## Intro. Some basics

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<th>ENGLISH</th>
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<td><strong>1. Old English</strong></td>
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</table>
## Intro. Some basics

### 3.1. Early Modern English
- (1500-1800)

### 3.2. Late-Modern English
- (1800-Present)
1.1. Old English

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian—the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands – that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast. These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words.
1.2. Old English

Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England, and influenced grammar greatly. Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem Beowulf, lasted until about 1100. This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the Norman Conquest.
2.1. Middle English
William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD at the battle of Hastings. The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French (?) known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots. As a result, many words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romanic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots (not always, of course). Sometimes French words replaced Old English words, other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, or even two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English.
2.2. Middle English

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

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

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

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

The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. Elizabethan English, has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Many words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases are his.
3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476 (the first printed book in Britain – translation of the History of Troy). Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. The printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.
3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter “e” at the end of words became silent. In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.
3.2. Late Modern English

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

And maybe the Third?

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

Now take a look at another scheme of **English periods**
English

Now take a look at another scheme of **English periods**

A few loanwords are borrowed from the native Romano-Britons but aside from this, influence from the Celtic languages is essentially nonexistent.

“Caedmon’s Hymn,” the oldest known English poem, is composed around this time.

North Sea Germanic peoples including Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians migrate en masse to Britain, bringing with them the dialects that become Old English.

Vikings settle in the eastern and northern parts of England. They bring a large number of words to the English language, and contact between Old English and Old Norse speeds up the breakdown of the English case system.

1066: Led by William the Conqueror, Normans, Bretons, and Frenchmen invade England and establish themselves as the ruling class.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1150</td>
<td>Transition to Middle English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1300</td>
<td>As a result of the Norman conquest, French words begin to enter English, including those regarding royalty, the law, and food items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1480</td>
<td>Transition to Early Modern English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500</td>
<td>The Great Vowel Shift occurs, affecting all dialects of English (though in different ways)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700</td>
<td>Large-scale migration from England to North America leads to a new strain of English evolving there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>English spreads across the world</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. 1800: Transition to (Late) Modern English

and establish themselves as the ruling class
Now take a look at another scheme of English periods:

- **c. 1480:** Transition to Early Modern English
- **1500:**
- **1600:** The Great Vowel Shift occurs, affecting all dialects of English (though in different ways)
- **1700:** Large-scale migration from England to North America leads to a new strain of English evolving there
- **1800:** C. 1800: Transition to (Late) Modern English
- **1900:** English spreads across the world as a result of the British Empire
- **2000:** English continues to spread through media such as Hollywood films, popular music, and the Internet
Indo-European languages

I. Indic (including Sanskrit and its descendants),
II. Iranian [ɪ'reɪnɪən],
III. Armenian [ɑː'miːnɪən],
IV. Hellenic [he'liːnɪk](Greek),
V. Albanian [əl'beɪnɪən](or Illyrian),
VI. Italic (including Latin and the Romance languages),
VII. Celtic ['keltɪk], ['seltɪk],
VIII. Baltic ['bɔːltɪk, 'bɒlt-],
IX. Germanic (including English, German, Dutch, and the Scandinavian languages),
X. Slavic (Russian, Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbian, Croatian etc.)
XI. Anatolian [ɑnə'tɵulɪən] (Hittite and other extinct languages),
XII. Tocharian [tə kɛːrɪən, - kɛːrɪən] an extinct group from central Asia).
Old English

O.E. mere
Latin mare
Russian море
O.E. beon
Latin fui
Ru быть
O.E. cwene
Greek gyne
RU жена.
Germanic languages, branch of the Indo-European language family. Scholars often divide the Germanic languages into three groups:

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Three Acts of Jacob Grimm’s Law</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>i</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/p/ =&gt; /f/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/ =&gt; /θ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/ =&gt; /kh/, /h/</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Comparative Linguistics

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

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

[p] > [f]: лат. pes (основа слова ped- – нога, рус. пе́д-аль)
гот. fotus, др.-а. fōt – нога (совр. foot);
лат. piscis\gот. fisks, др.-а. fisc – рыба (совр. fish);
рус. проль\др.-а. фор.

