Word Order in Old English, Middle English and Present-Day English

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Red riječi u staroengleskom, srednjovjekovnom engleskom i suvremenom engleskom jeziku

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Abstract

As English language developed from the times of Old English (450-1100), into Middle English (1100-1500), and then to Modern English (1500-present), several grammatical and morphological changes followed the development of the language. The language advanced from the free word order in the Old English times to the fixed word order in the Modern English. Old English had the SOV pattern as the base word order with the SVO as the dominant order in main clauses. In the Middle English the situation was a bit different with the SVO order posing as the base word order. As the Modern English went through a process of standardization, the base word order remained SVO with and occasional appearance of OSV. This paper discusses not only the base word order of all three eras of development of English language but the historical evolution of the people and the language in general.

Key words: Old English, Middle English, Modern English, present-day English, word order, the English language

Contents

1. Introduction

The English language belongs to the West Germanic group of languages and has been spoken since the Germanic tribes invaded the British Isles in the fifth century. It is in the present day one of the widespread languages in the world. Many works, journals, books, essays and other prose works, such as this paper, have in one way or the other tried to describe different aspects or give a full account of the development of the English language. This paper aims to analyse, compare and describe the word order of English from its earliest times until the present.

The purpose of this introductory chapter is to name some of the main issues that are involved in the study of the history of the English language (Knowles, 1997). The first chapter, chapter 2., will be divided into three different sections. In the first section, a brief outline of the earliest history of the British, Old English, will be given. In the two subsequent sections the changes in major characteristics of the English language and the word order of the Old English will be explained. This chapter will have an additional section comparing the word order of the prose and poetry texts of the Old English.

Chapter 3 will give a description of the English in the times of Middle Ages. This chapter will be modelled after chapter 2, as the information will also be distributed into three sections. The first section will describe the history of the English people and language of the Middle English. The other two sections will give, as in chapter 2, an analysis of the major characteristics of the language at the time and the changes in word order since the Old English times. The changes in times of the present-day English will be explained as in chapters 2 and 3. and do not need to be described further at this point. The differences between the prose and poetry will not be explained in as much detail in the Middle and present-day English as in chapter 2.

The paper will end with a conclusion summing up the most important facts and findings explained in chapters 2 through 4.

2. Word Order of Old English

As one of the most widely used languages, the English language is a source of great interest for numerous historians and linguists all over the world. In order to understand it and to understand all the changes it went through throughout the course of history it would be of great benefit to have an overview of all the historical, social and political circumstances that influenced the English language. Additionally, before explaining the word order of the Old English times, some major changes in English grammar and vocabulary will have to be addressed.

2.1. A Brief History of the English People and the English Language

The very first inhabitants of the British Isles, according to historians, were the Celts. The tribes of Cimbri and Gali invaded the Isles 4000 years ago. The names of those tribes can be heard and seen in the languages Cymru, and Scottish and Irish Gaelic that are still spoken in Britain (Maček, 2007). The influence of the Celtic languages on the present-day English is practically nonexistent. Only a few Celtic words have survived to this day and they include river names: *Thames, Don, Exe, Usk, Wye* and *Avon (river)* (Crystal, 2003). *Dover (water), Eccles (church)* and *Bray (hill)* are some of the town names whose origins can be found in the Celtic language. Celtic tribal names have also been included in the naming of towns such as *London, Kent* and *Devon* (Crystal, 2003, Maček, 2007). Aside from the names of towns and rivers, family names and first names are also known to have Celtic origin such as *Owen, O'Connor, Kennedy, Fiona, Ian* and *Gwendolyn* (Maček, 2007). However, that is as far as the Celtic influence reaches in the present-day English.

Latin, on the other hand, had, with the growth of the Roman Empire, been a major influence not only in Britain, but throughout Europe as well. All the major languages in Europe have been influenced by Latin both in their vocabulary and their grammar (Knowles, 1997).

The Romans ruled Great Britain from 43 AD to 410 AD. During that time they left a legacy of roads and towns. Their impact on the language of the Britons is just as great. According to Maček (2007) the endings of towns such as *Manchester, Doncaster* and *Leicester* have their origins in the Latin word *castrum* (military camp). Crystal (2003) claims that a great deal of new words introduced by the Romans have to do with plants, animals, food and drink,

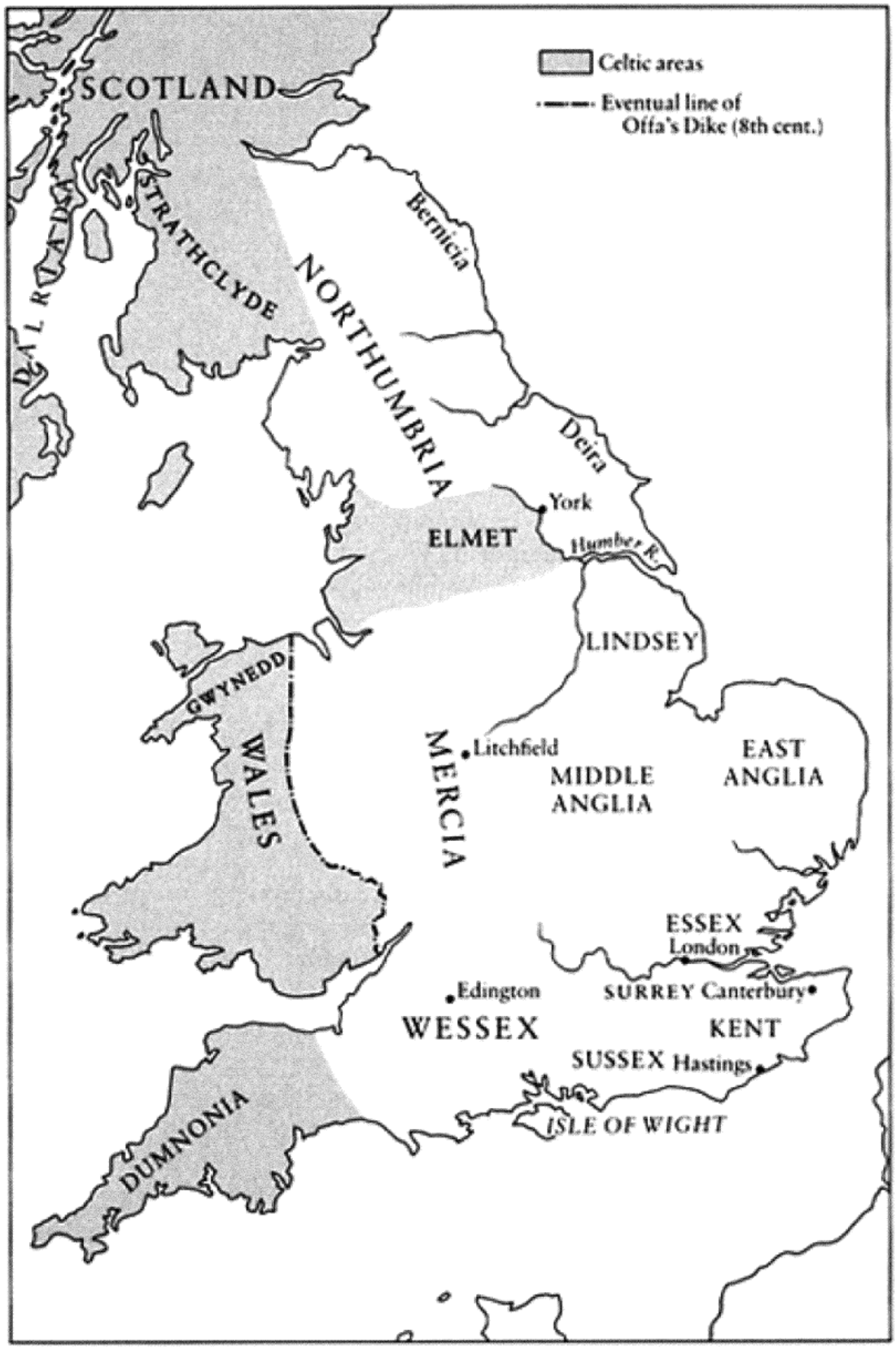
household items, clothing, buildings, military and legal institutions and religion. Here is a list of some of those words: plante (plant), catte (cat), win (wine), cyse (cheese), cetel (kettel), belt (belt), weall (wall), wie (camp), scrifan (decree), munuc (monk).[1] These words have been in use regularly to this day.

As mentioned before, aside from enriching the vocabulary of the Britons, the Latin speaking Romans contributed to their grammar as well. By accepting their words they did not seem to have much choice but to accept their syntactic rules. The influence of the Romans stretched all the way to the period of the Anglo-Saxons and the Old English.

Venerable Bede, an Anglo-Saxon historian and monk of the monastery in Jarrow in the north of England, wrote a *History of the English Church and People* in Latin, which describes the settlements of the Germanic people, the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the territory of the British Isles (Maček, 2007). According to Bede, the Celts were experiencing a period of considerable hardships in the fifth century. They were continuously being attacked and invaded by Scots and Picts from the north of the Isles. And after being rejected by the Romans in their plea for help, they turned to the Saxon nation and their king Vortigern (Crystal, 2003). The tribes are described as the three most powerful of Germany, Angles, Saxons and Jutes (Crystal, 2003). Although they were called for help, the Germanic tribes soon turned against the Celts, becoming more of a threat than the peoples they have been brought in to fight (Robinson, 2005).

The monk portrayed each of the three settler tribes. The Jutes came from Jutland in Denmark and settled in the areas of Kent and parts of Hampshire (Crystal, 2003). The Angles were next to arrive to the British Isles. They came from the province Angeln in Schleswig, settling in the parts of Mercia, Northumbria, East and Middle Anglia (Crystal, 2003). The Saxons came from the southern and western area of the coast of the North Sea and inhabited an area that was to be known as Essex, Sussex and Wessex in the southern and south-eastern parts of Britain (Crystal). All of this can be seen in Map 1 below (Robinson, 2005:119).

[1] A full list of words is available in Crystal, D. (2003) 3. Old English. *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language. CUP. p. 8*


Celtic areas
Eventual line of Offa's Dike (8th cent.)
SCOTLAND
DAL RIADA
STRATHCLYDE
Bernicia
NORTHUMBRIA
Deira
York
ELMET
Humber R.
LINDSEY
GWYNEDD
WALES
MERCIA
Litchfield
MIDDLE ANGLIA
EAST ANGLIA
ESSEX
London
Edington
SURREY
Canterbury
WESSEX
KENT
SUSSEX
Hastings
ISLE OF WIGHT
DUMNONIA

Map 1. Anglo-Saxon political divisions around A.D. 600 (After Fisher, 1973, by permission in Robinson, 2005:119)

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, soon after arriving the Germanic people transformed from allies to invaders. After having defeated the barbarians, Scots and Picts, the tribes turned to settle into their new home, the British Isles and thus changed the very core of existence of the native Celts. By the end of the fifth century the Anglo-Saxons had laid the foundation for the English language. And by the end of the sixth the term *Angli* (Angles) had already been in use and during the seventh century *Angli* or *Anglia* became the usual Latin names to refer to the country of Great Britain (Crystal, 2003). Old English *Engle* derives from this very name.

Before Latin was introduced, the language that had been used in Britain was called *runic futhorc*. The runic alphabet was used in northern Europe, present-day Germany and the British Isles (Crystal, 2007). The runic inscriptions in OE are found on weapons, jewellery, rocks and stones date back to the fifth and sixth century. Knowles (1997) even claims runes were used for magical purposes, which not only sparks interests of many historians but it also gives the runes an air of mystery.

The Germanic tribes left quite an impact on the language of the natives. Their influence is most visible in geographical and place names, some of which are the following: *-burn, -bourne, -brook* (brook) - Blackburn, Claybrooke; *-ford* (shallow area in a river that can be crossed by animals) - Oxford (a ford for the oxes); *-bridge* - Cambridge (bridge on the Cam); *-stead* (farm, house) - Hampstead (a place where hemp is grown); *-ham* (home, dwelling place) - Nottingham (home of the men of Snotta), Cheltenham, Birmingham (Maček, Part I 2007:4-5).

