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**IS‘HOQXON IBRAT NOMIDAGI NAMANGAN DAVLAT CHET TILLARI  
INSTITUTI**



**INGLIZ TILI O‘QITISH METODIKASI KAFEDRASI**

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**MA'RUZA VA SEMINAR MASHG'ULOTLAR**  
**1-MAVZU**  
**INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE. GERMAN LANGUAGES.**

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	1. <i>Pre Roman Britain</i> 2. <i>The Roman period</i> 3. <i>The Dark ages</i> 4. <i>The Anglo-Saxon period</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	<b>The results of the lesson:</b> Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Some events in the history of the Briatrain thar are important to know; 2) How the nations that invaded the land could influence the language of the Britain; 3) The history of the tribes that later formed the English nation and their peculiarities.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

**Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic The subject matter of the  
 “A History of the English language”**

<b>Stages and time of the activities</b>	<b>Activity</b>	
	<b>Instructor</b>	<b>Students</b>
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.

Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc. and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students understand the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

## **Plan**

### **1. Introductory notes**

### **2. Pre Roman Britain**

*Key words:* \_Germans, Teutons, Angles, Saxons, Jutes Frisians, tribes, written records, alphabets.

### **Pre-Roman Britain**

Man lived in what we now call the British Isles long before it broke away from the continent of Europe, long before the great seas covered the land bridge that is now known as the English Channel, that body of water that protected this island for so long, and that by its very nature, was to keep it out of the maelstrom that became medieval Europe. Thus England's peculiar character as an island nation came about

through its very isolation. Early man came, settled, farmed and built. His remains tell us much about his lifestyle and his habits. Of course, the land was not then known as England, nor would it be until long after the Romans had departed.

We know of the island's early inhabitants from what they left behind on such sites as Clacton-on-Sea in Essex, and Swanscombe in Kent, gravel pits, the exploration of which opened up a whole new way of seeing our ancient ancestors dating back to the lower Paleolithic (early Stone Age). Here were deposited not only fine tools made of flint, including hand-axes, but also a fossilized skull of a young woman as well as bones of elephants, rhinoceroses, cave-bears, lions, horses, deer, giant oxen, wolves and hares. From the remains, we can assume that man lived at the same time as these animals which have long disappeared from the English landscape.

So we know that a thriving culture existed around 8,000 years ago in the misty, westward islands the Romans were to call Britannia, though some have suggested the occupation was only seasonal, due to the still-cold climate of the glacial period which was slowly coming to an end. As the climate improved, there seems to have been an increase in the number of people moving into Britain from the Continent. They were attracted by its forests, its wild game, abundant rivers and fertile southern plains. An added attraction was its relative isolation, giving protection against the fierce nomadic tribesmen that kept appearing out of the east, forever searching for new hunting grounds and perhaps, people to subjugate and enslave.

The Celts in Britain used a language derived from a branch of Celtic known as either Brythonic, which gave rise to Welsh, Cornish and Breton; or Goidelic, giving rise to Irish, Scots Gaelic and Manx. Along with their languages, the Celts brought their religion to Britain, particularly that of the Druids, the guardians of traditions and learning. The Druids glorified the pursuits of war, feasting and horsemanship. They controlled the calendar and the planting of crops and presided over the religious festivals and rituals that honored local deities.

Many of Britain's Celts came from Gaul, driven from their homelands by the Roman armies and Germanic tribes. These were the Belgae, who arrived in great

numbers and settled in the southeast around 75 BC. They brought with them a sophisticated plough that revolutionized agriculture in the rich, heavy soils of their new lands. Their society was well-organized in urban settlements, the capitals of the tribal chiefs. Their crafts were highly developed; bronze urns, bowls and torques illustrate their metalworking skills. They also introduced coinage to Britain and conducted a lively export trade with Rome and Gaul, including corn, livestock, metals and slaves.

Of the Celtic lands on the mainland of Britain, Wales and Scotland have received extensive coverage in the pages of Britannia. The largest non-Celtic area, at least linguistically, is now known as England, and it is here that the Roman influence is most strongly felt. It was here that the armies of Rome came to stay, to farm, to mine, to build roads, small cities, and to prosper, but mostly to govern.

### **Reference**

1. Ilyish, B.A. "A. History of the English language". M., 1975.
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## **2-MAVZU**

### **SPECIFIC FEATURES OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGE**

#### **Plan**

#### **1. The Roman Period**

#### **2. The disintegration of Roman Britain**

*Key words: Germans, Teutons, Angles, Saxons, Jutes Frisians, tribes, written records, alphabets.*

The first Roman invasion of the lands we now call the British Isles took place in 55 B.C. under war leader Julius Caesar, who returned one year later, but these probings did not lead to any significant or permanent occupation. He had some interesting, if biased comments concerning the natives: "All the Britons," he wrote, "paint themselves with woad, which gives their skin a bluish color and makes them

look very dreadful in battle." It was not until a hundred years later that permanent settlement of the grain-rich eastern territories began in earnest.

In the year 43 A.D. an expedition was ordered against Britain by the Emperor Claudius, who showed he meant business by sending his general, Aulus Plautius, and an army of 40,000 men. Only three months after Plautius's troops landed on Britain's shores, the Emperor Claudius felt it was safe enough to visit his new province. Establishing their bases in what is now Kent, through a series of battles involving greater discipline, a great element of luck, and general lack of coordination between the leaders of the various Celtic tribes, the Romans subdued much of Britain in the short space of forty years. They were to remain for nearly 400 years. The great number of prosperous villas that have been excavated in the southeast and southwest testify to the rapidity by which Britain became Romanized, for they functioned as centers of a settled, peaceful and urban life.

The highlands and moorlands of the northern and western regions, present-day Scotland and Wales, were not as easily settled, nor did the Romans particularly wish to settle in these agriculturally poorer, harsh landscapes. They remained the frontier -- areas where military garrisons were strategically placed to guard the extremities of the Empire. The stubborn resistance of tribes in Wales meant that two out of three Roman legions in Britain were stationed on its borders, at Chester and Caerwent.

Major defensive works further north attest to the fierceness of the Pictish and Celtic tribes, Hadrian's Wall in particular reminds us of the need for a peaceful and stable frontier. Built when Hadrian had abandoned his plan of world conquest, settling for a permanent frontier to "divide Rome from the barbarians," the seventy-two mile long wall connecting the Tyne to the Solway was built and rebuilt, garrisoned and re-garrisoned many times, strengthened by stone-built forts as one mile intervals.

For Imperial Rome, the island of Britain was a western breadbasket. Caesar had taken armies there to punish those who were aiding the Gauls on the Continent in their fight to stay free of Roman influence. Claudius invaded to give himself

prestige, and his subjugation of eleven British tribes gave him a splendid triumph. Vespasian was a legion commander in Britain before he became Emperor, but it was Agricola who gave us most notice of the heroic struggle of the native Britons through his biographer Tacitus. From him, we get the unforgettable picture of the druids, "ranged in order, with their hands uplifted, invoking the gods and pouring forth horrible imprecations." Agricola also won the decisive victory of Mons Graupius in present-day Scotland in 84 A.D. over Calgacus "the swordsman," that carried Roman arms farther west and north than they had ever before ventured. They called their newly-conquered northern territory Caledonia.

When Rome had to withdraw one of its legions from Britain, the thirty-seven mile long Antonine Wall, connecting the Firths of Forth and Clyde, served temporarily as the northern frontier, beyond which lay Caledonia. The Caledonians, however were not easily contained; they were quick to master the arts of guerilla warfare against the scattered, home-sick Roman legionaries, including those under their ageing commander Severus. The Romans abandoned the Antonine Wall, withdrawing south of the better-built, more easily defended barrier of Hadrian, but by the end of the fourth century, the last remaining outposts in Caledonia were abandoned.

Further south, however, in what is now England, Roman life prospered. Essentially urban, it was able to integrate the native tribes into a town-based governmental system. Agricola succeeded greatly in his aims to accustom the Britons "to a life of peace and quiet by the provision of amenities. He consequently gave private encouragement and official assistance to the building of temples, public squares and good houses." Many of these were built in former military garrisons that became the *coloniae*, the Roman chartered towns such as Colchester, Gloucester, Lincoln, and York (where Constantine was declared Emperor by his troops in 306 A.D.). Other towns, called municipal, included such foundations as St. Albans (Verulamium).

Chartered towns were governed to a large extent on that of Rome. They were ruled by an *ordo* of 100 councilors (*decurion*). who had to be local residents and own

a certain amount of property. The *ordo* was run by two magistrates, rotated annually; they were responsible for collecting taxes, administering justice and undertaking public works. Outside the chartered town, the inhabitants were referred to as *peregrini*, or non-citizens. They were organized into local government areas known as *civitates*, largely based on pre-existing chiefdom boundaries. Canterbury and Chelmsford were two of the *civitas* capitals.

In the countryside, away from the towns, with their metalled, properly drained streets, their forums and other public buildings, bath houses, shops and amphitheatres, were the great villas, such as are found at Bignor, Chedworth and Lullingstone. Many of these seem to have been occupied by native Britons who had acquired land and who had adopted Roman culture and customs. Developing out of the native and relatively crude farmsteads, the villas gradually added features such as stone walls, multiple rooms, hypocausts (heating systems), mosaics and bath houses. The third and fourth centuries saw a golden age of villa building that further increased their numbers of rooms and added a central courtyard. The elaborate surviving mosaics found in some of these villas show a detailed construction and intensity of labor that only the rich could have afforded; their wealth came from the highly lucrative export of grain.

Roman society in Britain was highly classified. At the top were those people associated with the legions, the provincial administration, the government of towns and the wealthy traders and commercial classes who enjoyed legal privileges not generally accorded to the majority of the population. In 212 AD, the Emperor Caracalla extended citizenship to all free-born inhabitants of the empire, but social and legal distinctions remained rigidly set between the upper rank of citizens known as *honestiores* and the masses, known as *humiliores*. At the lowest end of the scale were the slaves, many of whom were able to gain their freedom, and many of whom might occupy important governmental posts. Women were also rigidly circumscribed, not being allowed to hold any public office, and having severely limited property rights.

One of the greatest achievements of the Roman Empire was its system of roads, in Britain no less than elsewhere. When the legions arrived in a country with virtually no roads at all, as Britain was in the first century A.D., their first task was to build a system to link not only their military headquarters but also their isolated forts. Vital for trade, the roads were also of paramount importance in the speedy movement of troops, munitions and supplies from one strategic center to another. They also allowed the movement of agricultural products from farm to market. London was the chief administrative centre, and from it, roads spread out to all parts of the province. They included Ermine Street, to Lincoln; Watling Street, to Wroxeter and then to Chester, all the way in the northwest on the Welsh frontier; and the Fosse Way, from Exeter to Lincoln, the first frontier of the province of Britain.

The Romans built their roads carefully and they built them well. They followed proper surveying, they took account of contours in the land, avoided wherever possible the fen, bog and marsh so typical in much of the land, and stayed clear of the impenetrable forests. They also utilized bridges, an innovation that the Romans introduced to Britain in place of the hazardous fords at many river crossings. An advantage of good roads was that communications with all parts of the country could be effected. They carried the *cursus publicus*, or imperial post. A road book used by messengers that lists all the main routes in Britain, the principal towns and forts they pass through, and the distances between them has survived: the Antonine Itinerary. In addition, the same information, in map form, is found in the Peutinger Table. It tells us that mansions were places at various intervals along the road to change horses and take lodgings.

The Roman armies did not have it all their own way in their battles with the native tribesmen, some of whom, in their inter-tribal squabbles, saw them as deliverers, not conquerors. Heroic and often prolonged resistance came from such leaders as Caratacus of the Ordovices, betrayed to the Romans by the Queen of the Brigantes. And there was Queen Boudicca (Boadicea) of the Iceni, whose revolt nearly succeeded in driving the Romans out of Britain. Her people, incensed by their

brutal treatment at the hands of Roman officials, burned Colchester, London, and St. Albans, destroying many armies ranged against them. It took a determined effort and thousands of fresh troops sent from Italy to reinforce governor Suetonius Paulinus in A.D. 61 to defeat the British Queen, who took poison rather than submit.

Apart from the villas and fortified settlements, the great mass of the British people did not seem to have become Romanized. The influence of Roman thought survived in Britain only through the Church. Christianity had thoroughly replaced the old Celtic gods by the close of the 4th Century, as the history of Pelagius and St. Patrick testify, but Romanization was not successful in other areas. For example, the Latin tongue did not replace Brittonic as the language of the general population. Today's visitors to Wales, however, cannot fail to notice some of the Latin words that were borrowed into the British language, such as *pysg* (fish), *braich* (arm), *caer* (fort), *foss* (ditch), *pont* (bridge), *eglwys* (church), *llyfr* (book), *ysgrif* (writing), *ffenestr* (window), *pared* (wall or partition), and *ystafell* (room).

The disintegration of Roman Britain began with the revolt of Magnus Maximus in A.D. 383. After living in Britain as military commander for twelve years, he had been hailed as Emperor by his troops. He began his campaigns to dethrone Gratian as Emperor in the West, taking a large part of the Roman garrison in Britain with him to the Continent, and though he succeeded Gratian, he himself was killed by the Emperor Theodosius in 388. Some Welsh historians, and modern political figures, see Magnus Maximus as the father of the Welsh nation, for he opened the way for independent political organizations to develop among the Welsh people by his acknowledgement of the role of the leaders of the Britons in 383 (before departing on his military mission to the Continent) The enigmatic figure has remained a hero to the Welsh as *Macsen Wledig*, celebrated in poetry and song.

The Roman legions began to withdraw from Britain at the end of the fourth century. Those who stayed behind were to become the Romanized Britons who organized local defences against the onslaught of the Saxon hordes. The famous letter of A.D. 410 from the Emperor Honorius told the cities of Britain to look to their own defences from that time on. As part of the east coast defences, a command

had been established under the Count of the Saxon Shore, and a fleet had been organized to control the Channel and the North Sea. All this showed a tremendous effort to hold the outlying province of Britain, but eventually, it was decided to abandon the whole project. In any case, the communication from Honorius was a little late: the Saxon influence had already begun in earnest.

### **Reference**

1. Ilyish, B.A. "A. History of the English language". M., 1975.
2. Kuldashev A. "A. History of the English language". T., 2011.

### **3-MAVZU**

## **OLD ENGLISH PERIOD. CELTIC TRIBES IN THE BRITISH ISLES AND ON THE EUROPEAN CONTINENT**

### **Plan**

- 1. The Dark Ages**
- 2. The Anglo Saxon Period**

From the time that the Romans more or less abandoned Britain, to the arrival of Augustine at Kent to convert the Saxons, the period has been known as the Dark Ages. Written evidence concerning the period is scanty, but we do know that the most significant events were the gradual division of Britain into a Brythonic west, a Teutonic east and a Gaelic north; the formation of the Welsh, English and Scottish nations; and the conversion of much of the west to Christianity.

By 410, Britain had become self-governing in three parts, the North (which already included people of mixed British and Angle stock); the West (including Britons, Irish, and Angles); and the South East (mainly Angles). With the departure of the Roman legions, the old enemies began their onslaughts upon the native Britons once more. The Picts and Scots to the north and west (the Scots coming in from

Ireland had not yet made their homes in what was to become later known as Scotland), and the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes to the south and east.

The two centuries that followed the collapse of Roman Britain happen to be among the worst recorded times in British history, certainly the most obscure. Three main sources for our knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon permeation of Britain come from the 6th century monk Gildas, the 8th century historian Bede, and the 9th century historian Nennius.

The heritage of the British people cannot simply be called Anglo-Saxon; it is based on such a mixture as took place in the Holy Land, that complex mosaic of cultures, ideologies and economies. The Celts were not driven out of what came to be known as England. More than one modern historian has pointed out that such an extraordinary success as an Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain "by bands of bold adventurers" could hardly have passed without notice by the historians of the Roman Empire, yet only Prosper Tyro and Procopius notice this great event, and only in terms that are not always consistent with the received accounts.

In the Gallic Chronicle of 452, Tyro had written that the Britons in 443 were reduced "in dicionen Saxonum" (under the jurisdiction of the English). He used the Roman term Saxons for all the English-speaking peoples resident in Britain: it comes from the Welsh appellation Saeson). The Roman historians had been using the term to describe all the continental folk who had been directing their activities towards the eastern and southern coasts of Britain from as early as the 3rd Century. By the mid 6th Century, these peoples were calling themselves Angles and Frisians, and not Saxons.

In the account given by Procopius in the middle of the 6th Century (the Gothic War, Book IV, cap 20), he writes of the island of Britain being possessed by three very populous nations: the Angili, the Frisians, and the Britons. "And so numerous are these nations that every year, great numbers migrate to the Franks." There is no suggestion here that these peoples existed in a state of warfare or enmity, nor that the British people had been vanquished or made to flee westwards. We have to

assume, therefore, that the Gallic Chronicle of 452 refers only to a small part of Britain, and that it does not signify conquest by the Saxons.

#### The Anglo Saxon Period

To answer the question how did the small number of invaders come to master the larger part of Britain? John Davies gives us part of the answer: the regions seized by the newcomers were mainly those that had been most thoroughly Romanized, regions where traditions of political and military self-help were at their weakest. Those who chafed at the administration of Rome could only have welcomed the arrival of the English in such areas as Kent and Sussex, in the southeast.

Another reason cited by Davies is the emergence in Britain of the great plague of the sixth century from Egypt that was particularly devastating to the Britons who had been in close contact with peoples of the Mediterranean. Be that as it may, the emergence of England as a nation did not begin as a result of a quick, decisive victory over the native Britons, but a result of hundreds of years of settlement and growth, more settlement and growth, sometimes peaceful, sometimes not. If it is pointed out that the native Celts were constantly warring among themselves, it should also be noted that so were the tribes we now collectively term the English, for different kingdoms developed in England that constantly sought domination through conquest. Even Bede could pick out half a dozen rulers able to impose some kind of authority upon their contemporaries.

So we see the rise and fall of successive English kingdoms during the seventh and eighth centuries: Kent, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. Before looking at political developments, however, it is important to notice the religious conversion of the people we commonly call Anglo-Saxons. It began in the late sixth century and created an institution that not only transcended political boundaries, but created a new concept of unity among the various tribal regions that overrode individual loyalties.

During the centuries of inter-tribal warfare, the Saxons had not thought of defending their coasts. The Norsemen, attracted by the wealth of the religious

settlements, often placed near the sea, were free to embark upon their voyages of plunder.

The first recorded visit of the Vikings in the West Saxon Annals had stated that a small raiding party slew those who came to meet them at Dorchester in 789. It was the North, however, at such places as Lindisfarne, the holiest city in England, lavishly endowed with treasures at its monastery and religious settlement that constituted the main target. Before dealing with the onslaught of the Norsemen, however, it is time to briefly review the accomplishments of the people collectively known as the Anglo-Saxons, especially in the rule of law.

By the year 878 there was every possibility that before the end of the year Wessex would have been divided among the Danish army. That this turn of events did not come to pass was due to Alfred. Leaving aside the political events of the period, we can praise his laws as the first selective code of Anglo-Saxon England, though the fundamentals remained unchanged, those who didn't please him, were amended or discarded. They remain comments on the law, mere statements of established custom.

In 896, Alfred occupied London, giving the first indication that the lands which had lately passed under Danish control might be reclaimed. It made him the obvious leader of all those who, in any part of the country, wished for a reversal of the disasters, and it was immediately followed by a general recognition of his lordship. In the words of the Chronicle, "all the English people submitted to Alfred except those who were under the power of the Danes."

Around 890 the Vikings (also known as Norsemen or Danes) came as hostile raiders to the shores of Britain. Their invasions were thus different from those of the earlier Saxons who had originally come to defend the British people and then to settle. Though they did settle eventually in their newly conquered lands, the Vikings were more intent on looting and pillaging; their armies marched inland destroying and burning until half of England had been taken. However, just as an earlier British leader, perhaps the one known in legend as Arthur had stopped the Saxon advance

into the Western regions at Mount Badon in 496, so a later leader stopped the advance of the Norsemen at Edington in 878.

But this time, instead of sailing home with their booty, the Danish seamen and soldiers stayed the winter on the Isle of Thanet on the Thames where the men of Hengist had come ashore centuries earlier. Like their Saxon predecessors, the Danes showed that they had come to stay.

It was not too long before the Danes had become firmly entrenched seemingly everywhere they chose in England (many of the invaders came from Norway and Sweden as well as Denmark). They had begun their deprivations with the devastation of Lindisfarne in 793, and the next hundred years saw army after army crossing the North Sea, first to find treasure, and then to take over good, productive farm lands upon which to raise their families. Outside Wessex, their ships were able to penetrate far inland; and founded their communities wherever the rivers met the sea.

Chaos and confusion were quick to return to England after Cnut's death, and the ground was prepared for the coming of the Normans, a new set of invaders no less ruthless than those who had come before. Cnut had precipitated problems by leaving his youngest, bastard son Harold, unprovided for. He had intended to give Denmark and England to Hardacnut and Norway to Swein. In 1035, Hardacnut could not come to England from Denmark without leaving Magnus of Norway a free hand in Scandinavia.

Although the two hundred years of Danish invasions and settlement had an enormous effect on Britain, bringing over from the continent as many people as had the Anglo-Saxon invasions, the effects on the language and customs of the English were not as catastrophic as the earlier invasions had been on the native British. The Anglo-Saxons were a Germanic race; their homelands had been in northern Europe, many of them coming, if not from Denmark itself, then from lands bordering that little country. They shared many common traditions and customs with the people of Scandinavia, and they spoke a related language.

There are over 1040 place names in England of Scandinavian origin, most occurring in the north and east, the area of settlement known as the Danelaw. The

evidence shows extensive peaceable settlement by farmers who intermarried their English cousins, adopted many of their customs and entered into the everyday life of the community. Though the Danes who came to England preserved many of their own customs, they readily adapted to the ways of the English whose language they could understand without too much difficulty. There are more than 600 place names that end with the Scandinavian -by, (farm or town); some three hundred contain the Scandinavian word thorp (village), and the same number with thwaite (an isolated piece of land). Thousands of words of Scandinavian origin remain in the everyday speech of people in the north and east of England.

There was another very important feature of the Scandinavian settlement which cannot be overlooked. The Saxon people had not maintained contact with their original homelands; in England they had become an island race. The Scandinavians, however, kept their contacts with their kinsman on the continent. Under Cnut, England was part of a Scandinavian empire; its people began to extend their outlook and become less insular. The process was hastened by the coming of another host of Norsemen: the Norman Conquest was about to begin.

William of Normandy with his huge host of fighting men, landed unopposed in the south. Harold had to march southwards with his tired, weakened army and did not wait for reinforcements before he awaited the charge of William's mounted knights at Hastings. The only standing army in England had been defeated in an all-day battle in which the outcome was in doubt until the undisciplined English had broken ranks to pursue the Normans' feigning retreat. The story is too well-known to be repeated here, but when William took his army to London, where young Edgar the Atheling had been proclaimed king in Harold's place, English indecision in gathering together a formidable opposition forced the supporters of Edgar to negotiate for peace. They had no choice. William was duly crowned King of England at Westminster on Christmas Day, 1066.

William's victory also linked England with France and not Scandinavia from now on. Within six months of his coronation, William felt secure enough to visit Normandy. The sporadic outbreaks at rebellion against his rule had one important

repercussion, however: it meant that threats to his security prevented him from undertaking any attempt to cooperate with the native aristocracy in the administration of England.

By the time of William's death in 1087, English society had been profoundly changed. For one thing, the great Saxon earldoms were split: Wessex, Mercia, Northumbria and other ancient kingdoms were abolished forever. The great estates of England were given to Norman and Breton landowners, carefully prevented from building up their estates by having them separated by the holdings of others.

The majority of Old English manuscripts are scattered throughout the libraries of England. The two largest collections belong to the British Library and the Bodleian Library of Oxford University. While these documents are national treasures and should be accessible to anyone, they obviously need to be protected; hence, heightened powers of persuasion notwithstanding, it is unlikely that an individual without an academic position or recommendation will be allowed access. Fortunately, many of these documents are on public display.

Most of the existing Old English manuscripts were made in the scriptoria of monasteries by members of the clergy. Anyone who has ever visited the remnants of such a monastery can imagine how difficult this must have been, with such little comfort, light and warmth in winter. It only goes to show the skill of monastic scribes in rendering their words so beautifully.

Anglo-Saxon manuscripts were written exclusively on parchment or vellum. While in modern times we know these media as semi-transparent writing papers used for tracing and sketching, they were originally made out of calf, goat or pig skins which had been stretched, shaved and treated. The result of this process was a thin membrane with one completely smooth side and another with a thin layer of leftover hair. Hundreds of animal skins were required to make a single book. This meant that the cost of creating literature during the Anglo-Saxon period was staggering - and hence the value of the finished product.

After the skins had been treated, they were folded into page-size squares (one fold created a folio, two folds a quarto, four folds an octavo, and so on - denoting

the number of pages created by the folds). The result was a "quire," or section of pages. This process permitted the scribe to prick small holes through the pages of each quire, which could then be ruled, making uniformly straight lines of text on each page. Finally the quires would be bound together and covered. Unfortunately, we have few decent examples of what these covers looked like; one notable exception is the small Gospel book found in St. Cuthbert's tomb, now on display at the British Library. This method of book production meant that manuscripts could be easily unbound, permitting portions of texts to become separated, swapped or lost. For this reason, and because medieval writers frequently wrote wherever they could fit text (in blank spaces, on flyleaves, etc.), many manuscripts contain a wide assortment of different documents.

The dominant script of the Old English manuscripts is Anglo-Saxon (also called Insular, a Latin word meaning "island"; in this context, the term means "from England or Ireland"). It stemmed from the Uncial script brought to England by Augustine and his fellow missionaries, and incorporated the initially Irish Roman Half-Uncial. The Anglo-Saxon hand was generally miniscule (a calligraphic term meaning smaller, lower-case letters), reserving majuscule characters (larger, upper-case letters) for the beginnings of text segments or important words (this developed into the norm for modern writing - beginning sentences and "important" words with capital letters). These fonts are perfect for calligraphers who want to work on their hand or experiment with page layouts before writing. They may also be useful for those who are unfamiliar with the slight variations between the appearances of Old English and modern English characters.

The most popular element of medieval manuscripts in general is illumination - the decoration of text with drawings. Latin texts were more often illuminated than were Old English texts. But there are some spectacular examples of Old English illumination, including the stark line drawings, the biblical illustrations of Cotton Claudius, the mysterious Sphere of Apuleius in Cotton Tiberius, the Lindisfarne Gospels (Cotton Nero - one of the few manuscripts that approaches the Book of Kells), and so on.

Why would someone want to read a manuscript facsimile of an Old English text rather than a printed edition? A couple answers come to mind. First of all, Old English manuscripts are, by and large, beautiful. Second, you never know exactly what you're getting when you read a printed edition (maybe this is a slight exaggeration, but still only a slight one). Some printed texts are "normalized," reducing the natural variation in spelling, conjugation, declension, etc., common in Old English works (most medieval writers were not nearly as concerned with consistency of spelling as modern writers). Furthermore, some printed texts collate or "average" between multiple manuscripts of the same work, offering a composite text which, while perhaps more representative of that work, loses the qualities which make a manuscript unique. Naturally, this process can thwart anyone trying to make deductions about the dialectical, calligraphic or interlinear aspects of a particular manuscript (sometimes the most interesting aspects).