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

[k] > [x], [h] лат. cor (основа слова cord - – сердце)\гот. haírto,
др.-а. heorte – сердце (совр. heart) лат. – гуод\др.-а.
hvæt – что (совр. what); рус. кров\др.-а. hīðf – крыша (совр. roof).
# Comparative Linguistics

## Comparative Linguistics Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENETIC LINGUISTICS</th>
<th>CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS</th>
<th>LINGUISTIC GEOGRAPHY</th>
<th>GLOTTO-CHRONOLOGY</th>
<th>LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY AND CHARACTEROLOGY</th>
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## Focus of Interest

<table>
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<th>IDENTIFICATION OF LANGUAGE FAMILIES</th>
<th>IDENTIFICATION OF CONTRASTIVE FEATURES</th>
<th>LANGUAGE CONTACTS AND INFLUENCES</th>
<th>DIACHRONIC ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGES HISTORY</th>
<th>TYPES, TYPICAL FEATURES AND UNIQUE Palette of features of a language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Comparative Linguistics

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

[bʰ] > [b]: санскр. bhārāmi – несyć, рус. беру || др.-а. bere – несу (совр. bear);
санскр. bhrata – брат, рус. брат || др.-а. brōdor – брат (совр. brother)

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

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

1 Глухой межзубный щелевой [θ] обозначается в древнеанглийском языке знаком ꚯ.
3-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские звонкие смычные [b], [d], [g] переходят в германских языках в глухие смычные того же места образования [p], [t], [k].

[b] > [p]:
- рус. слабый || др.-а. slāpan – спать (совр. sleep);
- рус. болото || др.-а. pōl – лужа (совр. pool).

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

[g] > [k]:
- рус. горе || др.-а. caru – забота (совр. care);
- рус. голый || др.-а. calu – голый (нем. kabl – лысый, голый);
- рус. иго || др.-а. zeos – иго (совр. yoke).
Grimm’s Law

индоевропейские
gерманские

\[ b^h \quad b \quad p \quad f \]
Grimm’s Law

\( b^h > b > p > f \)
\( d^h > d > t > \theta \)
\( g^h > g > k > x \)
\( g^{wh} > g^w > k^w > x^w \)
Grimm’s Law

F and V

"Grimm's Law ... explains why Germanic languages have 'f' where other Indo-European languages have 'p.' Compare English father, German vater (where 'v' is pronounced 'f'), Norwegian far, with Latin pater, French père, Italian padre, Sanskrit pita," (Horobin 2016).
## Grimm’s Law 01

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Germanic (shifted) examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Grimm’s Law 02

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Ancient Greek: 
  τρίτος (tritos), Latin: 
  tertius, Welsh: 
  trydydd, Sanskrit: 
  treta, Russian: 
  тре́тий (tretij), 
  Lithuanian: trečias, 
  Albanian: tretë | *t→θ [θ] | English: third, Old 
  Frisian: thredda, Old 
  Saxon: thriddio, 
  Gothic: þridja, 
  Icelandic: þriðji |
## Grimm’s Law 03

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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<th>Germanic (shifted) examples</th>
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</table>
# Grimm’s Law 04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</td>
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Grimm’s Law 07

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<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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</table>
## Grimm’s Law 08

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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Grimm’s Law 09

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit: bhrātṛ</td>
<td>*bʰ→b [b]/[β]</td>
<td>English: brother,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>West Frisian, Dutch:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>broeder, German: Bruder,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gothic: broþar, Icelandic,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Faroese: bróðir, Danish,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Swedish, Norwegian: broder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</td>
<td>Change</td>
<td>Germanic (shifted) examples</td>
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</table>
## Grimm’s Law 11

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<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
<th>Change</th>
<th>Germanic (shifted) examples</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ancient Greek: χήν (khēn), Sanskrit: hamsa (swan)</td>
<td>*gʰ → g [ɡ]/[ɣ]</td>
<td>English: goose, West Frisian: goes, guos, Dutch: gans, German: Gans, Icelandic: gæs, Faroese: gás, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: gås</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Grimm’s Law 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates</th>
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<td>----------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sanskrit: gharmá-, Avestan: garəmó, Old Prussian: gorme</td>
<td>*gʷh → gw → b, g or w (Otherwise merged with existing g and w)</td>
<td>English: warm, West Frisian: waarm, Dutch, German: warm, Swedish: varm, Icelandic: varmur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Grimm’s law stated that the Indo-European $p$, $t$, and $k$ sounds changed into $f$, $th$ or $d$, and $h$ in the Germanic languages. Verner noticed that Grimm’s law was valid whenever the accent fell on the root syllable of the Sanskrit cognate, but, when the accent fell on another syllable, the Germanic equivalents became $b$, $d$, and $g$. 
Verner’s Law

