to Normandy
'In this year King Stephen went over the sea to Normandy'

2- The object preceded the finite verb. This OV order lasted until Late Middle English.

Example

*Hi hadden **him manred** maked and **athes** sworen*
they had him homage made and oaths sworn
'They had done homage to him and sworn oaths'

3- The word order in noun phrase reflected the French influence, where the adjective followed the noun.

Example

in othere places delitables
'in other delightful places'

4- In Middle wh- questions, the verb could be fronted.

Example

Who **looketh** lightly now but palamoun?
'Who looks more cheerful now than Palamon?'

5- Yes/no questions are occasionally introduced by *whether*, reduced to *wher*. The commonest ME word order is the one used in PDE except when the main verb occurs in sentence-initial position instead of the auxiliary.

Examples

Wher is nat this the sone of a smyth, or carpenter?
'Is this not the son of a smith or carpenter?

Wostow nat wel the olde clerkes sawe?
'Know-you nat well the old scholar's saying?'

6- In Early Middle English subject pronouns were not mandatory. However, they became mandatory later, likely after 1250.

Examples

þeos meiden lette lutel of þ he seide. ant smirkinde smeðeliche
'This maiden thought little of what he said and smiling smoothly'

Šef him þullich onswere. al ich iseo þine sahen sottliche isette.

'gave him a smooth answer. I see all your savings are foolishly put out'

cleopest þeo þing godes þe nowðer sturien ne mahen
'Call [**you**] those things good that neither stir nor have power.'

7- Transition to **nominative subjects**. The first of the following two examples shows the earlier version, where the subject was dative, and the second indicates the later version when the subject became nominative.

Examples

a) þer-fore **him** ofte scomede. *7* his heorte gromede
therefore him (Dat.) often shamed and his heart angered
'therefore he often felt ashamed and enraged'

b) þar-fore **he** ofte samede. and his heorte gramede
'Therefore he (Nom.) often felt shame and his heart was troubled.

8- As Middle English inclined to the analytical language type, pleonastic subjects became more common.

Example

With hym **ther** was his sone, a yong squire
"With him there was his son, a young squire."

9- As compared to Present-day English, auxiliaries were less frequent in both Old and Middle English versions.

Examples

What, how! What do ye, maister Nicholay?
"What, hey! What are you doing, Master Nicholas?"

"How may ye slepen al the longe day?"
"How can you sleep all day long?"

10- In spite of their scarcity, the auxiliaries and prepositions 'on' and 'an' were used in Middle English, in certain contexts, to express an ongoing action. It is worth mentioning that the first auxiliary 'do' appeared around 1400. It was used in Middle English for support in questions and negatives; then, later, it became so frequent to cover other cases, such as regular affirmatives. It auxiliary gradually became more prominent in Early Modern English. Auxiliary sequences also emerged during the Middle English era. For illustration, see examples below:

a) þa cheorles wenden to þan wuden. & warliche heom hudden.
alle bute tweien. toward þan kinge heo weoren beien.
and iuunden þene king. þær he wes **an slæting**

'The freemen went into the wood and took cover warily except for two [who] went towards the king where he was on hunting'

b) His yonge sone, that three yeer was of age
Un-to him seyde, fader, why **do** ye wepe?

"His young son, who was three years of age,
Said to him, 'Father, why do you weep?"

c) "I do trowe thee."
"I do believe you."

d) "If I so ofte myghte have ywedded bee."
"If I could have married so often."

11- Middle English retained some features of Old English syntax, though it was beginning to shift due to the loss of inflections and increased reliance on word order. As Middle English progressed, especially in the Late Middle English period, the increasing use of embedding was a significant step to Modern English. The rise in embedded sentences was particularly due to the influence of French and Latin. The following examples demonstrate this shift (b and c would be from Modern English):

a) An preost wes on leoden; Laȝamon wes ihoten.

b) A priest was living among the people and his name was Layamon.

c) A priest, who was named Layamon, was living among the people.