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#### 4-MAVZU

#### HISTORICAL LAWS OF THE OLD ENGLISH SOUND SYSTEM

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Word stress in OE</li> <li>2. Changes of stressed vowels in early OE</li> <li>3. Development of monophthongs in OE</li> <li>4. Development of diphthongs in OE</li> <li>5. Palatal mutation in OE</li> <li>6. Consonant changes in pre-written periods.</li> </ol>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that	<b>The results of the lesson:</b> Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:

they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	1) The phonetic changes in the sphere of vowels and consonants of Old English 2) Written records of Old English 3) The peculiarities of Old English word stress
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

### Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic **Phonetic peculiarities of Old English**

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: ablaut, breaking, fracture, phonetic law, lengthening, doubling, types of stems, vocalic stems, consonant stems, root stems etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

### **Problems to be discussed**

1. *Word stress in OE*
2. *Changes of stressed vowels in early OE*
3. *Development of monophthongs in OE*
4. *Development of diphthongs in OE*
5. *Palatal mutation in OE*
6. *Consonant changes in pre-written periods*

**Key words:** *ablaut, breaking, fracture, phonetic law, lengthening, doubling, types of stems, vocalic stems, consonant stems, root stems.*

OE is so far removed from Mod E that one may take it for an entirely different language; this is largely due to the peculiarities of its pronunciation.

The survey of OE phonetics deals with word accentuation, the systems of vowels and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the PG system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE. The diachronic description of phonetics in those early periods will show the specifically English tendencies of development and the immediate sources of the sounds in the age of writing.

### **Word Stress**

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE. In OE a syllable was made prominent by an increase in the force of articulation; in other words, a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable.

Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either. The forms of the Dat. case of the nouns *hlaforde* ['xla:vorde], *cyninge* ['kyninge] used in the text and the Nom. case of the same nouns: *hlaford* ['xla:vord], *cyning* ['kyning]. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, e.g. the compound noun *Norðmonna* from the same extract, received the chief stress upon its first component and the secondary stress on the second component; the grammatical ending *-a* (Gen. pl) was unaccented. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix.

Cf: *a'risan* – *arise* v., *'toward* – *toward* adj., *'misdæd* – *misdeed* n.

If the words were derived from the same root, word stress, together with other means, served to distinguish the noun from the verb, cf:

### **Changes of Stressed Vowels in Early Old English**

Sound changes, particularly vowel changes, took place in English at every period of history. The development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels.

It should be borne in mind that the mechanism of all phonetic changes strictly conforms with the general pattern. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones: after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place. It may result in the splitting of phonemes and their numerical growth, which fills in the "empty boxes" of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the merging of old phonemes, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together. Most frequently the change will involve both types of replacement, splitting and merging, so that we have to deal both with the rise of new phonemes and with the redistribution of new allophones among the

existing phonemes. For the sake of brevity, the description of most changes below is restricted to the initial and final stages.

#### Independent Changes. Development of Monophthongs

The PG short [a] and the long [a:], which had arisen in West and North Germanic, underwent similar alterations in Early OE they were fronted and, in the process of fronting, they split into several sounds.

The principal regular direction of the change - [a]>[æ] and [a:]>[æ:] – is often referred to as the fronting or palatalisation of [a, a:]. The other directions can be interpreted as positional deviations or restrictions to this trend: short [a] could change to [o] or [a] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal; the preservation (or, perhaps, the restoration) of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable— see the examples in Table 1 (sometimes [a] occurs in other positions as well, e.g. OE *macian*, *land*, NE *make*, *land*).

#### Development of Diphthongs

The PG diphthongs (or sequences of monophthongs) [ei, ai, iu, eu, au] — underwent regular independent changes in Early OE; they took place in all phonetic conditions irrespective of environment. The diphthongs with i-glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in u-glide were reflected\_a&\_long\_\_diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [au] >[ea:].

If the sounds in PG were not diphthongs but sequences of two separate phonemes, the changes should be defined as phonologisation of vowel sequences. This will mean that these changes increased the number of vowel phonemes in the language. Moreover, they introduced new distinctive features into the vowel system by setting up vowels with diphthongal glides; henceforth, monophthongs were opposed to diphthongs. All the changes described above were interconnected. Their independence has been interpreted in different ways.

The changes may have started with the fronting of [a] (that is the change of [a] to [æ]), which caused a similar development in the long vowels: [a:]>[æ:], and could also bring about the fronting of [a] in the biphonemic vowel sequence [a + u], which became [æa:], or more precisely [æ: :], with the second element weakened.

This weakening as well as the monophthongisation of the sequences in [-i] may have been favoured by the heavy stress on the first sound.

According to other explanations the appearance of the long [a:] from the sequence [a+i] may have stimulated the fronting of long [a:], for this latter change helped to preserve the distinction between two phonemes; cf. OE *rod* (NE *road*) and OE *ræd* ('advice') which had not fallen together because while [ai] became [a:] in *rad*, the original [a:] was narrowed to [æ:] in the word *ræd*. In this case the fronting of [a:] to [æ:] caused a similar development in the set of short vowels: [a] > [æ], which reinforced the symmetrical pattern of the vowel system.

Another theory connects the transformation of the Early OE vowel system with the rise of nasalised long vowels out of short vowels before nasals and fricative consonants ([a, i, u] plus [m] or [n] plus [x, f, θ or s]), and the subsequent growth of symmetrical oppositions in the sets of long and short vowels .

#### Assimilative Vowel Changes: Breaking and Diphthongisation

The tendency to assimilative vowel change, characteristic of later PG and of the OG languages, accounts for many modifications of vowels in Early OE. Under the influence of succeeding and preceding consonants some Early OE monophthongs developed into diphthongs. If a front vowel stood before a velar consonant there developed a short glide between them, as the organs of speech prepared themselves for the transition from one sound to the other. The glide, together with the original monophthong formed a diphthong.

The front vowels [i], [e] and the newly developed [æ], changed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before [h], before long (doubled) [ll] or [l] plus another consonant, and before [r] plus other consonants, e.g.: [e]>[eo] in OE *deorc*, NE *dark*. The change is known as breaking or fracture. Breaking is dated in Early OE, for in OE texts we find the process already completed: yet it must have taken place later than the vowel changes described above as the new vowel [æ], which appeared some time during the 5th c., could be subjected to breaking under the conditions described.

Breaking produced a new set of vowels in OE – the short diphthongs [ea] and [eo]; they could enter the system as counterparts of the long [ea:], [eo:], which had developed from PG prototypes.

Breaking was unevenly spread among the OE dialects: it was more characteristic of West Saxon than of the Anglian dialects (Mercian and Northumbrian); consequently, in many words, which contain a short diphthong in West Saxon, Anglian dialects have a short monophthong, cf. WS *tealde*, Mercian *talde* (NE *told*).

Diphthongisation of vowels could also be caused by preceding consonants: a glide arose after \* palatal consonants as a sort of transition to the succeeding vowel.

After the palatal consonants [kʰ], [skʰ] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element, e.g. Early OE \**scæmu*>OE *sceamu* (NE *shame*). In the resulting diphthong the initial [i] or [e] must have been unstressed but later the stress shifted to the first element, which turned into the nucleus of the diphthong, to conform with the structure of OE diphthongs (all of them were falling diphthongs). This process known as "diphthongisation after palatal consonants" occurred some time in the 6th c.

Breaking and diphthongisation are the main sources of short diphthongs in OE. They are of special interest to the historians of English, for OE short diphthongs have no parallels in other OG languages and constitute a specifically OE feature.

The status of short diphthongs in the OE vowel system has aroused much discussion and controversy. On the one hand, short diphthongs are always phonetically conditioned as the)' are found only in certain phonetic environments and appear as positional allophones of respective monophthongs (namely, of those vowels from which they have originated). On the other hand, however, they are similar in quality to the long diphthongs, and their phonemic status is supported by the symmetrical arrangement of the vowel system. Their very growth can be accounted for by the urge of the system to have all its empty positions filled. However, their phonemic status cannot be confirmed by the contrast of minimal pairs: [ea], [æ], [a] as well as [eo] and [e] occur only in complementary distribution,

never in identical phonetic conditions to distinguish morphemes; they also occur as variants in different dialects. On these grounds it seems likely that short diphthongs, together with other vowels, make up sets of allophones representing certain phonemes: [a, æ, ea] and [e, eo]. Perhaps the rise of short diphthongs merely reveals a tendency to a symmetrical arrangement of diphthongs in the vowel system, which was never fully realized at the phonemic level.

#### Palatal Mutation

The OE tendency to positional vowel change is most apparent in the process termed "mutation". Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable.

This kind of change occurred in PG when [e] was raised to [i] and [u] could alternate with [o] under the influence of succeeding sounds.

In Early OE, mutations affected numerous vowels and brought about profound changes in the system and use of vowels.

The most important series of vowel mutations, shared in varying degrees by all OE languages (except Gothic), is known as "i-Umlaut" or "palatal mutation". Palatal mutation is the fronting and raising of vowels through the influence of [i] or [j] (the non-syllabic [i]) in the immediately following syllable. The vowel was fronted and made narrower so as to approach the articulation of [i]. Cf. OE *an* (NE *one*) with a back vowel in the root and OE *ænig* (NE *any*) derived from the same root with the root vowel mutated to a narrower and more front sound under the influence of [i] in the suffix: [a:]>[æ:].

Since the sounds [i] and [j] were common in suffixes and endings, palatal mutation was of very frequent occurrence. Practically all Early OE monophthongs, as well as diphthongs except the closest front vowels [e] and [i] were palatalised in these phonetic conditions.

Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions, which caused palatal mutation, that is [i] or [j], had disappeared in most words by the age of writing; these sounds were weakened to [e] or were altogether lost (this is seen in all the examples above except *ænig*).

Of all the vowel changes described, palatal mutation was certainly the most comprehensive process, as it could affect most OE vowels, both long and short, diphthongs and monophthongs. It led to the appearance of new vowels and to numerous instances of merging and splitting of phonemes.

The labialised front vowels [y] and [y:] arose through palatal mutation from [u] and [u:], respectively, and turned into new phonemes, when the conditions that caused them had disappeared. Cf. *mus* and *mys* (from the earlier \**mysi*, where [y:] was an allophone of [u:] before [i]). The diphthongs [ie, ie:] (which could also appear from diphthongisation after palatal consonants) were largely due to palatal mutation and became phonemic in the same way, though soon they were confused with [y, y:]. Other mutated vowels fell together with the existing phonemes, e.g. [oe] from [o] merged with [e, æ:], which arose through palatal mutation, merged with [æ:] from splitting.

Palatal mutation led to the growth of new vowel interchanges and to the increased variability of the root-morphemes: "owing to palatal mutation many related words and grammatical forms acquired new root-vowel interchanges. Cf., e.g. two related words: OE *gemot* n 'meeting' and OE *metan* (NE *meet*), a verb derived from the noun-stem with the help of the suffix -j- (its earlier form was \**motjan*; -j- was then lost but the root acquired two variants: *mot*/'*met*-). Likewise we find variants of morphemes with an interchange of root-vowels in the grammatical forms *mus*, *mys* (NE *mouse*, *mice*), *boc*, *bec* (NE *book*, *books*), since the plural was originally built by adding -iz. (Traces of palatal mutation are preserved in many modern words and forms, e.g. *mouse* — *mice*, *foot*—*feet*, *tale* — *tell*, *blood*— *bleed*; despite later phonetic changes, the original cause of the inner change is t-umlaut or palatal mutation.)

The dating, mechanism and causes of palatal mutation have been a matter of research and discussion over the last hundred years.

Palatal mutation in OE had already been completed by the time of the earliest written records; it must have taken place during the 7th c., though later than all the Early OE changes described above. This relative dating is confirmed by the fact that

vowels resulting from other changes could be subjected to palatal mutation, e. g. OE *ieldra* (NE *elder*) had developed from *\*ealdira* by palatal mutation which occurred when the diphthong [ea] had already been formed from [æ] by breaking (in its turn [æ] was the result of the fronting of Germanic [a]). The successive stages of the change can be shown as follows: fronting - breaking - palatal mutation [a] > [æ] > [ea] > [ie] The generally accepted phonetic explanation of palatal mutation is that the sounds [i] or [j] palatalised the preceding consonant, and that this consonant, in its turn, fronted and raised the root-vowel. This "mechanistic" theory is based on the assumed workings of the speech organs.. An alternative explanation, sometimes called "psychological" or "mentalistic", is that the speaker unconsciously anticipates the [i] and [j] in pronouncing the root-syllable – and through anticipation adds an. i-glide to the root-vowel. The process is thus subdivided into several stages, e.g. *\*domjan* > *\*doimjan* > *\*doemjan* > *\*deman* (NE *deem*). It has been found that some OE spellings appear to support both these theories, e.g. OE *secan* has a palatalised consonant [ggʷ] shown by the digraph *cg*; *Coinwulf*, a name in *BEOWULF*, occurring beside another spelling *Cenwulf*, shows the stage [oi:] in the transition from PG [o:] to OE [oe:], and [e:]: OE *cen* 'bold'. The diphthongoids resulting from palatal mutation developed in conformity with the general tendency of the vowel system: in Early OE diphthongal glides were used as relevant phonemic distinctive features. In later OE the diphthongs showed the first signs of contraction (or monophthongisation) as other distinctive features began to predominate: labialisation and vowel length. (The merging of [ie, ie:] and [y, y:] mentioned above, can also be regarded as an instance of monophthongisation of diphthongs.)

#### Changes of Unstressed Vowels in Early Old English

All the changes described above affected accented vowels. The development of vowels in unstressed syllables, final syllables in particular, was basically different. Whereas in stressed position the number of vowels had grown (as compared with the PG system), due to the appearance of new qualitative differences, the number of vowels distinguished in unstressed position had been reduced. In unaccented syllables, especially final, long vowels were shortened, and thus the

opposition of vowels – long to short – was neutralised. Cf. OE *nama* (NE *name*) to the earlier *\*namon*. It must also be mentioned that some short vowels in final unaccented syllables were dropped. After long syllables, that is syllables containing a long vowel, or a short vowel followed by more than one consonant, the vowels [i] and [u] were lost. Cf. the following pairs, which illustrate the retention of [u] and [i] after a short syllable, and their loss after a long one: OE *scipu* and *sceap* (NE *ships*, *sheep*, pl from *\*skeapu*); OE *werian*—*demon* (NE *wear*, *deem*; cf. Gt *domjan*).

#### Old English Vowel System (9th-10th c.)

The vowels shown in parentheses were unstable and soon fused with resembling sounds: [a] with [a] or [o], [ie, ie:] with [y, y:].

The vowels are arranged in two lines in accordance with the chief phonemic opposition: they were contrasted through quantity as long to short and were further distinguished within these sets through qualitative differences as monophthongs and diphthongs, open and close, front and back, labialised and non-labialised. Cf. some minimal pairs showing the phonemic opposition of short and long vowels:

OE *dæl* — *dæl* (NE *dale*, 'part') is — *īs* (NE *is*, *ice*) *col* — *cōl* (NE *coal*, *cool*).

The following examples confirm the phonemic relevance of some qualitative differences:

OE *ræd* — *rād* — *rēad* (NE 'advice', *road*, *red*), *sē* — *sēo* 'that' Masc. and Fern. *mā* — *mē* (NE *more*, *me*)

The OE vowel system displayed an obvious tendency towards a symmetrical, balanced arrangement since almost every long vowel had a corresponding short counterpart. However, it was not quite symmetrical: the existence of the nasalised [a] in the set of short vowels and the debatable phonemic status of short diphthongs appear to break the balance.

All the vowels listed in the table could occur in stressed position. In unstressed syllables we find only five monophthongs, and even these five vowels could not be used for phonemic contrast:

i – *ænig* (NE *any*)

e – *stāne*, Dat. sg of *stān* as opposed to

a – stāna Gen. pl of the same noun (NE stone)

o – bæron — Past pl Ind (of beran as opposed to bæren. Subj. (NE bear)

u — talu (NE tale), Nom. sg as opposed to tale in other cases

The examples show that [e] was not contrasted to [i], and [o] was not contrasted to [u]. The system of phonemes appearing in unstressed syllables consists of three units: e/i a o/u

### Consonant Changes in Pre-Written Periods

On the whole, consonants were historically more stable than vowels, though certain changes took place in all historical periods.

It may seem that being a typical OG language OE ought to contain all the consonants that arose in PG under Grimm's and Verner's Law. Yet it appears that very few noise consonants in OE correspond to the same sounds in PG; for in the intervening period most consonants underwent diverse changes: qualitative and quantitative, independent and positional.

Some of the consonant changes dated in pre-written periods are referred to as "West Germanic" (WG) as they are shared by all the languages of the WG subgroup; WG changes may have taken place at the transitional stage from PG to Early OE prior to the Germanic settlement of Britain.

### Treatment of Fricatives. Hardening. Rhotacism. Voicing and Devoicing

After the changes under Grimm's Law and Verner's Law PG had the following two sets of fricative consonants-voiceless [f, θ, x, s] and voiced [v, ð, y, z].

In WG and in Early OE the difference between the two groups was supported by new features. PG voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives while voiceless fricatives, being contrasted to them primarily as fricatives to plosives, developed new voiced allophones.

The PG voiced [ð] (due to Verner's Law or to the third act of the shift) was always hardened to [d] in OE and other WG languages, cf., for instance, Gt goþs, godai [ð], O Icel goðr and OE god (NE good), The two other fricatives, [v] and [y] were hardened to [b] and [g] initially and after nasals, otherwise they remained fricatives.

PG [z] underwent a phonetic modification through the stage of [ʒ] into [r] and thus became a sonorant, which ultimately merged with the older IE [r]. Cf. Gt. wasjan, O Icel verja and OE werian (NE wear). This process, termed rhotacism, is characteristic not only of WG but also of NG.

In the meantime or somewhat later the PG set of voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x, s] and also those of the voiced fricatives which had not turned into plosives, that is, [v] and [y], were subjected to a new process of voicing and devoicing. In Early OE they became or remained voiced intervocally and between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants; they remained or became voiceless in other environments, namely, initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants Cf. Gt qīþian, qāþi with [θ] in both forms, and OE cweðan [ð] between vowels and cwæð [θ] at the end of the word (NE arch, quoth 'say').

The mutually exclusive phonetic conditions for voiced and voiceless fricatives prove that in OE they were not phonemes, but allophones.

### **West Germanic Gemination of Consonants**

In all WG languages, at an early stage of their independent history, most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [j]. This process is known as WG "gemination" or "doubling" of consonants, as the resulting long consonants are indicated by means of double letters, e.g.: \*fuljan > OE fyllan (NE fill); \*sætjan OE > settan (NE set), cf. Gt satjan.

During the process, or some time later, [j] was lost, so that the long consonants ceased to be phonetically conditioned. When the long and short consonants began to occur in identical phonetic conditions, namely between vowels, their distinction became phonemic.

The change did not affect the sonorant [r], e.g. OE werian (NE wear); nor did it operate if the consonant was preceded by a long vowel, e. g. OE demon, metan (NE deem, meet) — the earlier forms of these words contained [j], which had caused palatal mutation but had not led to the lengthening of consonants (the reconstruction of pre-written forms \*motjan and \*domjan is confirmed by OS motion and Gt domjan).

## **Velar Consonants in Early Old English. Growth of New Phonemes**

In Early OE velar consonants split into two distinct sets of sounds, which eventually led to the growth of new phonemes. The velar consonants [k, g, x, y] were palatalised before a front vowel, and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. Thus in OE *cild* (NE child) the velar consonant [k] was softened to [k'] as it stood before the front vowel [i]: [\*kild]>[k'ild]; similarly [k] became [k'] in OE *spræc* (NE speech) after a front vowel but not in OE *sprecan* ("NE speak) where [k] was followed by the back vowel [a]. In the absence of these phonetic conditions the consonants did not change, with the result that lingual consonants split into two sets, palatal and velar. The difference between them became phonemic when, a short time later, velar and palatal consonants began to occur in similar phonetic conditions; cf. OE *cild* [k'ild], *ciest* [k'iest] (NE child, chest) with palatal [k'] and *ceald*, *cepan* (NE cold, keep) with hard, velar [k] — both before front vowels.

Though the difference between velar and palatal consonants was not shown in the spellings of the OE period, the two sets were undoubtedly differentiated since a very early date. In the course of time the phonetic difference between them grew and towards the end of the period the palatal consonants developed into sibilants and affricates: [k']>[tʃ], [g']>[dʒ]; in ME texts they were indicated by means of special digraphs and letter sequences.

The date of the palatalisation can be fixed with considerable precision in relation to other Early OE sound changes. It must have taken place after the appearance of [æ, æ:] (referred to the 5th c.) but prior to palatal mutation (late 6th or 7th c.); for [æ, æ:] could bring about the palatalisation of consonants (recall OE *spræc*, NE speech), while the front vowels which arose by palatal mutation could not. In OE *cepan*. (from \*kopjan) and OE *cyning* (with [e:] and [y] through palatal mutation) the consonant [k] was not softened, which is confirmed by their modern descendants, *keep* and *king*. The front vowels [y] and [e:] in these and similar words must have appeared only when the splitting of velar consonants was well under way. Yet it is their appearance that transformed the two sets of positional allophones into

phonemes, for a velar and a palatal consonant could now occur before a front vowel, that is, in identical phonetic conditions: cf. OE *cyning* and *cyse* (NE *king*, *cheese*).

### **Loss of Consonants in Some Positions**

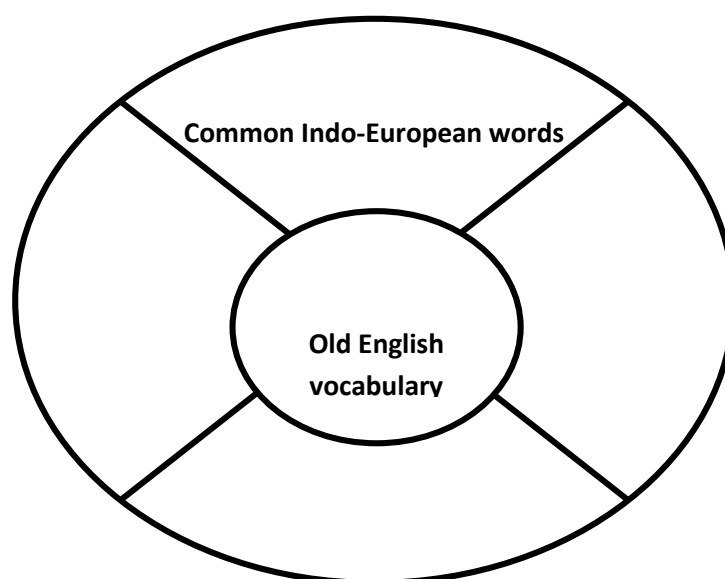
Comparison with other OG languages, especially Gothic and Old Icelandic, has revealed certain instances of the loss of consonants in West Germanic and Early Old English.

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was probably nasalised and lengthened. Cf.: Gothic *fimf*, Old Icelandic *fim*, Old High German *fimf* — Old English *fif* (NE *five*) Gothic *uns*, Old High German *uns* — Old English *ūs* (NE *us*)

Fricative consonants could be dropped between vowels and before some plosive consonants; these losses were accompanied by a compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel or the fusion of the preceding and succeeding vowel into a diphthong, cf. Old English *sēon*, which corresponds to Gothic *saihwan*, Old English *slēan* (NE *slay*), Gothic *slahan*, German *schlagen*, Old English *sægde* and *sæde* (NE *said*).

We should also mention the loss of semi-vowels and consonants in unstressed final syllables, [j] was regularly dropped in suffixes after producing various changes in the root: palatal mutation of vowels, lengthening of consonants after short vowels. The loss of [w] is seen in some case forms of nouns: Nominative *treo*, Dative *treowe* (NE *tree*); Nominative *sæ*, Dative *sæwe* (NE *sea*), cf. Gothic *triwa*, *saiws*.

### **Old English Vocabulary**



### Answer the following questions

- 1) *What are the phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages?*
- 2) *What is the essence of Grimm's law?*
- 3) *What is the essence of Varner's law?*
- 4) *When did the Anglo – Jaxon invasion bequs?*
- 5) *When did the Scandinavian invasion take place?*

### Literature

1. *Ilyish, B.A. "A. History of the English language". M., 1975.*
2. *Kuldashev A. "A. History of the English language". T., 2011.*

### 5-MAVZU

#### MORPHOLOGY OF OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Word stress in ME</i></li> <li>2. <i>Changes of stressed vowels in early ME</i></li> <li>3. <i>Consonant changes in pre-written periods.</i></li> </ol>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	<b>The results of the lesson:</b> Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) The phonetic changes in the sphere of vowels and consonants of ME;</li> <li>2) Written records of ME;</li> <li>3) The peculiatities of ME word stress .</li> </ol>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

## Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic Phonetic peculiarities of Old English

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: about, breaking, fracture, phonetic law, lengthening, doubling, types of stems, vocalic stems, consonant stems, root stems etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

### Problems to be discussed

1. *The Norman conquest of Britain*
2. *The influence of French to ME phonetic structure*

3. *Changes of monophthongs in ME*
4. *Changes of diphthongs in ME*
5. *The formation of ME dialects*
6. *The London dialect as the basis of English national language*

**Key words:** *strong verbs, weak verbs, preterits present verbs irregular verbs, sound alteration, dental suffix conjugation, basic forms of the verb*

The OE verb was characterised by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form-building means. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

### **Grammatical Categories of the Finite Verb**

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Thus in OE *he bindeð* 'he binds' the verb is in the 3rd p. Pres. Tense Ind. Mood; in the sentence *Bringað me hider þa* 'Bring me those (loaves)' *bringað* is in the Imper. Mood pl.

Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: sg and pl. The homonymy of forms in the verb paradigm did not affect number distinctions: opposition through number was never neutralised.

The category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd. Unlike number, person distinctions were neutralised in many positions. Person was consistently shown only in the Pres. Tense of the Ind. Mood 'In the Past Tense sg of the Ind. Mood the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. coincided and only the 2nd p. had a distinct form. Person was not distinguished in the pl; nor was it shown in the Subj. Mood.

The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. There were a few homonymous forms, which eliminated the distinction between the moods: Subj. did not differ from the Ind. in the 1st p. sg Pres. Tense — here, *deme* — and in the 1st and 3rd p. in the Past. The coincidence of the Imper. and Ind. Moods is seen in the pl — *lociaþ, demaþ*.

The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorial forms, Pres. and Past. The tenses were formally distinguished by all the verbs in the Ind. and Subj. Moods, there being practically no instances of neutralisation of the tense opposition.

The use of the Subj. Mood in OE was in many respects different from its use in later ages. Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and other volitional, conjectural and hypothetical contexts Subj. was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech, e.g.:

þa giet he ascode hwæt heora cyning haten wære, and him man andswarode and cwæð þæt he Ælle haten wære. 'and yet he asked what their king was called, and they answered and said that he was called Ælle'. In presenting indirect speech usage was variable: Ind. forms occurred by the side of Subj.

### **Conjugation of Verbs in Old English**

The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Pres. were used to indicate present and future actions. With verbs of perfective meaning or with adverbs of future time the Pres. acquired the meaning of futurity; Cf: þonne þu þa in bringst, he ytt and bletsað þe — futurity — 'when you bring them, he will eat and bless you' þu gesihst þæt ic ealdige 'you see that I am getting old' the Pres. tense ealdie indicates a process in the present which is now expressed by the Continuous form. Future happenings could also be expressed by verb phrases with modal verbs:

forþæm ge sculon ... wepan 'therefore you shall weep'.