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

<table>
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<th>Indo-European</th>
<th>Germanic</th>
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<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>[f]</td>
<td>Grimm’s Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>[θ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>[kh]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>[β] [w]</td>
<td>Verner’s Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>[ð]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>[ɣ]</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verner’s Law

The Proto-Germanic verb *[‘we.sa.nan] 'to be, live, dwell.' The first and third person singular, past, *[‘was], was not preceded by an unstressed syllable (the word is mono-syllabic after all) and so the fricative remained voiceless [s], as in Old English wæs 'was.' However, the plural past forms carried the stress on the second syllable, *[wē.'zum] '(we) were, lived, dwelled.' Since the syllable before the fricative was not stressed, it became voiced [z].
Verner’s Law

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

Today, the descendant word pair of wæs-wæron, 'was-were,' is the only example in the English language where the effects of Verner's Law are still visible within a single paradigm.
19-10-2020

BACK TO ENGLAND AND ENGLISH
In the 4th century BC the country we now call England was known as Britain. One of the tribes who lived there was named the Britons. They belonged to the Celtic race and spoke Celtic.

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

dun/dum = down, dune
(these towns of Dunscore, Dunedin, Dumbarton);

avon = river: Stratford on -Avon;

kil = wood: Kilbrook
Early Britannia

4cBC

Another Celtic tribe Gaels [geilz] lived in Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Their descendants still live there and use some words of Celtic origin, such as Loch Lomond, loch [h>k] — lake.
In the year 55 BC Britain was conquered by the Romans. Their language was Latin. Julius Caesar [ˈsiːza] was the first Roman who invaded the country in the 1st century B.C.
Early Britannia

To conquer the Britons the Romans had to encamp troops all over the country. The English cities later rose from these camps. The word **castra — camp** was later pronounced [‘fkestə], [’Jesta] and [‘fsesta]. Now there are many English towns which have the Latin ending, such as Lancaster, Chester, Manchester, Worcester and others. There is a county Cheshire too.

1cBC
Early Britannia

Now guess which is which

1cBC

['tʃɛstə]
['tʃɛʃə]
['læŋkəstə]
['mæŋʧɪstə]
['wustə]
Early Britannia

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

A large number of English words come from Latin, e.g. street comes from **strata**, wall from **vallum**, port from **portus**, etc.

The Roman occupation lasted for more than 400 years till 407 AD when the Romans troops left Britain.
Early Britannia

when in about 410 the Romans were withdrawn to protect Rome itself the Germanic tribes — Angles [ˈæŋglz], Saxons [ˈsæks(ə)nz] and Jutes [dʒʊːts] began their invasion of Britain. They came from the shores of the North Sea and the Baltic and settled in what is now the county of Kent.
Early Britannia

~600 AD
THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOMS, CA. 800

~800 AD
Early Britannia
~800 AD

England

Northumbria

Strathclyde

Danish

Northumbria

Danish

Mercia

Wales

Mercia

Wales

Wessex and dependencies

Lands in the Danelaw
Early Britannia
865-878 AD
865-878 AD
Early Britannia

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were believed in many gods: Tu, or Tuesco, — god of Darkness, Woden — god of War, Thor — the Thunderer, and Freia — goddess of Prosperity.

When people began to divide time into weeks and weeks into days, they gave the days the names of their gods.
Sunday is the day of the sun, Monday — the day of the moon, Tuesday — the day of the god Tuesco, Wednesday — the Woden's day, Thursday — Thor's day, Friday — Freia's day, and Saturday — Saturn's day.
Early Britannia

One Saxon poem called Beowulf reached our days. One can call this period the dawn of English literature.
In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent.
Early Britannia

In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent. The most learned people of that time were monks. Some of them began to put in writing poems and songs that reached them. Such people were called "scribes". "Scribe" comes from the Latin word "scribere" — "to write". The written Anglo-Saxons language developed on the basis of the Latin alphabet.
Early Britannia

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

Although Beowulf was a Jute and his home is Jutland we say that The Song of Beowulf is an English poem. The story of Beowulf was written down in the 10th century by an unknown author, and the manuscripts is now kept in the British Museum.
Early Britannia

When King Alfred died (849-901), fighting with the Danes soon began again. They occupied the north and east of England (Scotland and Ireland) and also sailed over the Channel and fought in France. The land they conquered in the North of France was called Normandy and the people who lived there the Northmen. In the hundred years that were to follow they began to be called Normans.
Sweyn Forkbeard's England Campaign—1013

Campaign route

Early Britannia

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

About 650 Danes words had been included.
Early Britannia

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