Lecture Plan

Unit:4 **Middle English Lexicon**
Title of the lecture: Middle English Lexicon
Duration of the lecture: 1h 30min
Pre-requisites Understanding of the concept of affixation, compounding and borrowing.
Objectives of the lecture Introducing the students to the Middle English-derived words, compound words, and borrowed words.
Triggering Students' reflection (Warm-up Activity) The phase incites citing words from Middle English and a set of other languages and letting the students guess about their English equivalents.
Students' Outcomes By the end of the lecture, the students will have learnt the Middle English-derived words, compound words and loanwords.
Lecture components **1.** Affixation-based Lexicon **2.** Compounding-based Lexicon **3.** Borrowing
Informative Assessment Asking the students to give their own examples.
Exit File Recapitulating Middle English-derived words, compound words, and loanwords.

Middle English Lexicon

Middle English displayed substantial shifts in vocabulary, reflecting the social, cultural, and political influences of this epoch. The vocabulary developed through the fusion of Old English origins with significant borrowings from Norman French, Latin, and other languages. The Middle English vocabulary expanded and became more diverse throughout this era. Consequently, several terms were introduced to address new concepts in governance, law, religion, culture, and science. This linguistic enhancement produced a more varied and flexible vocabulary, establishing the foundation for Modern English. The ME lexicon falls into three categories: 1) affixation-based lexicon; 2) compounding-based lexicon; and 3) OE-inherited lexicon, as well as those that evolved as borrowings from languages that ME interacted with (Gelderen, 2006; Horobin & Smith, 2002).

1. Affixation-based Lexicon

Affixation in Middle English demonstrates the dynamic interplay between continuity and innovation in the lexicon. The continuity and preservation of Old English affixes provided a basis and groundwork for native word formation, while the incorporation of French and Latin prefixes boosted and provided the language with greater eloquence and rhetoric. This process significantly contributed to the growth of the Middle English lexicon.

1.1. Prefixes

Middle English retained many prefixes from Old English while also incorporating a large number of prefixes from Norman French and Latin. The mixture of the retained and adopted prefixes enhanced the dynamicity of the language during this epoch. Old English prefixes *a-*, *be-*, *un-*, *mis-,* and for- were used to form verbs; for example, arise, believe, unfold, mistake,

and forgive. The Romance prefixes, particularly Norman French and Latin, such as re-, de-, dis-, en- or em-, con- or com-, pre-, sub-, super-, non-, mal and trans-, were incorporated into the language (see Burnley, 1992). Examples would be: renew, decrease, disagree, endanger, empower, *convey,* compress, predict, submerge, supervise, and transform. These contributions demonstrated the cultural and administrative impact of Norman French and Latin, especially in specialised fields like law, governance, and scholarship.

1.2. Suffixes

ME suffixes, like prefixes, are of two types: those derived from Old English and others taken from Romance languages, mainly French. Native suffixes created to make abstract nouns were -dom, -hede (-hade, etc.), -lac (-lec, etc.), -ness, -ship, and -ung (-ing, etc.); for example, fredom, liklihede, worship, and makyng. Romance suffixes, which were diverse and more frequently used, are -acy, -age, -al, -aunce (-ence, etc.), -(a)cioun (-ation, etc.), -(e)rie, -ite, and -ment. Other native suffixes were used to form agent nouns, some of which are -er(e), -end, -el, and -ling, for instance, worshiper, allwaldend, and fosterling. The Romance ones, such as -ant, -ard, -arie, -erel, -esse, -ist, -istre, and -our, were used in words like servant, niggard, secretary, ministre, and conquerour. With regard to suffixes that form adjectives, native suffixes were -ed, -en, -fold, -ful, -ig (-y, etc.), -less, -ly (-lich, etc.), -som (-sum, etc.), -ward, and -wise, as in thousandfold, blisful, homeward, and otherwise. The Romance ones were -able, -al, -ive, and -ous, used in words like mesurable, moral, and jalous (see Gelderen, 2006, pp. 132-133).

2. Compounding-based Lexicon

Compounding, the process of combining two or more words to create a new term with a distinct meaning, has been an essential mechanism in the development of the English language.