The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past (including those which are nowadays expressed by the forms of the Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Present Perfect and other analytical forms). Additional shades of meaning could be attached to it in different contexts, e. g.:

Ond þæs ofer Eastron gefor Æpered cyning; ond he ricsode fif gear 'and then after Easter died King Aethred, and he had reigned five years' (the Past Tense ricsode indicates a completed action which preceded another past action — in the modern translation it is rendered by had reigned).

### **Grammatical Categories of the Verbals**

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. In many respects they were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verb; their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features, especially at the morphological level. The verbal nature of the Infinitive and the Participle was revealed in some of their functions and in their syntactic "combinability": like finite forms they could take direct objects and be modified by adverbs.

The forms of the two participles were strictly differentiated. P I was formed from the Present tense stem (the Infinitive without the endings -an, -ian) with the help of the suffix -ende. P II had a stem of its own — in strong verbs it was marked

by a certain grade of the root-vowel interchange and by the suffix -en; with weak verbs it ended in -d/-t. P II was commonly marked by the prefix ge-, though it could also occur without it, especially if the verb had other word-building prefixes.

Infinitive Participle I Participle II (NE bindan bindende gebunden bind)

### **Morphological Classification of Verbs**

The conjugation of verbs shows the means of form-building used in the OE verb system. Most forms were distinguished with the help of inflectional endings or grammatical suffixes; one form — P II — was sometimes marked by a prefix; many verbs made use of vowel interchanges in the root; some verbs used consonant interchanges and a few had suppletive forms. The OE verb is remarkable for its complicated morphological classification which determined the application of form-building means in various groups of verbs. The majority of OE verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. Besides these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as "minor" groups. The main difference between the strong and weak verbs lay in the means of forming the principal parts, or the "stems" of the verb. There were also a few other differences in the conjugations.

All the forms of the verb, finite as well as non-finite, were derived from a set of "stems" or principal parts of the verb: the Present tense stem was used in all the Present tense forms, Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive, and also in the Present Participle and the Infinitive; it is usually shown as the form of the Infinitive; all the forms of the Past tense were derived from the Past tense stems; the Past Participle had a separate stem.

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation (ablaut) and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs vowel gradation was accompanied by consonant interchanges. The strong verbs had four stems, as they distinguished two stems in the Past Tense – one for the 1st and 3rd p. Ind. Mood, the other — for the other Past tense forms, Ind. and Subj.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help of the dental suffix -d- or -t- normally they did not change their root vowel, but in some verbs suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange.

The Past tense stem of the weak verbs is the form of the 1st and 3rd p. sg; the pl locodon is formed from the same stem with the help of the plural ending -on). The same ending marks the Past pl of strong verbs.

Both the strong and the weak verbs are further subdivided into a number of morphological classes with some modifications in the main form-building devices. Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs but were not homogeneous either. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak

verbs in a peculiar way ("preterite-present" verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous. The following chart gives a general idea of the morphological classification of OE verbs.

### **Strong Verbs**

There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. They were native words descending from PG with parallels in other OG languages; many of them had a high frequency of occurrence and were basic items of the vocabulary widely used in word derivation and word compounding. The strong verbs in OE (as well as in other OG languages) are usually divided into seven classes.

Classes from 1 to 6 use vowel gradation which goes back to the IE ablaut-series modified in different phonetic conditions in accordance with PG and Early OE sound changes. Class 7 includes reduplicating verbs, which originally built their past forms by means of repeating the root-morpheme; this doubled root gave rise to a specific kind of root-vowel interchange.

The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: -an for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past sg stem, -on in the form of Past pl, -en for Participle II. Two of these markers – the zero-ending in the second stem and -en in Participle II – are found only in strong verbs and should be noted as their specific characteristics. The classes differ in the series of root-vowels used to distinguish the four stems. Only several classes and subclasses make a distinction between four vowels as marker of the four stems – see Class 2, 3b and c, 4 and 5b; some classes distinguish only three grades of ablaut and consequently have the same root vowel in two stems out of four (Class 1, 3a, 5a); two classes, 6 and 7, use only two vowels in their gradation series.

In addition to vowel gradation some verbs with the root ending in -s, -þ or -r employed an interchange of consonants: [s-z-r]; [θ-ð-d] and [f-v]. These interchanges were either instances of positional variation of fricative consonants in OE or relics of earlier positional sound changes; they were of no significance as grammatical markers and disappeared due to levelling by analogy towards the end of OE.

The classes of strong verbs – like the morphological classes of nouns – differed in the number of verbs and, consequently, in their role and weight in the language. Classes 1 and 3 were the most numerous of all: about 60 and 80 verbs, respectively; within Class 3 the first group – with a nasal or nasal plus a plosive in the root (findan, rinnan – NE find, run) included almost 40 verbs, which was about as much as the number of verbs in Class 2; the rest of the classes had from 10 to 15 verbs each. In view of the subsequent interinfluence and mixture of classes it is also noteworthy that some classes in OE had similar forms; thus Classes 4 and 5 differed

in one form only – the stems of P II; Classes 2, 3b and c and Class 4 had identical vowels in the stem of P II.

The history of the strong verbs traced back through Early OE to PG will reveal the origins of the sound interchanges and of the division into classes; it will also show some features which may help to identify the classes.

The gradation series used in Class 1 through 5 go back to the PIE qualitative ablaut [e–o] and some instances of quantitative ablaut. The grades [e–o] reflected in Germanic as [e/i–a] were used in the first and second stems; they represented the normal grade (a short vowel) and were contrasted to the zero-grade (loss of the gradation vowel) or to the prolonged grade (a long vowel) in the third and fourth stem. The original gradation series split into several series because the gradation vowel was inserted in the root and was combined there with the sounds of the root. Together with them, it was then subjected to regular phonetic changes. Each class of verbs offered a peculiar phonetic environment for the gradation vowels and accordingly transformed the original series into a new gradation series.

In Classes 1 and 2 the root of the verb originally contained [i] and [u] (hence the names i-class and u-class); combination of the gradation vowels with these sounds produced long vowels and diphthongs in the first and second stems. Classes 3, 4 and 5 had no vowels, consequently the first and second forms contain the gradation vowels descending directly from the short [e] and [o]; Class 3 split into subclasses as some of the vowels could be diphthongised under the Early OE breaking. In the third and fourth stems we find the zero-grade or the prolonged grade of ablaut; therefore Class 1 – i-class – has [i]. Class 2— [u] or [o]; in Classes 4 and 5 the Past pl stem has a long vowel [æ]. Class 5 (b) contained [j] following the root in the Inf.; hence the mutated vowel [i] and the lengthening of the consonant: *sittan*. In the verbs of Class 6 the original IE gradation was purely quantitative; in PG it was transformed into a quantitative-qualitative series.

Class 7 had acquired its vowel interchange from a different source: originally this was a class of reduplicating verbs, which built their past tense by repeating the root. In OE the roots in the Past tense stems had been contracted and appeared as a single morpheme with a long vowel. The vowels were different with different verbs, as they resulted from the fusion of various root-morphemes, so that Class 7 had no single series of vowel interchanges.

Direct traces of reduplication in OE are rare; they are sometimes found in the Anglian dialects and in poetry as extra consonants appearing in the Past tense forms: Past tense *ofhatan* — *heht* alongside *het* ('call'). Past tense of *ondrædan* – *ondred* and *ondreord* (NE *dread*).

To account for the interchanges of consonants in the strong verbs one should recall the voicing by Verner's Law and some subsequent changes of voiced and voiceless

fricatives. The interchange [s–z] which arose under Verner's Law was transformed into [s–r] due to rhotacism and acquired another interchange [s–z] after the Early OE voicing of fricatives. Consequently, the verbs whose root ended in [s] or [z] could have the following interchange:

ceosan [z] ceos [s] curon[r] coren [r] (NE choose)

Verbs with an interdental fricative have similar variant with voiced and voiceless [θ, ð] and the consonant [d], which had developed from [ð] in the process of hardening: snipan [ð] snap [θ] snidon sniden (NE cut) Class 1

Verbs with the root ending in [f/v] displayed the usual OE interchange of the voiced and voiceless positional variants of fricatives:

ceorfan [v] cearf [f] curfon [v] corfen [v] (NE carve) Class 3

Verbs with consonant interchanges could belong to any class, provided that they contained a fricative consonant. That does not mean, however, that every verb with a fricative used consonant interchange, for instance risan, a strong verb of Class 1, alternated [s] with [z] but not with [r]: risan – ras – rison – risen (NE rise). Towards the end of the OE period the consonant interchanges disappeared.

### **Weak Verbs**

The number of weak verbs in OE by far exceeded that of strong verbs. In fact, all the verbs, with the exception of the strong verbs and the minor groups (which make a total of about 320 verbs) were weak. Their number was constantly growing since all new verbs derived from other stems were conjugated weak (except derivatives of strong verbs with prefixes). Among the weak verbs there were many derivatives of OE noun and adjective stems and also derivatives of strong verbs built from one of their stems (usually the second stem — Past sg)

talu n – tellan v (NE tale, tell) full adj – fyllan v (NE full, fill)

Weak verbs formed their Past and Participle II by means of the dental suffix -d- or -t- (a specifically Germanic trait). In OE the weak verbs are subdivided into three classes differing in the ending of the Infinitive, the sonority of the suffix, and the sounds preceding the suffix. The main differences between the classes were as follows: in Class I the Infinitive ended in -an, seldom -ian (-ian occurs after [r]); the Past form had -de, -ede or -te; Participle II was marked by -d, -ed or -t. Some verbs of Class I had a double consonant in the Infinitive, others had a vowel interchange in the root, used together with suffixation.

Class II had no subdivisions. In Class II the Infinitive ended in -ian and the Past tense stem and P II had [o] before the dental suffix. This was the most numerous and regular of all the classes.

The verbs of Class III had an Infinitive in -an and no vowel before the dental suffix; it included only four verbs with a full conjugation and a few isolated forms of other verbs. Genetically, the division into classes goes back to the differences between the

derivational stem-suffixes used to build the verbs or the nominal stems from which they were derived, and all the persons of the sg Subj. (cf. *restan—reste, wendan—wende*, (NE *rest, wend*).

Participle II of most verbs preserved *-e-* before the dental suffix, though in some groups it was lost.

### Minor Groups of Verbs

Several minor groups of verbs can be referred neither to strong nor to weak verbs. The most important group of these verbs were the so-called "preterite-presents" or "past-present" verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms (or, more precisely, IE perfect forms, denoting past actions relevant for the "present). Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Most of these verbs had new Past Tense forms built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also acquired the forms of the verbals: Participles and Infinitives; most verbs did not have a full paradigm and were in this sense "defective".

The verbs were inflected in the Present like the Past tense of strong verbs: the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. sg were identical and had no ending – yet, unlike strong verbs, they had the same root-vowel in all the persons; the pl had a different grade of ablaut similarly with strong verbs (which had two distinct stems for the Past: sg and pl). In the Past the preterite-presents were inflected like weak verbs: the dental suffix plus the endings *-e, -est, -e*. The new Infinitives *sculan, cunnan* were derived from the pl form. The interchanges of root-vowels in the sg and pl of the Present tense of preterite-present verbs can be traced to the same gradation series as were used in the strong verbs. Before the shift of meaning and time-reference the would-be preterite-presents were strong verbs. The prototype of *can* may be referred to Class 3 (with the grades [a–u] in the two Past tense stems); the prototype of *sculan* — to Class 4, *magan* — to Class 5, *witan, wat* 'know' – to Class 1.

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in Mod E: OE *ag; cunnan, cann; dear(r), sculan, sceal; magan, mæg, mot* (NE *owe, ought; can; dare; shall; may; must*). Most of the preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive, which followed the preterite-present. In other words, they were used like modal verbs, and eventually developed into modern modal verbs. (In OE some of them could also be used as notional verbs:  
*þe him aht sceoldon* 'what they owed him'.)

Among the verbs of the minor groups there were several anomalous verbs with irregular forms. OE *willan* was an irregular verb with the meaning of volition and desire; it resembled the preterite-presents in meaning and function, as it indicated an attitude to an action and was often followed by an Infinitive.

þa ðe willað mines forsiðes fægñian 'those who wish to rejoice in my death'  
hyt moten habban eall 'all could have it'.

Willan had a Past tense form wolde, built like sceolde, the Past tense of the preterite-present sculan, sceal. Eventually willan became a modal verb, like the surviving preterite-presents, and, together with sculan developed into an auxiliary (NE shall, will, should, would).

Some verbs combined the features of weak and strong verbs. OE don formed a weak Past tense with a vowel interchange: and a Participle in -n: don — dyde — gedon (NE do). OE buan 'live' had a weak Past — bude and P II, ending in -n, gebun like a strong verb.

Two OE verbs were suppletive. OE gan, whose Past tense was built from a different root gan — eode — gegan (NE go); and beon (NE be).

Beon is an ancient (IE) suppletive verb. In many languages — Germanic and non-Germanic — its paradigm is made up of several roots. In OE the Present tense forms were different modifications of the roots \*wes- and \*bhu-, 1st p. sg eom, beo, 2nd p. eart, bist. The Past tense was built from the root \*wes-on the pattern of strong verbs of Class 5. Though the Infinitive and Participle II do not occur in the texts, the set of forms can be reconstructed as: \*wesan — wæs — wæron — \*weren.

### OE syntax

The syntactic structure of OE was determined by two major conditions: the nature of OE morphology and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language, OE was largely a synthetic language; it possessed a system of grammatical forms, which could indicate the connection between words; consequently, the functional load of syntactic ways of word connection was relatively small. It was primarily a spoken language, therefore the written forms of the language resembled oral speech — unless the texts were literal translations from Latin or poems with stereotyped constructions. Consequently, the syntax of the sentence was relatively simple; coordination of clauses prevailed over subordination; complicated syntactical constructions were rare.

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases (also: word groups or patterns). OE noun patterns, adjective patterns and verb patterns had certain specific features, which are important to note in view of their later changes.

A noun pattern consisted of a noun as the head-word and pronouns, adjectives (including verbal adjectives, or participles), numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number and case:

on þæm oþrum þrim dagum ... 'in those other three days' — Dat. pl Masc.

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge 'Ohthere said to his lord, king Alfred' – the noun in apposition is in the Dat. sg like the head noun.

Nouns, which served as attributes to other nouns, usually had the form of the Gen. case: hwales ban, deora fell 'whale's bone, deer's fell'.

Some numerals governed the nouns they modified so that formally the relations were reversed: tamra deora ... syx hund 'six hundred tame deer'; twentig sceaþa 'twenty sheep' (deora, sceaþa – Gen. pl).

The following examples show the structure of the simple sentence in OE, its principal and secondary parts:

Soðlice sum mann hæfde twegen suna (mann – subject, hæfde – Simple Predicate) 'truly a certain man had two sons'. Predicates could also be compound: modal, verbal and nominal: *Hwæðre þu meaht singan* 'nevertheless you can sing'.

*He was swyðe spedig mann* 'he was a very rich man'.

The secondary parts of the sentence are seen in the same examples: twegen suna 'two sons' – Direct Object with an attribute, spedig 'rich' – attribute. In the examples of verb and noun patterns above we can find other secondary parts of the sentence: indirect and prepositional objects, adverbial modifiers and appositions: hys meder 'to his mother' (Indirect Object), to his suna 'to his son' (Prep. Object), his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge 'his lord king Alfred' (apposition). The structure of the OE sentence can be described in terms of Mod E syntactic analysis, for the sentence was made up of the same parts, except that those parts were usually simpler. Attributive groups were short and among the parts of the sentence there were very few-predicative constructions ("syntactical complexes"). Absolute constructions with the noun in the Dat. case were sometimes used in translations from Latin in imitation of the Latin *Dativus Absolutus*. The objective predicative construction "Accusative with the Infinitive" occurred in original OE texts:

... ða liðende land gesawon, brimclifu blican, beorgas steape (BEOWULF)

'the travellers saw land, the cliffs shine, steep mountains'. Predicative constructions after habban (NE have) contained a Past Participle.

The connection between the parts of the sentence was shown by the form of the words as they had formal markers for gender, case, number and person. As compared with later periods agreement and government played an important role in the word phrase and in the sentence. Accordingly the place of the word in relation to other words was of secondary importance and the order of words was relatively free.

The presence of formal markers made it possible to miss out some parts of the sentence which would be obligatory in an English sentence now. In the following instance the subject is not repeated but the form of the predicate shows that the action is performed by the same person as the preceding action:

þa com he on morgenne to þæm tungerefan se þe his ealdorman wæs; sægde him, hwylce gife he onfeng 'then in the morning he came to the town-sheriff the one that was his alderman; (he) said to him what gift he had received'.

The formal subject was lacking in many impersonal sentences (though it was present in others): Norþan snywde 'it snowed in the North'; him þuhte 'it seemed to him', Hit hagolade stānum 'it hailed with stones'.

One of the conspicuous features of OE syntax was multiple negation within a single sentence or clause. The most common negative particle was *ne*, which was placed before the verb; it was often accompanied by other negative words, mostly *naht* or *noht* (which had developed from *ne plus awiht* 'no thing'). These words reinforced the meaning of negation'.

*Ne con ic noht singan... ic noht singan ne cuðe* 'I cannot sing' (lit. "cannot sing nothing"), 'I could not sing' (*noht* was later shortened to *not*, a new negative particle). Another peculiarity of OE negation was that the particle *ne* could be attached to some verbs, pronouns and adverbs to form single words: *he ne mihtenan þing geseon* 'he could not see anything' (*nan* from *ne an* 'not one'), *hit na buton gewinne næs* 'it was never without war' (*næs* from *ne wæs* 'no was'; NE none, never, neither are traces of such forms).

Compound and complex sentences existed in the English language since the earliest times. Even in the oldest texts we find numerous instances of coordination and subordination and a large inventory of subordinate clauses, subject clauses, object clauses, attributive clauses adverbial clauses. And yet many constructions, especially in early original prose, look clumsy, loosely connected, disorderly and wanting precision, which is natural in a language whose written form had only begun to grow.

Coordinate clauses were mostly joined by *and*, a conjunction of a most general meaning, which could connect statements with various semantic relations. The A-S CHRONICLES abound in successions of clauses or sentences all beginning with *and*, e.g.:

*And þa ongeat se cyning, þæt ond he, on þa duru eode, and þa unbeanlice hine werede, oþ he on þone æpeling locude, and þa ut ræsde on hine, and hine miclum gewundode; and hie alle on þone cyning wæron feohtende, oþ þæt hie hine ofslægenne hæfdon,* 'and then the king saw that, and he went to the door, and then bravely defended himself, until he saw that noble, and then out rushed on him, and wounded him severely, and they were all fighting against that king until they had him slain' (from the earliest part of the CHRONICLES A.D. 755).

Repetition of connectives at the head of each clause (termed "correlation") was common in complex sentences: *þa he þær to gefaren wæs, þa eodon hie to hiora scipum* 'then (when) he came there, then they went to their ship.'

Attributive clauses were joined to the principal clauses by means of various connectives, there being no special class of relative pronouns. The main connective was the indeclinable particle *Re* employed, either alone or together with demonstrative and personal pronouns: and him cypdon'paet hiera maezas him mid waeron, pa pe him from noldon 'and told him that their kinsmen were with him, those that did not want (to go) from him'.

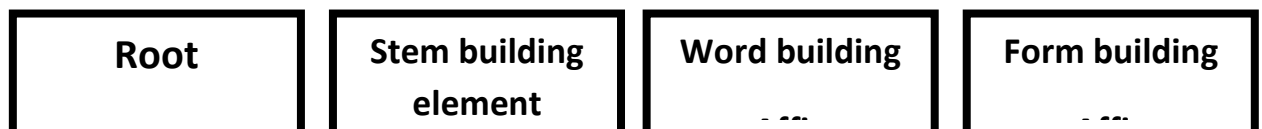
The pronouns could also be used to join the clauses without the particle *þe*:

Hit gelamp gio þætte an hearpere wæs on þære ðiode þe Dracia hatte, sio wæs on Creca rice; se hearpere wæs swiðe ungefræglice god, ðæs nama wæs Orfeus; he hæfde an swiðe ænlic wif, sio wæs haten Eurydice 'It happened once that there was a harper among the people on the land that was called Thrace, that was in the kingdom of Crete; that harper was incredibly good; whose name (the name of that) was Orpheus; he had an excellent wife; that was called Eurydice'.

The pronoun and conjunction *þæt* was used to introduce object clauses and adverbial clauses, alone or with other form-words: *oð ðæt* 'until', *ær þæm þe* 'before', *þæt* 'so that' as in: Isaac ealdode and his eagan þystrodon, þæt he ne mihte nan þing geseon 'Then Isaac grew old and his eyes became blind so that he could not see anything'.

Some clauses are regarded as intermediate between coordinate and subordinate: they are joined *asyndetically* and their status is not clear: *þa wæs sum consul, Boethius wæs haten* 'There was then a consul, Boethius was called' (perhaps attributive: '(who) was called Boethius' or co-ordinate '(he) was called Boethius').

### Morphological structure of the word in old English



Types of the

Stems: -a-

- i -, - o -, - u -,

- n -, - r -, - s -

### Morphological structure of the word in Modern English



1) What can you say about the strong verbs?

- 2) *How Many basic forms did the strong verb?*
- 3) *What can you say about weak verbs?*
- 4) *How many classes did the strong verb have?*
- 5) *How many classes did the weak verb have?*
- 6) *What can you say about the pretrial present verbs?*
- 7) *What irregular verbs?*

### Literature

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### 6-MAVZU

### ADJECTIVES OF OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Noun in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>2. <i>Pronouns in OE and its grammatical features</i></li> <li>3. <i>Adjective in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>4. <i>Verbs in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>5. <i>The features of OE syntax</i></li> </ol>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	<b>The results of the lesson:</b> Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Grammatical features of OE; 2) The morphology of OE.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

## Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The grammatical structure of Old English”

Stages	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

### Problems to be discussed

1. Changes in ME nouns and its grammatical categories

2. *Pronouns in ME and its grammatical features*
3. *Adjective in ME and its grammatical categories*
4. *Verbs in ME and its grammatical features*
5. The features of ME syntax

**Key words:** *phrase, phrase structure, compound verbs, borrowings from other indo euro pan etymological layers, word formation*

### **Evolution of the grammatical system**

In the course of ME, Early NE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the "analytical type", with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. This does not mean, however, that the grammatical changes were rapid or sudden; nor does it imply that all grammatical features were in a state of perpetual change. Like the development of other linguistic levels, the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable constituents. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

The division of words into parts of speech has proved to be one of the most permanent characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech; the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME.

Between the 10th and the 16th c., that is from Late OE to Early NE the ways of building up grammatical forms underwent considerable changes. In OE all the forms which can be included into morphological paradigms were synthetic. In ME, Early NE, grammatical forms could also be built in the analytical way, with the help of auxiliary words. The proportion of synthetic forms in the language has become

very small, for in the meantime many of the old synthetic forms have been lost and no new synthetic forms have developed.

In the synthetic forms of the ME, Early NE periods, few as those forms were, the means of form-building were the same as before: inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion; only prefixation, namely the prefix *ge-*, which was commonly used in OE to mark Participle II, went out of use in Late ME (instances of Participle II with the prefix *ge-* (from OE *ge-*) are still found in Chaucer's time. Suppletive form-building, as before, was confined to a few words, mostly surviving from OE and even earlier periods. Sound interchanges were not productive, though they did not die out: they still occurred in many verbs, some adjectives and nouns; moreover, a number of new interchanges arose in Early ME in some ups of weak verbs. Nevertheless, their application in the language, and their weight among other means was generally reduced.

Inflections - or grammatical suffixes and endings - continued to be used in all the inflected "changeable" parts of speech. It is notable, however, that as compared with the OE period they became less varied. As mentioned before the OE period of history has been described as a period of "full endings", ME - as a period of "leveled endings" and NE - as a period of "lost endings" (H. Sweet). In OE there existed a variety of distinct endings differing in consonants as well as in vowels. In ME all the vowels in the endings were reduced to the neutral [a] and many consonants were leveled under -n or dropped. The process of leveling besides phonetic weakening, implies replacement of inflections by analogy, e.g. -(e)s as a marker of pi forms of nouns displaced the endings -(e)n and -e. In the transition to NE most of the grammatical endings were dropped.

Nevertheless, these definitions of the state of inflections in the three main historical periods are not quite precise. It is known that the weakening and dropping of endings began a long time before - in Early OE and even in PG; on the other hand, some of the old grammatical endings have survived to this day.

The analytical way of form-building was a new device, which developed in Late OE and ME and came to occupy a most important place in the grammatical

system. Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions). The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker, while the second component retained its lexical meaning and acquired a new grammatical value in the compound form. Cf, e. g. the meaning and function of the verb to have in OE he hæfde þa 'he had them (the prisoners)', Hie him ofslægene hæfdon 'they had him killed' or, perhaps, 'they had killed him'. Hie hæfdon ofergan Eastengle 'they had overspread East Anglian territory'. In the first sentence have denotes possession, in the second, the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third, it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of have in the translation of the sentence into ME. The auxiliary verb have and the form of Part. II are the grammatical markers of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle. The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification, Simplifying changes began in prehistoric, PG times. They continued at a slow rate during the OE period and were intensified in Early ME. The period between c. 1000 and 1300 has been called an "age of great changes" (A.Baugh), for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost Gender and Case in adjectives. Gender in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced - cases in nouns and noun-pronouns, numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the last vestiges of the old paradigm: the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms. Already at the time of Chaucer, and certainly by the age of Caxton the English nominal system was very much like

modern, not only in its general pattern but also in minor details. The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process-it cannot be described in terms of one general trend. On the one hand, the decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system, though to a lesser extent than the nominal system. The simplification and leveling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform; the OE morphological classification of verbs was practically broken up. On the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms and distinctions came into being. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased, as did the number of forms within the categories. The verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time Correlation or Phase and Aspect. Within the category of Tense there developed a new form - the Future Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. These changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle, having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It is noteworthy that, unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verb system were not limited to a short span of two or three hundred years. They extended over a long period: from Late OE till Late NE. Even in the age of Shakespeare the verb system was in some respects different from that of ME and many changes were still underway.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax, which were associated with the transformation of English morphology but at the same time displayed their own specific tendencies and directions. The main changes at the syntactical level were: the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses. Syntactic changes are mostly observable in Late ME and in NE, in periods of literary efflorescence.

### **The noun. Decay of Noun Declensions in Early Middle English**

The OE noun had the grammatical categories of Number and Case which were formally distinguished in an elaborate system of declensions. However, homonymous forms in the OE noun paradigms neutralised some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions - as well as the influence of some types upon other types - disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.

Increased variation of the noun forms in the late 10th c. and especially in the 11th and 12th c. testifies to impending changes and to a strong tendency toward a re-arrangement and simplification of the declensions. The number of variants of grammatical forms in the 11th and 12th c. was twice as high as in the preceding centuries. Among the variant forms there were direct descendants of OE forms with phonetically weakened endings (the so-called "historical forms") and also numerous analogical forms taken over from other parts of the same paradigms and from more influential morphological classes. The new variants of grammatical forms obliterated the distinction between the forms within the paradigms and the differences between the declensions, e.g.. Early ME *fisshes* and *bootes*, direct descendants of the OE Nom. and Acc. pl of Masc. a-stems *fiscas*, *batas* were used, as before, in the position of these cases and could also be used as variant forms of other cases Gen. and Dat. pl alongside the historical forms *fisshe*, *hoofs*. (OE Gen. pl. *fisca*, *bāta*) and *fischen*, *booten* or *fisshe*, *boots* (OE Dat. pl *fiscum*, *batum*); (NE fish, boat). As long as all these variants co-existed, it was possible to mark a form more precisely by using a variant with a fuller ending, but when some of the variants went out of use and the non-distinctive, levelled variants prevailed, many forms fell together. Thus after passing through the "variation stage" many formal oppositions were lost. The most numerous OE morphological classes of nouns were a-stems, o-stems and n-stems. Even in Late OE the endings used in these types were added by analogy to other kinds of nouns, especially if they belonged to the same gender. That is how the noun declensions tended to be re-arranged on the basis of gender.