With the introduction of Christianity to the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, a new literacy culture evolved with it (Knowles, 1997). Missionaries were sent from Rome by Pope Gregory to Kent in 597 to convert the pagans to Christianity (Knowles, 1997). The very first bishopric was founded in Canterbury, the Kentish capital, in collaboration with the kings of Northumbria and Kent. It took about a hundred years for all England to be successfully converted. Consequently, the Latin script was introduced instead of the runic futhorc and was in full use until the Viking raids in the eighth century.

Vikings, also called "Northmen", made their appearance in the seventh century in the Western Europe (Robinson, 2005). By the tenth century they had already occupied Orkney and

Shetland Islands, the Faeroes, the Hebrides and eastern Ireland, where they founded Dublin (Maček, 2007). Aside from the Scandinavians, the Danes also spent their time in the mid-ninth century raiding the land of the Britons. Not even two decades later, the kingdoms of Northumbria and most of eastern Mercia were under their control. Between the Norwegians and the Swedes on one side, and the Danes on the other, there was very little territory left under Anglo-Saxon control. The attacks ended in 1016 with the accession of the Anglo-Saxons to the throne of England (Robinson, 2005). Their rule came to an end in 1066 with the Norman conquest of England.

The Viking influence is noticeable in the culture and the language of England and Scotland. As many before them, they left their mark on the place names in Yorkshire, the Lake District, Cheshire, Lincolnshire, the East Midlands, East Anglia and the islands of Scotland (Maček, 2007). As is listed in Maček (2007:7) there are a few endings that are characteristic for the Vikings: -*by* (village) - Newby, Kirkby (village with a church), Crosby (village with a cross); -*thorp* (village) - Newthorp, Easthorpe; -*thwaite* - (clearing) Langthwaite (long clearing); -*ness* (promontory) - Holderness, Inverness. Maček (2007) also mentioned a rather interesting characteristic of the Northmen of putting their personal names in place names such as Thurston, Turton (Thor, Tor), Grimsby (Grim) and Kedleston (Ketil).

The standardization of the language began with the king Alfred the Great in the ninth century. There were four Anglo-Saxon kingdoms where all the power was centred around, and consequently four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish and West Saxon (see map 2). A standard language was forged from the dialects of those four kingdoms (Knowles, 1997). Alfred the Great had, together with the Saxons, risen to power and thus made the West Saxon dialect the dominant one. It was, because of that, adopted as the official written language within and outside of Wessex (Knowles, 1997).

Map 2. Old English Dialects (After Knowles, 1997:35)

Through all of the Germanic, Viking and Danish raids and conquests, the Celts seemed to have been completely forgotten. The parts of Britain that were still speaking Gaelic were placed in the Highlands. The natives managed to refrain from speaking English for almost a thousand years after the settlements of the Germanic tribes. Eventually though, as the Anglo-Saxons took control of the Celtic kingdoms, the local population gave up their own language and began speaking English.

2.2. Major Characteristics of Old English

A language related to Modern English was spoken in Britain since the early fifth century (Knowles, 1997:12). The language itself went through almost as much as the people of the British Isles. All of the conquests that lasted from the fifth and all the way until the tenth century left an irreversible trace on the language. And this only referrs to the times of Old English, not

mentioning all the changes the English language would go through in the Middle English and even modern times. Before even trying to explain the word order of the Old English, some other aspects of vocabulary and grammar need to be addressed first.

It is a known fact that more is known about the phonology and morphology of the Germanic languages, which includes the Old English, than about their syntax (Robinson, 2005:140). The differences in pronunciation between Old English and present-day English are also fairly simple to determine. As far as consonants are concerned, a large number of them are pronounced the same way in present-day English as they were in Old English. The letters *p* and *t* are a wonderful example of this:

(1) ‘ūp’up

‘æt' at

The consonants *b* and *d* are also uncomplicated (Robinson, 2005:133):

(2) 'dæg' day

'bringan' bring

The letters *r, l, m, n* and *w* (Robinson, 2005) can be grouped in the same category as the previous four consonants.

There are some consonants that are a bit more complex and that can have two or more different ways of pronouncing. Only a few will be listed here.[2]

The letter *k* is very rarely used and is only a variant of *c* in Old English (Robinson, 2005). If the letter *c* comes before a back vowel or a consonant it is pronounced with a *k* sound. However, if the letter *c* is placed before a front vowel it is pronounced with a *č* sound (Robinson, 2005). This sound is equivalent to the Modern English pronunciation of *ch* (chips).

(3) ‘cuman’ come

‘geciegan’ name (v.)

[2] A full account of pronunciation of consonants is given in Robinson, Orrin W. (2005) Old English and its Closest Relatives. A Survey of the Earliest Germanic Languages. *Taylor and Francis e-Library. p. 132-134.*

If the letter *h* comes at the beginning of a word and before vowels, it is pronounced the same way as in Modern English. But if *h* is placed in the final position or before consonants, it is pronounced as [x]:

(4) ‘habban’ have, hold

‘dohtor’ daughter

Old English has, as expected, five vowel symbols, *a, e, i, o, u,* both long and short. In addition to these, Old English has diphthongs of various kinds.

Sohng and Moon (2007) claim that long vowels have gone through considerable modification. The changes and differences and similarities in pronunciation between Old English and Modern English will be shown in the next few examples:

(5) *a* as in habban (have)

ā as in ān (one, a)

æ as in hæfde (had)

ǣ as in lǣfan (leave)

e as in beran (bear)

ē as in hēr (here)

i as in bringan (bring)

ī as in rīcsian (reign)

o as in morgen (morning)

ō as in sōna (soon)

u as in sum (some)

ū as in ūt (out)

y as in cyning (king)

ȳ as in gehȳran (hear)

As far as vocabulary is concerned, it does differ quite a bit from the English of today or even Middle English. Old English can be divided into two periods of time, the times before the arrival of the Germanic tribes and the times after it. There is very little of Celtic origin that still remains in the English language. Only a small number of words, mostly river names and names of various towns and places, are still in use today. The Celts have been familiar with Latin before the Germanic tribes came, a courtesy of the Roman conquests, but all of their achievement was almost completely lost with the tribes’ arrival in the fifth century.

After the settlements of Germanic tribes, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes, the language went through a considerable transformation. Most of what is called Old English today corresponds with the language of Anglo-Saxons. They introduced new vocabulary and new grammar.

Although some of the natives still spoke Celtic, mostly in the Scottish Highlands, they were persuaded to embrace the new language by the settlers later on. As stated earlier, the vocabulary of Old English is mostly Germanic, and a large part of it has disappeared from the language (Sohng and Moon, 2007). When the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity, Latin language was introduced yet again. The Latin vocabulary accepted by the Anglo-Saxons is used regularly today. However, the language did not have all those French words that were introduced later during Middle English times. As Sohng and Moon (2007) state, 85% of all Old English vocabulary did not survive into modern times. Those words that have survived are the basics of the present-day English, for example: hūs (house), mann (man), wīf (wife, woman), cild (child), gōd (good), lēaf (leaf) (Sohng and Moon, 2007:162).

Grammar is the most distinctive feature of Old English that differs from present-day English. It is very difficult to try to investigate grammar of a language that no longer exists. The written records are all the linguists have to go on and even that is sometimes not very dependable to draw definitive conclusions.

Keep in mind that Old English was under Latin influence for a period of time due to the introduction of Christianity to the Anglo-Saxons. It is known therefore as an inflectional language, much like Latin, whereas present-day English lost most of the inflections used in Old English times (Sohng and Moon, 2007). In present-day English, the subject and the object do not have distinctive forms as they do in Latin (Sohng and Moon, 2007). Another feature of present-day English is that it only has inflectional endings in the possessive case and in pronouns to indicate the other relations marked by case endings as is the case in Latin and consequently in Old English (Baugh and Cable, 1993, as cited in Sohng and Moon, 2007:163). Old English inflections will be discussed in more detail right below.

According to Maček (2007:13), Old English was a synthetic language with all the inflections that other Germanic languages had. Even though Old English was under Latin influence, it had fewer inflectional categories. The inflectional endings are only briefly mentioned in the above paragraph, however, there is much more to them than that. As presented in Maček (2007), the nouns of Old English had inflectional paradigms for masculine, feminine and neuter gender regardless of the sex of the referent. The type of gender just described is called *grammatical gender*. The following examples of grammatical gender are given in Maček (2007:13): *day* (masculine), *night* (feminine), *child* (neuter).

Other than gender, number is another important category in noun inflections. Old English had a singular and plural, which is a characteristic of number of present-day English as well. The plural ending –*ru* was found in nouns such as child-cild*ru* (Maček, 2007). As can be noted from the example noun, the ending is not completely lost in present-day English. As the author noted, the consonant -*r* of the ending -*ru* remains in use to this day as exemplified in child-child*r*en.

Nouns were also inflected for case. The cases and their syntactic and semantic roles in Old English are portrayed by Maček (2007:14) as follows:

	synctactic	semantic
nominative	subject	agent
accusative	direct object	patient
dative	indirect object	recipient, beneficiary
genitive	modifier	possessive, partitive

The changes in inflection of nouns during Middle and present-day English were great and will be explained in chapters 3 and 4. For now, it is important to know the state of nouns, as well as adjectives and verbs, and their inflections during the Old English period.

Adjectives in Old English had a common Germanic feature; they had to agree with the noun they modified in number, gender and case. According to Maček (2007:14), adjectives had two sets of inflections depending on whether the noun phrase was preceded by a determiner or not as exemplified (6):

(6) a. *mid þæm langan scipe* (with the long ship-dat. sing. neuter-definite declension)

b. mid langum scipe (with a long ship- dat. sing. neuter-indefinite declension)

Maček (2007:17) distinguishes two tense paradigms, *Present* and *Preterite*, and indicative, subjunctive and imperative as mood forms. The subjunctive mood no longer exists in present-day English and during Old English it expressed something that was heard or reported. Each of the paradigms has three forms for singular and one form for plural (Maček, 2007). The mood forms above are referred to as finite. The Infinitive and Past and Present Participle are in turn called the non-finite forms. As is probably obvious, the tense inflections, participles and the third person singular are still in use.

Old English was a synthetic language with many inflections that had more than one function and more than one form. The forms of the words and their endings showed the functions of words in a sentence as well as their place in it. As a result the word order of Old English is marked as a free one.

To summarize, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and inflections are all factors that help differentiate Old English from present-day English. Word order of Old English will be explained in the next section of chapter 2. The discussion that will take place will be based on the three following texts: a prose text *Apollonius of Tyre* (9th or10th century) and two poetry texts found in Robinsons' work *Old English and its Closest Relatives* (2005:126-128), "*The Sower and the Seed*" (9th or 10th century) and "*Cynewulf and Cyneheard*"(755).

2.3. Word Order of Old English

At the very end of the last chapter, several texts were named: *Apollonius of Tyre*, *The Sower and the Seed* and *Cynewulf and Cyneheard*. The first text was written in prose and the two found in Robinsons' *Old English and Its Closest Relatives* (2005:126-128) are written in verse. In this chapter, word order of Old English will be compared to the word order of present-day English. In addition to various rules that are going to be given, so will the examples, extracted from the three above-mentioned texts, be listed supporting those rules and explanations.

Some sentences in those texts seem to have very similar word order as that of the present-day English, showing the subject-verb-object pattern as in example (7):

(7) a. And þā hē sēow, some fēoll wið þone weg

And when he sowed, some fell towards the way (Robinson, 127)

b. Her onginneð seo gerecednes be antióche þam ungesæligan cingce & be apollonige

þam tiriscan ealdormen.

Here begins the narative about Antiochus the unfortunate king and about Apollonius the

Tyrian prince. (Thorpe, Ball, I)

Quite a few similarities can be drawn between Modern Dutch and German and Old English. Seeing that the three languages all belong to West Germanic family of languages, it is

no wonder that such a comparison is possible. German and Dutch both exhibit SVO pattern in the main clause (Sohng and Moon, 2007), as exemplified in the following sentences:

(8) Ich wasche das Auto jede Woche. (German)

I wash the car every week.

