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Term Paper
Compounding in Old and Middle English

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INTRODUCTION

The relevance of the paper. Compounding is one of the widely known ways of creating words. This type of word formation was distinguished by its high activity in the Old English period, but has not lost its productivity at the present stage of English language development, as evidenced by the large number of neologisms. Compounds are one of the main means of language and speech preservation, and knowing the most frequent and productive word-formation structures of compound words makes it possible to expand a speaker's lexicon.

The focus of linguistic research on the study of possible ways of broadening the wordstock of the English language contributes to the fact that compounding as one of the main ways of word formation is the subject of numerous studies. This method of word formation attracted special attention in the 70s and 80s of the twentieth century. The reason for this can be explained by the general development of linguistics in this period and the significant progress made in it. New impulses caused by the formation of lexical grammar and the clarification of lexicalism, as well as by the extensive attention to the problems of word structure, proved to be very crucial for the theory of word formation.

The research in this direction is complicated by the fact that word formation occupies an intermediate position between morphological and syntactic ways of combining language units and has characteristics of both methods.

The **aim** of the research is to study compounding as a way of forming vocabulary in the Old and Middle English periods.

The research objectives are the following:

- to consider the notion of compounding;
- to determine the ways of forming lexemes in English;
- to select the research material by systematic sampling (every 15th page) from the dictionaries of the two periods under study;

- to conduct a quantitative analysis of the material obtained as a result of systematic sampling and to identify the main features of compounding as a way of forming vocabulary in the Old and Middle English periods

The **object** of the research is compounding as a means of producing neologisms in the Old and Middle English periods.

The **subject** of the research is the patterns of compounding and their development in the Old and Middle English periods.

Methods of the research: the general scientific principle of historicism, which made it possible to study compounding as a way of forming vocabulary in the Old and Middle English periods. This methodological approach involved a combination of empirical research methods, methods of theoretical cognition, and general methods and techniques (analysis, synthesis, systematic approach). In addition, special methods were used to accomplish the aims of the research: historical and structural methods to study the formation of compounding as a way of lexical development in the Old and Middle English periods, as well as quantitative and comparative methods to identify productive patterns of compounding in each of the studied periods of English language history.

The **practical significance** of the course paper is that it highlights and analyzes in detail the patterns of compounding as a way of forming vocabulary in the Old and Middle English periods. The work is relevant because it provides an opportunity to deepen our knowledge and for the professional practice of students.

The **structure of the paper** is determined by the aim and objectives of the study. The paper consists of an introduction, two chapters, conclusions, a list of references and illustration materials, and appendix.

CHAPTER ONE. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF THE STUDY OF COMPOUNDING AS A WAY OF FORMING NEW WORDS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1.1. The notion of compounding in modern linguistics

Compounding is one of the essential means of shaping the vocabulary content of a language. This is one of the oldest ways of word formation that has remained productive in the English language even at the present stage of its development. Compound words as an object of research were studied by well-known domestic linguists – O. I. Smirnytskyi, I. V. Arnold, O. D. Meshkov, P. V. Tsarev and others (Smirnytskyi, 1956; Arnold, 1986; Meshkov, 1985; Tsarev, 1979;), as well as by outstanding foreigner linguists - Dieter Kastovsky, Laurie Bauer, Ingo Plag (Kastovsky, 2000; Bauer, 1983; Plag, 2018;).

Word formation reflects the particularities of a language because along with features common to many languages, it has some national characteristics that are distinctive to a given language. The analytical nature of the English language and the use of word order to express lexical and grammatical relations explain the existence of many compound words, especially those formed without connecting elements and inflections, e.g., handshake, dustproof, cf. рукостискання, пилонепроникний.

More than one-third of all neologisms in modern English are compound words (Kudashov, 1989: 99). The process of word compounding is a combination of two words. Plag (2003:133) defines compounding as “the combination of two words to form a new word”. For example, head+ache>headache, black+board >blackboard, peace+maker>peacemaker. Since the norms of modern English allow the combination of words that have the same lexical and grammatical characteristics as those used in the formation of stems, it is extremely complicated to determine in which cases we are dealing with a compound word and in which cases with a collocation. Cf. running water “водопровід” and running water

“проточна вода”; dancing-girl “танцівниця” і dancing girl “дівчина, яка танцює”.

The morphological compounding of components that form a complex whole has one paradigm. In other words, word compound suffixes are added to the whole complex, not to its individual parts, to form certain forms e.g., plural nouns storyteller – storytellers. Structural integrity and functional inseparability distinguish a compound word from a phrase in which each member is formed separately and retains its independence (Kudashov, 1989: 99).

The integrity of a compound word as a lexical unity is reflected in the more or less constant semantic relationship of its components, which becomes the basis for the semantic criterion of distinguishing compound words and collocations with full transparency of their meanings. On the basis of this criterion, railway “залізна дорога”, slow-coach “тупиця”, know-all “всезнайка” are certainly compound words.

1.2 General characteristics and classification of compound words.

Compound words are complex units. They can be classified according to different principles and considered from different points of view. The classification according to the structure of immediate constituents, considered by I. V. Arnold (1986) in terms of the means by which the components are connected to each other, compound words are divided into the following groups (Verba, 2002: 310):

- i. compound words consisting of simple stems (heartache – *серцевий біль*, blackbird – *дрізд*);
- ii. compound words in which one of the constituents is a derived stem (maid-servant – *служниця*, mill-owner – *фабрикант*);
- iii. compound words in which one of the constituents – a clipped stem (A-bomb – *атомна бомба*);

iv. compound words, one of the constituents of which is a compound stem (postmaster-general – міністр пошти).

The structural classification of compound words, which reflects the patterns of word formation in modern English, is of great importance. The following patterns are considered:

Noun:

1. Noun + Noun (*lighthouse, stage-coach, ship-yard arm-chair, staircase, fireplace, newspaper*);
2. Adjective + Noun (*full moon, nobleman, quicksand, a black eye*);
3. Verb + Noun (*a breakwater, a driveway, cookbook, telltale*);
4. Noun + Verb (*doorstop, dragonfly, waterfall*);
5. Adverb/Preposition + Noun (*inside, downtime, undertone, underclass*);
6. Adverb/Preposition + Verb (*an outlet, input*);
7. Noun + Preposition/Prepositional phrase (*a day off, mother-in-law, editor-in-chief*);

Adjective:

1. Noun + Adjective (world-famous; worry-free; color sensitive; smoke-free; brand-new; fat-free; life-long; rock-solid; chocolate-brown);
2. Adjective + Noun (fast-food; all-day; true-life; deep-water; long-life; third-party; last-minute; full-length; laser-cut; high-tech);
3. Noun + Present Participle (mouth-watering; record-breaking; energy-saving; fun-loving; life-changing; nail-biting; man-eating);
4. Noun + Past Participle (sun-dried; alcohol-based; appearance-focused; berry-colored; blood-stained; calorie-controlled; coffee-colored; computer-based);
5. Adjective + Present Participle (good-looking; long-lasting; delicious-tasting; great-tasting; long-wearing);

6. Adjective + Past Participle (old-fashioned; cold-blooded; best-paid; black painted; hard-earned; less-lined; long-awaited; middle-aged; ready-made);

7. Adverb + Past Participle (brightly-lit; well-known; densely-populated; best-paid; hard-earned; newly-born; long-awaited).