The decline of the OE declension system lasted over three hundred years and revealed considerable dialectal differences. It started in the North of England and

gradually spread southwards. The decay of inflectional endings in the Northern dialects began as early as the 10th c. and was virtually completed in the 11th; in the Midlands the process extended over the 12th c., while in the Southern dialects it lasted till the end of the 13th (in the dialect of Kent, the old inflectional forms were partly preserved even in the 14th c.).

The dialects differed not only in the chronology but also in the nature of changes. The Southern dialects rearranged and simplified the noun declensions on the basis of stem and gender distinctions. In Early ME they employed only four markers -es, -en, -e, and the root-vowel interchange plus the bare stem (the "zero"-inflection) but distinguished, with the help of these devices, several paradigms. Masc. and Neut. nouns had two declensions, weak and strong, with certain differences between the genders in the latter: Masc. nouns took the ending -es in the Nom., Acc. pl, while Neut. nouns had variant forms: Masc. fishes Neut. land/lande/landes. Most Fem. nouns belonged to the weak declension and were declined like weak Masc. and Neut. nouns. The root-stem declension, as before, had mutated vowels in some forms' and many variant forms which showed that the vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

In the Midland and Northern dialects the system of declension was much simpler. In fact, there was only one major type of declension and a few traces of other types. The majority of nouns took the endings of OE Masc. a-stems: -(e)s in the Gen. sg (from OE -es), -(e)s in the pl irrespective of case (from OE -as: Nom. and Acc. sg, which had extended to other cases).

A small group of nouns, former root-stems, employed a root-vowel interchange to distinguish the forms of number. Survivals of other OE declensions were rare and should be treated rather as exceptions than as separate paradigms. Thus several former Neut. a-stems descending from long-stemmed nouns could build their plurals with or without the ending -(e)s; sg hors — pl hors or horses, some nouns retained weak forms with the ending -en alongside new forms in -es; some former Fem. nouns and some names of relations occur in the Gen. case without -(e)s like OE Fem. nouns, e. g. my fader soule, 'my father's soul'; In hope to standen in

his lady grace 'In the hope of standing in his lady's grace' (Chaucer) though the latter can be regarded as a set phrase.

In Late ME, when the Southern traits were replaced by Central and Northern traits in the dialect of London, this pattern of noun declensions prevailed in literary English. The declension of nouns in the age of Chaucer, in its main features, was the same as in ME. The simplification of noun morphology was on the whole completed. Most nouns distinguished two forms: the basic form (with the "zero" ending) and the form in -(e)s. The nouns originally descending from other types of declensions for the most part had joined this major type, which had developed from Masc. a-stems.

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree. The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems.

In the 11th and 12th c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore: the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

In Chaucer's time gender is a lexical category, like in ME: nouns are referred to as "he" and "she" if they denote human beings, e. g. *She wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous. Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde* (Chaucer) "She" points here to a woman while "it" replaces the noun *mous*, which in OE was Fem. ('She would weep, if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it was dead or it bled.') (Sh.)

The grammatical category of Case was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME. The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME. The syncretism of cases was a slow

process which went on step by step. As shown above even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Ace. were not distinguished in the pi, and in some classes they coincided also in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers.

In the strong declension the Dat. was sometimes marked by -e in the Southern dialects, though not in the North or in the Midlands; the form without the ending soon prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases, Nom., Acc. and Dat. fell together. Henceforth they can be called the Common case, as in present-day English.

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the pi. In the 14th c. the ending -es of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions nouns which were preferably used in the uninflected form (names of relationships terminating in -r, some proper names, and some nouns in stereotyped phrases). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker it was not distinguished from the Comm. case as the ending -(e)s through analogy, had extended to the Gen. either from the Comm. case pi or, perhaps, from the Gen. sg. This ending was generalised in the Northern dialects and in the Midlands (a survival of the OE Gen. pl form in -ena, ME -en(e), was used in Early ME only in the Southern districts). The formal distinction between cases in the pi was lost, except in the nouns which did not take -(e)s in the pl. Several nouns with a weak plural form in -en or with a vowel interchange, such as oxen and men, added the marker of the Gen. case -es to these forms: oxenes, mennes. In the 17th and 18th c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe e. g. man's, children's: this device could be employed only in writing; in oral speech the forms remained homonymous.

The reduction in the number of cases was linked up with a change in the meanings and functions of the surviving forms. The Comm. case, which resulted from the fusion of three OE cases assumed all the functions of the former Nom., Acc., Dat. and also some functions of the Gen. The ME Comm. case had a very general meaning, which was made more specific by the context: prepositions, the meaning of the verb-predicate, the word order. With the help of these means it could express various meanings formerly belonging to different cases. The following

passages taken from three translations of the Bible give a general idea of the transition; they show how the OE Gen. Dat. cases were replaced in ME, Early NE by prepositional phrases with the noun in the Comm. case. OE translation of the Gospels (10th c.) Eadige synd þa gastlican þearfan, forþam hyra ys heofena rice. (Gen.) Wyclifs translation (late 14th c. Blessed be the pore in spirit, for the kingdom in heuenes is heren. King James' Bible (17th c. Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.

The replacement of the Dat. by prepositional phrases had been well prepared by its wide use in OE as a case commonly governed by prepositions.

The main function of the Ace, case to present the direct object was fulfilled in ME by the Comm. case; the noun was placed next to the verb, or else its relations with the predicate were apparent from the meaning of the transitive verb and the noun, e. g. He knew the tavernes well in every town. For catel hadde they ynogh and rente (Chaucer) ('He knew well the taverns in every town for they had enough wealth and income'.)

The history of the Gen. case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the Gen. case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition of. The practice to express genitival relations by the of-phrase goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in Ælfric's writings (10th c). but its regular use instead of the inflectional Gen. does not become established until the 12th c. The use of the of-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the of-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones. Usage varies, as can be seen from the following examples from Chaucer: Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre ('He was very worthy in his lord's campaigns')

He had maad ful many a mariage of yonge wommen ('He made many marriages of young women') And specially, from every shires ende, Of Engeland to Caunterbury they wende.

('And especially from the end of every shire of England they went to Canterbury')

Various theories have been advanced to account for the restricted use of the Gen. case, particularly for the preference of the inflectional Gen. with "personal" nouns. It has been suggested that the tendency to use the inflectional Gen. with names of persons is a continuation of an old tradition pertaining to word order. It has been noticed that the original distinction between the use of the Gen. with different kind of nouns was not in form but in position. The Gen. of "personal" nouns was placed before the governing noun, while the Gen. of other nouns was placed after it. The post-positive Gen. was later replaced by the of-phrase with the result that the of-phrase came to be preferred with inanimate nouns and the inflectional Gen. with personal (animate) ones. Another theory attributes the wider use of the inflectional Gen. with animate nouns to the influence of a specific possessive construction containing a possessive pronoun: the painter's name, where 's is regarded as a shortened form of his "the painter his name". It is assumed that the frequent use of these phrases may have reinforced the inflectional Gen., which could take the ending -is, -ys alongside -es and thus resembled the phrase with the pronoun his, in which the initial [h] could be dropped.

It may be added that the semantic differentiation between the prepositional phrase and the s'-Gen. became more precise in the New period, each acquiring its own set of meanings, with only a few overlapping spheres. (It has been noticed, that in present-day English the frequency of the 's-Gen. is growing again at the expense of the of-phrase.)

The other grammatical category of the noun. Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus

strengthened the formal differentiation of number. The pl forms in ME show obvious traces of numerous OE noun declensions. Some of these traces have survived in later periods. In Late ME the ending -es was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl.

In Early NE it extended to, more nouns to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed -es as one of the variant endings. The pi ending -es (as well as the ending -es of the Gen. case) underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables. The following examples show the development of the ME pl inflection -es in Early NE under different phonetic conditions.

The ME pl ending -en, used as a variant marker with some nouns (and as the main marker in the weak declension in the Southern dialects) lost its former productivity, so that in Standard ME it is found only in oxen, brethern, and children. (The two latter words originally did not belong to the weak declension: OE broðor, a-stem, built its plural by means of a root-vowel interchange; OE cild, took the ending -ru: cild—cildru; -en was added to the old forms of the pl in ME; both words have two markers of the pl.). The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME deer, hors, thing,) has been further reduced to three "exceptions" in ME: deer, sheep and swine. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: man, tooth and the like. Not all irregular forms in ME are traces of OE declensions; forms like data, nuclei, antennae have come from other languages together with the borrowed words.

It follows that the majority of English nouns have preserved and even reinforced the formal distinction of Number in the Comm. case. Meanwhile they have practically lost these distinctions in the Gen. case, for Gen. has a distinct form in the pi. only with nouns whose pl ending is not -es.

Despite the regular neutralisation of number distinctions in the Gen. case we can say that differentiation of Number in nouns has become More explicit and more precise. The functional load and the frequency of occurrence of the Comm. case are certainly much higher than those of the Gen.; therefore the regular formal distinction

of Number in the Comm. case is more important than its neutralisation in the Gen. case.

### **The adjective. Decay of Declensions and Grammatical Categories**

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the-degrees of comparison. In OE the adjective was declined to show the gender, case and number of the noun it modified; it had a five-case paradigm and two types of declension, weak and strong.

By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early ME it was practically lost. Though the grammatical categories of the adjective reflected those of the noun, most of them disappeared even before the noun lost the respective distinctions. The geographical direction of the changes was generally the same as in the noun declensions. The process began in the North and North-East Midlands and spread south. The poem *Ormulum*, written in 1200 in the North-East Midland dialect reveals roughly the same state of adjective morphology as the poems of G. Chaucer and J. Gower written in the London dialect almost two hundred years later.

The decay of the grammatical categories of the adjective proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. The number of cases shown in the adjective paradigm was reduced: the Instr. case had fused with the Dat. by the end of OE; distinction of other cases in Early ME was unsteady, as many variant forms of different cases, which arose in Early ME, coincided. Cf. some variant endings of the Dat. case sg in the late 11th c.: *mid miclum here*, *mid miclan here*, 'with a big army' *mid eallora his here* 'with all his army'.

In the 13th c. case could be shown only by some variable adjective endings in the strong declension (but not by the weak forms); towards the end of the century all case distinctions were lost. The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. The use of a strong form after a demonstrative pronoun

was not uncommon, though according to the existing rules, this position belonged to the weak form, e. g.: in þere wildere sæ 'in that wild sea' instead of wilden see. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg. with the help of the ending -e.

The general tendency towards an uninflected form affected also the distinction of Number, though Number was certainly the most stable nominal category in all the periods. In the 14th c. pl forms were sometimes contrasted to the sg forms with the help of the ending -e in the strong declension. Probably this marker was regarded as insufficient; for in the 13th and particularly 14th c. there appeared a new pl ending -s. The use of -s is attributed either to the influence of French adjectives, which take -s in the pl or to the influence of the ending -s of nouns, e. g.: In other places delitables. ('In other delightful places.')

In the age of Chaucer the paradigm of the adjective consisted of four forms distinguished by a single vocalic ending -e.

This paradigm can be postulated only for monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant, such as ME bad, good. long. Adjectives ending in vowels and polysyllabic adjectives took no endings and could not show the difference between sg and pl forms or strong and weak forms: ME able, swete, bisy, thredbare and the like were uninflected. Nevertheless certain distinctions between weak and strong forms, and also between sg and pl are found in the works of careful 14th c. writers like Chaucer and Gower. Weak forms are often used attributively after the possessive and demonstrative pronouns and after the definite article. Thus Chaucer has: this like worthy knight 'this same worthy knight'; my deere herte 'my dear heart', which are weak forms, the strong forms in the sg having no ending. But the following examples show that strong and weak forms could be used indiscriminately: A trewe swynkere and a good was he ('A true labourer and a good (one) was he.') Similarly, the pl. and sg forms were often confused in the strong declension, e. g.: A sheet of pecok-arves, bright and kene. Under his belt he bar ful thriftily ('A sheaf of peacock-arrows, bright and keen. Under his belt he carried very thriftily.')

The distinctions between the sg and pl forms, and the weak and strong forms, could not be preserved for long, as they were not shown by all the adjectives; besides, the reduced ending -e [a] was very unstable even in 14th c. English. In Chaucer's poems, for instance, it is always missed out in accordance with the requirements of the rhythm. The loss of final -e in the transition to NE made the adjective an entirely uninflected part of speech.

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. However, the means employed to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison have considerably altered.

In OE the forms of the comparative and the superlative degree, like all the grammatical forms, were synthetic: they were built by adding the suffixes -ra and -est/-ost, to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way, only the suffixes had been weakened to -er, -est and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common than before. Since most adjectives with the sound alternation had parallel forms without it, the forms with an interchange soon fell into disuse. ME long, lenger, longer and long, longer, longest.

The alternation of root-vowels in Early NE survived in the adjectival old, elder, eldest, where the difference in meaning from older, oldest made the formal distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternations are found in the pairs farther and further and also in the modern words nigh, near and next, which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the OE adjective neah 'near', but have split into separate words.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison. The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs ma, bet, betst, swiþor 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with ME more and most became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of

adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words. Thus Chaucer has more swete, better worthy, Gower more hard for 'sweeter', 'worthier' and 'harder'. The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used in free variation until the 17th and 18th c., when the modern standard usage was established.

Another curious peculiarity observed in Early NE texts is the use of the so-called "double comparatives" and "double superlatives": By thenne Syr Trystram waxed more fressher than Syr Marhaus. ('By that time Sir Tristram grew more angry than Sir Marhaus'.)

Shakespeare uses the form worser which is a double comparative: A "double superlative" is seen in: This was the most unkindest cut of all. The wide range of variation acceptable in Shakespeare's day was condemned in the "Age of Correctness" the 18th c. Double comparatives were banned as illogical and incorrect by the prescriptive grammars of the normalising period.

It appears that in the course of history the adjective has lost all the dependent grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically adjectival category the comparison. The adjective is the only nominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building.

### **Self control questions**

- 1) *What can you say about the word order in old English?*
- 2) *What can you say about the vocabulary of old English?*
- 3) *What can you say about the etymological layers of OE vocabulary?*
- 4) *What types of word formation were there in OE?*

### **Literature**

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## PRONOUNS OF OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

### Plan

1. The pronoun
2. Personal pronouns
3. Possessive Pronouns

4.

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Noun in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>2. <i>Pronouns in OE and its grammatical features</i></li> <li>3. <i>Adjective in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>4. <i>Verbs in OE and its grammatical categories</i></li> <li>5. <i>The features of OE syntax</i></li> </ol>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	<b>The results of the lesson:</b> Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Grammatical features of OE; 2) The morphology of OE.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

5.

6. **Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The grammatical structure of Old English”**

Stages	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.

Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

## 7.

Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their evolution would repeat the evolution of nouns-in reality it was in many respects different. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns and pronouns was not alike. It differed in the rate and extent of changes, in the dates and geographical directions, though the morphology of pronouns, like the morphology of nouns, was simplified.

In Early ME the OE Fern. pronoun of the 3rd p. sg heo (related to all the other pronouns of the 3rd p. he, hit, hie) was replaced by a group of variants he, ho, see, sho, she: one of them she finally prevailed over the others. The new Fern. pronoun.

Late ME *she*, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of the Fern. gender *seo* (OE *se, seo, ðæt*, NE *that*). It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas.

The replacement of OE *heo* by ME *she* is a good illustration of the mechanism of linguistic change and of the interaction of intra- and extra linguistic factors. Increased dialectal divergence in Early ME supplied 'the "raw material" for the change in the shape of co-existing variants or parallels. Out of these variants the language preserved the unambiguous form *she*, probably to avoid an homonymy clash, since the descendant of OE *heo* ME *he* coincided with the Masc. pronoun *he*. The need to discriminate between the two pronouns was an internal factor which determined the selection. The choice could also be favored by external historical conditions, for in later ME many Northern and East Midland features were incorporated in the London dialect, which became the basis of literary English. It should be noted, however, that the replacement was not complete, as the other forms of OE *heo* were preserved: *hire/her*, used in ME as the Obj. case and as a Poss. pronoun is a form of OE *heo* but not of its new substitute *she*; *hers* was derived from the form *hire/her*.

About the same time in the course of ME another important lexical replacement took place: the OE pronoun of the 3rd p. pl *hie* was replaced by the Scand. loan-word *they* [ðei]. Like the pronoun *she*, it came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. This time the replacement was more complete: *they* ousted the Nom. case, OE *hie*, while *them* and *their* (coming from the same Scand. loan) replaced the oblique case forms: OE *hem* and *heora*. The two sets of forms coming from *they* and *hie* occur side by side in Late ME texts, e. g.: *That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke.* ('Who has helped them when they were sick.') It is noteworthy that these two replacements broke up the genetic ties between the pronouns of the 3rd p.: in OE they were all obvious derivatives of one pronominal root with the initial [h]: *he, heo, hit, hie*. The Late ME (as well as the NE) pronouns of the 3rd p. are separate words with no genetic ties whatever: *he, she, it, they* (it is a direct descendant of OE *hit* with [h] lost).

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the pi forms of the 2nd p. *ye, you, your* were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of *thou, thee, thine*. Later *thou* became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays *thou* is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of *you* and *thou* in Shakespeare's sonnets. But if *thou* live, remember'd not to be. Die single, and *thine* image dies with *thee*. Or I shall live your epitaph to make. Or *you* survive when I in earth am rotten.

ME texts contain instances where the use of articles and other noun determiners does not correspond to modern rules, e. g. *For hym was levere have at his beddes heed twenty bookes clad in blak or reed... / Than robes riche, or fithel, or gay sautrie. 'For he would rather have at the head of his bed twenty books bound in black or red than rich robes, or a fiddle, or a gay psaltery' (a musical instrument); Yet hadde he but litel gold in cofre 'yet he had but little gold in the coffer (or: in his coffer)'*.

It is believed that the growth of articles in Early ME was caused, or favored, by several internal linguistic factors. The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. These forms were commonly used together with the demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, ðæt*. In contrast to weak forms, the strong forms of adjectives conveyed the meaning of "indefiniteness" which was later transferred to *an*, a numeral and indefinite pronoun. In case the nouns were used without adjectives or the weak and strong forms coincided, the form-words *an* and *ðæt* turned out to be the only means of expressing these meanings. The decay of adjective declensions speeded up their transition into articles. Another factor which may account for the more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word

order for communicative purposes, e. g. to present a new thing or to refer to a familiar thing already known to the listener. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function, it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence, e. g. the subject or the objects, had their own fixed places. The communicative functions passed to the articles and their use became more regular. The growth of the articles is thus connected both with the changes in syntax and in morphology.

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## 8-MAVZU

### VERBS OF OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

#### Plan

1. Verbals. The Infinitive and the Participle
2. Strong Verbs
3. Weak verbs
4. New Grammatical Forms and Categories of the Verb

**Key words:** *dialects, the Scandinavian invasion, Norman conquest, semantic types of borrowings, spelling changes, reduction of vowels, Lengthening of vowels, monophthongization of diphthongs*

Unlike the morphology of the noun and adjective, which has become much simpler in the course of history, the morphology of the verb displayed two distinct tendencies of development: it underwent considerable simplifying changes, which

affected the synthetic forms and became far more complicated owing to the growth of new, analytical forms and new grammatical categories. The evolution of the finite and non-finite forms of the verb is described below under these two trends.

The decay of OE inflections, which transformed the nominal system, is also apparent in the conjugation of the verb though to a lesser extent. Many markers of the grammatical forms of the verb were reduced, levelled and lost in ME and Early NE; the reduction, levelling and loss of endings resulted in the increased neutralisation of formal oppositions and the growth of homonymy. ME forms of the verb are represented by numerous variants, which reflect dialectal differences and tendencies of potential changes. The intermixture of dialectal features in the speech of London and in the literary language of the Renaissance played an important role in the Conjugation of Verbs in ME and Early New English formation of the verb paradigm. The Early ME dialects supplied a store of parallel variant forms, some which entered literary English and with certain modifications were eventually accepted as standard. The simplifying changes the verb morphology affected the distinction of the grammatical categories to a varying degree.

Number distinctions were not only preserved in ME but even became more consistent and regular; towards the end of the period, however, in the 15th c. they were neutralised in most positions. In the 13th and 14th c. the ending -en turned into the main, almost universal, "marker of the pl forms of the verb: it was used in both tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods (the variants in -eth and -es in the Present Indicative were used only in the Southern and Northern dialects). In most classes of strong verbs (except Class 6 and 7) there was an additional distinctive feature between the sg and pl forms in the Past tense of the Indicative mood: the two Past tense stems had different root-vowels (see *fand*, *fanciest*, *fand* and *founden*). But both ways of indicating pi turned out to be very unstable. The ending -en was frequently missed out in the late 14th c. and was dropped in the 15th; the Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged into one form (e. g. *found*, *wrote*). All number distinctions were thus lost with the exception of the 2nd and 3rd p., Pres. tense Indic. mood: the sg forms were marked by the endings -est and -eth -es and were formally opposed to the forms of the pl. (Number distinctions in the 2nd p. existed as long as *thou*, the pronoun of the 2nd p. sg was used. For the verb *to be* which has retained number distinction in both tenses of the Indic. mood) Cf. the forms of the verb with the subject in the pi in the 14th and 17th c.: *Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages.* (Chaucer) (*Then folks long to go on pilgrimages.*) *All men make faults.* (Sh)

The differences in the forms of Person were maintained in ME, though they became more variable. The OE endings of the 3rd p. sg -þ, -eþ, -iaþ merged into a single ending -(e)th.

The variant ending of the 3rd p. -es was a new marker first recorded in the Northern dialects. It is believed that -s was borrowed from the pl forms which commonly ended in -es in the North; it spread to the sg and began to be used as a variant in the 2nd and 3rd p., but later was restricted to the 3rd. In Chaucer's works we still find the old ending -eth. Shakespeare uses both forms, but forms in -s begin to prevail. Cf:

He rideth out of halle. (Chaucer) (He rides out of the hall') My life ... sinks down to death. (Sh) but also: But beauty's waste hath in the world an end. (Sh)

In Shakespeare's sonnets the number of -s-forms by far exceeds that of -eth-forms, though some short verbs, especially auxiliaries, take -th: hath, doth. Variation of -s/-eth is found in poetry in the 17th and 18th c.: the choice between them being determined by the rhymes: But my late spring no buds or blossom shew'th. Perhaps my semblance might deceive the truth.

In the early 18th c. -(e)s was more common in private letters than in official and literary texts, but by the end of the century it was the dominant inflection of the 3rd p. sg in all forms of speech. (The phonetic development of the verb ending -(e)s since the ME period is similar to the development of -(e)s as a noun ending. The use of—eth was stylistically restricted to high poetry and religious texts. The ending -(e)s of the 2nd p. sg became obsolete together with the pronoun thou. The replacement of thou by you/ye eliminated the distinction of person in the verb paradigm with the exception of the 3rd p. of the Present tense.

Owing to the reduction of endings and levelling of forms the formal differences between the moods were also greatly obscured. In OE only a few forms of the Indicative and Subjunctive mood were homonymous: the 1st p. sg of the Present Tense and the 1st and 3rd p. sg of the Past In ME the homonymy of the mood forms grew.

The Indicative and Subjunctive moods could no longer be distinguished in the pl, when -en became the dominant flexion of the Indicative pl in the Present and Past. The reduction and loss of this ending in Early NE took place in all the forms irrespective of mood. In the Past tense of strong verbs the difference between the moods in the sg could be shown by means of a root-vowel interchange, for the Subjunctive mood was derived from the third principal form of the verb Past pl. while the sg forms of the Indicative mood were derived from the second principal form Past sg. When, in the 15th c. the two Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged, all the forms of the moods in the Past tense fell together with the exception of the verb to be, which retained a distinct form of the Subjunctive in the Past sg. were as opposed to was.

Compare the forms of the verb in the following quotations from Shakespeare used in similar syntactic conditions; some forms are distinctly marked, others are

ambiguous and can be understood either as Subjunctive or as Indicative: If there be truth in sight, you are my Rosalind... If thou survive my well contented day... Subj. Against that time, if ever that time come... Subj. If truth holds true contents... Indic. If I lose thee, my loss is my love's gain... Indic., or Subj.

The distinction of tenses was preserved in the verb paradigm through all historical periods. As before, the Past tense was shown with the help of the dental suffix in the weak verbs, and with the help of the root-vowel interchange in the strong verbs (after the loss of the endings the functional load of the vowel interchange grew, cf. OE *cuman cuom comon*, differing in the root-vowels and endings, and NE *come came*). The only exception was a small group of verbs which came from OE weak verbs of Class I: in these verbs the dental suffix fused with the last consonant of the root [t] and after the loss of the endings the three principal forms coincided: cf. OE *settan* — *sette* - *geset(en)*. ME *seten* — *sette* — *set*, NE *set*—*set*—*set*.

### **Verbals. The Infinitive and the Participle**

The system of verbals in OE consisted of the Infinitive and two Participles. Their nominal features were more pronounced than their verbal features, the Infinitive being a sort of verbal noun. Participles I and II, verbal adjectives. The main trends of their evolution in ME, NE can be defined as gradual loss of most nominal features (except syntactical functions) and growth of verbal features. The simplifying changes in the verb paradigm, and the decay of the OE inflectional system account for the first of these trends, loss of case distinctions in the infinitive and of forms of agreement in the Participles.

The Infinitive lost its inflected form (the so-called "Dat. case") in Early ME. OE *writan* and *to writanne* appear in ME as (to) *writen*, and in NE as (to) *write*. The preposition *to*, which was placed in OE before the inflected infinitive to show direction or purpose, lost its prepositional force and changed into a formal sign of the Infinitive. In ME the Infinitive with *to* does not necessarily express purpose. In order to reinforce the meaning of purpose another preposition, *for*, was sometimes placed before the *to*-infinitive: *To lyven in delit was evere his wone.* (Chaucer) (To live in delight was always his habit.)

In ME the Present Participle and the verbal noun became identical: they both ended in *-ing*. This led to the confusion of some of their features: verbal nouns began to take direct objects, like participles and infinitives. This verbal feature, a direct object, as well as the frequent absence of article before the *-ing*-form functioning as a noun transformed the verbal noun into a Gerund in the modern understanding of the term. The disappearance of the inflected infinitive contributed to the change, as some of its functions were taken over by the Gerund.