Compounding is one of the oldest and most productive processes of word construction in English, persisting from Old English into Middle English and beyond. However, as Middle English lexicon was heavily influenced by French and Latin, which introduced numerous loanwords, this linguistic epoch was marked by a decline in compounding as compared to OE and Early Modern English (see Williams, 1975; Burnley, 1992; Gelderen, 2006). The most effective kinds of OE compound nouns continued to appear in ME, with a variety of forms: noun + noun, as in bagpipe, toadstool, nightmare, and wheelbarrow; adjective + noun, e.g., sweetheart, quicksand, and commonwealth. Other new sorts of combinations also emerged: noun + verb, e.g., sunshine; verb + noun, as in hangman; verb + adverb, e.g., runabout; and, finally, adverb + verb, such as outcast (see Horobin & Smith, 2002).

3. Borrowing

The Middle English was characterised by significant lexical growth resulting from extensive borrowing from other languages. These borrowings evolved from historical, social, and cultural transformations that significantly impacted the linguistic landscape. The Norman Conquest, in 1066, was the fuel for a major linguistic upheaval in England. This event reinforced the influence of Latin, the language of the church and scholarship, alongside English, the indigenous language, and introduced Anglo-Norman French as the language of the ruling elite, the court, and law. Together, these languages created a diverse linguistic environment. This linguistic diversity led English to borrow thousands of words from both Latin and French in order to enrich its vocabulary. Worthy of note are other languages from which English borrowed, but to a lesser degree compared to French and Latin. The languages that interplayed in the development of Middle English are as follows (see Horobin & Smith, 2002, pp. 72-75):

3.1. Norse Loans

Norse loans appeared in OE, but there were very few. However, ME witnessed an extensive borrowing from Norse. These borrowed words, most of which were very common concepts, are still used in PDE. Examples would be bag, bull, cast, dwell, egg, root, ugly, window, and wing. English also borrowed third-person plural pronouns: they, them, and their.

3.2. Latin Loans

There were Latin words that came directly into English, such as 'testament,' 'omnipotent,' and others that were introduced through French, like 'purgatorie.' Latin was also a vehicle for words from languages into English, such as Arabic, Hebrew, Slavic, and Hungarian; for instance, 'saffron,' 'cider,' 'sable,' and 'coach,' respectively. Latin loans reached their most from the 15th century onwards. This period was associated with what was called 'Aureate diction.' Aureate vocabulary basically evolved from Latin and was distinguished as a high poetic diction used for special ceremonial or religious occasions.

3.3. French Loans

The language that remarkably influenced ME was French. From 1066 up to the 13th century, French loanwords were few but revealed the dominance of this language, particularly in areas of law, governance, and culture; examples would be justice, obedience, mastery, prison, and service. Many of these words originated from Norman French (NF), often illustrated by the unique form of the borrowed word in Present-day English (PDE), which is different from Modern Standard French (MSF) equivalents; for example, PDE 'war'→ ME and NF 'were'→ MSF 'guerre'; PDE 'carpenter'→ ME and NF 'carpenter'→ MSF 'charpentier'; PDE 'glory'→ ME and NF 'glorie'→ MSF 'gloire'. From the 14th century onwards, ME borrowed French

words from French Central dialects at a higher degree. French was associated with the upper classes, i.e., the use of French along with English was a sign of belonging to a high social class.

3.4. Celtic Loans

Celtic loanwords were not as influential as the French ones. Although ME recorded a few Celtic loanwords first, their use seems to have predated ME, probably during the Anglo-Saxon era; for example bard, clan, crag, glen. There were words that were probably borrowed directly from Celtic, such as bald, gull, and hog, and others borrowed indirectly via French, like change, garter, and mutton.

3.5.Low German and Dutch Loans

The influence of Low German and Dutch on Middle English came as an outcome of the rising trading relations between England and the major trading ports of the Low Countries, such as Antwerp (now in Belgium). However, the range of vocabulary is restricted, such as halibut, skipper, and pump, which are derived from maritime links, and bung, cork, and tub, which evolved from trading containers. A few other words, such as clock, grime, tallow, and wriggle, do not belong to any specific register.

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Glossary

Ablaut

An alternation in the vowel of a root or stem, e.g. the inflectional variation in English 'strong verbs' to mark past tense, sing–sang–sung, and past participle, think–thought, or the derivational variation in English deverbal nouns sing–song; think–thought. Most frequently used of such variation in older Indo-European languages (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 4).