(9) Ik las dit boek gistern. (Dutch)

I read the book yesterday.

As is well known, Old English is a V2 language (McFadden, 2005), i.e. the verb appears in the second position of a clause. This fact is affirmed in the afore-mentioned languages, German and Dutch (8), (9). It should be emphasised that even though a few clauses were found that show similarities between Old English and present-day English, the word order of those two stages of English differ significantly.

It is true that sentences in Old English include verbs mostly in the second position. Nevertheless, there are a few exceptions to every rule and this one is no different. The verb begins the clause when giving commands and in direct yes-or-no questions (10) as is the case in present-day English (Robinson, 2005). The verb can furthermore appear in the clause-final position in subordinate or embedded clauses (11) as the V2 rule seems to disappear in those types of clauses. And even in independent clauses the verb is found in a clause-final or nearly clause-final position (12). All the same, it should be noted that such verb-final independent clauses in Old English are almost always found non-initially in a sequence of narrative clauses, the first of which usually has the verb in the second position (Robinson, 2005:143) (13).

(10) Gehȳre

Listen (Robinson, 127)

(11) a. þa he of slæpe awóc

when he from sleep awoke (Thorpe, Ball, III.)

b. Ond ymb XXXI wintra þæs hē rīce hæfde

And after 31 winters after he kingdom had (Robinson, 127)

(12) a. And hē hī fela on bigspellum lærde

And he them much on parables taught (Robinson, 126)

b. ðises cyninges cwén wearð of life gewiten

This king's queen worthy of life died (Thorpe, Ball, II.)

(13) ond hē wræc þone aldormon Cumbran

and he avenged the nobleman Cumbran (Robinson, 127)

The already given and exemplified (11) verb-final pattern appears in the embedded context introduced by a subordinate conjunction, or in the relative clause introduced by a relative pronoun (14b) (Sohng and Moon, 2007).

It has been agreed that Old English, along with other Proto-Germanic languages, was an SOV, subject-object-verb, language, as illustrated in the following examples (14, 15):

(14) a. ðæt mæden hyre &swerode

The maiden her answered (Thorpe, Ball, IV.)

b. þ*æt* þ*æt* mæden hire deaðes girnde

that the maiden her death desired (Thorpe, Ball, IV.)

(15) a. Ond sē Cynewulf oft miclum gefeohtum feaht

And the Cynewulf often great battles fought (Robinson, 127)

b. sēo sunne hit forswǣlde

the sun it burned (Robinson, 127)

According to Robinson (2005) there were two exceptions to the verb-last rule. He claims that a small class of light verbs (be, have, become) could shift to a position immediately after the first stressed element in a clause (to second position) (16). In addition, verbs could be emphasised by putting them in the first position in a clause (Robinson, 2005:143) as already demonstrated in example (10).

(16) Hwa wæs æfre swa dirstiges modes

Who was ever so daring mind (Thorpe, Ball, IV.)

Old English, as an SOV language, tends to have adjectives preceding nouns (17), genitives preceding nouns (18) and prepositions following their nouns (19) (Robinson, 2005:143).

(17) gōd land

good land (Robinson, 127)

(18) þæs cyninges naman

this king's name (Thorpe, Ball, II.)

(19) him beæftan

him behind (behind him) (Robinson, 128)

Several of those rules can be found in modern languages such as German and English. Placing adjectives and even genitives, at least those indicating possession, before nouns, is still common in present-day English (Robinson, 2005). Postposition, as seen in the example (19), is very rare even in Old English and could only be found when prepositions are involved.

Most scholars agree that Old English was a language with free word order as opposed to present-day English, which has a fixed word order. As previously noted, SVO was the pattern that prevailed in main clauses of Old English, while SOV pattern dominated in the subordinate clauses. Sometimes even those rules were broken, as the SVO pattern could be found in embedded clauses (20).

(20) þa ða se fæder þohte hwam

when the father thought whom (Thorpe, Ball, III.)

In addition to the two patterns, SVO and SOV, VSO was used in the Old English, although not as much as the previous two. This word order continued to still be in use in the Middle English. Here are some examples of the VSO word order:

(21) a. ut ēode sē sǣdere his sǣd to sawēnne

out went that sower his seed to sow (Robinson, 127)

b. & gewilnode his agenre dohtor him to gemæccan

and desired his own daughter him to mate (Thorpe, Ball, III.)

c. ond þā ongeat sē cyning þæt

and then perceived the king that (Robinson, 127)

As can be seen in one of the previous examples (21c) the verb of the clause can be introduced by *þā* or *þonne* 'then' or by a preposition. The rich inflectional system of Old English appears to allow the post-verbal position of both subject and object (Lavidas, 2007:246). This pattern does not seem to have as many restrictions as the previous two patterns of word order. As SVO appears in main clauses and SOV in the embedded ones, the VSO pattern manifests itself in both of those clauses.

Taking all that was said about all three word order patterns, SVO, SOV and VSO, Lightfoot (1974, 1979, 1981, 1997a, 1997b), Canale (1978), Traugott (1965) (Sohng and Moon, 2007:169) and Sohng and Moon (2007) propose the SOV pattern as base word order in Old English.

Inversion, subject-verb inversion to be precise, occurred frequently in Old English when a non-subject is in the non-initial position (Haeberli, 2007). Haeberli (2007:15) claims that such word orders are reminiscent of the V2 phenomenon. A consequence of this phenomenon is that when the clause-initial constituent is not a subject the order of subject and verb are inverted.

(22) þā stigon ðā þornas

then climbed those thorns (Robinson, 127)

The examples (21a.-c.) are also examples of the subject-verb inversion. The verb is fronted in almost all examples except (21a.) where the preposition *out* is fronted. For the sake of variety two examples from Haeberli (2007:16), which in turn are taken from *The York-Toronto-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Old English Prose*, will be taken (23):

(23) a. ðæt wat ælc mon

that knows every man

b. And egeslice spæc Gregorius be ðam

And sternly spoke Gregorius about that

(23a.) has an object in the initial position while (23b.) has fronted an adverb. As Haeberli (2007) states, in both cases the subject follows the finite verb.

The subject-verb types of inversion exemplified above (21-23) were very frequent in the Old English but they are no longer considered grammatical in the present-day English.

2.3.1. Differences in Word Order between Prose and Poetry Texts of Old English

Three different texts, *Apollonius of Tyre*, *The Sower and the Seed* and *Cynewulf and Cyneheard* have been chosen for this paper. The first of the three texts is written in prose while the other two are examples of poetry texts. In this chapter, the major differences between the previously given prose and poetry texts will be listed. As this comparison needed to be reliable, only the first six sections of the prose text were selected to be included in the paper to match the size of the poetic texts.

According to Kemenade (2002), negated clauses are found more frequently in poetry texts than in prose ones. In the two texts, *The Sower and the Seed* and *Cynewulf and Cyneheard*, negated clauses are encountered 7 times while that number decreases to 2 in *Apollonius of Tyre.* Although Kemenade (2002) claims that negations appear clause-initially, in the texts mentioned above, examples of the said hypothesis can only be found in *Apollonius of Tyre* (24).

(24) Hwi ne segst þu hit þinum fæder

Why no sayest thou it your father (Thorpe, Ball, IV.)

Most of the clauses in texts written in verse have placed the negated element in the second place or near clause-finally (25).

(25) þā cuǣdon hīe þæt hīe þæs ne onmunden

then spoke he that he those no cared for (Robinson, 128)

It is a fact that Old English is a V2 language which means that the finite verb is found in the second position of a main clause. This rule is affirmed over and over again in *Apollonius of Tyre* which is not true for *The Sower and the Seed* and *Cynewulf and Cyneheard.* Old English is indeed an SOV language that, however, is not very noticeable when reading a prose text. Most verbs are found in the second position in *Apollonius of Tyre*, the main ones and the auxiliary

ones (26). While reading one of the two texts written in verse it is obvious that there is a greater number of clauses present where the verb is placed in the final position (27).

(26) Leofe fostor-modor. nu to dæg forwurdon twegen æðele naman on þisum bure.

Dear foster-mother, now to day perished two noble names in this chamber.

(Thorpe, Ball, IV.)

(27) for þām hit wyrtruman næfde

for them it roots had (Robinson, 127)

The reasons for the preference of verb-final position in poetic texts could be connected to the stress of the verse. When the stress of the verse is on the final part, as is mostly the case in poetry of Old English, it may attract the verb to pose as a central part of the verse.

3. Word Order of the Middle English

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the period of Middle English, the form of the English language which was spoken and written in England between c. 1100 and c. 1500. Other than presenting numerous changes the English language went through during those 400 years, the historical and social facts will be introduced in chapter 3.1., as those undoubtedly affected the language itself. In the next section some major changes concerning vocabulary and grammar will be illustrated. Finally, the word order of Middle English will be introduced in section 3.3. All in all, at the end of the whole chapter 3, it will be clear how Middle English came into being as a distinct form of English.

3.1. The History of the English People and Language after 1066

History of Old English is full of conquests, settlements and various language changes. From the Romans in 43 AD and their introduction of Latin, the Germanic tribes in the fifth century with their own language until the conquests of *Northmen* in the seventh century, the language and the people of the British Isles changed so much and so many times that it was impossible to retain a semblance of their own originality.

It is said that the history of the Anglo-Saxons ends with the battle of Hastings in 1066. As Edward the Confessor ascended the throne in 1042, England was reoriented towards France and

the former Roman empire (Knowles, 1997). This led them away from the Norwegians and the Danes. With the Norman defeat of the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 a new era of England begins. For the next 300 hundred years English and French remained in very close contact.

Old English was spoken throughout England when the Normans defeated King Harold, the Anglo-Saxon leader. It was true that there were four distinct dialects, Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish and West Saxon, spoken in the Anglo-Saxon kingdom. However, West Saxon was the dialect from which the standard language, standard for those times, developed. English was then used for both speech and writing (Horobin and Smith, 2002) until the latest conquest which changed the situation in England completely.

As the language of the conquerors, it would be of great benefit to give a clarification of the French language that was spoken in the eleventh century France. There were two dialect groups spoken in France: the language of the north called *langue d'o'il — oil* being an older form of the modern *oui*, and the language of the south, *langue d'oc* (Knowles, 1997:57). France did in fact have a king in Paris who ruled Ile de France and the neighbouring duchies Normandy, Burgundy and Brittany (Knowles, 1997). All the duchies spoke different kinds of French and depending on which duke ruled England, in this case the duke of Normandy, it was decided which version of French would be spoken in England. When the Normans came they laid claim to on all the high offices, church and state and thus making French the language of the ruling class.

As mentioned in section 2.1., Christianity was introduced to the Anglo-Saxons in the year 597. And with Christianity came Latin. This meant that Latin had approximately four centuries to develop and stake its claim to that territory. No matter who conquered the Anglo-Saxons and what new language they brought could not erase completely a language that had developed for several centuries. It is no wonder then that English and French were both considered inferior to Latin (Knowles, 1997). As the English and French language both had limited uses in medieval England, Latin was used as the language of record. That was until the fourteenth century when French took over that responsibility and later English.

French was essentially the language of the aristocracy. As above-mentioned, from the middle of the thirteenth century, French was beginning to be accepted as an alternative language of record (Knowles, 1997:58). There were times when both languages were used simultaneously, for example in 1215 for *Magna Carta* (Horobin and Smith, 2002). In various states of office Latin was still in use until the fifteenth century.

The texts surviving until the present-day English date mostly from the Middle English. There are not many manuscripts from the Anglo-Saxon times. The earliest of the Middle English texts are written within a stretch of about a hundred years after the conquest and represent the end of the West Saxon tradition (Knowles, 1997:60). As Latin and French replaced English in writing of such texts, English continued to be spoken and written by the ordinary people. Latin was, as said before, used as a language of record and in church while French was being used in court and by the aristocrats. With the fall of Normandy, English began to reappear. However, the English that emerged was never quite the same.