The earliest instances of a verbal noun resembling a Gerund date from the 12th c. Chaucer uses the -ing-form in substantival functions in both ways: with a prepositional object like a verbal noun and with a direct object, e.g. in *getynge on your riches* and *the usinge hem 'in getting your riches and using them'*. In Early NE the -ing-form in the function of a noun is commonly used with an adverbial modifier and with a direct object — in case of transitive verbs, e.g.: *Tis pity... That wishing well had not a body in't Which might be felt. (Sh) Drink, being poured out of a cup into a glass, by filling the one, doth empty the other.*

Those were the verbal features of the Gerund. The nominal features, retained from the verbal noun, were its syntactic functions and the ability to be modified by a possessive pronoun or a noun in the Gen. case: *And why should we proclaim it in an hour before his' entering?*

In the course of time the sphere of the usage of the Gerund grew: it replaced the Infinitive and the Participle in many adverbial functions; its great advantage was that it could be used with various prepositions, e.g.: *And now lie fainted and cried, in fainting, upon Rosalind. Shall we clap into 't roundly without hawking, or spitting, or saying we are hoarse...*

The historical changes in the ways of building the principal forms of the verb ("stems") transformed the morphological classification of the verbs. The OE division into classes of weak and strong verbs was completely re-arranged and broken up. Most verbs have adopted the way of form-building employed by the weak verbs; the dental suffix. The strict classification of the strong verbs, with their regular system of form-building, degenerated. In the long run all these changes led to increased regularity and uniformity and to the development of a more consistent and simple system of building the principal forms of the verb.

### **Strong Verbs**

The seven classes of OE strong verbs underwent multiple grammatical and phonetic changes. In ME the final syllables of the stems, like all final syllables, were weakened, in Early NE most of them were lost. Thus the OE endings -an, -on, and -en (of the 1st, 3rd and 4th principal forms) were all reduced to ME -en, consequently in Classes 6 and 7, where the infinitive and the participle had the same gradation vowel, these forms fell together; in Classes 1 and 3a it led to the coincidence of the 3rd and 4th principal forms. In the ensuing period, the final -n was lost in the infinitive and the past tense plural, but was sometimes preserved in Participle II. probably to distinguish the participle from other forms. Thus, despite phonetic reduction, -n was sometimes retained to show an essential grammatical distinction, cf. NE *stole stolen, spoke spoken, but bound bound*

In ME, Early NE the root-vowels in the principal forms of all the classes of strong verbs underwent the regular changes of stressed vowels.

Due to phonetic changes vowel gradation in Early ME was considerably modified. Lengthening of vowels before some consonant sequences split the verbs of Class 3 into two subgroups: verbs like *findan* had now long root-vowels in all the forms; while in verbs like *drinken* the root-vowel remained short. Thus ME *writen* and *finden* (Classes 1 and 3) had the same vowel in the infinitive but different vowels in the Past and Participle II. Participle II of Classes 2, 4 and 6 acquired long root-vowels [o:] and [a:] due to lengthening in open syllables, while in the Participle with Class 1 the vowel remained short. These phonetic changes made the interchange less consistent and justified than before, for instance, verbs with long [i:] in the first stem (*writen*, *finden*) would, for no apparent reason, use different interchanges to form the other stems. At the same time there was a strong tendency to make the system of forms more regular. The strong verbs were easily influenced by analogy. It was due to analogy that they lost practically all consonant interchanges in ME and Early NE. The interchange [z~r] in *was* were was retained. Classes which had many similar forms were often confused: OE *sprecan* Class 5 began to build the Past Participle *spoken*, like verbs of Class 4 (also NE *weave* and *tread*).

The most important change in the system of strong verbs was the reduction in the number of stems from four to three, by removing the distinction between the two past tense stems. In OE these stems had the same gradation vowels only in Classes 6 and 7, but we should recall that the vast majority of English verbs which were weak had a single stem for all the past forms. These circumstances facilitated analogical leveling, which occurred largely in Late ME. Its direction depended on the dialect, and on the class of the verb.

In the Northern dialects the vowel of the Past sg tended to replace that of the Past pi; in the South and in the Midlands the distinction between the stems was preserved longer than in the North. In the South and South-West the vowel of the Past sg was often replaced by that of the Past pt or of the Past Participle, especially if the 3rd and 4th stems had the same root-vowel. Some classes of verbs showed preference for one or another of these ways.

Different directions of leveling can be exemplified by forms which were standardised in literary English: *wrote*, *rose*, *rode* are Past sg forms by origin (Class 1); *bound*, *found* are Past pl (Class 3a), *spoke*, *got*, *bore* (Classes 5, 4) took their root-vowel from Participle II. Since the 15th c a single stem was used as a base for all the forms of the Past Tense of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods. 479. The tendency to reduce the number of stems continued in Early NE. At this stage it affected the distinction between the new Past tense stem and Participle II. Identical forms of these stems are found not only in the literary texts and private letters but even in M books on English grammar: thus B. Jonson (1640) recommends *beat* and

broke as correct forms of Participle II; Shakespeare uses sang and spoke both as Past tense forms and Participle II.

One of the most important events in the history of the strong verbs was their transition into weak. In ME, Early NE many strong verbs began to form their Past and Participle II with the help of the dental suffix instead of vowel gradation. Therefore the number of strong verbs decreased. In OE there were about three hundred strong verbs. Some of them dropped out of use owing to changes in the vocabulary, while most of the remaining verbs became weak. Out of 195 OE strong verbs, preserved in the language, only 67 have retained strong forms with root-vowel interchange roughly corresponding to the OE gradation series. By that time the weak verbs had lost all distinctions between the forms of the Past tense. The model of weak verbs with two 'basic forms, may have influenced the strong verbs. The changes in the formation of principal parts of strong verbs extended over a long period.

### **Weak verbs**

Some weak verbs preserved the root-vowel interchange, though some of the vowels were altered due to regular quantitative and qualitative vowel changes: ME sellen — solde (OE salde > Early ME ['sa:lde] > Late ME ['so:lde] > NE sold [sould]), techen—taughte; NE sell—sold, teach — taught.

Another group of weak verbs became irregular in Early ME as a result of quantitative vowel changes. In verbs like OE cepan, fedan, metan the long vowel in the root was shortened before two consonants in the Past and Participle II; OE cepte > ME kepte ['kepte]. The long vowel in the Present tense stem was preserved and was altered during the Great Vowel Shift, hence the interchange [i: > e], NE keep — kept, feed—fed. This group of verbs attracted several verbs from other classes — NE sleep, weep, read, which formerly belonged to Class 7 of strong verbs. Some verbs of this group—NE mean, feel—have a voiceless [t]

Verbs like OE settan, with the root ending in a dental consonant, added the dental suffix without the intervening vowel [e] OE sette. When the inflections were reduced and dropped, the three stems of the verbs Present, Past and Participle II fell together: NE set—se—set; put—put—put: cast—cast—cast. etc. The final -t of the root had absorbed the dental suffix. (Wherever possible the distinctions were preserved or even introduced: thus OE sendan, restan, which had the same forms sende, reste for the Past, Present appear in ME as senden - sente, resten - rested(e).

It must be noted that although the number of non-standard verbs in Mod E is not large about 200 items they constitute an important feature of the language. Most of them belong to the basic layer of the vocabulary, have a high frequency of occurrence and are widely used in word-formation and phraseological units. Their significance for the grammatical system lies in the fact that many of these verbs have

preserved the distinction between three principal forms, which makes modern grammarians recognise three stems in all English verbs despite the formal identity of the Past and Participle II.

ME *ben* (NE *be*) inherited its suppletive forms from the OE and more remote periods of history. It owes its variety of forms not only to suppletion but also to the dialectal divergence in OE and ME and to the inclusion of various dialectal traits in literary English. The Past tense forms were fairly homogeneous in all the dialects. The forms of the Pres. tense were derived from different roots and displayed considerable dialectal differences. ME *am*, *are(n)* came from the Midland dialects and replaced the West Saxon *ēom*, *sint / sindon*. In OE the forms with the initial *b-* from *bēon* were synonymous and interchangeable with the other forms but in Late ME and NE they acquired a new function: they were used as forms of the Subj. and the Imper. moods or in reference to the future and were thus opposed to the forms of the Pres. Ind.

Hang *be* the heavens with black, yield day to night! (Sh) Forms with the initial *b-* were also retained or built in ME as the forms of verbals: ME *being/ beande* Part. I, *ben*, *y-ben* the newly formed Part. II (in OE the verb had no Past Part.); the Inf. *ben* (NE *being*, *been*, *be*).

The redistribution of suppletive forms in the paradigm of *be* made it possible to preserve some of the grammatical distinctions which were practically lost in other verbs, namely the distinction of number, person and mood.

### **New Grammatical Forms and Categories of the Verb**

The evolution of the verb system in the course of history was not confined to the simplification of the conjugation and to growing regularity in building the forms of the verb. In ME and NE the verb paradigm expanded, owing to the addition of new grammatical forms and to the formation of new grammatical categories. The extent of these changes can be seen from a simple comparison of the number of categories and categorial forms in Early OE with their number today. Leaving out of consideration Number and Person as categories of concord with the Subject we can say that OE finite verbs had two verbal grammatical categories proper: Mood and Tense. According to Mod E grammars the finite verb has five categories Mood, Tense, Aspect, Time-Correlation and Voice. All the new forms which have been included in the verb paradigm are analytical forms; all the synthetic forms are direct descendants of OE forms, for no new synthetic categorial forms have developed since the OE period.

The growth of analytical forms of the verb is a common Germanic tendency, though it manifested itself a long time after PG split into separate languages. The beginnings of these changes are dated in Late OE and in ME. The growth of

compound forms from free verb phrases was a long and complicated process which extended over many hundred years and included several kinds of changes.

A genuine analytical verb form must have a stable structural pattern different from the patterns of verb phrases; it must consist of several component parts: an auxiliary verb, sometimes two or three auxiliary verbs, e.g. *NE* would have been taken which serve as a grammatical marker, and a non-finite form *Inf.* or *Part.*, which serves as a grammatical marker and expresses the lexical meaning of the form. The analytical form should be idiomatic: its meaning is not equivalent to the sum of meanings of the component parts.

The development of these properties is known as the process of "grammatisation". Some verb phrases have been completely grammatised e.g. the Perfect forms. Some of them have not been fully grammatised to this day and are not regarded as ideal analytical forms in modern grammars (for instance, the Future tense).

In order to become a member of a grammatical category and a part of the verb paradigm the new form had to acquire another important quality: a specific meaning of its own which would be contrasted to the meaning of its opposite member within the grammatical category (in the same way as e. g. Past is opposed to Pres. or pl is opposed to sg). It was only at the later stages of development that such semantic oppositions were formed. Originally the verb phrases and the new compound forms were used as synonyms (or "near synonyms") of the old synthetic forms; gradually the semantic differences between the forms grew: the new forms acquired a specific meaning while the application of the old forms was narrowed. It was also essential that the new analytical forms should be used unrestrictedly in different varieties of the language and should embrace verbs of different lexical meanings.

The establishment of an analytical form in the verb system is confirmed by the spread of its formal pattern in the verb paradigm. Compound forms did not spring up simultaneously in all the parts of the verb system: an analytical form appeared in some part of the system and from there its pattern extended to other parts. Thus the perfect forms first arose in the Past and Pres. tense of the Ind. Mood in the Active Voice and from there spread to the Subj. Mood, the Passive Voice, the non-finite verb.

Those were the main kinds of changes which constitute the growth of new grammatical forms and new verbal categories. They are to be found in the history of all the forms, with certain deviations and individual peculiarities. The dating of these developments is uncertain; therefore the order of their description below does not claim to be chronological.

## **The Future Tense**

In the OE language there was no form of the Future tense. The category of Tense consisted of two members: Past and Present. The Pres. tense could indicate both present and future actions, depending on the context. Alongside this form there existed other ways of presenting future happenings: modal phrases, consisting of the verbs *sculan*, *willan*, *magan*, *cunnan* and others (NE shall, will, may, can) and the Infinitive of the notional verb. In these phrases the meaning of futurity was combined with strong modal meanings of volition, obligation, possibility.

In ME the use of modal phrases, especially with the verb *shall*, became increasingly common. *Shall* plus Inf. was now the principal means of indicating future actions in any context. (We may recall that the Pres. tense had to be accompanied by special time indicators in order to refer an action to the future.) *Shall* could retain its modal meaning of necessity, but often weakened it to such an extent that the phrase denoted "pure" futurity. (The meaning of futurity is often combined with that of modality, as a future action is a planned, potential action, which has not yet taken place.) One of the early instances of *shall* with a weakened modal meaning is found in the Early ME poem *Ormilum* (1200); the phrase is also interesting as it contains *willen* as a notional verb: *And whase wile/in shall þiss boc efft operrispe* written.

In Late ME texts *shall* was used both as a modal verb and as a Future tense auxiliary, though discrimination between them is not always possible. Cf: *Me from the feend and fro his clawes kepe. That day that I shal drenchen in the depe.* (Chaucer) ('Save me from the fiend and his claws the day when I am drowned (or am doomed to get drowned) in the deep (sea). She shal have nede to wasshe away the rede. (Chaucer) ('She will have to wash away the red (blood).')

Future happenings were also commonly expressed by ME *willen* with an Int., but the meaning of volition in *will* must have been more obvious than the modal meaning of *shall*: *A tale wol I telle (I intend to tell a story) But lordes, wol ye maken assurance. As I shal seyn, assentyng to my loore. And I shal make us sauf for everemore (But, lordes, will you (be so kind as or agree to) make assurance (and take this course) as I shall save and I shall make it safe for us for ever.)*

The future event is shown here as depending upon the will or consent of the doer. Instances of *will* with a weakened modal meaning are rare: *But natheless she ferde as she wolde deye.* (Chaucer) ('But nevertheless she feared that she would die.') It has been noticed that the verb *will* was more frequent in popular ballads and in colloquial speech, which testifies to certain stylistic restrictions in the use of *will* in ME.

In the age of Shakespeare the phrases with *shall* and *will*, as well as the Pres. tense of notional verbs, occurred in free variation; they can express "pure" futurity and add different shades of modal meanings. Phrases with *shall* and *will*

outnumbered all the other ways of indicating futurity, cf. their meanings in the following passages from Shakespeare's sonnets:

Then hate me when thou wilt (desire) When forty winters shall besiege thy brow.  
And dig deep trenches in thy beauty's field. Thy youth's proud livery, so gaz'd on  
now. Will be a tatter'd weed, of small worth held. ("pure" future) That thou art blam'd  
- shall not be thy defect, (future with the meaning of certainty, prediction)

In the 17th c. will was sometimes used in a shortened form 'll, ('ll can also stand for shall, though historically it is traced to will): against myself I'll fight; against myself I'll vow debate. (Sh) In Early NE the causative meaning passed to a similar verb phrase with make, while the periphrasis with do began to be employed instead of simple, synthetic forms. Its meaning did not differ from that of simple forms.

At first the do-periphrasis was more frequent in poetry, which may be attributed to the requirements of the rhythm: the use of do enabled the author to have an extra syllable in the line, if needed, without affecting the meaning of the sentence. Then it spread to all kinds of texts.

In the 16th and 17th c. the periphrasis with do was used in all types of sentences - negative, affirmative and interrogative; it freely interchanged with the simple forms, without do. We do not know How he may soften at the sight o'the child...Who told me that the pour soul did forsake The mighty Warwick, and did fight for me? But what we doe determine oft we break...

Negative statements and questions without do are illustrated by Heard you all this? I know not why, nor wherefo to say live, boy... And wherefore say not I that I am old?

Towards the end of the 17th c. the use of simple forms and the do-periphrasis became more differentiated: do was found mainly in negative statements and questions, while the simple forms were preferred in affirmative statements. Thus the do-periphrasis turned into analytical negative and interrogative forms of simple forms: Pres and Past.

The growth of new negative and interrogative forms with do can be accounted for by syntactic conditions. By that time the word order in the sentence had become fixed: the predicate of the sentence normally followed the subject. The use of do made it possible to adhere to this order in questions, for at least the notional part of the predicate could thus preserve its position after the subject. This order of words was already well established in numerous sentences with analytical forms and modal phrases. Cf: Do you pity him? No, he deserves no pity ...Wilt thou not love such a woman? And must they all be hanged that swear and lie? Likewise, the place of the negative particle not in negative sentences with modal phrases and analytical forms set up a pattern for the similar use of not with the do-periphrasis. Cf: will not let him

stir and If I do not wonder how thou darest venture. The form with do conformed with the new pattern of the sentence much better than the old simple form (though sentences with not in postposition to the verb are still common in Shakespeare: know not which is which).

In the 18th c. the periphrasis with do as an equivalent of the simple form in affirmative statements fell into disuse (its employment in affirmative sentences acquired a stylistic function: it made the statement emphatic).

### **Passive Forms. Category of Voice**

In OE the finite verb had no category of Voice. With the exception of some traces of the Germanic Mediopassive restricted to the verb *hatan* 'call', there was no regular opposition of forms in the verb paradigm to show the relation of the action to the grammatical subject. Only in the system of verbals the participles of transitive verbs, Pres. and Past were contrasted as having an active and a passive meaning. The analytical passive forms developed from OE verb phrases consisting of OE *beon* (NE *be*) and *weorþan* ('become') and Part. II of transitive verbs.

OE *beon* was used as a link-verb with a predicative expressed by Part. II to denote a state resulting from a previous action, while the construction with OE *weorþan* 'become' indicated the transition into the state expressed by the participle. *Werthen* was still fairly common in Early ME (in *Ormulum*), but not nearly as common as the verb *ben*: soon *werthen* was replaced by numerous new link-verbs which had developed from notional verbs (ME *becomen*, *geten*, *semen*, NE *become*, *get*, *seem*); no instances of *werthen* are found in Chaucer. The participle, which served as predicative to these verbs, in OE agreed with the subject in number and gender, although the concord with participles was less strict than with adjectives. The last instances of this agreement are found in Early ME: *fewe beoþ icorene* (13th c.) 'few were chosen'.

In ME *ben* plus Past Part, developed into an analytical form. Now it could express not only a state but also an action. The formal pattern of the Pass. Voice extended to many parts of the verb paradigm: it is found in the Future tense, in the Pert. forms, in the Subj. Mood and in the non-finite forms of the verb, e.g. Chaucer has: *the conseil that was accorded by youre neighebores* ('The advice that was given by your neighbours') *But certes, wikkidnesse shal be warissed by goodnesse.* ('But, certainly, wickedness shall be cured by goodness.') *With many a tempest hadde his berde been shake.* ('His beard had been shaken with many tempests.') Traces of Mediopassive in this verb are found even in Late ME: *This mayden, which that Mayus highte.* (Chaucer) ('This maid who was called Mayus.') The new Pass. forms had a regular means of indicating the doer of the action or the instrument with the help of which it was performed. Out of a variety of prepositions employed in OE *from*, *mid*, *wiþ*, *bi* two were selected and generalised: *by* and *with*. Thus in ME the

Pass. forms were regularly contrasted to the active forms throughout the paradigm, both formally and semantically. Therefore we can say that the verb had acquired a new grammatical category the category of Voice.

In Early NE the Pass. Voice continued to grow and to extend its application. Late ME saw the appearance of new types of passive constructions. In addition to passive constructions with the subject corresponding to the direct object of the respective active construction, i.e. built from transitive verbs, there arose passive constructions whose subject corresponded to other types of objects: indirect and prepositional. Pass. forms began to be built from intransitive verbs associated with different kinds of objects, e.g. indirect objects: *The angel ys tolde the wordes.* (Higden) ('The angel is told the words.') *He shulde soone delyvered be gold in sakkis gret plenty.* (Chaucer) ('He should be given (delivered) plenty of gold in sacks.') prepositional objects: *I wylle that my moder be sente for.* (Malory) ('I wish that my mother were sent for.') *He himself was oftener laughed at than his iestes were.* (Caxton) 'tis so concluded on; *We'll be waited on* (Sh).

It should be added that from an early date the Pass. Voice was common in impersonal sentences with it introducing direct or indirect speech: *Hit was accorded, granted and swore, bytwene þe King of Fraunce and þe King of Engelond þat he shulde haue agen at his landes* (Brut, 13th c.) ('It was agreed, granted and sworn between the King of France and the King of England that he should have again all his lands.') The wide use of various pass. constructions in the 18th and 19th c. testifies to the high productivity of the Pass. Voice. At the same time the Pass. Voice continued to spread to new parts of the verb paradigm: the Gerund and the Continuous forms.

### **Perfect Forms**

Like other analytical forms of the verb, the Perf. forms have developed from OE verb phrases. The main source of the Perf. form was the OE "possessive" construction, consisting of the verb *habban* (NE have), a direct object and Part. II of a transitive verb, which served as an attribute to the object, e.g.: *Hæfde se goda ceman gecorene* (Beowulf) ('had that brave (man) warriors chosen'.) The meaning of the construction was: a person (the subject) possessed a thing (object), which was characterised by a certain state resulting from a previous action (the participle). The participle, like other attributes, agreed with the noun-object in Number, Gender and Case. Originally the verb *habban* was used only with participles of transitive verbs; then it came to be used with verbs taking genitival, datival and prepositional objects and even with intransitive verbs, which shows that it was developing into a kind of auxiliary, e.g.: *for sefenn winnterr haffde he ben in Egypte* (Ormulum) ('For seven winters he had been in Egypt')

The other source of the Perf. forms was the OE phrase consisting of the link-verb *bēon* and Part. II of intransitive verbs: *nu is se dæg cumen* (Beowulf) ('Now the day has ("is") come') *hwænne mine dagas agane beoþ* (Ælfric)... ('When my days are gone (when I die)'). In these phrases the participle usually agreed with the subject.

Towards ME the two verb phrases turned into analytical forms and made up a single set of forms termed "perfect". The Participles had lost their forms of agreement with the noun (the subject in the construction with *ben*, the object in the construction with *haven*); the places of the object and the participle in the construction with *haven* changed: the Participle usually stood close to the verb *have* and was followed by the object which referred now to the analytical form as a whole – instead of being governed by *have*. Cf. the OE possessive construction quoted above with ME examples: *The holy blisful martyr for to seke, That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke. (Chaucer) ('To seek the holy blissful martyr who has helped them when they were ill.')*

In the Perfect form the auxiliary *have* had lost the meaning of possession and was used with all kinds of verbs, without restriction. *Have* was becoming a universal auxiliary, whereas the use of *be* grew more restricted. Shakespeare employs *be* mainly with verbs of movement, but even with these verbs *be* alternates with *have*: *He is not yet arriv'd ... On a modern pace I have since arrived but hither.*

One of the instances of perfect with both auxiliaries is found in S. Pepy's Diary (late 17th c.): and My Lord Chesterfield had killed another gentleman and was fled.

By the age of the Literary Renaissance the perfect forms had spread to all the parts of the verb system, so that ultimately the category of time correlation became the most universal of verbal categories. An isolated instance of Perfect Continuous is found in Chaucer: *We han ben waityng al this fortnight. ('We have been waiting all this fortnight.')* Instances of Perfect Passive are more frequent:

*O fy! for shame! they that han been brent Alias! can thei nat flee the fyres hete?* ('For shame, they who have been burnt, alas, can they not escape the fire's heat?') Perfect forms in the Pass. Voice, Pert. forms of the Subj. Mood, Future Perf. forms are common in Shakespeare: *if she had been blessed....*

### **Continuous Forms**

The development of Aspect is linked up with the growth of the Continuous forms. In the OE verb system there was no category of Aspect; verbal prefixes especially *ge-*, which could express an aspective meaning of perfectivity were primarily word-building prefixes. The growth of Continuous forms was slow and uneven.

Verb phrases consisting of *beon* (NE *be*) plus Part. I are not infrequently found in OE prose. They denoted a quality, or a lasting state, characterising the person or thing indicated by the subject of the sentence, e.g. *seo... is irnende þurh middewealde*

Babylonia burg "that (river) runs through the middle of Babylon"; ealle þa woruld on hiora agen gewill onwendende wæron neah C wintra "they all were destroying the world (or: were destroyers of the world) at their own will for nearly 100 years".

In Early ME *ben plus Part. I* fell into disuse; it occurs occasionally in some dialectal areas: in Kent and in the North, but not in the Midlands. In Late ME it extended to other dialects and its frequency grew again, e.g.

Syngyng he was or floytyng al the day. (Chaucer) ('He was singing or playing the flute all day long.') The flod is into the greet see rennende. (Gower) ('The river runs into the great sea.')

At that stage the construction did not differ from the simple verb form in meaning and was used as its synonym, mainly for emphasis and vividness of description. Cf.:

We holden on to the Cristen feyth and are byleving in Jhesu Cryste. (Caxton)

('We hold to the Christian faith and believe (lit. "are believing") in Jesus Christ.')

In the 15th and 16th c. *be plus Part. I* was often confused with a synonymous phrase – *be plus the preposition on* (or its reduced form *a*) plus a verbal noun. By that time the *Pres. Part.* and the verbal noun had lost their formal differences: the *Part. I* was built with the help of *-ing* and the verbal noun had the word-building suffix *-ing*, which had ousted the equivalent OE suffix *-ung*.

She wyst not... whether she was a-wakyng or a-slepe. (Caxton) ('She did not know whether she was awake (was on waking) or asleep.')

A Knyght ... had been on huntyng. (Malory) ('A knight had been hunting (lit. "on hunting").')

The prepositional phrase indicated a process, taking place at a certain period of time. It is believed that the meaning of process or an action of limited duration – which the *Cont. forms* acquired in Early NE – may have come from the prepositional phrase. Yet even in the 17th c. the semantic difference between the *Cont.* and *non-Cont.* forms is not always apparent, e.g.: The Earl of Wesmoreland, seven thousand strong, is marching hitherwards. (Sh)

What, my dear lady Disdain! Are you yet living? (Sh). Here the *Cont.* makes the statement more emotional, forceful.)

The *non-Cont.*, simple form can indicate an action in progress which takes place before the eyes of the speaker (nowadays this use is typical of the *Cont. form*): Enter Hamlet reading... Po1onius. What do you read, my lord?

It was not until the 18th c. that the *Cont. forms* acquired a specific meaning of their own; to use modern definitions, that of incomplete concrete process of limited duration. Only at that stage the *Cont.* and *non-Cont.* made up a new grammatical category – *Aspect*. The meaning of *non-Cont.* – *Indef.* – forms became more restricted, though the contrast was never as sharp as in the other categories: in some contexts the forms have remained synonymous and are even interchangeable to this day.

By that time the formal pattern of the Cont. as an analytical form was firmly established. The Cont. forms were used in all genres and dialects and could be built both from non-terminative verbs, as in OE, and from terminative verbs. They had extended to many parts of the verb system, being combined with other forms. Thus the Future Cont. is attested in the Northern texts since the end of the 13th c.; the first unambiguous instances of the Pert. Cont. are recorded in Late ME.

For many hundred years the Cont. forms were not used in the Pass. Voice. In Late ME the Active Voice of the Cont. form was sometimes used with a passive meaning:

My mighte and my mayne es all marrande. (York plays) ('My might and my power are all being destroyed.') (lit. "is destroying").

The Active form of the Cont. aspect was employed in the passive meaning until the 19th c. The earliest written evidence of the Pass. Cont. is found in a private letter of the 18th c.: ... a fellow whose uppermost upper grinder is being torn out by the roots...

The new Pass. form aroused the protest of many scholars. Samuel Johnson, the great lexicographer, called it a "vicious" expression and recommended the active form as a better way of expressing the passive meaning. He thought that phrases like the book is now printing; the brass is forging had developed from the book is a-printing; the brass is a-forging; which meant 'is in the process of forging', and therefore possessed the meaning of the Pass. Even in the late 19th c. it was claimed that the house is being built was a clumsy construction which should be replaced by the house is building. But in spite of all these protests the Pass. Voice of the Cont. aspect continued to be used and eventually was recognised as correct.

The growth of the Cont. forms in the last two centuries is evidenced not only by its spread in the verb paradigm – the development of the Pass. forms in the Cont. Aspect – but also by its growing frequency and the loosening of lexical constraints. In the 19th and 20th c. the Cont. forms occur with verbs of diverse lexical meaning.