Verb:

1. Noun + Verb – to sky-dive;

2. Verb + Noun – to shun-pike;

3. Verb + Verb – to freeze-dry;

4. Adjective + Verb – to double-book;

5. Particle + Verb – to overbook;

6. Adverb + Verb – to undergo.

According to the degree of semantic independence, there are two types of relations between the immediate constituents of compound words that are universally recognized. Accordingly, compound words are divided into two classes (Rebriy, 1999: 241):

1. Subordinative compounds, where one of the components is the semantic center and the other is dependent. They can express different relations:

a) comparative: world-wide, snow-white; b) agentic: sunrise, dogbite; c) the relation of purpose: bookshelf; d) expressive: dead-cheap; e) functional: bathrobe; e) with gender relation: he-goat; f) adverbial: color-blind;

2. Coordinative compounds where both components are independent of each other. These words are divided into three groups: 1) compound words in which the stem is repeated (go-go, pooh-pooh); 2) compound words formed by using rhyming stems (walkie-talkie, shilly-shally, super-duper); 3) additive compound words formed from the stems of two independently functioning words of the same part of speech (Afro-American, secretary-stenographer).

Conclusions to Chapter One

The first chapter defines the concept of word compounding as a type of word formation; presents the main approaches to its classification. Thus, based on the theoretical works, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Compounding is one of the most widespread ways of creating words, which involves the morphological combination of two or more bases or whole words or their abbreviations.

The issue of compounding has been and remains one of the most topical in modern linguistics. Many domestic and foreign linguists have contributed to the solution of this matter.

Today, the scientific linguistic literature presents classifications of compound words based on the structure of the constituents, the type of relations between them, the degree of their semantic independence, etc.

CHAPTER TWO. PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF COMPOUNDING AS A WAY OF FORMING VOCABULARY IN THE OLD AND MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIODS

2.1. Word-formation patterns of the Old English period

The most prolific means of expanding the Old English vocabulary was word formation. Thus, all the main categories of word formation - compounding, prefixation, suffixation, including null derivation – were highly productive (Kastovsky, 2006: 226).

In Old English, as opposed to the Middle English period, the expression of new concepts and ideas was carried out by drawing on resources already existing in the language. The adoption of words from other languages was rare, and it was even preferred to apply old words to new concepts.

Another aspect that contributed to the formation of compounds in the Old English period was the synthetic nature of the language, although analytical tendencies in the use of prepositions were already present. In any case, a large number of inflections is considered to be a characteristic feature of the Old English period, as it can also be called “*Period of full Inflections*” (Sweet, 1874: 160). In this sense, as shown in the analysis, some compounds in Old English are formed due to the absence of prepositions. Moreover, this trend is ongoing in our time, although one can find examples of Old English constructions that are formed by N + N and which can later be expressed through prepositions.

This type of word formation is most common in the formation of nouns and adjectives. The analysis revealed a few compound verbs, adverbs, and pronouns.

To begin with, let's look at the most common models in the formation of compound nouns, found by systematic sampling from the Old English dictionary:

Noun + Noun;

Mancynn (man “human” + cynn “race”) – mankind, humanity;

Ekename (eke “addition” + name) – nickname;

According to this pattern, 80 units were identified, see Appendix 1.

Adjective + Noun;

Haligdæg (hālig “holy” + dæg “day”) – holy day, holiday;

Neahbuend (nēah “close” + būend “an inhabitant”) – neighbor;

This pattern covers 15 units, see Appendix 2.

Verb + Noun;

Brædepanne (brædan “to fry” + panne “pan”) – frying pan;

Hieremann (hīeran “to hear, to obey” + mann “person”) – someone who obeys someone else: subject, subordinate;

Sciarseax (scieran “to shave” + seax “knife”) – razor;

Sliepescoh (slīepan “to slip” + scōh “shoe”) – slipper;

Noun + Verb;

Firenhycga (finer “sin” + hycgan “to think about”) – a person with sinful ideas, an adulterer;

Foldbuend (fold “land, earth, ground” + buend – present participle of “būan – to live, to dwell”) – one who lives on the land; an earth-dweller, a man;

Gastberend (gast “ghost” + berend “To rend or tear severely”) – a soul-bearer; living person;

Niþgeteon (nīþ “strife, enmity, attack, war: evil, hatred, spite” + getēon “to draw, lead, incite, excite”) – to attack;

Adverb + Noun;

Feorbuend (feor “far” + būend “dweller”) – foreigner, alien;

Feorweg (feor “far” + weg “way”) – a long way;

Geardagas (geāra “yore” + dagas “days”) – yesterday;

Giestranæfen (giestran “yesterday” + æfen “evening”) – yesterday evening;

Numeral + Noun;

Anhorn (ān “one” + horn “horn”) – unicorn;

Antid (ān “one” + tīd “time; hour, tide”) – the first hour or tide;

Samodswegend (samod “with” + swēgende “sounding”) – a consonant;

Uppengel (upp “up” + engel “angel”) – heavenly angel;

The analysis revealed the following patterns in the formation of compound adjectives:

The most numerous group was composed of compounds of the **Noun+Adjective/Past Particle** pattern (39 units) (see Appendix 3):

Bearneacen (bearn “child” + ēacen “PII of ēacan – to conceive, become pregnant) – pregnant;

Deapscyldig (dēap “death” + scyldig “guilty”) – condemned to death;

Isceald (īs “ice” + ceald “cold”) – ice-cold;

The **Adjective + Adjective** pattern has 9 units (see Appendix 4):

Bealuhygdig (bealu “harm, evil” + hygdig “minded”) – evil-minded, hostile;

Ealdbacen (eald “old” + bacen “baked”) – stale;

Snawhwit (snāw “snow” + hwīt “white”) – snow-white;

Next, there are examples of the **Adjective/Past Particle + Noun** structure, which comprises 10 units in total, see Appendix 5.

Bærfot (bær “bare” + fōt “foot”) – barefoot;

Ealdwif (eald “old” + wīf “woman”) – old woman;

Heahheort (hēah “high” + heorte “heart”) – high-hearted;

In addition, some patterns for forming compound verbs were found in the sample:

Noun + Verb includes the largest number (10 units), while the rest can be found in Appendix 6:

Dælniman (dæġ “part” + niman “to take”) – to participate;

Rodfæstnian (rōd “cross” + fæstnian “to fasten”) – to crucify;

Preposition + Verb:

Beforancwēpan (beforan “before” + cwēpan “to say”) – to foretell;

Adverb + Verb:

Forþgangan (forþ “out, forth” + gangan “to go, to walk”) – to go forth

Adjective + Verb:

Hathiertan (hāt “hot” + hiertan “to hearten”) – to make angry;

Verb + Verb:

Tintregian (tinnan “to stretch, extend” + tregian “to vex, afflict, grieve”) – to torment, torture, afflict;

The fewest amount of structures was found for the formation of compound adverbs:

Adverb + Noun;

Awiht (ā “ever” + wiht “thing”) – at all;

Utanlandes (ūtan “without” + land “land”) – abroad;

Halfpenny (half “half” + peny “penny”) – halfpenny;

Holyday (holy + day) – holiday;

Adverb + Adverb;

Heonan forþ (heonan “from here” + forþ “onwards”) – henceforth;

Næfre (ne “not” + æfre “ever”) – never;

Nahwær (ne “not” + hwær “where”) – nowhere;

Nealles (ne “not” + ealles “completely”) – not at all; by no means;

Þærtoeacan (þær “there” + tōēacan “in addition”) – besides, moreover;

Þærtogeanes (þær “there” + tōgēanes “towards”) – opposite; on the contrary;

Þærwiþ (þær “there” + wiþ “against, opposite, toward”) – therewith;

2.2. Word-formation patterns of the Middle English period

The vocabulary of Middle English changed due to the internal resources of the language under the influence of social relations in the country (the development of feudalism, crafts and trade, the growth of cities in the 12th and 13th centuries), as well as by borrowing words and morphemes from other

languages (under the influence of the Scandinavian and Norman conquests and the 100-year war with France) (Karaban, 2004: 26).