English began to emerge in 1258 when Henry III issued his Proclamation in English and French which is not surprising (Horobin and Smith, 2002). Many of the texts from that period were written in two, possibly three languages, English, French and Latin. A great change was brought in the form of a Hundred Years War in 1337 under the rule of Edward III. According to Knowles (1997), one of the effects of the war was to force Englishmen and Frenchmen to see themselves as belonging to different peoples. Not only did the change occur on the linguistic level, but the cultural one as well. The fourteenth century, 1340 (Horobin and Smith, 2002) to be precise, is therefore considered to be in a way a division between the Early Middle English and Late Middle English.

English took over most of the functions assigned to French before the war. English then took over in the courts of law, but it will be a long time before the language would be used fully in all the proceedings, more accurately in the eighteenth century. Another important year for the English language is 1363, the formal opening of parliament, when English was used after a long period of French domination. French was spoken by the king as the first language by the end of the century. However, with the rule of Henry IV the situation changed drastically. He came to the throne in 1399 as the first king of England since the conquest who had English as his mother tongue (Knowles, 1997:62).

One of the events that marked the fourteenth century was the plague, also known as the Black Death. This situation brought about various social and economic changes. With so many people passing away, there was a great labour shortage and this in turn meant an increase in prosperity for the remaining lower classes (Horobin and Smith, 2002). These people joined an, up until then, new group in society, the middle class. People moved to the cities, London, York, Norwich, Oxford and Gloucester to look for better opportunities and prospects. These are the places where the merchants, traders and manufacturers found their home, in the new up-and-

coming towns that became the centres of a newfound power of the middle classes. The merchants and traders were very important for the English language. As many of their businesses developed, they had to travel overseas to sell and buy various kinds of merchandise. As a consequence, English began to develop on an international level.

By the end of the fourteenth century there is a recognizable variety of written English which can be traced to the modern standard (Knowles, 1997:64). The new standard was found in London English that resembled the dialect of east midlands.

French ceased to be used as a prestigious form and as a consequence a prestigious form of English began to evolve. However, it was not the English known from before the Norman conquest. French and Latin had left a permanent mark on the language. Fifteenth-century English was filled with loanwords from French and Latin. Although a national standard of English began to emerge, Samuels (1963) identifies four different varieties, showing different regional influences (Knowles, 1997:64). The varieties are as follows: central Midlands standard (Wycliffite), earlier fourteenth-century London (Auchinleck), later fourteenth- \early fifteenth-century London (Ellesmere) and post-1430 London Chancery\King's English (Horobin and Smith, 2002:44). Aside from the four different varieties of the national standard, Middle English had, just like Old English and present-day English, several different dialects. The Middle English dialects were divided into five geographical areas: the North, the West and East Midlands, the South-East and the South (Horobin and Smith, 2002:59) as can be seen in Map 3 below.

The reason for the growing dominance of London English were the activities by traders and merchants mentioned in the paragraph above that placed London as a trade centre of England. English began to impose itself as the commercial language of London, but it spread to other areas of England as well, wherever the trade brought them.

Map 3. Schematic map of the dialects of Middle English (After Horobin and Smith, 2002:60)

3.2. Major Characteristics of Middle English

The Middle English period (1100-1500) began with the Norman conquest of the Anglo-Saxons in 1066. As previously mentioned, the result of the said conquest was a contact between English and French that lasted for several centuries. Throughout that time, a large number of French words and expressions and even features of grammar were borrowed into the English

language (Knowles, 1997). During the Early Middle English times (1100-1300) French was mostly spoken in England. The circumstances were quite different in the Late Middle English (1300-1500) when people struggled to reclaim control over their own land and language. The language of that period began to take shape that was very similar to that of the present-day English.

There have been many changes in pronunciation in the Middle English, not all of them can be ascribed to French influence (Knowles, 1997). When describing the Middle English pronunciation it would be best to use Chaucer and his works as a basis for the research since all the major changes will have occurred by then. For the sake of simplification, the changes in spelling will be listed and exemplified together with the changes in pronunciation as those two areas of are interconnected.

One of the first changes is the loss of the Old English *þ* (thorn) and *ȝ* (yogh). The first of the two tended to be replaced more and more by *th* while the latter was gradually being replaced by *y* initially and *gh* medially (Horobin and Smith, 2002).

U and *v* were used interchangeably to represent both the vowel *ʊ* and consonant *v*, while *v* was generally used initially and *u* elsewhere (Horobin and Smith, 2002:56).

The spelling of the long and short vowels is definitely worth mentioning. The short vowels [ɪ, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ] were generally spelt <i/y, e, a, o, u> respectively (Horobin and Smith, 2002:57). The long vowels [i:, e:, ɛ:, a:, ɔ:, o:, u:] were spelt <i/y/ij, e/ee, e/ee, a/aa, o/oo, o/oo, ou/ow> respectively (Horobin and Smith, 2002:57) and only a few will be exemplified below (28).

(28) [o:] as in hooly

[e:] as in breeth

One of the biggest differences between the Old English and Middle English is in the diphthongs. Old English diphthongs merged with other sounds during the transition from Old English to Middle English, and new diphthongs emerged (29) through borrowings from French (Horobin and Smith, 2002:58).

(29) [aɪ] <ai, ay, ei, ey> as in veyne, lay

[ɔɪ] <oi, oy> as in joye

[aʊ] <au> as in straunge

[ɔʊ] <ow> as in knowthe, toward

[ɪʊ] <ew> as in shewe

Chaucerian English does not seem to have any silent letters (30) (Horobin and Smith, 2002).

(30) sweete [swe:tə]

Gh was pronounced as *x* (Horobin and Smith, 2002), as in *nyght*. The silent pronunciation of *gh* appeared later on in the fifteenth century.

Words such as *condicioun* were pronounced with *sj*, rather than with present-day English ʃ.

Using French as a model language, the grammar of the English language was altered. Under French influence, Middle English began to use *who* as a relative pronoun (Mustanoja, 1960:187-206, as cited in Knowles, 1997:68).

Old English distinguishes between *thou*, used to address one person, and *ye* for more than one person (Knowles, 1997). After the French *vous* the English *you* was created. *You* takes over the functions of both *ye* and *thou* gradually so that the distinction between the singular and plural is lost (Knowles, 1997). Even though *thou* can still be encountered in the fifteenth century, it was mostly used among intimates, by people of a lower class. *You*, as a novelty among the nobility, was used in a distant and superior relationship (Knowles, 1997).

During the Middle English times many of the Old English distinctions disappeared (Sohng and Moon, 2007) resulting in a complete transformation of the English grammar. As one of the aspects that went through a considerable change, the general reduction of inflections will be described next. In the example (31) taken from Sohng and Moon (2007:11) the change is illustrated:

	Sg.	Pl.
(31)	N stan	N stanas

G stanes	G stana
D stane	D stanum
A stan	A stanas

With the partial loss of inflection both singular and plural cases have been reduced to three. The dative case disappeared almost completely together with the ending *-s* of the possessive singular and nominative and accusative plural (Sohng and Moon, 2007). The relationships that were formerly expressed by dative and also accusative were now being expressed by prepositions and word order (SVO), to distinguish between the subject and the direct object (Maček, 2007).

According to Maček (2007), verbs were affected by the reduction of inflections as much as nouns. This resulted in development of more complex structures such as the future tense. As Maček has explained (2007), the Middle English formed the future tense with the help of an auxiliary verb, finite form + main verb, non-finite form.

The synthetic forms were preferred in Old English; however, during the Middle English period the analytic ones were starting to make an appearance. Aside from the mentioned future tense, the perfect and the progressive form were beginning to develop. Both forms developed from both past participle (perfect) and present participle (progressive).

Again, as was the case with nouns, word order became more and more important indicating which elements of an utterance, sentence, or phrase belonged together (Maček, 2007).

As for vocabulary of Middle English, it goes without saying that due to the contact with the French, vocabulary went through an irreversible change. Words that were borrowed from French belong to different areas: cuisine, government, law, sport, fashion, morals, social relationships, etiquette, etc. (Knowles, 1997). Some of those examples are listed here (Chambers and Daunt, 1931, as cited in Knowles 1997:68): suggestion, mayor, sergeant, appear, court, recorder and accused. Even the animals bearing English names such as *ox*, *pig* and *sheep*, took on the following French names *beef*, *pork* and *mutton* (Knowles, 1997). The following list of collocations and expressions borrowed from French are taken from Prins (1952) at random (Knowles, 1997:68): *par cause de* (because of), *condemner a mort* (condemn to death), *tomber malade\amoureux* (to fall ill\in love), *enemi mortel* (mortal enemy), *s'il vous plait* (if you please), *prendre quelque chose an consideration\a coeur* (to take something into consideration\to

heart). The borrowing has lessened considerably by the end of the fourteenth century when English takes over; however all those above-mentioned changes, concerning grammar, pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary, have proved to be permanent.

3.3. Word Order of the Middle English

In this section of the third chapter word order of Middle English will be investigated. The word order will also be compared to that of the Old English times in order to give a clearer overview of the changes that occurred since then. Although it may be beneficial to divide the description into two categories, Early Middle English and Late Middle English, it will be not done so in this paper. The changes that occurred from 1100 to 1300 are very similar, if not the same, as those that occurred during the Late Middle English times. The journey of those changes will simply be completed by then. The texts upon which the research will be based on are *The Canterbury Tales, Lines 001-162 (The General Prologue)* written by Geoffrey Chaucer at the end of the fourteenth century and *Book of the Knight of La Tour-Landry: compiled for the instruction of his daughters,* chapters 1-5, by Geoffroy de La Tour-Landry (14th century). Almost all examples supporting the rules and hypotheses will be taken from these texts. It should also be pointed out that both texts are works of the Late Middle English period.

It is a well-known fact that the base word order of the Old English times is the SOV pattern (14, 15). This has been the general agreement among linguists despite the appearance of two other patterns SVO (7) and VSO (21). SVO was the pattern found in the main clauses while the SOV was used in the embedded ones. The word order of the Middle English changed considerably since those early times and started to resemble the word order of present-day English.

One of the more significant changes in the history of English syntax is the shift from object-verb (OV) to verb-object (VO) order (Moerenhout and van der Wurff, 2005:83). This change started to occur in the Early Middle English and continued on into the Late Middle and even present-day English. There are linguists that claim that the change took place abruptly in the twelfth century, however, linguists such as Susan Pintzuk (1991, 1996, as cited in Moerenhout and van der Wurff, 2005:83) are convinced that a change of such magnitude took time to develop. She claims there is evidence of the VO order in the Old English times which, as noted above, is true. Allen (2000), Kroch & Taylor (2000), and Trips (2002) demonstrate that there is still much surface of the OV order in the Early Middle English times and Ingham (2002), Moerenhout and van der Wurff (2002) even go so far as to say that that particular order is still in

use in the Late Middle English (Moerenhout and van der Wurff, 2005) which will be discussed in more detail further on.

From the times of Early Middle English SVO pattern begins to appear both in main and embedded clauses. This pattern continued to develop later in the Late Middle English as illustrated in examples (32, 33).

(32) a. And smale foweles maken melodye

And small birds make melody

b. That slepen al the nyght with open eye

That sleep all the night with open eye (Chaucer, 9, 10)

(33) a. And whanne her fader wost she was with childe

And when her father knew she was with child

b. y sawe so gret nombre of dede men

I saw so great number of dead men (de La Tour-Landry, Chapter III.)

The examples from both texts, *The Canterbury Tales* and *Book of the Knight of La Tour-Landry* show an occurrence of the SVO pattern in the main as well as the subordinate clauses. Even though the SVO pattern was the agreed base word order for the Middle English, SOV could still be found occasionally in the Middle English. There are very few examples of the SOV order in the two above-mentioned texts and for the sake of variety and supporting the above-mentioned statement, the following examples will be provided from a text called *Jacob's Well* and from another text written by Chaucer, Melibee found in Sohng and Moon (2004:15) (34):

(34) a. I may no sorwe haue.