The uneven development of the Cont. forms, their temporary regress and recent progress, as well as multiple dialectal and lexical restrictions gave rise to numerous hypotheses about their origin and growth.

Some scholars attribute the appearance of the Cont. forms in English to foreign influence: Latin, French or Celtic. These theories, however, are not confirmed by facts.

Numerous instances of OE *beon* + Part. I were found in original OE texts, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. But the construction is rare in translations from Latin, for instance in Wyclif's translation of the Bible.

### **Answer the following questions**

1) *When did the Scandinavian invasion take place?*

- 2) *What are the political social and sociolinguistic results of Norman Conquest?*
- 3) *What can you say about the influence of English vocabulary after the Norman conquest?*
- 4) *What can you say about the Middle English dialects?*
- 5) *What can you say about the phonetic changes of Middle English period?*

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## **9-MAVZU**

### **OLD ENGLISH SYNTAX. TYPES OF SENTENCES**

#### **Plan**

1. The formation of Middle English grammatical categories and their peculiarities
2. Grammatical changes of Middle English
3. The rise of new grammatical categories

**Key words:** *umlaut, reduction, dual member, definite article, weak verbs, conjugation of verbs grammatical categories, affixation, prefixation*

The ME verb was characterised by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form-building means. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

#### **Grammatical Categories of the Finite Verb**

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Thus in OE he bindeð 'he binds' the verb is in the 3rd p. Pres. Tense Ind. Mood; in the sentence Bringað me hider þa 'Bring me those (loaves)' bringað is in the Imper. Mood pl.

Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: sg and pl. The homonymy of forms in the verb paradigm did not affect number distinctions: opposition through number was never neutralised.

The category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd. Unlike number, person distinctions were neutralised in many positions. Person was consistently shown only in the Pres. Tense of the Ind. Mood 'In the Past Tense sg of the Ind. Mood the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. coincided and only the 2nd p. had a distinct form. Person was not distinguished in the pl; nor was it shown in the Subj. Mood.

The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. There were a few homonymous forms, which eliminated the distinction between the moods: Subj. did not differ from the Ind. in the 1st p. sg Pres. Tense — here, *deme* — and in the 1st and 3rd p. in the Past. The coincidence of the Imper. and Ind. Moods is seen in the pl — *lociaþ, demaþ*.

The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorial forms, Pres. and Past. The tenses were formally distinguished by all the verbs in the Ind. and Subj. Moods, there being practically no instances of neutralisation of the tense opposition.

The use of the Subj. Mood in OE was in many respects different from its use in later ages. Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and other volitional, conjectural and hypothetical contexts Subj. was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech, e.g.:

*þa giet he ascode hwæt heora cyning haten wære, and him man andswarode and cwæð þæt he Ælle haten wære.* 'and yet he asked what their king was called, and they answered and said that he was called Ælle'. In presenting indirect speech usage was variable: Ind. forms occurred by the side of Subj.

### **Conjugation of Verbs in Middle English**

The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Pres. were used to indicate present and future actions. With verbs of perfective meaning or with adverbs of future time the Pres. acquired the meaning of futurity; Cf: *þonne þu þa in bringst, he ytt and bletsað þe* — futurity — 'when you bring them, he will eat and bless you' *þu gesihst þæt ic ealdige* 'you see that I am getting old' the Pres. tense *ealdie* indicates a process in the present which is now expressed by the Continuous form. Future happenings could also be expressed by verb phrases with modal verbs:

*forþæm ge sculon ... wepan* 'therefore you shall weep'.

The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past (including those which are nowadays expressed by the forms of the Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Present Perfect and other analytical forms). Additional shades of meaning could be attached to it in different contexts, e. g.:

*Ond þæs ofer Eastron gefor Æpered cyning; ond he ricsode fīf gear* 'and then after Easter died King Aethered, and he had reigned five years' (the Past Tense *ricsode* indicates a completed action which preceded another past action — in the modern translation it is rendered by had reigned).

### **OE syntax**

The syntactic structure of OE was determined by two major conditions: the nature of OE morphology and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language,

OE was largely a synthetic language; it possessed a system of grammatical forms, which could indicate the connection between words; consequently, the functional load of syntactic ways of word connection was relatively small. It was primarily a spoken language, therefore the written forms of the language resembled oral speech – unless the texts were literal translations from Latin or poems with stereotyped constructions. Consequently, the syntax of the sentence was relatively simple; coordination of clauses prevailed over subordination; complicated syntactical constructions were rare.

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases (also: word groups or patterns). OE noun patterns, adjective patterns and verb patterns had certain specific features, which are important to note in view of their later changes.

A noun pattern consisted of a noun as the head-word and pronouns, adjectives (including verbal adjectives, or participles), numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number and case:

on þæm oþrum þrim dagum ... 'in those other three days' – Dat. pl Masc.

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge 'Ohthere said to his lord, king Alfred' – the noun in apposition is in the Dat. sg like the head noun.

Nouns, which served as attributes to other nouns, usually had the form of the Gen. case: hwales ban, deora fell 'whale's bone, deer's fell'.

Some numerals governed the nouns they modified so that formally the relations were reversed: tamra deora ... syx hund 'six hundred tame deer'; twentig sceapa 'twenty sheep' (deora, sceapa – Gen. pl).

The following examples show the structure of the simple sentence in OE, its principal and secondary parts: *Soðlice sum mann hæfde twegen suna* (mann – subject, hæfde – Simple Predicate) 'truly a certain man had two sons'. Predicates could also be compound: modal, verbal and nominal: *Hwæðre þu meahst singan* 'nevertheless you can sing'. *He was swyðe spedig mann* 'he was a very rich man'.

The secondary parts of the sentence are seen in the same examples: twegen suna 'two sons' – Direct Object with an attribute, spedig 'rich' – attribute. In the examples of verb and noun patterns above we can find other secondary parts of the sentence: indirect and prepositional objects, adverbial modifiers and appositions: hys meder 'to his mother' (Indirect Object), to his suna 'to his son' (Prep. Object), his hlaforde, Ælfrede cyninge 'his lord king Alfred' (apposition). The structure of the OE sentence can be described in terms of Mod E syntactic analysis, for the sentence

was made up of the same parts, except that those parts were usually simpler. Attributive groups were short and among the parts of the sentence there were very few-predicative constructions ("syntactical complexes"). Absolute constructions with the noun in the Dat. case were sometimes used in translations from Latin in imitation of the Latin *Dativus Absolutus*. The objective predicative construction "Accusative with the Infinitive" occurred in original OE texts:

... ða liðende land gesawon, brimclifu blican, beorgas steape (BEOWULF)

'the travellers saw land, the cliffs shine, steep mountains'. Predicative constructions after *habban* (NE *have*) contained a Past Participle.

The connection between the parts of the sentence was shown by the form of the words as they had formal markers for gender, case, number and person. As compared with later periods agreement and government played an important role in the word phrase and in the sentence. Accordingly the place of the word in relation to other words was of secondary importance and the order of words was relatively free.

The presence of formal markers made it possible to miss out some parts of the sentence which would be obligatory in an English sentence now. In the following instance the subject is not repeated but the form of the predicate shows that the action is performed by the same person as the preceding action:

þa com he on morgenne to þæm tungerefan se þe his ealdorman wæs; sægde him, hwylce gife he onfeng 'then in the morning he came to the town-sheriff the one that was his alderman; (he) said to him what gift he had received'.

The formal subject was lacking in many impersonal sentences (though it was present in others): *Norþan snywde* 'it snowed in the North'; *him þuhte* 'it seemed to him', *Hit hagolade stānum* 'it hailed with stones'.

One of the conspicuous features of OE syntax was multiple negation within a single sentence or clause. The most common negative particle was *ne*, which was placed before the verb; it was often accompanied by other negative words, mostly *naht* or *noht* (which had developed from *ne plus awiht* 'no thing'). These words reinforced the meaning of negation'.

*Ne con ic noht singan... ic noht singan ne cuðe* 'I cannot sing' (lit. "cannot sing nothing"), 'I could not sing' (*noht* was later shortened to *not*, a new negative particle).

Another peculiarity of OE negation was that the particle *ne* could be attached to some verbs, pronouns and adverbs to form single words: *he ne mihtenan þing geseon* 'he could not see anything' (*nan* from *ne an* 'not one'), *hit na buton gewinne næs* 'it was never without war' (*næs* from *ne wæs* 'no was'; NE *none*, *never*, *neither* are traces of such forms).

Compound and complex sentences existed in the English language since the earliest times. Even in the oldest texts we find numerous instances of coordination and subordination and a large inventory of subordinate clauses, subject clauses, object

clauses, attributive clauses adverbial clauses. And yet many constructions, especially in early original prose, look clumsy, loosely connected, disorderly and wanting precision, which is natural in a language whose written form had only begun to grow.

Coordinate clauses were mostly joined by *and*, a conjunction of a most general meaning, which could connect statements with various semantic relations. The A-S CHRONICLES abound in successions of clauses or sentences all beginning with *and*, e.g.:

And þa ongeat se cyning, þæt ond he, on þa duru eode, and þa unbeanlice hine werede, oþ he on þone æþeling locude, and þa ut ræsde on hine, and hine miclum gewundode; and hie alle on þone cyning wæron feohtende, oþ þæt hie hine ofslægenne hæfdon, 'and then the king saw that, and he went to the door, and then bravely defended himself, until he saw that noble, and then out rushed on him, and wounded him severely, and they were all fighting against that king until they had him slain' (from the earliest part of the CHRONICLES A.D. 755).

Repetition of connectives at the head of each clause (termed "correlation") was common in complex sentences: þa he þær to gefaren wæs, þa eodon hie to hiora scipum 'then (when) he came there, then they went to their ship.'

Attributive clauses were joined to the principal clauses by means of various connectives, there being no special class of relative pronouns. The main connective was the indeclinable particle *Re* employed, either alone or together with demonstrative and personal pronouns: and him cypdon'þæt hiera maezas him mid waeron, þa pe him from noldon 'and told him that their kinsmen were with him, those that did not want (to go) from him'.

The pronouns could also be used to join the clauses without the particle *þe*: Hit gelamp gio þætte an hearpere wæs on þære ðiode þe Dracia hatte, sio wæs on Creca rice; se hearpere wæs swiðe ungefræglice god, ðæs nama wæs Orfeus; he hæfde an swiðe ænlic wif, sio wæs haten Eurydice 'It happened once that there was a harper among the people on the land that was called Thrace, that was in the kingdom of Crete; that harper was incredibly good; whose name (the name of that) was Orpheus; he had an excellent wife; that was called Eurydice'.

The pronoun and conjunction *þæt* was used to introduce object clauses and adverbial clauses, alone or with other form-words: oð ðæt 'until', ær þæm þe 'before', þæt 'so that' as in: Isaac ealdode and his eagan þystrodon, þæt he ne mihte nan þing geseon 'Then Isaac grew old and his eyes became blind so that he could not see anything'.

Some clauses are regarded as intermediate between coordinate and subordinate: they are joined *asyndetically* and their status is not clear: þa wæs sum consul, Boethius

wæs haten 'There was then a consul, Boethius was called' (perhaps attributive: '(who) was called Boethius' or co-ordinate '(he) was called Boethius').

### Morphological structure of the word in old English



Stems: -a-

- i -, - o -, - u -,

- n -, - r -, - s -

### Morphological structure of the word in Modern English



#### Answer the following questions

- 1) What can you say about the strong verbs?
- 2) How Many basic forms did the strong verb?
- 3) What can you say about weak verbs?
- 4) How many classes did the strong verb have?
- 5) How many classes did the weak verb have?
- 6) What can you say about the pretrial present verbs?
- 7) What irregular verbs?

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### 10-MAVZU

#### VOCABULARY COMPOSITION AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT DURING THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

##### Plan

1. Changes in ENE nouns and its grammatical categories
2. Pronouns in ENE and its grammatical features
3. Adjective in ENE and its grammatical categories
4. Verbs in ENE and its grammatical features
5. The features of ENE syntax

*Key words: phrase, phrase structure, compound verbs, borrowings from other indo euro pan etymological layers, word formation*

### **Evolution of the grammatical system**

In the course of ME, Early NE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the "analytical type", with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. This does not mean, however, that the grammatical changes were rapid or sudden; nor does it imply that all grammatical features were in a state of perpetual change. Like the development of other linguistic levels, the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable constituents. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

The division of words into parts of speech has proved to be one of the most permanent characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech; the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME.

Between the 10th and the 16th c., that is from Late OE to Early NE the ways of building up grammatical forms underwent considerable changes. In OE all the forms which can be included into morphological paradigms were synthetic. In ME, Early NE, grammatical forms could also be built in the analytical way, with the help of auxiliary words. The proportion of synthetic forms in the language has become very small, for in the meantime many of the old synthetic forms have been lost and no new synthetic forms have developed.

In the synthetic forms of the ME, Early NE periods, few as those forms were, the means of form-building were the same as before: inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion; only prefixation, namely the prefix *ge-*, which was commonly used

in OE to mark Participle II, went out of use in Late ME (instances of Participle II with the prefix *ge-* (from OE *ge-*) are still found in Chaucer's time. Suppletive form-building, as before, was confined to a few words, mostly surviving from OE and even earlier periods. Sound interchanges were not productive, though they did not die out: they still occurred in many verbs, some adjectives and nouns; moreover, a number of new interchanges arose in Early ME in some ups of weak verbs. Nevertheless, their application in the language, and their weight among other means was generally reduced.

Inflections - or grammatical suffixes and endings - continued to be used in all the inflected "changeable" parts of speech. It is notable, however, that as compared with the OE period they became less varied. As mentioned before the OE period of history has been described as a period of "full endings", ME - as a period of "leveled endings" and NE - as a period of "lost endings" (H. Sweet). In OE there existed a variety of distinct endings differing in consonants as well as in vowels. In ME all the vowels in the endings were reduced to the neutral [a] and many consonants were leveled under -n or dropped. The process of leveling besides phonetic weakening, implies replacement of inflections by analogy, e.g. -(e)s as a marker of pi forms of nouns displaced the endings -(e)n and -e. In the transition to NE most of the grammatical endings were dropped.

Nevertheless, these definitions of the state of inflections in the three main historical periods are not quite precise. It is known that the weakening and dropping of endings began a long time before - in Early OE and even in PG; on the other hand, some of the old grammatical endings have survived to this day.

The analytical way of form-building was a new device, which developed in Late OE and ME and came to occupy a most important place in the grammatical system. Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions). The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker, while the second component retained its lexical meaning and acquired a new grammatical value in the compound form. Cf, e. g. the meaning and function of the verb to have in OE he

hæfde þa 'he had them (the prisoners)', Hie him ofslægene hæfdon 'they had him killed' or, perhaps, 'they had killed him'. Hie hæfdon ofergan Eastengle 'they had overspread East Anglian territory'. In the first sentence have denotes possession, in the second, the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third, it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of have in the translation of the sentence into ME. The auxiliary verb have and the form of Part. II are the grammatical markers of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle. The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification. Simplifying changes began in prehistoric, PG times. They continued at a slow rate during the OE period and were intensified in Early ME. The period between c. 1000 and 1300 has been called an "age of great changes" (A. Baugh), for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost Gender and Case in adjectives. Gender in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced - cases in nouns and noun-pronouns, numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the last vestiges of the old paradigm: the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms. Already at the time of Chaucer, and certainly by the age of Caxton the English nominal system was very much like modern, not only in its general pattern but also in minor details. The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process-it cannot be described in terms of one general trend. On the one hand, the decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system, though to a lesser extent than the nominal system. The simplification and leveling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform; the OE

morphological classification of verbs was practically broken up. On the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms and distinctions came into being. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased, as did the number of forms within the categories. The verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time Correlation or Phase and Aspect. Within the category of Tense there developed a new form - the Future Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. These changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle, having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It is noteworthy that, unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verb system were not limited to a short span of two or three hundred years. They extended over a long period: from Late OE till Late NE. Even in the age of Shakespeare the verb system was in some respects different from that of ME and many changes were still underway.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax, which were associated with the transformation of English morphology but at the same time displayed their own specific tendencies and directions. The main changes at the syntactical level were: the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses. Syntactic changes are mostly observable in Late ME and in NE, in periods of literary efflorescence.

### **The noun. Decay of Noun Declensions in Early Middle English**

The OE noun had the grammatical categories of Number and Case which were formally distinguished in an elaborate system of declensions. However, homonymous forms in the OE noun paradigms neutralised some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions - as well as the influence of some types upon other types - disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.

Increased variation of the noun forms in the late 10th c. and especially in the 11th and 12th c. testifies to impending changes and to a strong tendency toward a re-arrangement and simplification of the declensions. The number of variants of grammatical forms in the 11th and 12th c. was twice as high as in the preceding centuries. Among the variant forms there were direct descendants of OE forms with phonetically weakened endings (the so-called "historical forms") and also numerous analogical forms taken over from other parts of the same paradigms and from more influential morphological classes. The new variants of grammatical forms obliterated the distinction between the forms within the paradigms and the differences between the declensions, e.g.. Early ME *fisshes* and *bootes*, direct descendants of the OE Nom. and Acc. pl of Masc. a-stems *fiscas*, *batas* were used, as before, in the position of these cases and could also be used as variant forms of other cases Gen. and Dat. pl alongside the historical forms *fisshe*, *hoofs*. (OE Gen. pl. *fisca*, *bāta*) and *fischen*, *booten* or *fisshe*, *boots* (OE Dat. pl *fiscum*, *batum*); (NE fish, boat). As long as all these variants co-existed, it was possible to mark a form more precisely by using a variant with a fuller ending, but when some of the variants went out of use and the non-distinctive, levelled variants prevailed, many forms fell together. Thus after passing through the "variation stage" many formal oppositions were lost. The most numerous OE morphological classes of nouns were a-stems, o-stems and n-stems. Even in Late OE the endings used in these types were added by analogy to other kinds of nouns, especially if they belonged to the same gender. That is how the noun declensions tended to be re-arranged on the basis of gender.

The decline of the OE declension system lasted over three hundred years and revealed considerable dialectal differences. It started in the North of England and gradually spread southwards. The decay of inflectional endings in the Northern dialects began as early as the 10th c. and was virtually completed in the 11th; in the Midlands the process extended over the 12th c., while in the Southern dialects it lasted till the end of the 13th (in the dialect of Kent, the old inflectional forms were partly preserved even in the 14th c.).

The dialects differed not only in the chronology but also in the nature of changes. The Southern dialects rearranged and simplified the noun declensions on the basis of stem and gender distinctions. In Early ME they employed only four markers -es, -en, -e, and the root-vowel interchange plus the bare stem (the "zero"-inflection) but distinguished, with the help of these devices, several paradigms. Masc. and Neut. nouns had two declensions, weak and strong, with certain differences between the genders in the latter: Masc. nouns took the ending -es in the Nom., Acc. pl, while Neut. nouns had variant forms: Masc. fishes Neut. land/lande/landes. Most Fem. nouns belonged to the weak declension and were declined like weak Masc. and Neut. nouns. The root-stem declension, as before, had mutated vowels in some forms' and many variant forms which showed that the vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

In the Midland and Northern dialects the system of declension was much simpler. In fact, there was only one major type of declension and a few traces of other types. The majority of nouns took the endings of OE Masc. a-stems: -(e)s in the Gen. sg (from OE -es), -(e)s in the pl irrespective of case (from OE -as: Nom. and Acc. sg, which had extended to other cases).

A small group of nouns, former root-stems, employed a root-vowel interchange to distinguish the forms of number. Survivals of other OE declensions were rare and should be treated rather as exceptions than as separate paradigms. Thus several former Neut. a-stems descending from long-stemmed nouns could build their plurals with or without the ending -(e)s; sg hors — pl hors or horses, some nouns retained weak forms with the ending -en alongside new forms in -es; some former Fem. nouns and some names of relations occur in the Gen. case without -(e)s like OE Fem. nouns, e. g. my fader soule, 'my father's soul'; In hope to standen in his lady grace 'In the hope of standing in his lady's grace' (Chaucer) though the latter can be regarded as a set phrase.

In Late ME, when the Southern traits were replaced by Central and Northern traits in the dialect of London, this pattern of noun declensions prevailed in literary English. The declension of nouns in the age of Chaucer, in its main features, was the

same as in ME. The simplification of noun morphology was on the whole completed. Most nouns distinguished two forms: the basic form (with the "zero" ending) and the form in -(e)s. The nouns originally descending from other types of declensions for the most part had joined this major type, which had developed from Masc. a-stems.

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree. The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems.

In the 11th and 12th c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore: the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

In Chaucer's time gender is a lexical category, like in ME: nouns are referred to as "he" and "she" if they denote human beings, e. g. *She wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous. Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde* (Chaucer) "She" points here to a woman while "it" replaces the noun *mous*, which in OE was Fem. ('She would weep, if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it was dead or it bled.') (Sh.)

The grammatical category of Case was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME. The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME. The syncretism of cases was a slow process which went on step by step. As shown above even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Ace. were not distinguished in the pi, and in some classes they coincided also in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers.

In the strong declension the Dat. was sometimes marked by -e in the Southern dialects, though not in the North or in the Midlands; the form without the ending

soon prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases, Nom., Acc. and Dat. fell together. Henceforth they can be called the Common case, as in present-day English.

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the pl. In the 14th c. the ending -es of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions nouns which were preferably used in the uninflected form (names of relationships terminating in -r, some proper names, and some nouns in stereotyped phrases). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker it was not distinguished from the Comm. case as the ending -(e)s through analogy, had extended to the Gen. either from the Comm. case pi or, perhaps, from the Gen. sg. This ending was generalised in the Northern dialects and in the Midlands (a survival of the OE Gen. pl form in -ena, ME -en(e), was used in Early ME only in the Southern districts). The formal distinction between cases in the pi was lost, except in the nouns which did not take -(e)s in the pl. Several nouns with a weak plural form in -en or with a vowel interchange, such as oxen and men, added the marker of the Gen. case -es to these forms: oxenes, mennes. In the 17th and 18th c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe e. g. man's, children's: this device could be employed only in writing; in oral speech the forms remained homonymous.

The reduction in the number of cases was linked up with a change in the meanings and functions of the surviving forms. The Comm. case, which resulted from the fusion of three OE cases assumed all the functions of the former Nom., Acc., Dat. and also some functions of the Gen. The ME Comm. case had a very general meaning, which was made more specific by the context: prepositions, the meaning of the verb-predicate, the word order. With the help of these means it could express various meanings formerly belonging to different cases. The following passages taken from three translations of the Bible give a general idea of the transition; they show how the OE Gen. Dat. cases were replaced in ME, Early NE by prepositional phrases with the noun in the Comm. case. OE translation of the Gospels (10th c.) Eadige synd þa gastlican þearfan, forþam hyra ys heofena rice. (Gen.) Wyclifs translation (late 14th c. Blessed be the pore in spirit, for the kingdom

in heuenes is heren. King James' Bible (17th c. Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.

The replacement of the Dat. by prepositional phrases had been well prepared by its wide use in OE as a case commonly governed by prepositions.

The main function of the Ace, case to present the direct object was fulfilled in ME by the Comm. case; the noun was placed next to the verb, or else its relations with the predicate were apparent from the meaning of the transitive verb and the noun, e. g. He knew the tavernes well in every town. For catel hadde they ynogh and rente (Chaucer) ('He knew well the taverns in every town for they had enough wealth and income'.)

The history of the Gen. case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the Gen. case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition of. The practice to express genitival relations by the of-phrase goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in Ælfric's writings (10th c). but its regular use instead of the inflectional Gen. does not become established until the 12th c. The use of the of-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the of-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones. Usage varies, as can be seen from the following examples from Chaucer: Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre ('He was very worthy in his lord's campaigns')

He had maad ful many a mariage of yonge wommen ('He made many marriages of young women') And specially, from every shires ende, Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende.

('And especially from the end of every shire of England they went to Canterbury')

Various theories have been advanced to account for the restricted use of the Gen. case, particularly for the preference of the inflectional Gen. with "personal" nouns. It has been suggested that the tendency to use the inflectional Gen. with

names of persons is a continuation of an old tradition pertaining to word order. It has been noticed that the original distinction between the use of the Gen. with different kind of nouns was not in form but in position. The Gen. of "personal" nouns was placed before the governing noun, while the Gen. of other nouns was placed after it. The post-positive Gen. was later replaced by the of-phrase with the result that the of-phrase came to be preferred with inanimate nouns and the inflectional Gen. with personal (animate) ones. Another theory attributes the wider use of the inflectional Gen. with animate nouns to the influence of a specific possessive construction containing a possessive pronoun: the painter's name, where 's is regarded as a shortened form of his "the painter his name". It is assumed that the frequent use of these phrases may have reinforced the inflectional Gen., which could take the ending -is, -ys alongside -es and thus resembled the phrase with the pronoun his, in which the initial [h] could be dropped.

It may be added that the semantic differentiation between the prepositional phrase and the s'-Gen. became more precise in the New period, each acquiring its own set of meanings, with only a few overlapping spheres. (It has been noticed, that in present-day English the frequency of the 's-Gen. is growing again at the expense of the of-phrase.)

The other grammatical category of the noun. Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number. The pl forms in ME show obvious traces of numerous OE noun declensions. Some of these traces have survived in later periods. In Late ME the ending -es was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl.

In Early NE it extended to, more nouns to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed -es as one of the variant endings. The pi ending -es (as well as the

ending -es of the Gen. case) underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables. The following examples show the development of the ME pl inflection -es in Early NE under different phonetic conditions.

The ME pl ending -en, used as a variant marker with some nouns (and as the main marker in the weak declension in the Southern dialects) lost its former productivity, so that in Standard ME it is found only in oxen, brethern, and children. (The two latter words originally did not belong to the weak declension: OE broðor, a-stem, built its plural by means of a root-vowel interchange; OE cild, took the ending -ru: cild—cildru; -en was added to the old forms of the pl in ME; both words have two markers of the pl.). The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME deer, hors, thing,) has been further reduced to three "exceptions" in ME: deer, sheep and swine. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: man, tooth and the like. Not all irregular forms in ME are traces of OE declensions; forms like data, nuclei, antennae have come from other languages together with the borrowed words.

It follows that the majority of English nouns have preserved and even reinforced the formal distinction of Number in the Comm. case. Meanwhile they have practically lost these distinctions in the Gen. case, for Gen. has a distinct form in the pi. only with nouns whose pl ending is not -es.

Despite the regular neutralisation of number distinctions in the Gen. case we can say that differentiation of Number in nouns has become more explicit and more precise. The functional load and the frequency of occurrence of the Comm. case are certainly much higher than those of the Gen.; therefore the regular formal distinction of Number in the Comm. case is more important than its neutralisation in the Gen. case.

### **The pronoun. Personal and Possessive Pronouns**

Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their evolution would repeat the evolution of nouns—in reality it was in many respects different. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns

and pronouns was not alike. It differed in the rate and extent of changes, in the dates and geographical directions, though the morphology of pronouns, like the morphology of nouns, was simplified.

In Early ME the OE Fern. pronoun of the 3rd p. sg heo (related to all the other pronouns of the 3rd p. he, hit, hie) was replaced by a group of variants he, ho, see, sho, she: one of them she finally prevailed over the others. The new Fern. pronoun. Late ME she, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of the Fern. gender seo (OE se, seo, ðæt, NE that). It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas.