Accusative

A term in the case system of Latin. The accusative is the form of a noun marking the direct object of the verb. The noun *mensa* (table) is accusative in the sentence *Mensam vidi* (I saw the table). The term has sometimes been used to label words functioning as objects of verbs in English sentences. Although nouns in English do not have accusative forms, seven pronouns inflect in this way: *I/me, thou/thee, he/him, she/her, we/us, they/ them, who/whom.* '*Me*' can therefore be described as the accusative of 'I' (McArthur, 1992, p. 11).

Affix

The collective term for the types of formative that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem), i.e. affixes are a type of 'bound' morpheme. Affixes are limited in number in a language, and are generally classified into three types, depending on their position with reference to the root or stem of the word: those which are added to the beginning of a root/stem (prefixes), e.g. ***un****happy*; those which follow (suf- fixes), e.g. *happi****ness***; and those which occur within a root/stem (infixes). Less common terms include **circumfix** or **ambifix**, for a combination of prefix and suffix (as in *en-light-en*). The morphological process

whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem is known as **affixation** ('prefixation', 'suffixation', 'infixation'). From an alternative point of view, affixes may be divided into inflectional and derivational types (Crystal, 2008, pp. 15-16).

Allomorph

One of two or more surface forms which are assumed by a single morpheme in varying circumstances. The negative prefix *in-,* for example, exhibits several allomorphs in such words as *indecent, impossible, irrational* and *ignoble* (Trask, 1996, pp. 32-33).

Allophone

Any of the different variants of a phoneme. The different allophones of a phoneme are perceptibly different but similar to each other, do not change the meaning of a word, and occur in different phonetic environments that can be stated in terms of phonological rules. For example, the English phoneme /p/ is **aspirated** (see aspiration) when it occurs at the beginning of a syllable (as in *pot*) but **unaspirated** when it is preceded by /s/ (as in *spot*) and may be **unreleased** when it occurs at the end of an utterance (as in "he's not her *type*"). These aspirated, unaspirated, and unreleased sounds are all heard and identified as the phoneme /p/ and not as /b/; they are all allophones of /p/ (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 21).

Bilingualism

The use of at least two languages either by an individual (see bilingual) or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or nation. The use of two languages by an individual is known as *individual bilingualism*, and the knowledge of two languages by

members of a whole community or the presence of two languages within a society is called *societal bilingualism* (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 60).

Borrowing

A word or phrase which has been taken from one language and used in another language. For example, English has taken *coup d'état* (the sudden seizure of government power) from French, *al fresco* (in the open air) from Italian and *moccasin* (a type of shoe) from an American Indian language. When a borrowing is a single word, it is called a **loan word (**Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 55**)**.

Bound Morpheme

A morpheme which can never stand alone to make a word but which must always he combined with at least one other morpheme, such as the derivational affixes *re-* and *-er* (in *rewrite* and *writer),* the inflectional affixes plural *-s* and past *-ed* (in *cats* and *lived*) (Trask, 1996, pp. 32-33).

Case

A grammatical category that shows the function of the noun or noun phrase in a sentence. The form of the noun or noun phrase changes (by inflection) to show the different functions or cases. For example, German has four cases, nominative, accusative, dative, genitive. Some languages, e.g. Russian, have more than four cases, others have fewer, and some have none at all. In these languages the functions shown by case marking may be shown by word order or by prepositions. English marks case only on pronouns. Three cases are recognized: Nominative: I, we, you, he, she, it, they, who; Objective: me, us, you, him, her, it, them, who (m); and

Genitive: my, our, your, his, her, its, their, whose (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 69). It is worth mentioning that Old English had four case, nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive.