I may no sorrow have. (Jacob's Well, 21\17)

b. it hym conserveth florissynge in his age

it him conserves flourishing in his age (Chaucer, Malibee 995)

As can be noted from the example (34a), the object preceding the verb is a negated object. Negative objects are most frequently found in Late Middle English texts represented by

nothing and *no* (Moerenhout and van der Wurff, 2005). Negation in the Old English times was expressed through *ne*+V[finite], however in the Middle English the negative element *not* is placed after the finite verb as can be seen in example (35). Negative element *ne-* was still in use in the Early Middle English and it can still be encountered in the Late Middle English (36). Negative elements can be found in a clause-final position as well as is illustrated by the following example (35):

(35) as he that huntithe and takithe not

as he that hunted and took not (de La Tour-Landry, Chapter V.)

(36) He nevere yet no vileynye ne sayde

He never yet no rudeness no said (Chaucer, 70)

What is interesting about example (36) is the triple negation. It was quite common in the Old English and Middle English times for a clause to contain more than one negation. *No* and *never* are quite common but *ne* is an Old English negative element that has disappeared completely after the fifteenth century.

Adjectives, as is well known, take a pronominal place in a clause in present-day English. During the Old English and Middle English times their position varied from pre- to postmodifying function. If an adjective or an adjective phrase precedes the head noun, the adjective (phrase) modifies our perception of the head noun: together they form one whole information unit (37) (Fischer, 2006). When an adjective (phrase) follows the head noun, the head noun gets noticed and processed first (38) (Fischer, 2006). The noun and the adjective (phrase) form in this case two separate units. The adjective (phrase) only gives additional information about the head noun. This iconic principle of linear or sequential order is one of the subtypes of iconicity of motivation (Haiman, 1980 as cited in Fischer, 2006:255).[3]

(37) sweete breeth sweet breath

ful devout corage full devout courage

(38) no man ferre no man farther

With lokkes crulle with locks curled

[3] Iconicity of motivation 'exploits the resulting linearity of the linguistic sign' so that 'the order of elements in language parallels that in physical experience or the order of knowledge (Haiman, 1980:528, as cited in Fischer, 2006:255)

Fischer (2006) argues that adjectives placed before nouns are thematic while the postposed ones are rhematic. That means that the preposed adjectives refer to information already given while the postposed adjectives give new information about the head noun. The thematic adjectives (phrases) are usually placed early in a clause while the rhematic ones can be found later on.

Even though adjectives (phrases) could be placed in either position, pre- and postmodifying ones, the ones that found their place before nouns were more frequent throughout the history. Favouring of the premodifying order led towards the development of fixed order. Fixed word order and fixed placing of adjectives may also have led to stacking of adjectives in front of the noun phrase (Fischer, 2006:261). This development led to the formation of hierarchal ordering of preposed adjectives with the first adjective acquiring scope over the second (Fischer, 2006:261).

In the Middle English, the subject-verb inversion that was so common in the Old English and that will be encountered frequently in present-day English is rarely found during that period. Haeberli (2007) ascribes it to the French influence. Although he does claim (2007) that inversion can be found in the works written by Chaucer (39).

(39) a. Ful worthy was he

Full worthy was he (Chaucer, 47)

b. And thereto hadde her ridden

And therein had he ridden (Chaucer, 48)

In the example (39a) the subject complement is fronted while an adverb is placed in initial position in example (39b). Subject is placed in the in the first example after the finite verb, however, the second example presents the subject in an embraciated position, between an auxiliary and the main verb.

The examples do show that even though the subject-verb inversion is scarcely found in the Early Middle English, it does make an appearance in the later period of the middle Ages.

In chapter 2, a comparison between the prose and poetry texts was made (Section 2.3.1.). It is not necessary to have the same detailed discussion in this chapter so it will only be discussed

briefly. A description will be given of the difference of OV word order between prose and poetry texts.

According to Moerenhout and van der Wurff (2005) the usage of OV order throughout the Middle English times was from six to twenty times more frequent in the poetic texts than the prose ones. The OV pattern undergoes a rather radical reduction in usage from 1340 to 1470 in both poetry and verse and even when objects are found preceding a verb in a sentence they tend to be short, consisting of only one or two words that are adjacent to the verb (Moerenhout and van der Wurff, 2005). By the end of the Late Middle English the OV pattern will have almost completely disappeared from the language.

Other than the OV pattern, the word order of prose and poetry is remarkably similar.

4. Word Order of Present-Day English

The last chapter ended with the ever growing influence of the London English standard and the loss of French influence. All of the changes that came about in the Middle English proved to be permanent and contributed to the standardisation of the English language. The purpose of this chapter then is to describe further development of those changes and the development of a few new ones. Before that, a few historical facts that took place after the year 1500 will have to be listed.

4.1. The New World of the English People and the English Language

The fifteenth century was a time of the Renaissance and its advance through Europe. The countries among which are Italy, France, Germany and England went through a rebirth of the arts and sciences of the ancient Greece (Maček, 2007). During the Middle Ages religion became very powerful, it even held control of the government and education. This is only one of the reasons why King Henry VIII. declared his Church's, the Church of England, independence of Rome. He was aware that the Church was in dire need of a reform and acted on it despite the protests from the Pope and Rome. Under the reign of Elizabeth I. (1558-1603), the Church of England prospered and exercised toleration of the Protestants and Catholics (Maček, 2007). Towards the end of her reign in the year of 1600, East India Company, the largest and most well known trading company, was established.

The first colonies in America were founded at the beginning of the seventeenth century, in 1607 in Virginia, to be more precise.

In the present day the United Kingdom consists of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. This union did not happen all at once or without any obstacles. The annexation of Wales happened in 1536. As found in Maček (2007), the people of Wales lived by their own laws and had their own language until the fourteenth century when they were defeated by Edward I. With the annexation new laws and new system of government were introduced. English became the only language of law and administration (Maček, Part III., 2007:3).

Scotland was a separate kingdom, apart from England by a common border. Their history was characterized with constant warring by England and its many lords. The fighting ended with the rule of James VI king of Scotland (1567-1625) who called himself James I "king of Great Britain" (1603-1625). Scotland was in a different situation from Wales as it was not annexed. The union happened when James I simply moved his Court to London in 1707 (Maček, 2007).

The annexation that shed blood the most was that of Ireland. Ireland was free of the English reign only for a brief time in the second half of the fifteenth century. Henry VIII has declared himself the King of Ireland but the Irish resented him and the English for reducing their customs, religion and language. The bloodshed began during the Queen Elizabeth's reign when a series of revolts ended in devastating punishments. This is the time when the colonisation of the Irish began. The final annexation was achieved in 1651 by Cromwell (Maček, Part III., 2007:18).

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, fifteenth and sixteenth century was a time of rebirth of classical arts, grammar, rhetoric and logic, and literature. Education was no longer a privilege of the higher ranks but has finally managed to spread to the lower classes. The English scholars and poets of which Shakespeare is the most significant- enlarged the English vocabulary by several thousand words. What also brought new words was the trading and overall communication with the Continent and newly founded colonies.

Surely the most important invention of the fifteenth century is the invention of the printing press in 1438 by Johann Guttenberg (Maček, Part III., 2007:3). According to Maček (2007) the printing press was brought to England by William Caxton, a successful tradesman who learnt the art o printing in Germany. She also claims (2007) that among one of his first printed works were the works of Chaucer. Aside from printing, Caxton tried his hand at editing by brining the spirit of the current London English to the many works of poets.

It is said that the time of Elizabethan English is when the language was at its most beautiful stage. Shakespeare indeed added several thousand words to the language and he is by common consent acclaimed to be the greatest of the English writers (Knowles, 1997:101). Although his works contain some 20 000 words, he is better known by the way he uses them. His brilliant composition of words is a cause for admiration even today, centuries later.

Several translations of the Bible, the Tyndale's version from the year of 1526 and the King James' Bible, or the Authorised Version of 1611, were wonderful examples of the English language and ideal models for writers of those times and in the centuries that followed.

Although the English language was free of the French influence, Latin still remained present in science and philosophy. Not only did English have to compete against Latin in the early Modern English times, it had to be vastly improved. Many works were published containing innovative ideas on how to correct all the mistakes in the language. The complicated art of how the sounds were spelt up until that moment was a topic of many books. John Hart, the first English phonetician, published a book *Ortographie* (1569) (Maček, 2007) but his idea on how to repair the spelling did not come to life. The book that was successful in improving the spelling was written by a Richard Mulcaster in 1582 and was called *The Elementarie* (Maček, 2007).

As they were in great demand, dictionaries were published during the early Modern English times. As presented in Maček (2007), the first English-English dictionary was written by Henry Cockram and printed in 1623.

Grammars were also in great demand; however they were still modelled on Latin grammars. The first grammarian who broke through that tradition was John Wallis with his Grammatica Linguage Anglicanae (1653) (Maček, 2007).

During the reign of Charles I (1625-49), son of James I, the king came into severe conflict with not only the Parliament, but also the Protestant church in England, Scotland and Ireland (Maček, 2007) so it is no wonder when people united to fight back against him. Oliver Cromwell (1599-1658) led the revolt against the king which resulted in the four year long Civil War. Sadly, it seems that the people might have placed their trust in the wrong hands as Cromwell proved to be an even worse tyrant than his predecessor. After the king's execution the rule of Commonwealth was established in which Cromwell has invaded Ireland and Scotland and

dissolved the Parliament (Maček, Part III., 2007:18). The King and the Parliament were both restored after his death.

The new Union, United Kingdom of Great Britain was to be ruled by a Parliament at Westminster (Maček, 2007). While England and Scotland prospered in the Union, Ireland was excluded from it. This country collapsed under the pressure of the much more powerful neighbours and was forced to join them in 1801 through the second Act of Union.

As noted at the beginning of the section, colonies in America were founded, the one in Virginia in 1607 being the first. Many other followed: New England, New York and New Jersey, Delaware and Pennsylvania were both founded toward the end of the seventeenth century and Georgia in 1733 (Maček, 2007). History seemed to repeat itself as Britain and France were warring again over the predominance in the colonies. Britain succeeded in winning over the colonies of Newfoundland and Canada. Britain benefitted greatly from her colonies and the trading business they brought.

It was not only the French that fought against the British over the colonies but the colonies themselves. The American colonies have fought for their independence between 1755 and 1783 (Maček, 2007). The colonies came out as the United States of America and have continued to develop without any help or influence of the British.

During the seventeenth and the eighteenth century an idea developed to improve the English language. According to that idea there had to be order and logic to the language. Due to these efforts, as presented in Maček (2007), the first English newspapers were founded, the *Tatler* and the *Spectator*. New grammars and dictionaries were produced of which is Dr. Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* of 1755 the most important one. This is surely the greatest achievement of the eighteenth century. Johnson compiled many works of the authors who had written up to his time and used their works as sources for his dictionary. What is special about his dictionary is that he included the etymology of words, their meanings and stylistic comments, and a whole other section devoted to grammar and pronunciation.

As stated earlier in the chapter, grammars of the Early Modern English were modelled after Latin grammars. The grammars of the eighteenth century, on the other hand, attempted to analyse the English language and formulate rules. Robert Lowth gave one such grammar in the year 1762, *Short Introduction to Grammar*, where he stated the rules and gave examples to

support them (Maček, 2007), which does not differ all that much from the methods of presenting grammar in the present-day English.

4.2. Standardization of the English Language

Of all the changes that happened in the centuries marked as Modern English, pronunciation will be tackled first. Some of the aspects, pronunciation being one of them, will most likely be compared to the grammar aspects of Middle English and some may even be compared to Old English times if necessary.

One of the most important changes that happened during the time of standardization was *the Great Vowel Shift*. This concept refers to the process during which all vowels become closer or were diphthongized (Maček, 2007) and a few of such examples will be listed here:

a. The *i* moved to the modern pronunciation of [ai], and the former pronunciation of [ou] was being pronounced [au] as in *house* (Knowles, 1997).

b. The double vowel letters such as *sweet* and *moon* were used for vowels similar to the old values of *i* and *ou* (Knowles, 1997:95).

c. The vowels spelt like [ea] merged with [ee] so that words like *meat* are pronounced like *meet* (Knowles, 1997).

d. The former pronunciation of [ea] was put to use once again in words such as *make* and *day*.