The replacement of OE heo by ME she is a good illustration of the mechanism of linguistic change and of the interaction of intra- and extra linguistic factors. Increased dialectal divergence in Early ME supplied 'the "raw material" for the change in the shape of co-existing variants or parallels. Out of these variants the language preserved the unambiguous form she, probably to avoid an homonymy clash, since the descendant of OE heo ME he coincided with the Masc. pronoun he. The need to discriminate between the two pronouns was an internal factor which determined the selection. The choice could also be favored by external historical conditions, for in later ME many Northern and East Midland features were incorporated in the London dialect, which became the basis of literary English. It should be noted, however, that the replacement was not complete, as the other forms of OE heo were preserved: hire/her, used in ME as the Obj. case and as a Poss. pronoun is a form of OE heo but not of its new substitute she; hers was derived from the form hire/her.

About the same time in the course of ME another important lexical replacement took place: the OE pronoun of the 3rd p. pl hie was replaced by the Scand. loan-word they [ðei]. Like the pronoun she, it came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. This time the replacement was more complete: they ousted the Nom. case, OE hie, while them and their (coming from the same Scand. loan) replaced the oblique case forms: OE hem and heora. The two sets of forms coming from they and hie occur side by side in Late ME texts, e. g.: That hem

hath holpen, whan that they were seeke. ('Who has helped them when they were sick.')

It is noteworthy that these two replacements broke up the genetic ties between the pronouns of the 3rd p.: in OE they were all obvious derivatives of one pronominal root with the initial [h]: he, heo, hit, hie. The Late ME (as well as the NE) pronouns of the 3rd p. are separate words with no genetic ties whatever: he, she, it, they (it is a direct descendant of OE hit with [h] lost).

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the pi forms of the 2nd p. ye, you, your were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of thou, thee, thine. Later thou became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays thou is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of you and thou in Shakespeare's sonnets. But if thou live, remember'd not to be. Die single, and thine image dies with thee. Or I shall live your epitaph to make. Or you survive when I in earth am rotten.

ME texts contain instances where the use of articles and other noun determiners does not correspond to modern rules, e. g. For hym was levere have at his beddes heed twenty bookes clad in blak or reed... / Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrie. 'For he would rather have at the head of his bed twenty books bound in black or red than rich robes, or a fiddle, or a gay psaltery' (a musical instrument); Yet hadde he but litel gold in cofre 'yet he had but little gold in the coffer (or: in his coffer)'.

It is believed that the growth of articles in Early ME was caused, or favored, by several internal linguistic factors. The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. These forms were commonly used together with the demonstrative pronouns se, seo, ðæt. In contrast to weak forms, the strong forms of adjectives conveyed the meaning of "indefiniteness" which was later transferred to an, a

numeral and indefinite pronoun. In case the nouns were used without adjectives or the weak and strong forms coincided, the form-words *an* and *ðæt* turned out to be the only means of expressing these meanings. The decay of adjective declensions speeded up their transition into articles. Another factor which may account for the more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word order for communicative purposes, e. g. to present a new thing or to refer to a familiar thing already known to the listener. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function, it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence, e. g. the subject or the objects, had their own fixed places. The communicative functions passed to the articles and their use became more regular. The growth of the articles is thus connected both with the changes in syntax and in morphology.

### **The adjective. Decay of Declensions and Grammatical Categories**

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the-degrees of comparison. In OE the adjective was declined to show the gender, case and number of the noun it modified; it had a five-case paradigm and two types of declension, weak and strong.

By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early ME it was practically lost. Though the grammatical categories of the adjective reflected those of the noun, most of them disappeared even before the noun lost the respective distinctions. The geographical direction of the changes was generally the same as in the noun declensions. The process began in the North and North-East Midlands and spread south. The poem *Ormulum*, written in 1200 in the North-East Midland dialect reveals roughly the same state of adjective morphology as the poems of G. Chaucer and J. Gower written in the London dialect almost two hundred years later.

The decay of the grammatical categories of the adjective proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be

distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. The number of cases shown in the adjective paradigm was reduced: the Instr. case had fused with the Dat. by the end of OE; distinction of other cases in Early ME was unsteady, as many variant forms of different cases, which arose in Early ME, coincided. Cf. some variant endings of the Dat. case sg in the late 11th c.: *mid miclum here*, *mid miclan here*, 'with a big army' *mid eallora his here* 'with all his army'.

In the 13th c. case could be shown only by some variable adjective endings in the strong declension (but not by the weak forms); towards the end of the century all case distinctions were lost. The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. The use of a strong form after a demonstrative pronoun was not uncommon, though according to the existing rules, this position belonged to the weak form, e. g.: *in þere wildere sæ* 'in that wild sea' instead of *wilden see*. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg. with the help of the ending *-e*.

The general tendency towards an uninflected form affected also the distinction of Number, though Number was certainly the most stable nominal category in all the periods. In the 14th c. pl forms were sometimes contrasted to the sg forms with the help of the ending *-e* in the strong declension. Probably this marker was regarded as insufficient; for in the 13th and particularly 14th c. there appeared a new pl ending *-s*. The use of *-s* is attributed either to the influence of French adjectives, which take *-s* in the pi or to the influence of the ending *-s* of nouns, e. g.:

*In other places delitables.* ('In other delightful places.')

In the age of Chaucer the paradigm of the adjective consisted of four forms distinguished by a single vocalic ending *-e*.

This paradigm can be postulated only for monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant, such as ME *bad*, *good*. long. Adjectives ending in vowels and polysyllabic adjectives took no endings and could not show the difference between sg and pl forms or strong and weak forms: ME *able*, *swete*, *bisy*, *thredbare* and the like were uninflected. Nevertheless certain distinctions between weak and strong forms, and also between sg and pl are found in the works of careful 14th c. writers

like Chaucer and Gower. Weak forms are often used attributively after the possessive and demonstrative pronouns and after the definite article. Thus Chaucer has: *this like worthy knight* 'this same worthy knight'; *my deere herte* 'my dear heart', which are weak forms, the strong forms in the sg having no ending. But the following examples show that strong and weak forms could be used indiscriminately: *A trewe swynkere and a good was he* ('A true labourer and a good (one) was he.') Similarly, the pl. and sg forms were often confused in the strong declension, e. g.: *A sheet of pecok-arves, bright and kene. Under his belt he bar ful thriftily* ('A sheaf of peacock-arrows, bright and keen. Under his belt he carried very thriftily.')

The distinctions between the sg and pl forms, and the weak and strong forms, could not be preserved for long, as they were not shown by all the adjectives; besides, the reduced ending -e [a] was very unstable even in 14th c. English. In Chaucer's poems, for instance, it is always missed out in accordance with the requirements of the rhythm. The loss of final -e in the transition to NE made the adjective an entirely uninflected part of speech.

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. However, the means employed to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison have considerably altered.

In OE the forms of the comparative and the superlative degree, like all the grammatical forms, were synthetic:

they were built by adding the suffixes -ra and -est/-ost, to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way, only the suffixes had been weakened to -er, -est and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common than before. Since most adjectives with the sound alternation had parallel forms without it, the forms with an interchange soon fell into disuse. ME *long, lenger, longer* and *long, longer, longest*.

The alternation of root-vowels in Early NE survived in the adjectival *old, elder, eldest*, where the difference in meaning from *older, oldest* made the formal

distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternations are found in the pairs farther and further and also in the modern words nigh, near and next, which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the OE adjective *neah* 'near', but have split into separate words.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison. The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs *ma*, *bet*, *betst*, *swiþor* 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with *ME* *more* and *most* became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words. Thus Chaucer has *more swete*, *better worthy*, Gower *more hard* for 'sweeter', 'worthier' and 'harder'. The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used in free variation until the 17th and 18th c., when the modern standard usage was established.

Another curious peculiarity observed in Early NE texts is the use of the so-called "double comparatives" and "double superlatives": *By thenne Syr Trystram waxed more fressher than Syr Marhaus*. ('By that time Sir Tristram grew more angry than Sir Marhaus'.)

Shakespeare uses the form *worser* which is a double comparative: A "double superlative" is seen in: *This was the most unkindest cut of all*. The wide range of variation acceptable in Shakespeare's day was condemned in the "Age of Correctness" the 18th c. Double comparatives were banned as illogical and incorrect by the prescriptive grammars of the normalising period.

It appears that in the course of history the adjective has lost all the dependent grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically adjectival category the comparison. The adjective is the only nominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building.

### **Self control questions**

1) What can you say about the word order in ENE?

- 2) What can you say about the vocabulary of ENE?
- 3) What can you say about the etymological layers of ENE vocabulary?
- 4) What types of word formation were there in ENE?

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## **11-MAVZU**

### **PRODUCTIVE AND LESS PRODUCTIVE AFFIXES. COMPOUND WORDS.**

#### **Plan**

1. Changes in the nouns in territorial varieties of the English language;
2. Changes in the pronouns in territorial varieties of the English language;
3. Changes in the adjective in territorial varieties of the English language;

**Key words:** *variants of the English language, varieties of the English language, Types of English pronunciation, system and norm in the English language, English as a global language.*

In the course of Early NE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the "analytical type", with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. This does not mean, however, that the grammatical changes were rapid or sudden; nor does it imply that all grammatical features were in a state of perpetual change. Like the development of other linguistic levels, the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and

changeable constituents. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

The division of words into parts of speech has proved to be one of the most permanent characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech; the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME.

Between the 10th and the 16th c., that is from Late OE to Early NE the ways of building up grammatical forms underwent considerable changes. In OE all the forms which can be included into morphological paradigms were synthetic. In ME, Early NE, grammatical forms could also be built in the analytical way, with the help of auxiliary words. The proportion of synthetic forms in the language has become very small, for in the meantime many of the old synthetic forms have been lost and no new synthetic forms have developed.

In the synthetic forms of the ME, Early NE periods, few as those forms were, the means of form-building were the same as before: inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion; only prefixation, namely the prefix *ge-*, which was commonly used in OE to mark Participle II, went out of use in Late ME (instances of Participle II with the prefix *ge-* (from OE *ge-*) are still found in Chaucer's time. Suppletive form-building, as before, was confined to a few words, mostly surviving from OE and even earlier periods. Sound interchanges were not productive, though they did not die out: they still occurred in many verbs, some adjectives and nouns; moreover, a number of new interchanges arose in Early ME in some ups of weak verbs. Nevertheless, their application in the language, and their weight among other means was generally reduced.

Inflections - or grammatical suffixes and endings - continued to be used in all the inflected "changeable" parts of speech. It is notable, however, that as compared with the OE period they became less varied. As mentioned before the OE period of history has been described as a period of "full endings", ME - as a period

of "leveled endings" and NE - as a period of "lost endings" (H. Sweet). In OE there existed a variety of distinct endings differing in consonants as well as in vowels. In ME all the vowels in the endings were reduced to the neutral [a] and many consonants were leveled under -n or dropped. The process of leveling besides phonetic weakening, implies replacement of inflections by analogy, e.g. -(e)s as a marker of pi forms of nouns displaced the endings -(e)n and -e. In the transition to NE most of the grammatical endings were dropped.

Nevertheless, these definitions of the state of inflections in the three main historical periods are not quite precise. It is known that the weakening and dropping of endings began a long time before - in Early OE and even in PG; on the other hand, some of the old grammatical endings have survived to this day.

The analytical way of form-building was a new device, which developed in Late OE and ME and came to occupy a most important place in the grammatical system. Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions). The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker, while the second component retained its lexical meaning and acquired a new grammatical value in the compound form. Cf, e. g. the meaning and function of the verb to have in OE *he hæfde þa* 'he had them (the prisoners)', *Hie him ofslægene hæfdon* 'they had him killed' or, perhaps, 'they had killed him'. *Hie hæfdon ofergan Eastengle* 'they had overspread East Anglian territory'. In the first sentence have denotes possession, in the second, the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third, it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of have in the translation of the sentence into ME. The auxiliary verb have and the form of Part. II are the grammatical markers of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle. The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification, Simplifying changes began in prehistoric, PG times. They continued at a slow rate during the OE period and were intensified in Early ME. The period between c. 1000 and 1300 has been called an "age of great changes" (A.Baugh), for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost Gender and Case in adjectives. Gender in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced - cases in nouns and noun-pronouns, numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the last vestiges of the old paradigm: the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms. Already at the time of Chaucer, and certainly by the age of Caxton the English nominal system was very much like modern, not only in its general pattern but also in minor details. The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process-it cannot be described in terms of one general trend. On the one hand, the decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system, though to a lesser extent than the nominal system. The simplification and leveling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform; the OE morphological classification of verbs was practically broken up. On the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms and distinctions came into being. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased, as did the number of forms within the categories. The verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time Correlation or Phase and Aspect. Within the category of Tense there developed a new form - the Future Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. These changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle, having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It is noteworthy that, unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verb system were not limited to a short span of two or three hundred years. They extended over a long period: from Late OE till Late NE. Even in the age of

Shakespeare the verb system was in some respects different from that of ME and many changes were still underway.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax, which were associated with the transformation of English morphology but at the same time displayed their own specific tendencies and directions. The main changes at the syntactical level were: the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses. Syntactic changes are mostly observable in Late ME and in NE, in periods of literary efflorescence.

The OE noun had the grammatical categories of Number and Case which were formally distinguished in an elaborate system of declensions. However, homonymous forms in the OE noun paradigms neutralised some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions - as well as the influence of some types upon other types - disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.

Increased variation of the noun forms in the late 10th c. and especially in the 11th and 12th c. testifies to impending changes and to a strong tendency toward a re-arrangement and simplification of the declensions. The number of variants of grammatical forms in the 11th and 12th c. was twice as high as in the preceding centuries. Among the variant forms there were direct descendants of OE forms with phonetically weakened endings (the so-called "historical forms") and also numerous analogical forms taken over from other parts of the same paradigms and from more influential morphological classes. The new variants of grammatical forms obliterated the distinction between the forms within the paradigms and the differences between the declensions, e.g.. Early ME *fisshes* and *bootes*, direct descendants of the OE Nom. and Acc. pl of Masc. a-stems *fiscas*, *batas* were used, as before, in the position of these cases and could also be used as variant forms of other cases Gen. and Dat. pi alongside the historical forms *fisshes*, *hoofs*. (OE Gen. pl. *fisca*, *bāta*) and *fischen*, *booten* or *fisshes*, *boots* (OE Dat. pl *fiscum*, *batum*); (NE

fish, boat). As long as all these variants co-existed, it was possible to mark a form more precisely by using a variant with a fuller ending, but when some of the variants went out of use and the non-distinctive, levelled variants prevailed, many forms fell together. Thus after passing through the "variation stage" many formal oppositions were lost. The most numerous OE morphological classes of nouns were a-stems, o-stems and n-stems. Even in Late OE the endings used in these types were added by analogy to other kinds of nouns, especially if they belonged to the same gender. That is how the noun declensions tended to be re-arranged on the basis of gender.

The decline of the OE declension system lasted over three hundred years and revealed considerable dialectal differences. It started in the North of England and gradually spread southwards. The decay of inflectional endings in the Northern dialects began as early as the 10th c. and was virtually completed in the 11th; in the Midlands the process extended over the 12th c., while in the Southern dialects it lasted till the end of the 13th (in the dialect of Kent, the old inflectional forms were partly preserved even in the 14th c.).

The dialects differed not only in the chronology but also in the nature of changes. The Southern dialects rearranged and simplified the noun declensions on the basis of stem and gender distinctions. In Early ME they employed only four markers -es, -en, -e, and the root-vowel interchange plus the bare stem (the "zero"-inflection) but distinguished, with the help of these devices, several paradigms. Masc. and Neut. nouns had two declensions, weak and strong, with certain differences between the genders in the latter: Masc. nouns took the ending -es in the Nom., Acc. pl, while Neut. nouns had variant forms: Masc. fishes Neut. land/lande/landes. Most Fem. nouns belonged to the weak declension and were declined like weak Masc. and Neut. nouns. The root-stem declension, as before, had mutated vowels in some forms' and many variant forms which showed that the vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

In the Midland and Northern dialects the system of declension was much simpler. In fact, there was only one major type of declension and a few traces of other types. The majority of nouns took the endings of OE Masc. a-stems: -(e)s in the Gen. sg

(from OE -es), -(e)s in the pi irrespective of case (from OE -as: Nom. and Acc. sg, which had extended to other cases).

A small group of nouns, former root-stems, employed a root-vowel interchange to distinguish the forms of number. Survivals of other OE declensions were rare and should be treated rather as exceptions than as separate paradigms. Thus several former Neut. a-stems descending from long-stemmed nouns could build their plurals with or without the ending -(e)s; sg hors — pl hors or horses, some nouns retained weak forms with the ending -en alongside new forms in -es; some former Fem. nouns and some names of relations occur in the Gen. case without -(e)s like OE Fem. nouns, e. g. my fader soule, 'my father's soul'; In hope to standen in his lady grace 'In the hope of standing in his lady's grace' (Chaucer) though the latter can be regarded as a set phrase.

## 12-MAVZU

### THE PERIOD OF MIDDLE ENGLISH HISTORY

#### Plan

1. Changes in the verbs in territorial varieties of the English language;
2. Changes in the system of syntax in territorial varieties of the English language.

**Key words:** *variants of the English language, varieties of the English language, Types of English pronunciation, system and norm in the English language, English as a global language.*

In Late ME, when the Southern traits were replaced by Central and Northern traits in the dialect of London, this pattern of noun declensions prevailed in literary English. The declension of nouns in the age of Chaucer, in its main features, was the same as in ME. The simplification of noun morphology was on the whole completed. Most nouns distinguished two forms: the basic form (with the "zero" ending) and the form in -(e)s. The nouns originally descending from other types of declensions for the most part had joined this major type, which had developed from Masc. a-stems.

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree. The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems.

In the 18th and 19th c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore: the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

In Chaucer's time gender is a lexical category, like in ME: nouns are referred to as "he" and "she" if they denote human beings, e. g. *She wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous. Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde* (Chaucer) "She" points here to a woman while "it" replaces the noun *mous*, which in OE was Fem. ('She would weep, if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it was dead or it bled.') (Sh.)

The grammatical category of Case was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME. The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME. The syncretism of cases was a slow process which went on step by step. As shown above even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Acc. were not distinguished in the pi, and in some classes they coincided also in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers.

In the strong declension the Dat. was sometimes marked by -e in the Southern dialects, though not in the North or in the Midlands; the form without the ending soon prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases, Nom., Acc. and Dat. fell together. Henceforth they can be called the Common case, as in present-day English.

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the pi. In the 14th c. the ending -es of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions nouns

which were preferably used in the uninflected form (names of relationships terminating in -r, some proper names, and some nouns in stereotyped phrases). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker it was not distinguished from the Comm. case as the ending -(e)s through analogy, had extended to the Gen. either from the Comm. case pi or, perhaps, from the Gen. sg. This ending was generalised in the Northern dialects and in the Midlands (a survival of the OE Gen. pl form in -ena, ME -en(e), was used in Early ME only in the Southern districts). The formal distinction between cases in the pi was lost, except in the nouns which did not take -(e)s in the pl. Several nouns with a weak plural form in -en or with a vowel interchange, such as oxen and men, added the marker of the Gen. case -es to these forms: oxenes, mennes. In the 17th and 18th c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe e. g. man's, children's: this device could be employed only in writing; in oral speech the forms remained homonymous.

The reduction in the number of cases was linked up with a change in the meanings and functions of the surviving forms. The Comm. case, which resulted from the fusion of three OE cases assumed all the functions of the former Nom., Acc., Dat. and also some functions of the Gen. The ME Comm. case had a very general meaning, which was made more specific by the context: prepositions, the meaning of the verb-predicate, the word order. With the help of these means it could express various meanings formerly belonging to different cases. The following passages taken from three translations of the Bible give a general idea of the transition; they show how the OE Gen. Dat. cases were replaced in ME, Early NE by prepositional phrases with the noun in the Comm. case. OE translation of the Gospels (10th c.) Eadige synd þa gastlican þearfan, forþam hyra ys heofena rice. (Gen.) Wyclifs translation (late 14th c. Blessed be the pore in spirit, for the kingdom in heuenes is heren. King James' Bible (17th c. Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.

The replacement of the Dat. by prepositional phrases had been well prepared by its wide use in OE as a case commonly governed by prepositions.

The main function of the Acc. case to present the direct object was fulfilled in ME by the Comm. case; the noun was placed next to the verb, or else its relations with the predicate were apparent from the meaning of the transitive verb and the noun, e. g. He knew the tavernes well in every town. For catel hadde they ynogh and rente (Chaucer) ('He knew well the taverns in every town for they had enough wealth and income'.)

The history of the Gen. case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the Gen. case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition *of*. The practice to express genitival relations by the *of*-phrase goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in Ælfric's writings (10th c). but its regular use instead of the inflectional Gen. does not become established until the 12th c. The use of the *of*-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the *of*-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones. Usage varies, as can be seen from the following examples from Chaucer: Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre ('He was very worthy in his lord's campaigns')

He had maad ful many a mariage of yonge wommen ('He made many marriages of young women') And specially, from every shires ende, Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende.

('And especially from the end of every shire of England they went to Canterbury')

Various theories have been advanced to account for the restricted use of the Gen. case, particularly for the preference of the inflectional Gen. with "personal" nouns. It has been suggested that the tendency to use the inflectional Gen. with names of persons is a continuation of an old tradition pertaining to word order. It has been noticed that the original distinction between the use of the Gen. with different kind of nouns was not in form but in position. The Gen. of "personal" nouns was placed before the governing noun, while the Gen. of other nouns was placed after it.

The post-positive Gen. was later replaced by the of-phrase with the result that the of-phrase came to be preferred with inanimate nouns and the inflectional Gen. with personal (animate) ones. Another theory attributes the wider use of the inflectional Gen. with animate nouns to the influence of a specific possessive construction containing a possessive pronoun: the painter's name, where 's is regarded as a shortened form of his "the painter his name". It is assumed that the frequent use of these phrases may have reinforced the inflectional Gen., which could take the ending -is, -ys alongside -es and thus resembled the phrase with the pronoun his, in which the initial [h] could be dropped.

It may be added that the semantic differentiation between the prepositional phrase and the s'-Gen. became more precise in the New period, each acquiring its own set of meanings, with only a few overlapping spheres. (It has been noticed, that in present-day English the frequency of the 's-Gen. is growing again at the expense of the of-phrase.)

The other grammatical category of the noun. Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number. The pl forms in ME show obvious traces of numerous OE noun declensions. Some of these traces have survived in later periods. In Late ME the ending -es was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl.

In Early NE it extended to, more nouns to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed -es as one of the variant endings. The pi ending -es (as well as the ending -es of the Gen. case) underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables. The following examples show the development of the ME pl inflection -es in Early NE under different phonetic conditions.

The ME pl ending -en, used as a variant marker with some nouns (and as the main marker in the weak declension in the Southern dialects) lost its former productivity, so that in Standard ME it is found only in oxen, brethern, and children. (The two latter words originally did not belong to the weak declension: OE broðor, a-stem, built its plural by means of a root-vowel interchange; OE cild, took the ending -ru: cild—cildru; -en was added to the old forms of the pl in ME; both words have two markers of the pl.). The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME deer, hors, thing,) has been further reduced to three "exceptions" in ME: deer, sheep and swine. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: man, tooth and the like. Not all irregular forms in ME are traces of OE declensions; forms like data, nuclei, antennae have come from other languages together with the borrowed words.

It follows that the majority of English nouns have preserved and even reinforced the formal distinction of Number in the Comm. case. Meanwhile they have practically lost these distinctions in the Gen. case, for Gen. has a distinct form in the pi. only with nouns whose pl ending is not -es.

Despite the regular neutralisation of number distinctions in the Gen. case we can say that differentiation of Number in nouns has become More explicit and more precise. The functional load and the frequency of occurrence of the Comm. case are certainly much higher than those of the Gen.; therefore the regular formal distinction of Number in the Comm. case is more important than its neutralisation in the Gen. case.

Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their evolution would repeat the evolution of nouns—in reality it was in many respects different. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns and pronouns was not alike. It differed in the rate and extent of changes, in the dates and geographical directions, though the morphology of pronouns, like the morphology of nouns, was simplified.

In Early ME the OE Fern. pronoun of the 3rd p. sg heo (related to all the other pronouns of the 3rd p. he, hit, hie) was replaced by a group of variants he, ho,

see, sho, she: one of them she finally prevailed over the others. The new Fern. pronoun. Late ME she, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of the Fern. gender seo (OE se, seo, ðæt, NE that). It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas.

The replacement of OE heo by ME she is a good illustration of the mechanism of linguistic change and of the interaction of intra- and extra linguistic factors. Increased dialectal divergence in Early ME supplied 'the "raw material" for the change in the shape of co-existing variants or parallels. Out of these variants the language preserved the unambiguous form she, probably to avoid an homonymy clash, since the descendant of OE heo ME he coincided with the Masc. pronoun he. The need to discriminate between the two pronouns was an internal factor which determined the selection. The choice could also be favored by external historical conditions, for in later ME many Northern and East Midland features were incorporated in the London dialect, which became the basis of literary English. It should be noted, however, that the replacement was not complete, as the other forms of OE heo were preserved: hire/her, used in ME as the Obj. case and as a Poss. pronoun is a form of OE heo but not of its new substitute she; hers was derived from the form hire/her.

About the same time in the course of ME another important lexical replacement took place: the OE pronoun of the 3rd p. pl hie was replaced by the Scand. loan-word they [ðei]. Like the pronoun she, it came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. This time the replacement was more complete: they ousted the Nom. case, OE hie, while them and their (coming from the same Scand. loan) replaced the oblique case forms: OE hem and heora. The two sets of forms coming from they and hie occur side by side in Late ME texts, e. g.: That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke. ('Who has helped them when they were sick.') It is noteworthy that these two replacements broke up the genetic ties between the pronouns of the 3rd p.: in OE they were all obvious derivatives of one pronominal root with the initial [h]: he, heo, hit, hie. The Late ME (as well as the NE) pronouns

of the 3rd p. are separate words with no genetic ties whatever: he, she, it, they (it is a direct descendant of OE hit with [h] lost).

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the pi forms of the 2nd p. ye, you, your were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of thou, thee, thine. Later thou became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays thou is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of you and thou in Shakespeare's sonnets. But if thou live, remember'd not to be. Die single, and thine image dies with thee. Or I shall live your epitaph to make. Or you survive when I in earth am rotten.

ME texts contain instances where the use of articles and other noun determiners does not correspond to modern rules, e. g. For hym was levere have at his beddes heed twenty bookes clad in blak or reed... / Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrie. 'For he would rather have at the head of his bed twenty books bound in black or red than rich robes, or a fiddle, or a gay psaltery' (a musical instrument); Yet hadde he but litel gold in cofre 'yet he had but little gold in the coffer (or: in his coffer)'.  
'

It is believed that the growth of articles in Early ME was caused, or favored, by several internal linguistic factors. The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. These forms were commonly used together with the demonstrative pronouns se, seo, ðæt. In contrast to weak forms, the strong forms of adjectives conveyed the meaning of "indefiniteness" which was later transferred to an, a numeral and indefinite pronoun. In case the nouns were used without adjectives or the weak and strong forms coincided, the form-words an and ðæt turned out to be the only means of expressing these meanings. The decay of adjective declensions speeded up their transition into articles. Another factor which may account for the

more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word order for communicative purposes, e. g. to present a new thing or to refer to a familiar thing already known to the listener. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function, it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence, e. g. the subject or the objects, had their own fixed places. The communicative functions passed to the articles and their use became more regular. The growth of the articles is thus connected both with the changes in syntax and in morphology.

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the-degrees of comparison. In OE the adjective was declined to show the gender, case and number of the noun it modified; it had a five-case paradigm and two types of declension, weak and strong.