Compound

A term used widely in descriptive linguistic studies to refer to a linguistic unit which is composed of elements that function independently in other circumstances. Of particular currency are the notions of **compounding** found in 'compound WORDS' (consisting of two or more free morphemes, as in such 'compound NOUNS' as *bedroom, rainfall* and *washing machine*) and 'compound SENTENCES' (consisting of two or more main clauses); but other applications of the term exist, as in 'compound VERBS' (e.g. *come in*), 'compound TENSES'(those consisting of an auxiliary + lexical verb), 'compound SUBJECTS/ OBJECTS', etc. (where the clause element consists of more than one noun phrase or pronoun, as in *the boys and the girls shouted*) and 'compound PREPOSITIONS' (e.g. *in accordance with*) (Crystal, 2008,pp. 96-97).

Consonant

A speech sound where the airstream from the lungs is either completely blocked (stop), partially blocked (lateral) or where the opening is so narrow that the air escapes with audible friction (fricative). With some consonants (nasals) the airstream is blocked in the mouth but allowed to escape through the nose (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 120).

Dative

Case marking signalling a recipient: e.g. Latin miles soldier-NOM vs militi soldier-DAT as in Marcus militi gladium dedit Marcus-NOM soldier-DAT sword-ACCU give-PST 'Marcus gave the soldier a sword'. The dative case in classical Greek occurs with prepositions of place,

and the dative in Turkish signals both transfer of items to a person and movement to a place, e.g. adam 'man' – adama 'to the man', Ankara – Ankaraya 'to Ankara' (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 120).

Epithet

In grammar and stylistics, a word or phrase which characterizes a noun and is regularly associated with it. Examples include *the* ***haunted*** *house*, *the* ***iron*** *lady* (when Mrs Thatcher was British prime minister), and *William* **the *Conqueror***. The term can also be found in pejorative contexts (as in *They hurled foul epithets at each other for several seconds*) (Crystal, 2008, p. 171).

Free Morpheme

A minimal grammatical unit which can be used as a word without the need for further morphological modification (opposed to bound),(Crystal, 2008, p. 198). For example: fine, close, learn, etc.

Gemination

(1) Doubling, duplicating, pairing, repeating, twinning. (2) In phonetics, the 'doubling' of a consonant sound (in effect, holding it for roughly twice the usual length), as in Italian, in which it is indicated in writing by double letters *(Anna, espresso)*. Gemination does not occur in present-day standard international English, but did occur in Old English: contrast *biden* pronounced like 'bidden' and *biddan,* whose /d/ elements were like those in 'bid Den'. Speakers of languages in which gemination occurs may be tempted to carry it over into English because it has so many words spelt with double consonant letters (McArthur, 1992, pp. 429-430).

Gender

A grammatical category used for the analysis of word-classes displaying such contrasts as **masculine** (**m**, **masc**, **MASC**), **feminine** (**f**, **F**, **fem**, **FEM**) and **neuter** (**n**, **neut**, **NEUT**), **animate** and **inanimate**, etc. Discussion of this concept in linguistics has generally focused upon the need to distinguish **natural gender**, where items refer to the sex of real-world entities, and **grammatical gender**, which has nothing to do with sex, but which has an important role in signalling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence (adjectives agreeing with nouns, etc.). The gender systems of French, German, Latin, etc., are grammatical, as shown by the form of the article (e.g. *le v. la*) or of the noun (e.g. nouns ending in *-a* are feminine). Grammatical gender is not a feature of English, though some parts of the language can be analysed in such terms (e.g. the correlation between pronouns, *he/she* co-occurring with *who/whose*, etc., whereas *it* co-occurs with *which*) (Crystal,2008, p. 206).

Genitive

One of the forms taken by a noun phrase (often a single noun or pronoun) in languages which express grammatical relationships by means of inflections. The genitive case ('the genitive') typically expresses a possessive relationship (e.g. *the boy's book*), or some other similarly 'close' connection (e.g. *a summer's day*); but there is a great deal of variation between languages in the way this case is used (Crystal, 2008, p. 210).

Grammar

The word 'Grammar' has different meanings. It refers to. 1) The system by which the words and morphemes of a language are organized into larger units, particularly into sentences, perceived as existing independently of any attempt at describing it. 2. A particular description

of such a system, as embodied in a set of rules. 3. The branch of linguistics dealing with the construction of such descriptions and with the investigation of their properties, conventionally divided into morphology and syntax (Trask, 1996, pp. 121-122).