All of the changes that happened in order to standardize the language were familiar to the higher classes, but it seemed that the lower classes were not acquainted with them. The changes appeared to be restricted to only a few areas and were connected to social changes in those areas:

a. A change typical for southern English pronunciation is the backing of [æ] in front of fricatives and nasals: *grass, bath, ban* (Maček, 2007). This type of pronunciation is still present in America and some parts of England but in most parts the words *grass* and *bath* are pronounced as [gra:s- ba:θ].

b. According to Maček (2007) there is a weakening and loss of [r] in a postvocalic position, but this characteristic was noted only in the east of England. After the complete loss of [r], the vowel moved to the back and became longer (Maček, 2007). Those accents that did not lose the [r] after the vowels are called rhotic, and the others non-rhotic. As a result of the non-

rhotic pronunciation a new diphthong [ə] is created as will be illustrated in the following example (40):

(40) favour [feɪvə]

bear [beə]

Spelling was in for a reform together with the pronunciation. The first of the more significant reformers was Sir John Cheke. His aim was to bring spelling closer to pronunciation, for example, *gud-good* (Knowles, 1997). He even wanted to remove all silent letters: *dout-doubt* (Knowles, 1997).

An associate of John Cheke, Sir Thomas Smith, claimed that spelling should be a picture of speech and that each letter had associated with it a natural sound (Knowles, 1997:95). He supported the theory that there should be a one-to-one correspondence between the letters and the sounds of the language (Knowles, 1997). In his opinion the script of Anglo-Saxon times had been more than satisfactory and should pose as a model for future changes.

Richard Mulcaster was the one who made a few greater changes than his predecessors. The first change he wanted to incorporate into the English spelling was to remove all letters he considered redundant as in *putt* and *ledd* (Knowles, 1997). He also wanted to add letters to words; he wanted a *t* in *scratch* for example. He also had a problem with words that were spelt the same but were pronounced differently such as *lead* (verb) and *lead* (noun). As observed, Mulcaster was thinking forward while improving the English spelling and many of his reforms have proved to be permanent.

The grammar changes were a bit more extensive in the Modern English than in the Middle English times. As noted in chapter 3.2., inflections were greatly reduced in Middle English. In the present-day English inflections were reduced to inflectional endings in the possessive case and in pronouns (Sohng and Moon, 2007). Latin had no longer such a strong influence over the grammar of the English language. Due to the great reduction of inflections, Modern English came to depend heavily on fixed word order to indicate the distinctive grammatical relations (Sohng and Moon, 2007:174).

Even though *you* appeared during the Middle English times, the use of *thou, thee* and *thine* is still in full use in the Early Modern English as well as *hadst, lovest* etc. (41) (Maček, 2007).

(41) Hast thou so crack'd and splitted my poor tongue (Shakespeare)

As found in Maček (2007) One of the most important changes in Early Modern English grammar is without a doubt the marking of tense with the help of auxiliaries *do* and *did*. These auxiliaries were used in interrogative, declarative and negative clauses (42) (Maček, 2007).

(42) He did look far into the service of the time. (Shakespeare)

I do not doubt you. (Shakespeare)

Besides the rise of the auxiliary verbs, the analytical verb forms developed, expressing grammatical categories, mood, tense and voice (Maček, 2007). The analytical forms include future tense, progressive and present perfect.

Shall and *will* are two additional verbs, modal verbs that have been promoted to the position of auxiliary verbs. The two verbs were used with the infinitive to express futurity (43) (Maček, 2007). *Will* was even in those times often shortened to *'ll*.

(43) 'a will be here to-morrow.

I shall beseech your lordship to remain with me tal they meet together.

(Shakespeare)

Another novelty, very similar to the previous one, is the use of *should, would* and *'d* as modal auxiliaries (44) (Maček, 2007).

(44) ...I would repent out the remainder of nature. (Shakespeare)

The continuous tense has been developing throughout history but had acquired a specific meaning only in the eighteenth century (Maček, Part III., 2007:25). Later on, the continuous form became a new grammatical category called *aspect* (Maček, 2007).

The infinitive, participle and gerund were used in the eighteenth century in analytical verbal forms, expressing temporal and aspectual relations and in the passive with the gerund appearing the latest (Maček, 2007).

One aspect of English grammar that was in full use in the Old and Middle English is the multiple negation. This characteristic is lost in the Modern English period.

As mentioned in chapter 4.1., Shakespeare and quite a few others, are credited with creating thousands of new words in early Modern English. Neologisms are not the only words that found their place in the English language; words appeared thorough borrowing as well. Some of the most important methods of word formation will be named in this section of the chapter.

The two crucial methods that helped create new words and that are very much in use today are prefixation and suffixation. There are two kinds of prefixes that need to be mentioned and that are English prefixes and the borrowed ones. All of the examples can be found in Maček (Part III., 2007:10-11):

English: *be*-friend, *mis*-govern, *over*-grow, etc.

Borrowed: *re*-open, *dis*-bench, *en\in*-tomb\quire, etc.

Suffixation has proven to be an even more productive derivation in the history of the English language (Maček, 2007). As in the paragraph above, both English and foreign suffixes will be named and examples will be taken from Maček (Part III., 2007:11-12)[4]:

English: -*ing* (OE -*ing\-ung*), forms verbal nouns, *visitings* (later *shopping*)

-*had* (OE -*had*), forms abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives, and describes a state, *child-hoode, likely-hoode*

-*ed*, to form adjectives from adjectives, *stranger'd* (made a stranger)

Borrowed: -*ance\ence* (F), *persistence*

-*ment* (F), abstract nouns from verbs, *bewitchment, excitement*

-*kin* (Dutch), diminutive, *jerkin* (short coat)

Other than prefixation and suffixation back formation, clipping, composition and borrowing are a few methods of word formation mentioned in Maček (2007). The examples of the methods can also be found in Maček (Part III., 2007:13).

[4] For a full account of suffixes see Maček, D. (2007) A Short History of Global English, Part III. *The Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences at the University of Zagreb. 11-12.*

4.3. Word Order of Present-Day English

There have not been that many changes in the word order since the Middle English times. Through the early and late Modern English the pronunciation, spelling, grammar and vocabulary went through a process of standardization. This also affected the word order of the Modern English times.

According to various linguists, Pintzuk (1911:365-367) and Allen (1990) as found in Sohng and Moon (2007), the base order of the Middle English times was SVO. This word order prevailed around the year 1200, during the early Middle English times. As the SOV pattern was the base word order of the Old English it is no wonder that it could still be found up until the Late Middle English. By the time the Modern times came about the SOV pattern and the V2 phenomenon disappeared from the language (Sohng and Moon, 2007).

The Modern English period began in around the 1500 and lasted until the present time. The sole base word order of the early and late Modern English and up to today is the SVO pattern, with the exception of OSV that can be found from time to time. The following examples will be taken from Shakespeare's early Modern English play, *Anthony and Cleopatra* (1623):

(45) a. Though you can guess what tempearance should be

b. , where I will oppose his fate.

c. He calls me boy

d. as I am a Christian

e. Ere I learn love, I'll practice to obey.

f. You'll heat my blood

As can be seen in the examples above, the SVO pattern is used as much in subordinate or embedded clauses (45a. b.,d.,e.) as it is in the main clauses (45c., e., f.) during early Modern English times.

In the next few examples the situation of the late Modern English will be illustrated. The clauses can be found in what is surely the most important work written by Jonathan Swift named *Gulliver's Travels* (1726):

(46) a. My father had a small estate in Nottinghamshire.

b. When I came back I resolved to settle in London.

c. I took these vehicles and soon emptied them all.

d. , where I lay on the ground

It can be noted once again that in both subordinate and main clauses the word order stays the same as in the early Modern English.

The following examples originate from a text *Treasure Island* written by Robert Louis Stevenson in 1883:

(47) a. And when I had pointed out the rock

b. I had my own reasons

c. That blow was the last of the battle.

d. When I got back with the basin, the doctor had already ripped up the captain's sleeve

The examples above (47a.-d.) are from the period of the nineteenth century, placing the text in the present-day English category. The four examples illustrate the main and subordinate clauses. When observing those examples, there can be no doubt that the SOV pattern is the base word order of present-day English.

Other than the SVO word order, OSV can be occasionally encountered in the present-day English:

(48) a. What I do is none of your concern.

b. I hate strawberries, but cranberries I'll eat.

As can be seen from the examples above, the OSV word order occurs in relative clauses where the relative pronoun plays the role of the object. In the second example OSV is used to illustrate a contrast with the help of the conjunction *but*.

The OSV is not the only variation of word order in present-day English. Fronting, for example, refers to the initial placement of core elements which are normally found in a post-verbal position (Bieber et al, 1999:900). The OSV order can even be placed in the category of fronting. Other than fronting wh- elements (48a.), fronting is possible with noun phrases,

complement clauses, predicatives, infinitive predicates, *-ed* and *–ing* predicates, etc. (Bieber et al, 1999). Some of the elements will be exemplified below (49):

(49) a. *Such things* you will never have.

b. *That I have told him such a secret* I will never be able to forgive myself.

c. *Running towards her* was her boyfriend of two years.

Aside from fronting, inversion is the next variation of word order that will be addressed in this section. In the present-day English, after the base word order SVO, the subject usually stays before the verb, with the exception of interrogative clauses (Bieber et al, 1999). Two main types of inversion are listed in the Longman Grammar (Bieber et al, 1999:911): a. subject-verb inversion or full inversion, where the subject is preceded by the entire verb phrase, b. subject-operator inversion or partial inversion, where the subject is preceded by the operator rather than by the main verb or a full verb phrase.

The subject-verb inversion can be found in the following examples (50):

(50) a. Next to the store *is the house you're looking for*.

b. Here *is provided* a patchwork of attractive breeding sites... (Bieber et al, 1999:912)

c. Nearby was a *400-square-yard warehouse with more plants flourishing in conditions controlled by artificial lighting and automatic lighting systems*. (Longman, 1999)

Subject-verb inversion can be found under the following circumstances (Bieber et al, 1999:911-914): a. The clause can open with an adverbial (50a.) that links the clause through a definite noun phrase. b. The verb phrase preceding the subject could be complex provided that it is lighter than the following subject (50b) The clause can end with a heavy subject providing new information (50c).

Subject-operator inversion is somewhat different from subject-verb inversion. The inversion is found after the following opening elements: *neither, nor, never, nowhere, on no condition, not only, hardly, no sooner, rarely, scarcely, seldom, little, less, only* (51) (Bieber et al, 1999:915).

(51) *Rarely* does my sister meet me on time.

Inversion does happen in the present-day English although rarely. It can happen in a conversation; it can be found in a prose text or fiction texts and heard while watching the news (Bieber et al, 1999). It also needs to be noted that inversion is mainly restricted to main clauses.

As in chapter 3, there will be no detailed comparison between word order of prose and poetry texts. The word order of poems may differ slightly from the prose texts but this is not connected to specific grammar rules. Most writers have their own style they like to follow and this is why word order can vary from writer to writer. Prose does seem to follow the base word order of present-day English, the SVO pattern. It would take a more extensive research to determine all the possible differences in word order between the prose and poetry texts of present-day English.

5. Conclusion

In order to fully understand the English language, a historical overview of the language and the people had to be given. The Celts are labelled as the very first inhabitants of the British Isles. As time progressed, they were viciously attacked time and time again until the Germanic tribes came and took control over the natives' lives and land. The tribes were the very first bearers of change in the language.

In the centuries to come, many more conquests led to changes in language. The Viking raids must be named as one of them as well as the warring with the Danes. The conquest that caused the language to transform almost entirely is the Norman conquest. During the rule of the Normans the language adopted many characteristics of the French and Latin. English was a secondary language until the fourteenth century. The people fought bravely to gain control over their land and language. However, the English language had no choice but to embrace all the changes instilled by the conquerors. The language finally went through a process of standardization in the sixteenth century and had never looked back.