In the Middle English period, the word formation system continued to evolve. The most numerous group, just similar to the Old English period, was compound nouns – 50 units that could be formed from such structures:

Noun + Noun:

Bale-fyre (bale “evil” + fyr “fire”) – bonfire;

Weke-day (weke “week” + day “day”) – weekday;

See Appendix 7 for the full list.

Adjective / Past Participle + Noun;

Bakhows (PII of baken “to bake” + hows “house”) – bakery;

Olde fader (olde “old” + fader “father”) – grandfather;

Sour dogh (sour “sour” + dogh “dough”) – sourdough;

This pattern includes 17 compound words, see Appendix 8.

Verb + Noun;

Brewhous (brew “ to brew” + hous “house”) – brewhouse;

Glouworm (glowen “to glow” + worm “worm”) – glowworm;

Gulchecuppe (gulchen “to gulp” + cuppe “cup”) – a drunkard;

Hereword (herien “to laud” + word) – recognition;

Reremous (reren (“to rile”) + mous “mouse”) – reremouse;

Savenape (saven “to save, protect” + nape “tablecloth”) – tablecloth protector;

Adverb + Noun;

Althing (al “all” + thing) – every thing;

Alwite (al “all” + wite “white”) – alwhite;

Euensterre (euen “even” + sterre “star”) - Evening star, usu. Venus;

Noman (no + man) – nobody;

Noun + Adjective;

Chambre forene (chamber “room” + foreyn “non-local”) – an outhouse;

Furlong (furh “furrow” + lang “long”) – furlong;

Noun + Verb;

Faxwax (fax “head hair” + waxen “to grow”) – paxwax;

Verb + Adjective;

Brekefast (breken “to break” + fast “fast”) – breakfast;

The next largest group, after noun compounds, is compound adjectives. Below are the most common patterns:

Adverb + Noun;

Almyghty (all “all” + myght “might”) – almighty;

Adjective + Adjective;

Heivol (heigh “high” + fulle “full”) – proud, arrogant;

Leukwarm (leuk “weak” + warm) – lukewarm;

Adverb + Numeral;

Allone (all “all” + oon “one”) – alone;

Noun + Adjective;

Folehardy (fole “fool” + hardy “hardy”) – foolhardy;

Grasgrene (gras “grass” + grene “green”) – grass green;

Hony-swete (hony “honey” + swete “sweet”) – honey-sweet;

Shamefast (shame + fast) – modest, shy;

Snow whit (snow + whit “white”) – snow-white;

Wyndronken (wyn “wine” + drunken “drink”) – drunk or inebriated with wine;

Numral + Adjective;

Ooneyed (oon “one” + eyed) – one-eyed;

Adjective + Verb;

Seldscene (selde “uncommon” + seen “to see”) – uncommon;

Meanwhile, a group of adverbial compounds is also worth considering. Among the most frequently used structures were:

Pnoun + Noun;

Alday (alle “all” + day) – all day;

Sumdel (sum “some” + del “deal, part, portion”) – somewhat;

Adverb + Adverb;

Inwith (in + with) – within;

Nevere (ne “not” + ever) – never;

Wherewith (where+ with) – wherewith;

Adjective + Adverb;

Widewhere (wide + where) – widely;

In the Middle English period, many pronouns were formed, mostly indefinite: any + body > anybody; som(e) + body > som(e) body; no + body > nobody, etc. During the analysis, only two were detected, formed by combining a pronoun and the nominal particle -self:

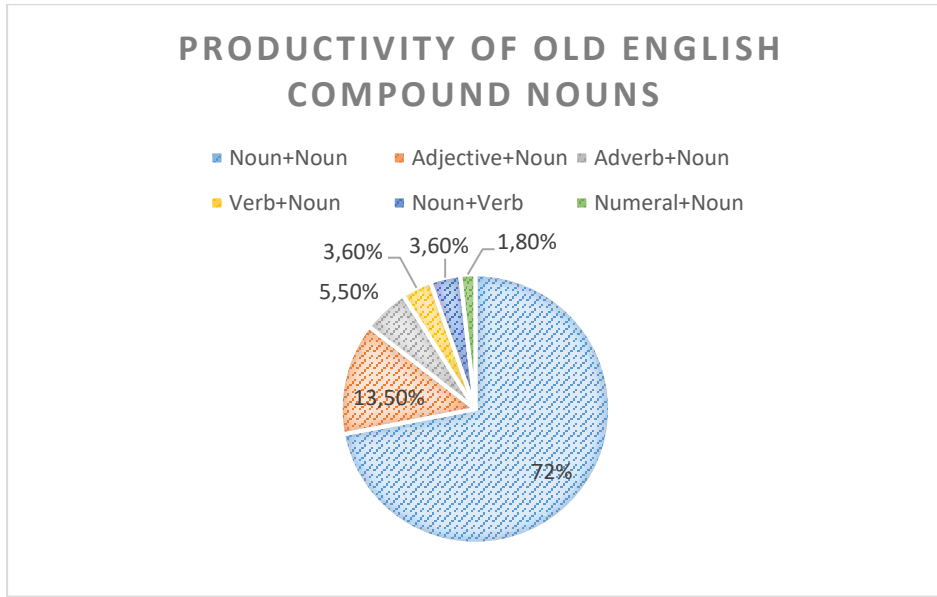
Hemself (hem “them” + self) – themselves;

Himself (hym “him” + self) – himself;

Conclusions to Chapter Two

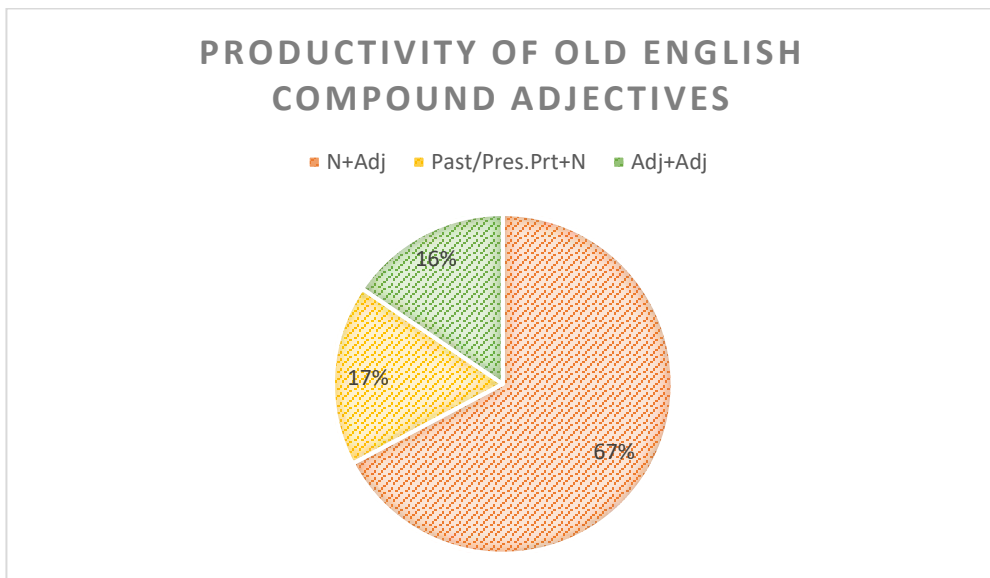
Thus, the systematic sampling of the Old English dictionary resulted in the extraction and further analysis of 194 items. Thus, 111 compound nouns constituted the largest group, of which almost three quarters (72%) are compound nouns formed by combining noun + noun, 13.5% are adjective + noun, 5.5% are adverb + noun, 3.6% are verb + noun, 3.6% are noun + verb, and only 1.8% are numeral + noun (see Diagram A).