Grapheme

In linguistics, a minimal unit in a writing system, consisting of one or more symbols serving to represent a *phoneme.* Each grapheme is realized in writing or print by its *graphs,* such as the different ways of writing and printing an a or a *t.* An individual graph, when compared with another graph or representing a grapheme, is called an *allograph* (McArthur, 1992, p. 452).

Great Vowel Shift

A sound change that began c.1400 and ended c.1600, changing late Middle English long, stressed monophthongs from something like the sounds of mainland European languages to those that they now have: for example, Middle English *fine* had an *i* like Italiano *fino*. Words that entered English after the completion of the shift have often retained the original sound, as in *police:* compare *polite,* which entered earlier. In terms of articulation, the Middle English front vowels raised and fronted and the back vowels raised and backed; vowels already at the top became diphthongs with *ah* as the first element and the old vowel as the second, as in *fine*. The shift marked a major change in the transition to Early Modern English, and is one reason why works of Geoffrey Chaucer and his contemporaries sound so unlike present-day English. *Chaucer's a in fame* sounded much like the *a* in present-day *father,* his *e* in *see* like the *a* in *same,* the *i* in *fine* like the *ee* in *fee,* the *o* in *so* like the *aw* in *saw,* the *o* in *to* like the *oe* in *toe,* and the *ou* or *ow* in *crowd* like the *u* in *crude* (McArthur, 1992, p. 453).

Infix

A term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added within a root or stem. The process of **infixation** (or **infixing**) is not encountered in European languages, but it is commonly found in Asian, American Indian and African languages (e.g. Arabic) (Crystal, 2008, p. 243).

Inflexion/ Inflection

The process of adding an affix to a word or changing it in some other way according to the rules of the grammar of a language. For example, in English, verbs are inflected for 3rd-person singular: *I work*, *he/she works* and for past tense: *I worked*. Most nouns may be inflected for plural: *horse – horses*, *flower – flowers*, *man – men* (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 281).

Mood

A set of contrasts which are often shown by the form of the verb and which express the speaker's or writer's attitude to what is said or written. Three moods have often been distinguished: 1) **Indicative mood**: the form of the verb used in declarative sentences or questions, as in '*She sat down*'; 2) **Imperative mood**: the form of the verb in imperative sentences, as in '*Be quiet!*' In English, imperatives do not have tense or perfect aspect, but they may be used in the progressive aspect, as in '*Be waiting for me at five.*'; 3) **Subjunctive mood**: the form of the verb often used to express uncertainty, wishes, desires, etc. In contrast to the indicative mood, the subjunctive usually refers to non-factual or hypothetical situations. In English, little use of the subjunctive forms remains (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 375).

Morpheme

The smallest meaningful unit in a language. A morpheme cannot be divided without altering or destroying its meaning. For example, the English word *kind* is a morpheme. If the *d* is removed, it changes to kin, which has a different meaning. Some words consist of one morpheme, e.g. *kind*, others of more than one. For example, the English word *unkindness* consists of three morphemes: the stem 'kind', the negative prefix '*un*-', and the noun-forming suffix '*-ness'*. Morphemes can have grammatical functions. For example, in English the -s in *she talks* is a **grammatical morpheme** which shows that the verb is the third-person singular present-tense form (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, pp. 375-376).

Morphology

The branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words, primarily through the use of the morpheme construct. It is traditionally distinguished from syntax, which deals with the rules governing the combination of words in sentences. It is generally divided into two fields: the study of inflections (**inflectional morphology**) and of word-formation (**lexical** or **derivational morphology**) – a distinction which is sometimes accorded theoretical status (**split morphology**) (Crystal, 2008, p. 314).

Nominative

A term in the case system of Latin and other inflected languages, typically marking a noun or pronoun as the subject of a sentence. The nominative is the citation form of nouns and pronouns listed in dictionaries and the first or top form in declension tables. *Marcus* is the nominative of the Latin name whose equivalent in English is *Mark,* and has the masculine

nominative inflection *-us*. In English, the subjects of sentences have sometimes been described as nominatives (McArthur, 1992, p. 702).