Pronunciation, spelling, grammar and vocabulary have been described thoroughly through chapters 2. to 4. in their transformation from the Old English, into the Middle and to the present-day English. The changes in those aspects, especially grammar influenced the changes in the word order throughout the history of the English language.

The English language has progressed from the free word order of the Old English to the fixed word order that is being used in the present-day English. When compared to the word order

of the present-day English, the Old English was indeed free, although it does seem some rules had to be followed even then. The base word order of the Old English was SOV with an underlying SVO pattern and an occasional appearance of the VSO pattern. The SOV pattern was common in the subordinate or the embedded clauses while the SVO dominated in the main clauses. For this reason, it can be said that the Old English word order resembled that of its descendants.

SVO was the dominant word order through the Middle and present-day English. SOV still appeared in the Early Middle English, but until the Modern times came about, it completely disappeared from the language. SVO took the role of the major pattern in both main and embedded clauses in the Middle English and has continued to do so until today.

Appendix:

1. Old English Texts

Text 1: Appolonius of Tyre

I.

Her onginneð seo gerecednes be antióche þam ungesæligan cingce & be apollonige þam tiriscan ealdormen.

II.

An antiochia þare ceastre wæs sum cyningc antiochus gehaten. æfter þæs cyninges naman wæs seo ceasterantiochia geciged. Ðises cyninges cwén wearð of life gewiten. be ðare he hæfde áne swiðe wlitige dohter ungelifedlicre fægernesse. Mid þí þe heo bicom to giftelicre yldo. þa gyrnde hyre mænig mære man. micele mærða beodende.

III.

Ða gelamp hit sárlicum gelimpe. þa ða se fæder þohte hwam he hi mihte healicost forgifan. þa gefeol his agen mod on hyre lufe mid unrihtre gewilnunge. to ðam swiðe þ*æt* he forgeat þa fæderlican arfæstnesse. & gewilnode his agenre dohtor him to gemæccan. & þa gewilnunge naht lange ne ylde. ac sume dæge on ærne mergen. þa he of slæpe awóc. he abræc into ðam bure þar heo inne læg. & het his hyred-men ealle him aweg gán. swilce he wið his dohtor sume digle spæce sprecan wolde. hwæt he ða on ðare mánfullan scilde abisgode. & þa ongean-winnendan fæmnan mid micelre strengðe earfoðlice ofercom. and þ*æt* gefremede mán gewilnode to bediglianne.

IV.

Ða gewearð hit þ*æt* þæs mædenes fostor-modor into ðam bure eode. & geseah hi ðar sittan on micelre gedrefednesse. & hire cwæð to. Hwíg eart þu hlæfdige swa gedrefedes modes. Ðæt mæden hyre &swerode. Leofe fostor-modor. nu to dæg forwurdon twegen æðele naman on þisum bure. Seo fostor-modor cwæð. Hlæfdige be hwam cwist þu þ*æt*. Heo hyre &wirde & cwæð. Ær ðam dæge minra brid-gifta. ic eom mid mánfulre scilde besmiten. Ða cwæð seo fostor-modor. Hwa wæs æfre swa dirstiges modes þ*æt* dorste cynges dohtor gewæmman ær ðam dæge hyre bryd-gifta. & him ne ondrede þæs cyninges irre. Ðæt mæden cwæð. Arleasnes þa scilde on me gefremode. Seo fostor-modor cwæð. Hwi ne segst þu hit þinum fæder. Ðæt mæden cwæð. Hwar is se fæder. Soðlice on me earmre is mines fæder náma reowlice forworden. & me nu forðam deað þearle gelicað. Seo fostor-modor soðlice þa ða heo gehyrde þ*æt* þ*æt* mæden hire deaðes girnde (georness). ða cliopode heo hi hire to mid liðere spræce. & bæd þ*æt* heo fram þare

gewilnunge hyre mod gewænde. & to hire fæder willan gebuge. þeah ðe heo to-geneadod wære.

V.

On þisum þingum soðlice þurhwunode se arleasesta cyngc antiochus. & mid gehywedan mode hine sylfne ætywde his ceaster-gewarum. swilce he arfæst fæder wære his dohtor. & betwux his hiw-cuðum mannum. He blissode on ðam þ*æt* he his agenre dohtor wer wæs. & to ðam þ*æt* he hi þe lengc brucan mihte his dohtor árleasan brid-beddes. & him fram adryfan þa ðe hyre girndon to rihtum gesynscipum. he asette ða rædels þus cweðende. Swa hwilc man swa minne rædels riht aræde. onfo se mynre dohtor to wife. and se ðe hine misræde. sy he beheafdod. Hwæt is nu mare ymbe þ*æt* to sprecanne. buton þ*æt* cyningas æghwanon comon & ealdormen. for ðam ungelifedlican wlite þæs mædenes. & þone deað hi oferhogodon. & þone rædels understodon to arædenne. ac gif heora hwilc þonne þurh asmeagunge bóclicre snotornesse þone rædels ariht rædde. þonne wearð se to beheafdunge gelæd. swa same swa se ðe hine ariht ne rædde. and þa heafda ealle wurdon gesette on ufeweardan þam geate.

VI.

Mid þi soðlice antiochus se wælreowa cyningc on þysse wælreownesse þurhwunode. ða wæs apollonius gehaten sum iung man se wæs swiðe welig & snotor. & wæs ealdorman on tiro þare mægðe. se getruwode on his snotornesse & on ða boclican láre. & agan rowan oð þ*æt* he becom to antiochian. Eode þa into ðam cyninge & cwæð. Wel gesund cyningc. hwæt ic becom nu to ðe swa swa to godum fæder & arfæstum. Ic eom soðlice of cynelicum cynne cumen. & ic bidde þinre dohtor me to gemæccan.

Text 2: Parable of the Sower and the Seed

And eft hē ongan hī æt þǣre sǣ lǣran. And
him wæs mycel menegu tō gegaderod, swā
þæt hē on scip ēode, and on þǣre sǣ wæs;
and eall sēo menegu ymbe þā sǣ wæs on
lande. And hē hī fela on bigspellum lǣrde,
and him tō cwæð on his lāre, “Gehȳrað: Ūt

ēode sē sǣdere his sǣd to sawēnne. And þā hē sēow, sum fēoll wið þone weg, and fuge las cōmon and hit frǣton. Sum fēoll ofer stānscyligean, þār hit næfde mycele eorðan, and sōna up ēode; and for þām hit næfde eorðan þiccnesse, þā hit ūp ēode, sēo sunne hit forswǣlde, and hit forscranc, for þām hit wyrtruman næfde. And sum fēoll on þornas; þā stigon ðā þornas and forðrysmodon þæt, and hit wæstm ne bær. And sum fēoll on gōd land, and hit sealde ūppstīgendne and wexendne wæstm; and ān brōhte þrītigfe aldne, sum syxtigfealdne, sum hundfeladne." And hē cwæð, "Gehȳre, sē ðē ēaran hæbbe tō gehȳranne."

Text 3: Cynewulf and Cyneheard

Hēr Cynewulf benam Sigebryht his rīces ond Westseaxna wiotan for unryhtum dǣdum, būton Hamtūnscīre. Ond hē hæfde þā oþ hē of slōg þone aldormon þe him longest wunode, ond hiene þā Cynewulf on Andred ādrǣfde ond hē þær wunade oþ þæt hiene ān swān of stang æt Pryfetes flōdan; ond hē wræc þone aldormon Cumbran.
Ond sē Cynewulf oft miclum gefeoh

tum feaht uuiþ Bretwālum. Ond ymb XXXI wintra þæs þe hē rīce hæfde, hē wolde ādræ fan ānne æþeling sē wæs Cyneheard hāten; ond sē Cyneheard wæs þæs Sigebryhtes brō- þur. Ond þā geāsconde hē þone cyning lȳtle werode on wīcȳþþe on Merantūne ond hine þær berād ond þone būr ūtan beēode ær hine þā men onfunden þe mid þām kyninge wærun. Ond þā onegat sē cyning þæt, ond hē on þā duru ēode ond þā unhēanlīce hine werede oþ hē on þone æþeling lōocude, ond þā ūt ræsde on hine ond hine miclum gewun dode; ond hīe alle on þone cyning wærun feohtende oþ þæt hīe hine ofslægenne hæfdon.

Ond þā on þæs wīfes gebærum onfun don þæs cyninges þengas þā unstilnesse, ond þā þider urnon swā hwelc swā þonne gearo wearþ, ond radost. Ond hiera se æþeling gehwelcum feoh ond feorh gebēad, ond hiera næning hit geþicgean nolde: ac hīe simle feoh tende wæran of) hīe alle lægon būtan ānum Bryttiscum gīsle, ond sē swīþe gewundad wæs. Þā on morgenne gehīerdun þæt þæs cyninges þengas þe him beæftan wærun, þæt

se cyning of slægen wæs. Þā ridon hīe þider,
ond his aldormon Ōsrīc ond Wīferþ his þegn
ond þa men þe hē beæftan him lǣfde ǣr,
ond þone æþeling on þǣre byrig mētton þǣr
se cyning of slægen læg. Ond þā gatu him tō
belocen hæfdon, ond þā þǣrtō ēodon. Ond
þā gebēad hē him hiera āgenne dōm fēos ond
londes, gif hīe him þæs rīces ūþon, ond him
cȳþdon þæt hiera mǣgas him mit wǣron.
þā þe him from noldon. Ond þā cuǣdon hīe
þæt him nǣning mǣg lēofra nǣre þonne hiera
hlāford, ond hīe nǣfre his banan folgian
noldon, ond þá budon hīe hiera mǣgum þæt
hīe gesunde from ēodon. Ond hīe cuǣdon
þæt tæt ilce hiera gefērum geboden wǣre þe
ǣr mid þām cyninge wǣrua; þā cuǣdon hīe
þæt hīe þæs ne onmunden "þon mā þe eovre
gefēran þe mid þām cyninge ofslægene
wǣrun." Ond hīe þā ymb þā gatu feohtende
wǣron oþ þæt hīe þǣrinne fulgon and þone
æþeling of slōgon ond þā men þe him mid
wǣrun, alle būtan ānum: sē wæs þæs aldor
monnes godsunu ond hē his feorh generede,
ond þēah hē wæs oft gewundad.

Ond sē Cynewulf rīcsode XXXI wintra

Ond his līc æt Wintanceastre, ond þæs

æþelinges æt Ascanmynster; ond hiera

ryhtfæderencyn gǣþ tō Cerdice.

2. Middle English Texts

Text 1: The Canterbury Tales (Geoffrey Chaucer)

1.1 The General Prologue

Whan that aprill with his shoures soote
The droghte of march hath perced to the roote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licour
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
Tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the ram his halve cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open ye
(so priketh hem nature in hir corages);
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
And specially from every shires ende
Of engelond to caunterbury they wende,
The hooly blisful martir for to seke,
That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.
Bifil that in that seson on a day,

In southwerk at the tabard as I lay
Redy to wenden on my pilgrymage
To caunterbury with ful devout corage,
At nyght was come into that hostelrye
Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignye,
Of sondry folk, by aventure yfalle
In felaweshipe, and pilgrimes were they alle,
That toward caunterbury wolden ryde.
The chambres and the stables weren wyde,
And wel we weren esed atte beste.
And shortly, whan the sonne was to reste,
So hadde I spoken with hem everichon
That I was of hir felaweshipe anon,
And made forward erly for to ryse,
To take oure wey ther as I yow devyse.
But nathelees, whil I have tyme and space,
Er that I ferther in this tale pace,
Me thynketh it acordaunt to resoun
To telle yow al the condicioun
Of ech of hem, so as it semed me,
And whiche they weren, and of what degree,
And eek in what array that they were inne;
And at a knyght than wol I first bigynne.

1.2. The Knight's Portrait

A knyght ther was, and that a worthy man,
That fro the tyme that he first bigan
To riden out, he loved chivalrie,
Trouthe and honour, fredom and curteisie.
Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre,
And therto hadde he riden, no man ferre,
As wel in cristendom as in hethenesse,
And evere honoured for his worthynesse.