Diagram A



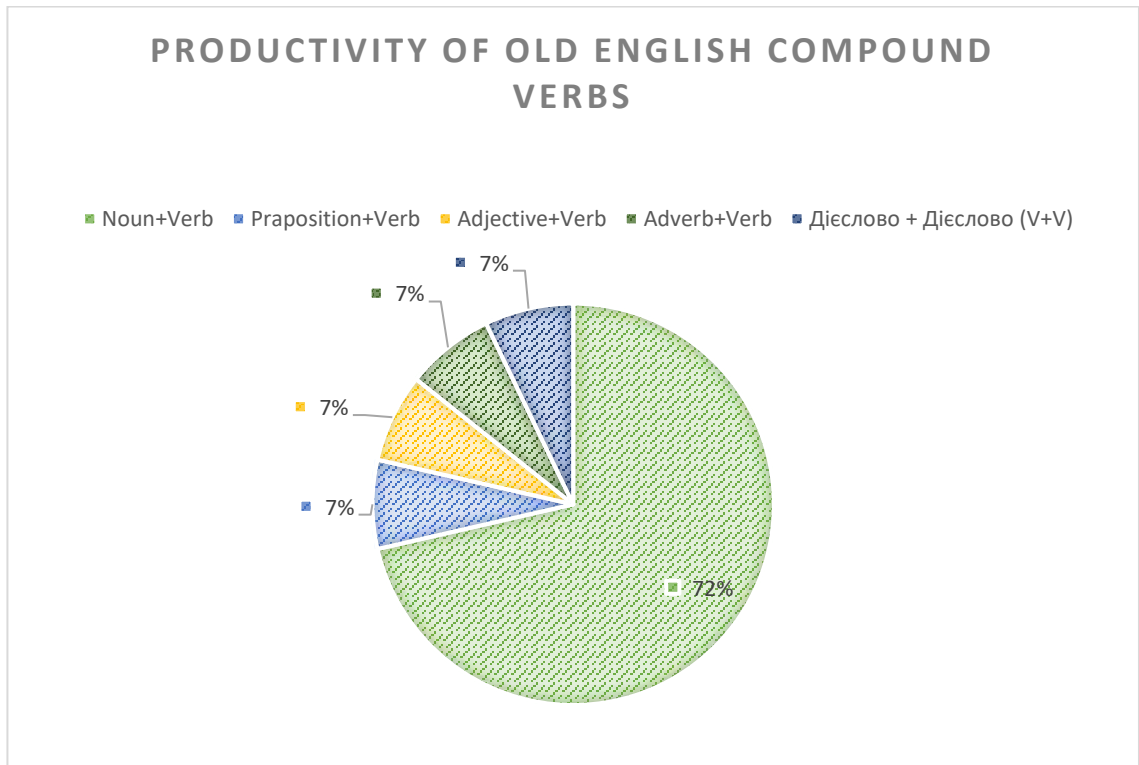
The next group comprises compound adjectives - 58 units. The largest share is occupied by the noun + adjective pattern – almost two-thirds (67%), followed by 17% of the present participle/ past participle + noun model, and 16% of the adjective + adjective pattern (see Diagram B).

Diagram B



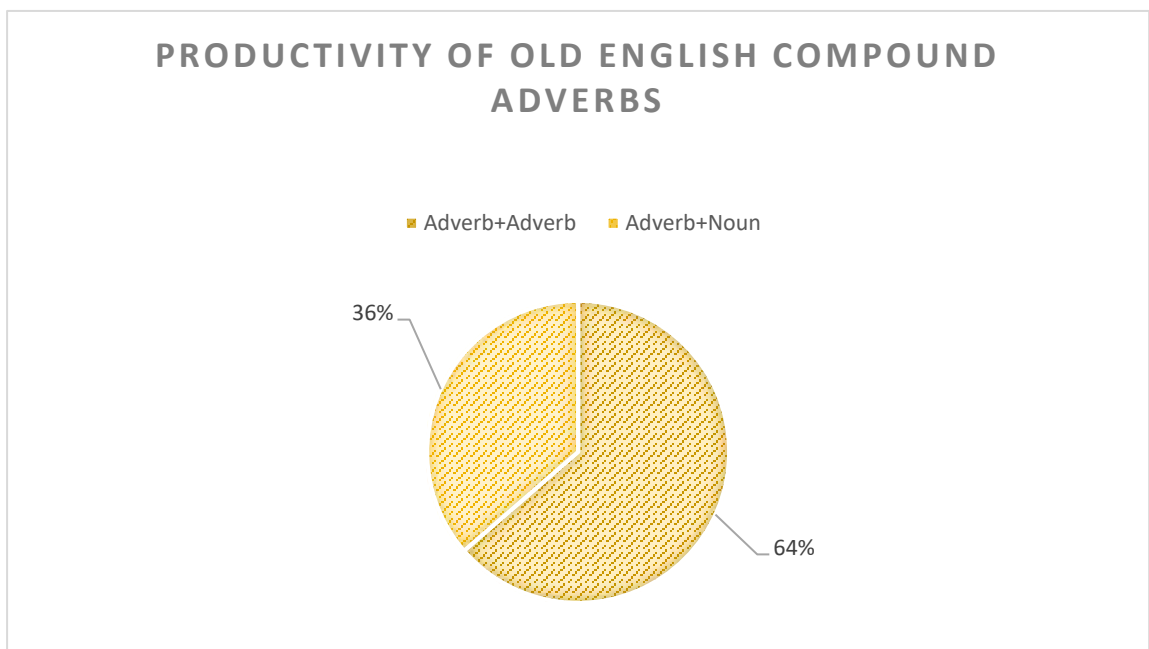
The study also identified 14 verb compounds, three-quarters (72%) of which comprise the noun + verb structure, and 7% each of the preposition, adverb, adjective, verb + verb structure (see Diagram C).

Diagram C



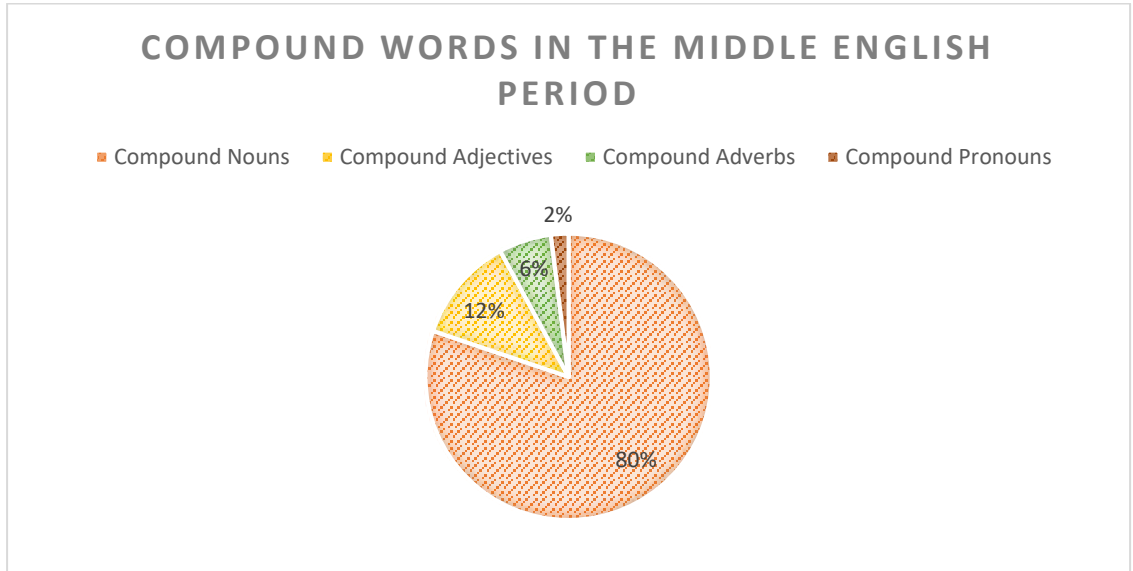
Furthermore, adverbial compounds, in their turn, account for 11 units. The adverb + adverb pattern represents almost two-thirds (64%) of the total number, and the adverb + noun pattern represents 36% (see Diagram D).