Phoneme

In many phonological theories the phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of a particular language or dialect. It is the minimal unit that distinguishes between meanings of words. The phonemes of a language can be found by constructing minimal pairs, that is pairs of words with different meanings that differ in a single segment. For example, the English word pin can be represented by the phoneme sequence /pin/ where /p/ contrasts with /b/ in bin and with /t/ in tin; /i/ contrasts with /a/ in pan and /ʌ/ in pun and so on (Brown & Miller, 2013, p. 339).

Phonology

A branch of linguistics which studies the sound systems of languages. Out of the very wide range of sounds the human vocal apparatus can produce, and which are studied by phonetics, only a relatively small number are used distinctively in any one language. The sounds are organized into a system of contrasts, which are analysed in terms of phonemes, distinctive features or other such **phonological** units, according to the theory used. The aim of phonology is to demonstrate the patterns of distinctive sound found in a language, and to make as general statements as possible about the nature of sound systems in the languages of the world (Crystal, 2008, p. 365).

Predicate

That constituent of a sentence, most typically a verb phrase, which combines with the subject NP to make up the complete sentence. Examples: *Lisa [enjoyed the film]*; *Your photographs*

[are ready]; *I [have already finished marking your essays]*. In some languages, certain types of sentences can have predicates which, superficially at least, are of categories other than VP, as in the Turkish example *Hasan biiyiik* 'Hasan is big', in which the predicate has the surface form of an adjective phrase (Trask, 1996, p. 213).

Prefix

A term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem. The process of **prefixation** (or **prefixing**) is common in English, for forming new lexical items (e.g. *para-, mini-, un-*), but English does not inflect words using prefixes. Languages which do inflect in this way include German (e.g. the *ge-* of perfective forms), Greek, and many American Indian languages (e.g. the Athapaskan family) (Crystal, 2008, p. 382).

Preterit

A term used especially in traditional grammar, but with some use in linguistics, to refer to a form of the verb expressing past time without any aspectual consideration; also called a 'simple past tense'. A preterite form ('the preterite'), such as *I spoke*, would thus contrast with such **non-preterite** forms as *I was speaking*, *I have been speaking*, etc. (Crystal, 2008, p. 385).

Suffix

An affix added at the end of a word, base, or root to form a new word: *-ness* added to *dark* to form *darkness; -al* added to *leg to* form *legal.* Two distinctions are usually made: (1) Between a derivational suffix proper, such as *-ness* and *-al,* which creates derivative words, and an inflectional *ending,* such as *-s* added to form the plurals of nouns, which changes the inflection of a word. (2) Between a *productive suffix,* which actively forms words *(-ness: darkness,*

newness, quaintness, wordiness) and a *non-productive suffix,* which does not *(-ledge: knowledge)* (McArthur, 1992, pp. 999-1000).

Syntax

A major component of the grammar of a language (together with lexicon, phonology, and semantics), syntax concerns the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language. The interface between syntax and morphology (for example, the rules for modifying words to reflect their grammatical roles in sentences) is called morphosyntax (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 577).

Umlaut

In historical linguistics and philology, a term describing a sound change in which a sound is influenced by the vowel in the following syllable. An example is Germanic **gosi*, where the final vowel caused a change of /*o*/ to /*i*/, resulting in modern English *geese* (Crystal, 2008, p. 500).

Vowel

A speech sound produced without significant constriction of the air flowing through the mouth. Usually, a vowel is described in terms of : 1) **Voicing,** In English, all vowels are voiced (except when whispering); 2) **Part of the tongue**, 'front vowels' (the front part of the tongue is raised, as in eat), 'central vowels' (the central part of the tongue is raised, as cup), 'back vowels' (the back part of the tongue is raised, as in cool); 3) **Height of the tongue**, meaning how high the tongue is raised, 'high/ close vowels' as in beat, 'mid/half close vowels' as in bait, low/open vowels as in bat; 4) Whether the vowel is tense or lax; 5) **Lips position**, 'unrounded/

spread' as in she, 'neutral' as in bird, 'rounded' as in book; 6) **Length,** English vowels are divided into 'short vowels' as in knit, and 'long vowels' as in knee (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 632).