At alisaundre he was whan it was wonne.
Ful ofte tyme he hadde the bord bigonne
Aboven alle nacions in pruce;
In lettow hadde he reysed and in ruce,
No cristen man so ofte of his degree.
In gernade at the seege eek hadde he be
Of algezir, and riden in belmarye.
At lyeys was he and at satalye,
Whan they were wonne; and in the grete see
At many a noble armee hadde he be.
At mortal batailles hadde he been fiftene,
And foughten for oure feith at tramyssene
In lystes thries, and ay slayn his foo.
This ilke worthy knyght hadde been also
Somtyme with the lord of palatye
Agayn another hethen in turkye.
And everemoore he hadde a sovereyn prys;
And though that he were worthy, he was wys,
And of his port as meeke as is a mayde.
He nevere yet no vileynye ne sayde
In al his lyf unto no maner wight.
He was a verray, parfit gentil knyght.
But, for to tellen yow of his array,
His hors were goode, but he was nat gay.
Of fustian he wered a gypon
Al bismotered with his habergeon,
For he was late ycome from his viage,
And wente for to doon his pilgrymage.

1.3. The Squire's Portrait

With hym ther was his sone, a yong squier,
A lovyere and a lusty bacheler,
With lokkes crulle as they were leyd in presse.
Of twenty yeer of age he was, I gesse.

Of his stature he was of evene lengthe,
And wonderly delyvere, and of greet strengthe.
And he hadde been somtyme in chyvachie
In flaundres, in artoys, and pycardie,
And born hym weel, as of so litel space,
In hope to stonden in his lady grace.
Embrouded was he, as it were a meede
Al ful of fresshe floures, whyte and reede.
Syngynge he was, or floytynge, al the day;
He was as fressh as is the month of may.
Short was his gowne, with sleves longe and wyde.
Wel koude he sitte on hors and faire ryde.
He koude songes make and wel endite,
Juste and eek daunce, and weel purtreye and write.
So hoote he lovede that by nyghtertale.
He sleep namoore than dooth a nyghtyngale.
Curteis he was, lowely, and servysable,
And carf biforn his fader at the table.

1.4. The Yeoman's Portrait

A yeman hadde he and servantz namo
At that tyme, for hym liste ride so,
And he was clad in cote and hood of grene.
A sheef of pecok arwes, bright and kene,
Under his belt he bar ful thriftily,
(wel koude he dresse his takel yemanly:
His arwes drouped noght with fetheres lowe)
And in his hand he baar a myghty bowe.
A not heed hadde he, with a broun visage.
Of wodecraft wel koude he al the usage.
Upon his arm he baar a gay bracer,
And by his syde a swerd and a bokeler,
And on that oother syde a gay daggere
Harneised wel and sharp as point of spere;

A cristopher on his brest of silver sheene.
An horn he bar, the bawdryk was of grene;
A forster was he, soothly, as I gesse.

1.5. The Prioress' Portrait

Ther was also a nonne, a prioresse,
That of hir smylyng was ful symple and coy;
Hire gretteste ooth was but by seinte loy;
And she was cleped madame eglentyne.
Ful weel she soong the service dyvyne,
Entuned in hir nose ful semely,
And frenssh she spak ful faire and fetisly,
After the scole of stratford atte bowe,
For frenssh of parys was to hire unknowe.
At mete wel ytaught was she with alle:
She leet no morsel from hir lippes falle,
Ne wette hir fyngres in hir sauce depe;
Wel koude she carie a morsel and wel kepe
That no drope ne fille upon hire brest.
In curteisie was set ful muchel hir lest.
Hir over-lippe wyped she so clene
That in hir coppe ther was no ferthyng sene
Of grece, whan she dronken hadde hir draughte.
Ful semely after hir mete she raughte.
And sikerly she was of greet desport,
And ful plesaunt, and amyable of port,
And peyned hire to countrefete cheere
Of court, and to been estatlich of manere,
And to ben holden digne of reverence.
But, for to speken of hire conscience,
She was so charitable and so pitous
She wolde wepe, if that she saugh a mous
Kaught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde.
Of smale houndes hadde she that she fedde

With rosted flessh, or milk and wastel-breed.
But soore wepte she if oon of hem were deed,
Or if men smoot it with a yerde smerte;
And al was conscience and tendre herte.
Ful semyly hir wympul pynched was,
Hir nose tretys, hir eyen greye as glas,
Hir mouth ful smal, and therto softe and reed;
But sikerly she hadde a fair forheed;
It was almoost a spanne brood, I trowe;
For, hardily, she was nat undergrowe.
Ful fetys was hir cloke, as I was war.
Of smal coral aboute hire arm she bar
A peire of bedes, gauded al with grene,
And theron heng a brooch of gold ful sheene,
On which ther was first write a crowned a,
And after amor vincit omnia.

Text 2: Book of the Knight of La Tour-Landry : compiled for the instruction of his daughters (Geoffroy de La Tour Landry)

Chapter I.

HIt is a noble and a faire thinge for a man or a woman to see and beholde hem-self in the mirrour of auncient stories, the which hathe ben wretin bi oure Aunsetters forto shewe us good ensaumples that thei dede, to leue and to eschewe the euell. And, doughtres, y saie this for y am olde, and haue leued longe, and see moche more of the world thanne ye. And therfor a parti, after my science, whiche is not. gret, y will shew you, for y haue gret desire that ye turne youre hertis and thoughtis to drede and to serue God; for he thanne wol sende you good and worship in this world, and in the other. For in certayne all the verray good and worship honest of man and woman comithe of hym only, and of none other, And yeuithe longe lyff and stont in this terreyn and wordly thing like as hym lust, for all liethe in his plesir and ordinaunce. And also he yeuithe

and yeldithe, for the good seruice that is yeue and do to hym, the double an hundred tymes. And therfor, doughtres, it is good to serue suche a lorde that gardonetℏ his seruaunt in suche wise.

Chapter II.

And, therfor, the furst werke or laboure that a man or a woman shulde be-ginne, is to serue God; atte eueri tyme he awakithe he ought to yeue God reconisaunce, bi thought or praier, that he is his lorde, creatour, and maker. And whanne he arisithe, to saie his matenis, or oresones, yef he be a clerk, yelding hym thankingges and preisyngges, as to saie Laudate dominum omnes gentes , &c.; Benedicamus patrem & filium; and to saie praiers and thingges that is praising and thanking to God. For it is an higher and more digne thinge forto praise and thanke God, thanne to requere hym, for in request askes yefte, mede, or guerdoun; and praising and thanking is seruice of aungeles, that euer praisithe and worshipithe God; and it is beter to thanke God thanne to requere hym, for he wote beter what nedithe man or woman thanne hem selff. After, ye aught to praie God for the soules that ben dede, eueri day or ye slepe ; for yef ye do, the dede praiethe for you. And for-yete not to praie to the blessed virgine Marie, that day and night praietℏ for us, and to recomaunde you to the seintes and santas. And whanne this is done, thanne ye may slepe the beter. And also y[e] ought to praie eueri tyme that ye wake; and ye aught not forgete it that tyme. Also praie for the dede, of the whiche y wi͟t te͟t you an exsaumple, how it is good to thanke God, and to praie for a͟t cristen soules that ben dede, atte a͟t tymes that ye wake.

Chapter III.

Hit is contened in the stori of Constantine-noble, ther was an emperoure hadd᷑.ij. doughters, and the yonggest had good condiciones, for she loued wel God, and praied hym, atte a͟t tymes that she awaked, for the dede. And as she and her suster laie a-bedde, her suster awoke, and herde her in her praieres, and scorned and mocked her, and saide, "hold᷑youre pees, for y may not slepe for you." And so it happed

that youthe constreyned hem bothe to loue .ij. bretheren, that were knightes, and were goodly men. And so the susteres tolde her counsaile eche to other. And atte the laste thei sette steuen

that the knightes shulde come to lye bi hem bi night priuely atte sertaine owre. And that one came to the yongest suster, but hym thought he sawe a thousand dede bodies about her in shetis ; And he was so sore afraied and aferde, that he ranne awaie as he had᷑ be oute of hym selff, and caute the feuers and gret sikenesse thorugℏ the fere that he had, and laied hym in his bedde, and might not stere fer siknesse. But that other knight come into that other suster witℏoute letting, and be-gate her with childe. And whanne her fader wost she was with childe, he made cast her in-to the Riuer, and drenche her and her childe, And made to scorcℏ the knight quicke. Thus, for that delyt, thei were bothe dede; But that other suster was saued. And y shaǂ teǂ you on the morw it was in aǂ the hous how that one knight was sike in his bedde; and the yongest suster yede to see hym, and asked hym wherof he was sike. "As y wende to haue entered᷑ be-twene the curteynes of youre bedde, y sawe so gret nombre of dede men that y was nigℏ wode for fere, and yet y am aferde & afraied of the sight." And whanne she her de that, she thanked God humbly, that had kept her from shame and distruccion ; And from that forwarde she worshipped and praied God devoutly atte aǂ tymes that she awaked, and al wey [kept] her selff clene and chaste. And not longe after, a kinge of Grece wedded her, And was continued a good woman and a deuoute, and had a good name; and thus was she saued, as ye haue herde, forto worshippe and praie to God for the dede. And her eldest suster, that mocked her, was dede and disworshipped, as ye haue herde. And therfor, doughters, be-thenke you on this exsaumple whan ye wake, and slepe not tiǂ ye haue praied for the dede, as dede the yongest doughter. Yet y wolde ye knew an exaumple how a lorde wolde haue a gentiǂ-woman, bi faire or be force, for to do his foule lust with her.

Chapter IV.

Of the knight that folued the gentiǂ-woman into the busshe.

HIt happed that the lorde made spie how the gentiǂ-woman was gone to hide her in a busshe for fere of hym; And there she saide "dirige" for aǂ cristen sowles. And he come thedir forto fulfeǂ his foule delit, and wende forto haue touched her, hym thought he sawe more than dede folk about her: and kepte her, And therfor he ranne aweye. And he sende to her, and sware to her that he wolde neuer requere her of no suche materes, for she had᷑ to kepe her a ferdfuǂ companie.

And she saide, "y had none with me, saue atte that tyme y saide " dirige" for a‡ cristen sowles." But she thought that thei were tho that kepte her. And therfor it is good to praie for the dede atte a‡ owres.

Chapter V.

Faire doughtres, whanne ye arise, enterit$\hbar$ into the hig$\hbar$ seruice of the hig$\hbar$ lord Ihesu, and saithe youre matenis and youre seruice with good herte, and thenke not on none other worldly ocupaciones in that tyme as ferforthe as ye may, for ye may not goe two waies atte onis; as the wise man saithe, "as good is he that herithe and understondithe not, as he that huntithe and takithe not." And therfor he that saithe a pater noster and praiers, and thinkithe of worldely thinges and ocupaciones, his praiers profitet$\hbar$ not; for praiers ben celestia‡ thinges, and holy writte saithe "beter were a shorte orison, saide with good deveuute herte, thanne gret long mateuis, saide withoute deuocion, and thinke on worldli ocupaciones." But the more ye saie deuoutly and with good hert, the more merite ye haue. And, as holi writte makithe mencion, "like as the dewe of Apri‡ temperithe the ert$\hbar$ and makithe it fructife, so praiers to God makithe man and woman to be enhaunsed;" as ye may see in holy legendis of seintes, confessours, uirgines, and holy women that made her bedes of cutting of vynes and other thingges, that shulde cause hem the lasse to slepe and to haue rest, to that entent that thei might praie and entre in orisones, and in good seruice, the whiche thei were in day and night. And for her laboure thei wanne hem heuene; and God hathe and dothe shewe for hem gret miracles, and so he gardonith his seruice an hundred tymes double. And therfor, good doughtres, saithe your matenis and praiers withoute thinking saue only of God, deuoutly and with good hert; And that ye saie hem fasting; for a fu‡ stomake may not be holy & perfitly humble and deuoute. And after, herithe a‡ the masses that ye may, for gret profit and good ye shu‡ haue therof of God, of the whiche y wolde te‡ you an exaumple.

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