Diagram D



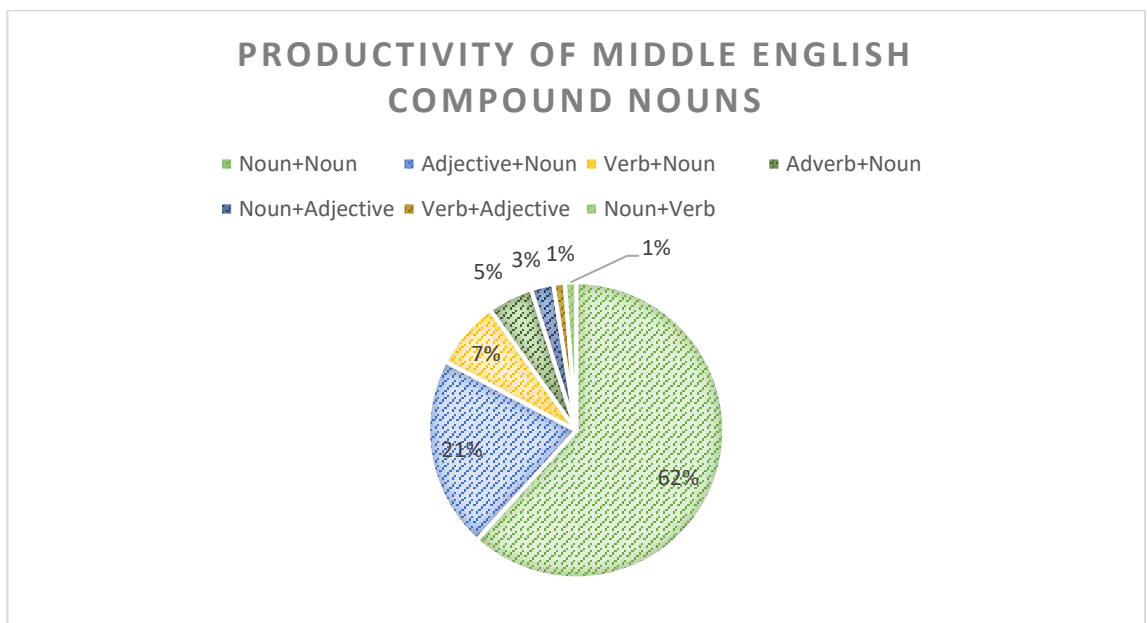
In the same way, 101 units were identified in the Middle English period, 81 of which are compound nouns, 12 – compound adjectives, 6 are – compound adverbs, and only 2 – compound pronouns (see Diagram E).

Diagram E



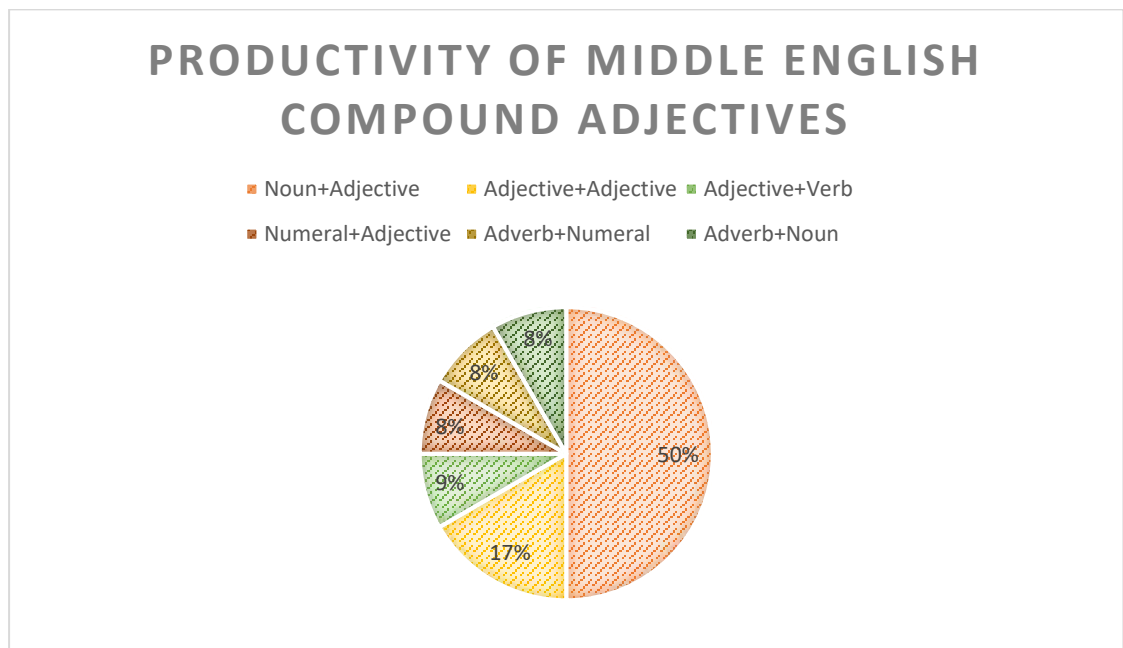
In the formation of compound nouns, the noun + noun structure prevails (62%), one-fourth (21%) is represented by the adjective + noun pattern, verb + noun comprises 7% of the whole number, adverb + noun – 5%, noun + adjective – 3%, verb + adjective and noun + verb structures constitute 1% (see Diagram F).

Diagram F



The other group of adjectival compounds includes about 12 units, with one second of them being noun + adjective, 17% adjective + adjective, and 8% each of adjective + verb, numeral + adjective, adverb + numeral, and adverb + noun structures (see Diagram G).

Diagram G



It is worth mentioning that fewer structures were identified among compound adverbs (6 units) and pronouns (2 units). Therefore, we can assume that compounding was not widespread in the formation of these words, or there is a systematic sampling error here.

Thus, the quantitative and comparative analysis suggests that the most productive patterns in the Old English period were Noun + Noun, Noun + Adjective, Noun + Verb and proves that the process of compounding was a fairly common way of forming vocabulary at that stage of the English language history.

Furthermore, the comparison of the initial data of the two periods reveals that the Noun + Noun and Noun + Adjective structures were productive in the Middle English period, but no patterns for the formation of verb compounds were

detected at all. Thus, it can be assumed that the process of word compounding gradually lost its productivity in the construction of complex verbs but remained one of the main sources of lexical enrichment of other parts of speech in the Middle English period.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Compounding is one of the means of word formation that enriches the English language wordstock, which contributes to the fact that compounding as one of the main ways of word formation is the subject of numerous research.

This type of word formation has not decreased its productivity over the centuries and remains one of the most basic means of generating lexical items.

A systematic sampling of lexicographical sources from the two analyzed periods was carried out, which revealed that the process of word formation was used in the formation of compound words in almost all parts of speech.

The quantitative and comparative analysis allows us to see what changes the English vocabulary has undergone during a certain period of its development and to highlight the following tendencies for the next period.

First, compound noun and adjective patterns were an active way of constructing vocabulary in both Old English and Middle English.

Although the most popular compound words were derived from the noun + noun pattern, their number decreases in the course of English development: 72% in the Old English period and 67% in the Middle English period. However, the number of patterns for the formation of compound nouns becomes more diverse: 6 types in the Old English period and 7 types in the Middle English period, where some patterns dropped out of use completely (Numeral + Noun) and completely new ones emerged (Noun + Adjective; Verb + Adjective).

Consequently, the first tendency can be outlined as follows. The frequency of noun compound words will decrease, there will be a growing number of types of compound noun patterns, which will become more diverse and there will be less dominance of the noun + noun pattern.

Similarly, the number of adjectival compound words is decreasing: 58 in the Old English period and 12 in the Middle English period. However, there is a steady

increase in the variety of patterns for the formation of compound adjectives. In the Old English Period there were only 3 types, and in the Middle English period there are twice as many. This leads us to the conclusion that adjectival compound words will also decrease in number over the years, but their diversity of their patterns may also increase over time

Lastly, we can see a decrease in the number of verb and adverbial compounds: while in the Old English period a few examples were found, in the Middle English period they were almost never encountered. It can suggest the unproductivity of such patterns and their disappearance in the future.

The further development of word compounding as a means of enriching the lexicon in the New English period is a promising area for new research.

Nevertheless, based on the data of the study, we can summarize that the process of word formation continued to develop and enrich the vocabulary in the Old and Middle English periods.

RÉSUMÉ

Лексичне багатство мови свідчить про рівень розвитку суспільства. З розвитком знань про світ лексичний склад мови постійно змінюється. Таким чином, лексичний стан будь-якої мови потребує постійного дослідження - дослідження на певному синхронному зрізі та в діахронії. Саме тому лінгвістичні та соціолінгвістичні питання, пов'язані з розвитком, збагаченням словникового складу, завжди привертала увагу мовознавців.

Одним із способів словотвору в англійській мові є складання, тобто "спосіб творення складних слів поєднанням двох або більше основ чи цілих слів або їх скорочень". Словоскладання є одним із найдавніших способів словотвору, що зберіг в англійській мові продуктивність і на сучасному етапі його розвитку. Вивчення цього способу словотворення має не тільки теоретичне, а й практичне значення.

Загалом, було проведено дослідження, а саме механічна вибірка з двох словників – давньо- та середньоанглійського періоду, в результаті якого було виявлено 295 одиниць: 194 у давньоанглійській мові та 101 – у середньоанглійський період.

Отримані результати кільсно-порівняльного аналізу свідчать про те, що моделі Іменник + Іменник, Іменник + Прикметник та Іменник + Дієслово були найпродуктивнішими у творенні складних іменників, прикметників та дієслів у давньоанглійський період, та не втрачали своєї ефективності і в середньоанглійський період.

Перспективи дослідження полягають у подальшому вивченню процесу словоскладання, як засобу творення лексики а новоанглійський період.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1

The **Noun + Noun** pattern in the Old English period:

1) Adlieg (ād “funeral pyre” + līeg – “flame”) – flame of the funeral pile;

2) Æboc (æ “law” + bōc “book”) – a book of law;

3) Æcerceorl (æcer “field” + ceorl “man”) – a farmer, ploughman;

4) Ædreseax (ædre “ vein, artery; sinew” + seax “knife”) – scalpel, lancet;

5) Æfenglom (æfen “evening” + glōm “gloom, gloaming”) – the evening gloom: twilight;

6) Æfensteorra (æfen “evening” + steorra “star”) – the evening star;

7) Ægwyr̥t (æ̅g “egg” + wyr̥t “plant”) – dandelion;

8) Ælareow (æ̅ “law” + lārēow “teacher”) – a doctor of the law;

9) Ælfhelm (ælf “elf” + helm “helmet”) – a male given name;

10) Ælnett (æl “eel” + nett “net”) – eel net, a net for catching eels;

11) Æmethwil (æmett “leisure” + hwīl “time”) – free time, leisure;

12) Æmethyll (æmete “ant” + hyll “hill”) – anthill;

13) Æppelleaf (æppel “apple” + lēaf “leaf”) – the violet;

14) Ærendgewrit (ærende “message” + ġewrit “writing”) – a letter;

15) Æsctir (æsc “ash, spear, lance, ship” + tīr “fame, glory, honor”) – glory, spear-glory, fame from battle;

16) Agendfrea (āgend “owner” + frēa “lord”) – owner, lord;

17) Ancenned (ān “one” + cenned “PII of cennan – to produce”) – only- begotten;

18) Andgiettacen (andgiet “perception” + tācen “to take”) – perceptible sign;

19) Ardæde (ār “honour, glory, grace + dæd “action”) – mercy;

20) Bæcern (*bæc “anything baked, pastry” + ærn “house”) – bakery;

21) Batweard (bāt “boat, ship, vessel” + weard “ward, guardian, keeper”) – ship's watchman;

22) Beoceorl (bēo “bee” + ceorl “man”) – a beekeeper;

23) Bispelboc (bīspell “parable” + bōc “book”) – book of parables;

24) Bocgestreon (bōc “book” + gestrēon “treasure”) – library;

25) Campstede (camp “combat” + stede “place”) – battlefield;

26) Cenningstow (cenning “birth” + stow “place”) – birthplace;

27) Circuladl (circul “cycle” + ādl “disease”) – circle-disease; shingles;

28) Clipolgefeg (clipola “vowel” + gefēg “joining, combination”) – diphthong;

29) Dægsteorra (dæg “day” + steorra “star”) – daystar;

30) Deaþdæg (dēaþ “death” + dæg “day”) – day of death;

31) Deorcynn (dēor “animal” + cynn “king”) – animalkind, beastkind;

32) Durustod (dūru “door” + studu “post”) – doorpost, doorjamb;

33) Dwolmann (dwola “heresy” + mann “man”) – heretic;

34) Eagæppel (ēage “eye” + æppel “apple”) – eyeball;

35) Edischenn (edisc “park” + henn “hen”) – quail;

36) Eleberge (ele “oil” + berge “berry”) – olive;

37) Færdeap (fær “sudden” + dēap “death”) – sudden death;

38) Færgripe (fær “sudden attack” + gripe “grip, seizure”) - sudden attack, seizure;

39) Fictreow (fīc “fig” + trēow “tree”) – fig tree;

40) Fotadl (fōt “foot” + ādl “disease”) – gout;

41) Gæsthus (gæst “guest” + hūs “house”) – guesthouse;

42) Garleac (gār “spear” + lēac “leek”) – garlic;

43) Gebyrddæg (gebyrd – “birth” + dæg “day”) – birthday;

44) Gewealdleþer (geweald “control” + leþer “leather”) – resin;

45) Handboc (hand “hand” + bōc “book”) – handbook;

46) Heafodban (hēafod “head” + bān “bone”) – skull;

47) Hellewite (hell “hell” + wīte “punishment”) – the torments of hell; eternal punishment, hellfire;

48) Iegland (īeg “island” + land “land”) – island;

49) Isearn (īs “ice” + earn “eagle”) – kingfisher;

50) Ladmann (lād “way” + mann “person”) – leader;

51) Læcehus (lǣce “doctor” + hūs “house”) – hospital;

52) Lenctentima (lencten “spreng” + tima “time”) – springtime;

53) Mæcefisc (mǣce “sword” + fisc “fish”) – mullet;

54) Mancynn (man “human” + cynn “race”) – mankind, humanity;

55) Mereswin (mere “sea” + swīn “pig”) – dolphin or porpoise;

- 56) Merscmealwe (mersc “marsh” + mealwe “mallow”) – marshmallow;
- 57) Middelfinger (middel “middle” + finger “finger”) – middle finger;
- 58) Mycgnett (mycg “mosquito” + nett “net”) – mosquito net;
- 59) Niedhæmed (nīed “force” + hæmed “sex”) – a rape;
- 60) Neodlaþu (nēod “desire, eagerness, earnest” + laþu “invitation, summons”) – an urgent summons; an earnest, hospitable invitation; a wish;
- 61) Ordfruma (ord “point” + fruma “beginning, origin”) – origin;
- 62) Oxanhierde (oxa “ox” + hierde “herdsman”) – oxherd;
- 63) Penningmangere (penning “penny” + mangere “trader”) – money-monger;
- 64) Persoctreow (persoc “peach” + trēow “tree”) – peach tree;
- 65) Picgbread (picga “pig” + brēad “bread, food”) – glans;
- 66) Rædingboc (ræding “reading” + bōc “book”) – lectionary;
- 67) Regnboga (regn “rain” + boga “bow”) – rainbow;
- 68) Regndropa (regn “rain” + dropa “drop”) – raindrop;
- 69) Regolsticca (regol “rule” + sticca “stick”) – ruler;
- 70) Sædeor (sǣ “sea” + dēor “animal, beast”) – sea beast;
- 71) Scipgebroc (scip “ship” + gebroc “breaking”) – shipwreck;
- 72) Scytefinger (scyte “shooting” + finger “finger”) – forefinger;
- 73) Selfæta (self “self”) + æta “eater”) – cannibal;
- 74) Stæfleahter (stæf “letter; grammatical” + leahter “fault, error”) – grammatical error;
- 75) Sunstede (sunne “sun” + stede “place”) – sunstead;
- 76) Tidregn (tīd “time” + regn “rain”) – seasonable rain;
- 77) Toþece (tōþ “tooth” + ece “ache”) – toothache;
- 78) Þæctigele (þæc “roof” + tigele “tile”) – roof tile;

79) Þunresdæg (genitive of Þunor “thunder, the god Thunor” + dæg “day”) – Thursday;

80) Unfriþland (unfriþ “hostility” + land “country”) – hostile country;

APPENDIX 2

The **Adjective + Noun** pattern in the Old English period:

- 1) Æþelcýning (æþele “noble” + cýning “king”) – a noble king.
- 2) Agenspræc (āgen “peculiar” + spræc “language”) – an idiom;
- 3) Anfloga (ān “lone” + floga “flyer”) – a lone flyer;
- 4) Angbreost (ange “tight” + brēost “chest”) – asthma, shortness of breath;
- 5) Beorhthwil (beorht “bright” + hwīl “while, period of time”) – glance, moment;
- 6) Cwicbeam (cwic “living” + beam “beam”) – quickbeam;
- 7) Eorcnanstan (eorcnan “special, noble” + stān “stone”) – precious stone;
- 8) Haligdæg (hālig “holy” + dæg “day”) – holy day, holiday;
- 9) Heahfæder (hēah “high”+ fæder “father”) – a patriarch;
- 10) Neahbuend (nēah “close” + būend “an inhabitant”) – neighbor;
- 11) Sarspell (sār “painful” + spell “story”) – a painful story;
- 12) Syferæte (sýfre “moderate” + æt “eating”) – moderate in eating, abstemious;
- 13) Unrihtwif (unriht “wrong” + wīf “woman”) – a woman of bad character;
- 14) Utermere (ūtera “outer” + mere “sea”) – open sea;
- 15) Wælsceaft (wæl “slaughter” + sceaft “shaft”) – a deadly shaft;

APPENDIX 3

The pattern **Noun+Adjective/Past Participle** in the Old English period:

- 1) Bearneacen (bearn “child” + ēacen “PII of ēacan – to conceive, become pregnant) – pregnant;
- 2) Bleoread (blēo “blue” + rēad “red”) – purple; blue-red;
- 3) Blodreow (blōd “blood” + rēow “cruel, fierce”) – bloodthirsty;
- 4) Burbyrde (būr “peasant” + byrde “born”) – of peasant birth;
- 5) Ciricgeorn (cirice “church” + georn “eager”) - diligent in attending church;
- 6) Cnihtwesende (cniht “boy” + wesende - present participle of wesan – “to be”) – young, boyish;
- 7) Colswewart (col “coal” + swewart “black”) – coal black;
- 8) Deaþscyldig (dēaþ “death” + scyldig “guilty”) – condemned to death;
- 9) Deofolseoc (dēofol “demon” + sēoc “sick”) – possessed by a demon;
- 10) Deorfellen (dēorn “ animal” + fellen “made of skin”) - made of beast or animal skins;
- 11) Deadboren (dēad “dead” + boren “born”) – stillborn;
- 12) Domeadig (dōm “judgment” + ēadig “ happy”) – blessed with power;
- 13) Elpendbænen (elpend “elephant” + bænen “bone”) – ivory;
- 14) Famblawende (fām “foam” + blāwende “blustering”) – foaming;
- 15) Feorhscyldig (feorh “life” + scyldig “ guilty”) – life-guilty;
- 16) Fielleseoc (fiell “fall” + sēoc “sick”) – epileptic;
- 17) Firenfull (firen “sin” + full “full”) – sinfull;
- 18) Firwitgeorn (firwitt “curiosity” + georn “eager”) – curious;
- 19) Giestliþe (giest “guest” + liþe “gentle”) – hospitable;
- 20) Goldfah (gold “gold” + fāh “guilty”) – ornamented or adorned with gold;

- 21) Græsgrene (græs “grass” + grēne “green”) – grass-green;
- 22) Hæfern (hæf “water, sea” + ærn “house, home, dwelling”) – a crab;
- 23) Hæpberge (hǣp “heath” + berge “berry”) – blueberry;
- 24) Handcræftig (hand “hand”+ cræftig “skillful”) – dexterous;
- 25) Healfbrocen (healf ‘half’ + brocen (past participle of brecan – to break) – half-broken;
- 26) Healfcwic (healf “half” + cwic “alive”) – half-dead;
- 27) Hiwcup (hīw “form, shape” + cūp – PII of cunnan – “to know”) – familiar, domestic;
- 28) Ielfsciene (ielf “elf” + sciene “beautiful”) – gorgeous: as beautiful as an elf;
- 29) Isceald (īs “ice” + ceald “cold”) – ice-cold;
- 30) Lagucræftig (lagu “sea” + cræftig “skillful”) – skilled at seamanship, nautical;
- 31) Morþorscyldig (morþor “murder” + scyldig “guilty”) - guilty of murder;
- 32) Moþfreten (moþpe “moth” + freten “eaten”) – moth-eaten; (з’їдена мілью)
- 33) Sigefæst (sige “victory” + fæst “firm”) – victorious;
- 34) Stæfwis (stæf “letter” + wīs “wise”) – lettered;
- 35) Stanfah (stān “stone” + fāh “decorated, adorned”) – paved;
- 36) Þancweorþ (þanc “thanks” + weorþ “worth”) – thankworthy;
- 37) Þegnborn (þegn “servant” + born “born”) – born a servant;
- 38) Þeowborn (þēow “slave” + born “born”) – slave-born;
- 39) Þryþswiþ (þryþ “power” + swiþ “mighty”) – mighty;

APPENDIX 4

The **Adjective + Adjective** pattern in the Old English period:

- 1) *Æþelboren* (*æþele* “noble”+ *boren* “born”) – 1. born a noble or aristocrat; highborn 2. (rare) innate, natural;
- 2) *Bealuhygdig* (*bealu* “harm, evil” + *hygdig* “minded”) – evil-minded;
- 3) *Blæhæwen* (*blāw* “blue” + *hæwen* “blue, purple, green, azure”) – light blue; dark blue; violet or purple;
- 4) *Ealdbacen* (*eald* “old” + *bacen* “baked”) – stale;
- 5) *Geoluread* (*geolu* “yellow” + *read* “red”) – yellow-red;
- 6) *Godscyldig* (*god* “good” + *scyldig* “sinful”) – impious;
- 7) *Liegfæmende* (*līeg* “flame” + *fæmende* – present participle of *fæman* “to foam”) – flame spewing;
- 8) *Sīþboren* (*sīþ* “late” + *boren* (“born”) –born late;
- 9) *Snawhwit* (*snāw* “snow” + *hwīt* “white”) – snow-white;

APPENDIX 5

Pattern **Adjective / Past Participle** + Noun in the Old English period:

- 1) *Bærfot* (*bær* “bare” + *fōt* “foot”) – barefoot;
- 2) *Blondenfeax* (*blonden* “mixed” + *feax* “hair”) – grey-haired;
- 3) *Bolgenmod* (*bolgen* “PII of *belgan* - to become angry” + *mōd* “mind”) – enraged;
- 4) *Ceorlboren* (*ceorl* “peasant” + *boren* “born”) – low-born, common;
- 5) *Ealdwif* (*eald* “old” + *wīf* “woman”) – old woman;
- 6) *Earfoþdæde* (*earfoþe* “hard” + *dæd* “action”) – hard to do;
- 7) *Heahheort* (*hēah* “high” + *heorte* “heart”) – high-hearted;
- 8) *Hrædwægn* (*hræd* “fast” + *wægn* “wagon”) – chariot;
- 9) *Leasceawere* (*lēas* “false” + *sċēawere* “watcher, spy”) – a spy;
- 10) *Stearcmod* (*stearc* “rough” + *mōd* “mind”) – stubborn, obstinate;

APPENDIX 6

The **Noun + Verb** pattern in the Old English period:

- 1) Ærendwreccan (Ærende “ message” + wreccan “to rouse”) – to send a message;
- 2) Dælniman (dæl “part” + niman “to take”) – to participate;
- 3) Ellencampian (ellen “strength + campian “ to fight”) – to contend vigorously;
- 4) Firentacnian (firen “sin” + tacnian “to mark”) – to pollute with sin;
- 5) Geliffæstan (ge- + lif “life” + fæstan “to fasten”) – to make alive, quicken;
- 6) Goldwreccan (gold “gold” + wreccan “to drive, to press”) – to inlay with gold;
- 7) Hearnmcweþan (hearm “harm” + cweþan “to say”) – to revile; to speak abusively or badly of;
- 8) Manswerian (mæn “person” + swerian “to swear”) – to commit perjury
- 9) Rodfæstnian (rōd “ cross” + fæstnian “to fasten”) – to crucify;
- 10) Peodwreccan (þeod “nation” + wreccan “to avenge”) – to take great vengeance;

APPENDIX 7

The **Noun + Noun** pattern in the Middle English period:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Appeltre (apple “apple” + tre “tree”) – apple-tree; 2) Aschewednysday (asche “ash” + wednysday “Wednesday”) – Ash Wednesday; | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3) Attercoppe (atter “poison” + coppe - plural of coppa “goblet, cup; nape of the neck”) – a spider; 4) Axiltre (axil “axle”+ tre “tree”) – axletree; |
|--|--|

- 5) Bagpipe (bagge “bag” + pipe “pipe”) – bagpipe;
- 6) Bakbon (bak “back” + bon “bone”) – backbone;
- 7) Bale-fyre (bale “evil” + fyr “fire”) – bonfire;
- 8) Bale-siðe (bale “evil” + sith “period”) – disaster;
- 9) Barntem (barn “child” + tem “group”) – one's children; one's direct offspring;
- 10) Bedeman (bead “prayer” + man “man”) – beadsman (obsolete beadman);
- 11) Bedfelawe (bed “bed” + felawe “fellow”) – close partner; bedfellow;
- 12) Bordcloth (bord “board” + cloth “cloth”) – tablecloth;
- 13) Boterflye (buter “butter” + flye “fly”) – butterfly;
- 14) Brayn panne (brayn “brain” + panne “pan”) – brainpan;
- 15) Bridegome (bride + gome “man”) – bridegroom;
- 16) Brotherwort (brother + wort “plant”) – brotherwort;
- 17) Bukskyn (bukke “male deer” + skyn “skin”) – buckskin; skin of buck;
- 18) Capston (cap + ston “stone”) – capstone;
- 19) Cokswain (cok “cock” + swayn “servant”) – coxswain;
- 20) Corner ston (corner “corner” + ston “stone”) – cornerstone;
- 21) Couherde (cou “cow” + herde “herder”) – cowherd;
- 22) Cuppeborde (cuppe “cup” + bord “table”) – cupboard;
- 23) Egge tool (egge “edge” + tool “tool”) – an edged tool;
- 24) Ekename (eke “addition” + name) – nickname;
- 25) Elbowe (elne “ell” + bowe “bow”) – elbow;
- 26) Feldefare (felde “plain” + fare “journey”) – fieldfare;
- 27) Flodegate (flod “flood” + gate “gate”) – floodgate;
- 28) Forme fader (forme “first” + fader “father”) – forefather, ancestor;

- 29) Fyr-brand (fyr “fire” + brand) – firebrand;
- 30) Godmoder (god “god” + moder “mother”) – godmother;
- 31) Godsybbe (god “god” + sybbe “relationship”) – gossip;
- 32) Gossamer (goos “goose” + somer “sommer”) – gossamer;
- 33) Hawthorn (haw “hedge, enclosure” + thorn) – hawthorny, hawthorn berry;
- 34) Isykle (is “ice” + ikil “icicle”) - icicle;
- 35) Jorneman (jorne “journey” + mon “man”) – journeyman;
- 36) Knave child (knave “male child + child) – male boy;
- 37) Larðewe (lore “knowledge” + thew “thrall”) – a tutor or mentor;
- 38) Lond folk (lond “nation” + folk “people”) – nation; landfolk;
- 39) Mankynde (man + kynde “character”) – mankind;
- 40) Mereswyn (mere “lake, sea” + swyn “pig” – porpoise;
- 41) Night-mare (nighte “night” + mare “female horse”) – nightmare;
- 42) Otemele (ote “oat” + mele “flour”) – oatmeal;
- 43) Oxeherde (oxe “ox” + herde “herder”) – oxherd;
- 44) Penne knyfe (penne “pen” + knyfe “knife”) – a penknife;
- 45) Scheltroun (schel “shield” + troun “group of soldiers”) – sheltron;
- 46) Schepherde (schep “sheep” + herde “herder”) – shepherd;
- 47) Thonder clappe (thonder “thunder + clappe “clap”) – thunderclap;
- 48) Warderobe (warde “protection” + robe “robe”) – wardrobe;
- 49) Weke-day (weke “week” + day “day”) – weekday;
- 50) Wodeward (wode (“wood”) + ward “protection”) – woodward (archaic); forest;

APPENDIX 8

The **Adjective/Past Participle + Noun** pattern in the Middle English period:

- 1) Bake mete (PII of baken “to bake” + mete “food”) – bakemeat;
- 2) Bakhows (PII of baken “to bake” + hows “house”) – bakery;
- 3) Brymston (brym – past participle of brennen “to burn” + ston “stone”) – brimstone;
- 4) Brunswyn (brun “brown” + swyn “pig”) - porpoise;
- 5) Ferthendel (ferthe “fourth” + del “deal”) – fardel;
- 6) Lege man (lege “liege” + mon “man”) – liegeman;
- 7) Lewed mon (lewed “unintelligent” + mon “man”) – an unlearned individual;
- 8) Olde fader (olde “old” + fader “father”) – grandfather;
- 9) Open-ers (open + ers “arse”) – open-arse;
- 10) Quyk silver (quyk “active” + silver) – quicksilver, mercury;
- 11) Quyksande (quyk “active” + sand) – quicksand;
- 12) Rerebrace (rere + brace “armour which protects the arm”) – upper arm armour;
- 13) Rede See (rede “red” + sea) – Red Sea;
- 14) Sour dogh (sour “sour” + dogh “dough”) – sourdough;
- 15) Vert sauce (vert “green-colored” + sauce) – vert sauce;
- 16) Wheston (whe – PII of to whetten “to sharp” + ston “stone”) – whetstone;
- 17) Yvel fare (yvel “evil” + fare “journey”) – bad luck; misery;