By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early ME it was practically lost. Though the grammatical categories of the adjective reflected those of the noun, most of them disappeared even before the noun lost the respective distinctions. The geographical direction of the changes was generally the same as in the noun declensions. The process began in the North and North-East Midlands and spread south. The poem *Ormulum*, written in 1200 in the North-East Midland dialect reveals roughly the same state of adjective morphology as the poems of G. Chaucer and J. Gower written in the London dialect almost two hundred years later.

The decay of the grammatical categories of the adjective proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. The number of cases shown in the adjective paradigm was reduced: the Instr. case had fused with the Dat. by the end of OE; distinction of other cases in Early ME was unsteady, as many variant forms of different cases, which arose in Early ME, coincided. Cf. some variant endings of

the Dat. case sg in the late 11th c.: *mid miclum here*, *mid miclan here*, 'with a big army' *mid eallora his here* 'with all his army'.

In the 13th c. case could be shown only by some variable adjective endings in the strong declension (but not by the weak forms); towards the end of the century all case distinctions were lost. The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. The use of a strong form after a demonstrative pronoun was not uncommon, though according to the existing rules, this position belonged to the weak form, e. g.: *in þere wildere sæ* 'in that wild sea' instead of *wilden see*. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg. with the help of the ending *-e*.

The general tendency towards an uninflected form affected also the distinction of Number, though Number was certainly the most stable nominal category in all the periods. In the 14th c. pl forms were sometimes contrasted to the sg forms with the help of the ending *-e* in the strong declension. Probably this marker was regarded as insufficient; for in the 13th and particularly 14th c. there appeared a new pl ending *-s*. The use of *-s* is attributed either to the influence of French adjectives, which take *-s* in the pl or to the influence of the ending *-s* of nouns, e. g.:

This paradigm can be postulated only for monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant, such as ME *bad*, *good*. long. Adjectives ending in vowels and polysyllabic adjectives took no endings and could not show the difference between sg and pl forms or strong and weak forms: ME *able*, *swete*, *bisy*, *thredbare* and the like were uninflected. Nevertheless certain distinctions between weak and strong forms, and also between sg and pl are found in the works of careful 14th c. writers like Chaucer and Gower. Weak forms are often used attributively after the possessive and demonstrative pronouns and after the definite article. Thus Chaucer has: *this like worthy knight* 'this same worthy knight'; *my deere herte* 'my dear heart', which are weak forms, the strong forms in the sg having no ending. But the following examples show that strong and weak forms could be used indiscriminately: *A trewe swynkere* and *a good was he* ('A true labourer and a good (one) was he.') Similarly, the pl. and sg forms were often confused in the strong declension, e. g.: *A sheet of*

pecok-arves, bright and kene. Under his belt he bar ful thriftily ('A sheaf of peacock-arrows, bright and keen. Under his belt he carried very thriftily.')

The distinctions between the sg and pl forms, and the weak and strong forms, could not be preserved for long, as they were not shown by all the adjectives; besides, the reduced ending -e [a] was very unstable even in 14th c. English. In Chaucer's poems, for instance, it is always missed out in accordance with the requirements of the rhythm. The loss of final -e in the transition to NE made the adjective an entirely uninflected part of speech.

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. However, the means employed to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison have considerably altered.

In OE the forms of the comparative and the superlative degree, like all the grammatical forms, were synthetic:

they were built by adding the suffixes -ra and -est/-ost, to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way, only the suffixes had been weakened to -er, -est and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common than before. Since most adjectives with the sound alternation had parallel forms without it, the forms with an interchange soon fell into disuse. ME long, lenger, longer and long, longer, longest.

The alternation of root-vowels in Early NE survived in the adjectival old, elder, eldest, where the difference in meaning from older, oldest made the formal distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternations are found in the pairs farther and further and also in the modern words nigh, near and next, which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the OE adjective neah 'near', but have split into separate words.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison. The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the

use of the OE adverbs *ma*, *bet*, *betst*, *swiþor* 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with *ME more* and *most* became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words. Thus Chaucer has *more swete*, *better worthy*, Gower *more hard* for 'sweeter', 'worthier' and 'harder'. The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used in free variation until the 17th and 18th c., when the modern standard usage was established.

Another curious peculiarity observed in Early NE texts is the use of the so-called "double comparatives" and "double superlatives": *By thenne Syr Trystram waxed more fressher than Syr Marhaus*. ('By that time Sir Tristram grew more angry than Sir Marhaus'.)

### **Answer the following questions**

- 1) *What languages do we call territorial varieties?*
- 2) *What languages do we call social varieties?*
- 3) *What languages do we call national varieties?*

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## **13-MAVZU**

### **PHONETIC SYSTEM OF MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD**

#### **Introduction:**

The Middle English period, spanning roughly from the 11th to the late 15th century, marked a significant evolution in the English language. This era witnessed a transition from Old English to Middle English, characterized by substantial changes in pronunciation and phonetics. Understanding the phonetic system of Middle English is crucial for linguists and scholars to appreciate the historical development of the English language. In this lecture, we will delve into the key features of the phonetic system during the Middle English period, exploring its

distinct characteristics, key words, and the impact of linguistic changes on the evolution of English.

Key Words:

Middle English, Phonetics, Vowels, Consonants, Sound Changes, Great Vowel Shift, Linguistic Evolution.

Phonetic Features of Middle English:

Middle English phonetics were influenced by various factors, including the Norman Conquest of 1066 and the subsequent blending of Anglo-Saxon and Norman French elements.

Vowel sounds underwent significant changes, with a notable reduction in the number of distinct vowel sounds compared to Old English.

Consonant sounds also evolved, with shifts in pronunciation and the introduction of new sounds due to contact with other languages.

Vowel Changes:

The Middle English period saw the development of long and short vowel distinctions, a feature inherited from Old English.

Vowel length became more crucial in distinguishing between words, leading to changes in pronunciation patterns.

The Great Vowel Shift, a major phonetic change that occurred from the late Middle English to the early Modern English period, further altered the pronunciation of vowels.

Consonant Shifts:

Consonant sounds in Middle English underwent notable changes, such as the simplification of certain consonant clusters and the introduction of new sounds.

Influence from Norman French led to the adoption of new consonant sounds and pronunciation patterns in Middle English.

Impact on Spelling and Pronunciation:

The evolving phonetic system of Middle English had a direct impact on spelling conventions, leading to inconsistencies in written representations of sounds.

Variations in regional dialects further contributed to differences in pronunciation and spelling practices during this period.

Conclusion:

The study of the phonetic system of the Middle English period provides valuable insights into the historical development of the English language. By examining the phonetic changes that occurred during this era, linguists can trace the evolution of English pronunciation and understand how linguistic influences shaped the language we know today. The distinctive features of Middle English phonetics, including vowel shifts, consonant changes, and the Great Vowel Shift, highlight the dynamic nature of language evolution over time.

During the Middle English period, various regional dialects emerged across England due to factors such as geographical isolation, social distinctions, and interactions with other languages. Some of the notable regional dialects during this period include:

**Kentish Dialect:** The Kentish dialect was spoken in the county of Kent in southeastern England. It exhibited distinctive features such as the preservation of certain Old English sounds and vocabulary.

**West Midlands Dialect:** This dialect was spoken in the West Midlands region of England, including areas like Worcestershire and Staffordshire. It had unique phonetic characteristics and vocabulary compared to other regional dialects.

**East Midlands Dialect:** The East Midlands dialect was spoken in the eastern part of the Midlands region, encompassing areas such as Lincolnshire and Leicestershire. It had features that distinguished it from both the northern and southern dialects.

**Northern Dialects (Northumbrian, Yorkshire, etc.):** The northern regions of England, including Northumbria and Yorkshire, had their distinct dialects during the Middle English period. These dialects often retained more Old English features compared to southern dialects.

Southern Dialects (London, Kent, Sussex, etc.): The southern dialects, including those spoken in London, Kent, and Sussex, exhibited variations influenced by the proximity to the capital and interactions with Norman French speakers.

Mercian Dialect: The Mercian dialect was spoken in the Mercia region of central England during the Middle English period. It had characteristics that set it apart from other regional dialects.

West Saxon Dialect: Although Old English in origin, the West Saxon dialect continued to influence certain regional variations in the South and Southwest of England during the Middle English period.

East Anglian Dialect: The East Anglian dialect was spoken in the East Anglia region, including areas like Norfolk and Suffolk. It had its own unique features in terms of pronunciation and vocabulary.

These regional dialects played a significant role in shaping the linguistic landscape of Middle English. They contributed to the diversity of the language during this period, influencing not only pronunciation and vocabulary but also the development of distinct regional identities within England. The interactions between these dialects and the subsequent standardization efforts in the later stages of Middle English and beyond have left lasting imprints on the English language as we know it today.

The regional dialects of Middle English played a crucial role in shaping the development of Modern English in several ways:

Vocabulary Enrichment: Regional dialects introduced a diverse range of vocabulary into the English language. Words and expressions unique to specific regions gradually became integrated into the broader English lexicon, enriching the language with a variety of terms and nuances.

Phonetic Influence: The phonetic features of regional dialects influenced the pronunciation patterns of words. While some dialectal pronunciations eventually faded, others persisted and contributed to the phonetic diversity of Modern English.

Grammar and Syntax: Variations in grammar and syntax across regional dialects influenced the evolution of English grammar. Certain syntactic structures

and grammatical rules found in specific dialects may have had lasting effects on the standardization of English grammar.

**Standardization:** The interaction between different regional dialects during the Middle English period contributed to the eventual standardization of English. As communication and trade expanded, there was a need for a common form of English that could be understood across regions. This led to the emergence of a standardized form of English that drew elements from various dialects.

**Literary Influence:** Regional dialects influenced the development of literature in English. Writers often incorporated elements of their native dialects into their works, contributing to the rich tapestry of English literature. This diversity of dialectical influences helped shape the stylistic and linguistic characteristics of literary works in the transition to Modern English.

**Dialectal Survival:** Some regional dialectal features persisted and evolved over time, leading to the development of distinct regional accents in Modern English. These accents continue to play a significant role in the linguistic landscape of English-speaking countries, contributing to cultural diversity and identity.

**Regional Identity:** The preservation of regional dialectal features in Modern English has helped maintain regional identities and cultural heritage. Dialectal variations are often associated with specific regions, fostering a sense of belonging and pride among speakers of those dialects.

**Influence on World English:** The regional dialects of Middle English also had an impact on the development of English varieties spoken around the world. As English spread globally, regional dialectal features influenced the evolution of English in different regions, leading to the diverse range of English dialects and accents spoken today.

Overall, the regional dialects of Middle English played a significant role in shaping the development of Modern English by contributing to vocabulary, phonetic diversity, grammar, syntax, standardization, literature, regional accents, and cultural identity. Their influence continues to be felt in the linguistic landscape of Modern English, highlighting the rich and dynamic history of the language.

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## 14-MAVZU

### GRAMMAR OF MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

#### Abstract:

The Middle English period marked a transformative era in the evolution of the English language, particularly in terms of grammar. This lecture delves into the grammar of Middle English, highlighting key features, syntactic changes, and the impact of linguistic influences on the structure of the language. By examining the grammar of this period, we gain valuable insights into the historical development of English and the factors that shaped its grammatical evolution.

Key Words: Middle English, Grammar, Syntax, Morphology, Verbs, Nouns, Pronouns, Linguistic Evolution.

#### Plan:

Introduction to Middle English Grammar

Noun and Pronoun Features

Verb Conjugation and Tense

Syntax and Sentence Structure

Influence of Other Languages

Changes Leading to Modern English

Conclusion

Introduction to Middle English Grammar:

Middle English grammar underwent significant changes from Old English, influenced by Norse and Norman French.

Grammatical structures evolved, affecting syntax, morphology, and verb conjugation.

**Noun and Pronoun Features:**

Middle English nouns retained some inflectional endings from Old English.

Pronouns exhibited changes in forms and usage, reflecting the merging of Old English and Norman French elements.

**Verb Conjugation and Tense:**

Middle English verbs underwent simplification in conjugation compared to Old English.

The development of a distinct past tense system and the emergence of new verb forms characterized this period.

**Syntax and Sentence Structure:**

Middle English syntax became more fixed and reliant on word order to convey meaning.

The influence of Norman French syntax led to changes in sentence structure and the use of prepositions.

**Influence of Other Languages:**

Norse and Norman French influences impacted Middle English grammar, introducing new vocabulary and grammatical structures.

Contact with these languages resulted in a blending of linguistic features, shaping the grammar of Middle English.

**Changes Leading to Modern English:**

The grammar of Middle English laid the foundation for the grammatical structures of Modern English.

The transition from Middle English to Early Modern English involved further simplification and regularization of grammar.

Here are examples of Middle English texts that illustrate various grammatical features of the Middle English period:

Example illustrating noun and pronoun features:

From "The Canterbury Tales" by Geoffrey Chaucer (14th century):

Original Middle English: "Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote."

Translation: "When April with its sweet showers."

Example illustrating verb conjugation and tense:

From "Sir Gawain and the Green Knight" (late 14th century):

Original Middle English: "And I schal ryden in renoun, rest neuer haue I none."

Translation: "And I shall ride in renown, rest never have I none."

Example illustrating syntax and sentence structure:

From "Ancrene Wisse" (early 13th century):

Original Middle English: "Þet þe us is leouere buggen ure blisse."

Translation: "That which is dearer to us to buy our bliss."

Example illustrating the influence of other languages:

From "The Ormulum" (12th century):

Original Middle English: "O buhhtenn alle þatt we shullenn donn andn don alls godd  
uss biddess."

Translation: "All that we should do and do as God bids us."

Example showing changes leading to Modern English:

From "Wycliffe's Bible" (14th century):

Original Middle English: "And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three."

Translation: "And now abide faith, hope, charity, these three."

These examples showcase the diverse grammatical features present in Middle English texts, such as inflectional endings in nouns, verb conjugation variations, evolving syntax, influences from other languages like Old Norse and Norman French, and the transitional changes leading towards the grammar of Modern English. They provide a glimpse into the linguistic richness and complexity of the Middle English period.

The transition from Old English to Middle English marked a significant evolution in the English language, bringing about several key differences in grammar,

vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax. Here are some key differences between Middle English and Old English:

**Grammar:**

**Old English (c. 450-1150):** Old English had a complex system of inflectional endings to indicate grammatical relationships, including cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative) and grammatical gender (masculine, feminine, neuter).

**Middle English (c. 1150-1500):** Middle English simplified its inflectional system compared to Old English, with a reduction in the number of distinct case endings and a move towards a more fixed word order.

**Vocabulary:**

**Old English:** Old English vocabulary was predominantly Germanic in origin, with a strong influence from Old Norse and Latin due to historical invasions and contact with other languages.

**Middle English:** Middle English saw an increase in vocabulary borrowed from Norman French and Latin, especially in areas like law, government, and religion, leading to a richer and more diverse lexicon.

**Pronunciation:**

**Old English:** Old English had distinct phonetic sounds and pronunciation rules, with some sounds that are no longer present in Modern English.

**Middle English:** Middle English underwent significant changes in pronunciation, including vowel shifts and the development of new phonetic sounds influenced by Norman French and other languages.

**Verb Conjugation:**

**Old English:** Old English had a complex system of verb conjugation with strong and weak verbs, each following specific patterns for past tense formation.

**Middle English:** Middle English simplified verb conjugation compared to Old English, with a reduction in the number of distinct verb forms and a move towards the use of auxiliary verbs to express tense and mood.

**Syntax:**

Old English: Old English had a more flexible word order due to its inflectional system, allowing for variations in sentence structure to convey meaning.

Middle English: Middle English started to rely more on fixed word order to indicate grammatical relationships, with a shift towards a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order resembling Modern English.

Influence of Other Languages:

Old English: Old English was primarily influenced by Germanic languages, with later influences from Old Norse and Latin.

Middle English: Middle English saw increased influence from Norman French due to the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, leading to a significant infusion of French vocabulary and linguistic features into the English language.

These differences between Middle English and Old English reflect the linguistic transformations that occurred over time, shaping the development of English into the language we recognize today.

Conclusion:

The grammar of the Middle English period reflects a dynamic phase in the evolution of the English language, characterized by significant changes in syntax, morphology, and verb conjugation. The influences of Norse and Norman French, along with internal developments, shaped the grammatical structures of Middle English and paved the way for the linguistic transition to Modern English. By exploring the grammar of this period, we gain a deeper understanding of the historical forces that have shaped English grammar over the centuries.

## **15-MAVZU**

### **NEW ENGLISH PHONETICS, GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY AND WORD FORMATION**

Abstract:

This lecture delves into the dynamic evolution of English language features in the modern era. Exploring phonetics, grammar, vocabulary, and word formation in New English, we examine how linguistic changes have shaped the contemporary

landscape of the language. By analyzing these aspects, we gain insights into the ongoing development and diversity of English in the present day.

Key Words: New English, Phonetics, Grammar, Vocabulary, Word Formation, Linguistic Evolution.

Plan:

Introduction to New English

Phonetics in New English

Grammar Trends

Vocabulary Expansion

Word Formation Processes

Conclusion

Introduction to New English:

Overview of the evolution of English into its modern form.

Introduction to the key aspects of phonetics, grammar, vocabulary, and word formation in New English.

Phonetics in New English: Discussion of phonetic changes in modern English, including vowel shifts and consonant modifications. Exploration of accents and regional variations in pronunciation in New English.

Grammar Trends: Analysis of grammar developments in contemporary English, such as the use of tense, aspect, and modal verbs. Examination of syntactic structures and sentence patterns in New English.

Vocabulary Expansion: Examination of the expansion of English vocabulary through borrowing from other languages and the creation of neologisms.

Discussion of technological and cultural influences on the enrichment of the English lexicon in the modern era.

Word Formation Processes:

Exploration of word formation processes in New English, including affixation, compounding, blending, and borrowing.

Analysis of how English adapts to create new words to express evolving concepts and ideas.

Neologisms are newly coined words or expressions that have recently come into use in a language. They often reflect emerging trends, technologies, or cultural shifts. Here are some examples of neologisms in contemporary English:

**Selfie:** A self-portrait photograph taken with a smartphone or camera, typically shared on social media platforms.

**Cryptocurrency:** Digital or virtual currencies that use cryptography for security and operate independently of a central authority.

**Fintech:** Financial technology, referring to innovative technologies that aim to improve and automate the delivery of financial services.

**Meme:** An image, video, piece of text, etc., typically humorous in nature, that is copied and spread rapidly by internet users.

**Sustainability:** The ability to maintain or support an activity or process over the long term without depleting resources or causing harm to the environment.

**Infodemic:** A situation in which a significant amount of false or misleading information is disseminated rapidly, often via social media and online platforms.

**Cancel Culture:** A modern form of ostracism in which individuals or entities are boycotted or shunned because they have said or done something considered objectionable.

**Podcast:** A digital audio or video file or recording made available on the internet for streaming or downloading, typically in a series format.

**Sustainable Development:** Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

**Vlog:** A blog in which the postings are primarily in video form.

These neologisms reflect the changing landscape of contemporary English, influenced by advancements in technology, shifts in society, and new cultural phenomena. They demonstrate how language continually evolves to adapt to and describe the world around us.

Technology has had a profound impact on word formation in Modern English, introducing new terms and altering existing ones to reflect advancements in the digital age. Here are some ways in which technology has influenced word formation in Modern English:

#### Acronyms and Abbreviations:

Technology has popularized the use of acronyms and abbreviations to shorten complex technical terms or phrases. For example, "AI" for artificial intelligence, "VR" for virtual reality, and "IoT" for Internet of Things.

#### Blend Words (Portmanteau):

Technology has given rise to the creation of blend words, where two words are combined to form a new term. Examples include "blog" (web + log), "smog" (smoke + fog), and "webinar" (web + seminar).

#### Neologisms:

The rapid pace of technological innovation has led to the constant emergence of new concepts and products, resulting in the creation of numerous neologisms in Modern English. Terms like "googling," "tweet," and "app" have become ubiquitous in everyday language.

#### Loanwords:

English has borrowed extensively from other languages to incorporate technological terms. For instance, words like "algorithm" (from Arabic), "avatar" (from Sanskrit), and "emoji" (from Japanese) have become integral parts of Modern English vocabulary.

#### Verbing:

Technology has popularized the practice of verbing, where nouns are transformed into verbs. For example, "to Google," "to text," and "to Skype" have become widely accepted usage in Modern English.

#### Semantic Shifts:

Technology has prompted semantic shifts in existing words. For instance, terms like "cloud" and "stream" have taken on new meanings in the context of cloud computing and online media consumption.

### Back-Formation:

Technology has also influenced back-formation, where new words are created by removing affixes from existing terms. For example, "podcast" was formed by back-formation from "podcaster."

### Onomatopoeia:

The sounds and noises associated with technology often inspire new onomatopoeic words. For instance, terms like "ping," "click," and "buzz" have become synonymous with digital interactions.

### Jargon and Technical Terminology:

The specialized nature of technology has introduced a plethora of jargon and technical terminology into Modern English, catering to specific fields such as programming, cybersecurity, and data analytics.

Overall, technology has significantly influenced word formation in Modern English by creating a rich tapestry of innovative terms that reflect the ever-evolving digital landscape and the ways in which we interact with and understand technology in our daily lives.

### Conclusion:

Recap of the key changes in phonetics, grammar, vocabulary, and word formation in New English.

Reflection on the dynamic nature of language evolution and the ongoing diversification of English in the contemporary world.

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## ILOVALAR

### MUSTAQIL TA'LIM BO'YICHA USLUBIY KO'RSATMA

#### **Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ish tushunchalari**

Hozirgi axborot va bilimlar doirasi jadal sur'atlar bilan rivojlanib borayotgan davrda hamma ma'lumotlarni faqat dars mashg'ulotlarida berib bo'lmaydi shuning uchun zamon talablariga javob bera oladigan, har tomonlama yetuk, raqobatbardosh mutaxassislar tayyorlashda mustaqil ta'lim alohida o'rin tutadi. Qo'yilgan muammo va vazifalar bo'yicha ma'lum yechimga kelish hamda uning optimal variantini tanlash uchun kerak bo'lgan mustaqil fikrlash ko'nikmasi mustaqil ijodiy ishlash jarayonida shakllanadi va mustahkamlanib boradi. Pedagogika fanidan "izohli lug'at"da "mustaqil ta'lim" tushunchasi olingan bilim, ko'nikma va malakani mustahkamlash, qo'shimcha materialni o'rganish maqsadidagi o'quv shakli deb qaraladi.

**Mustaqil ta'lim** — o'quv materialini mustaqil o'zlashtirish, murakkablik darajasi turlicha bo'lgan topshiriqlar, amaliy vazifalarni auditoriyada hamda auditoriyadan tashqarida ijodiy va mustaqil bajarish asosida nazariy bilim, amaliy ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirishga qaratilgan tizimli faoliyatdir. SHuningdek, mustaqil ta'lim deyilganda fan dasturidagi materiallarning ma'lum qismini talabalar tomonidan mustaqil o'rganilishini va o'zlashtirilishini tushuniladi.

**Mustaqil ish** - belgilangan ma'lum vaqt oralig'ida o'qituvchi nazoratida auditoriyada yoki auditoriyadan tashqarida o'rganilgan materiallarni chuqurlashtirish va kengaytirish maqsadida talaba tomonidan mustaqil bajariladigan topshiriqlar majmui tushuniladi. Mustaqil ishlar didaktik maqsadi, vazifasi, murakkablik darajasi, kimga (individual yoki jamoa uchun) mo'ljallanganligiga qarab, bir-biridan farq qiladi.

## **Talaba mustaqil ishining maqsad va vazifalari**

**Talaba mustaqil ishi (TMI)ning asosiy maqsadi** – o'qituvchining rahbarligi va nazorati ostida talabada muayyan o'quv ishlarini mustaqil ravishda bajarish uchun zarur bo'lgan bilim va ko'nikmalarni shakllantirish va rivojlantirishdir.

**Talaba mustaqil ishining asosiy vazifalari** quyidagilardan iborat:

- yangi bilimlarni mustaqil darsda puxta o'zlashtirish ko'nikmalariga ega bo'lish;

- kerakli ma'lumotlarni izlab topishning qulay usullarini egallash va vositalardan foydalana bilish; bu ma'lumotlarni yig'ish, saqlash, ularga ishlov berish, ularni umumlashtirish, tahlil qilish va ulardan o'zining kasbiy faoliyatida foydalana bilish;

- axborot manbalaridan samarali foydalanish;

- an'anaviy o'quv va ilmiy adabiyotlar, me'yoriy hujjatlar bilan ishlash;

- internet tarmog'idan maqsadli foydalanish;

- berilgan topshiriqning ratsional yechimini belgilash;

- ma'lumotlar bazasini tahlil qilish;

- topshiriqlarni bajarishda og'zaki, yozma va virtual shakllarda samarali yondosha olish.

**Talaba mustaqil ishi** - muayyan fandan o'quv dasturida belgilangan bilim, ko'nikma va malakaning ma'lum bir qismini talaba tomonidan fan o'qituvchisi maslaxati va tavsiyalari asosida auditoriya va auditoriyadan tashqarida o'zlashtirilishiga yo'naltirilgan tizimli faoliyatdir.

O'qishning boshlang'ich bosqichlarida TMI ni tashkil etish bir qator vazifalar bilan bog'liq. Ayniqsa, birinchi kurs talabalarining ta'limning navbatdagi turi - oliy ta'lim talablarga ko'nikishi qiyin kechadi. Chunki ular ta'lim olish jarayonida o'z mustaqil faoliyatlarini tashkil qilishni deyarli bilishmaydi. Ma'lumotlarni qaysi manbadan, qanday qilib topish, ularni taxlil qilish va zarurlarini ajratib olib tartibga solish, konspektlashtirish, o'z fikrini aniq va yorqin ifodalash, o'z vaqtlarini

to'g'ri taqsimlash, shuningdeq aqliy va jismoniy imkoniyatlarini to'g'ri baholash ular uchun katta muammo bo'ladi. Eng asosiysi, ular mustaqil ta'lim olishga ruxan tayyor bo'lishmaydi.

SHuning uchun xar bir professor-o'qituvchi dastlab talabada o'z qobiliyati va aqliy imkoniyatlariga ishonch uyg'otishi, ularni sabr-toqat bilan, bosqichma-bosqich mustaqil bilim olishni to'g'ri tashkil qilishga o'rgatib borishi lozim bo'ladi. Talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ravishda o'zlashtiriladigan bilim va ko'nikmalarning kursdan-kursga murakkablashib, kengayib borishini xisobga olgan holda ularning tashabbuskorligi va rolini oshirib borish zarur. SHunda mustaqil ta'limga ko'nika boshlagan talaba faqat o'qituvchi tomonidan belgilab berilgan ishlarni bajaribgina qolmay, o'zining extiyoji, qiziqishi va qobiliyatiga qarab, o'zi zarur deb xisoblagan qo'shimcha bilimlarni xam mustaqil ravishda tanlab o'zlashtirishga o'rganib boradi.

**Talabalar mustaqil ishlarining shakli va hajmini belgilashda quyidagi jihatlar e'tiborga olinishi lozim:**

- o'qish bosqichi;
  - muayyan fanning o'ziga xos xususiyati va o'zlashtirishdagi qiyinchilik darajasi;
  - talabaning qobiliyati xamda nazariy va amaliy tayyorgarlik darajasi (tayanch bilimi);
  - fanning axborot manbalari bilan ta'minlanganlik darajasi;
  - talabaning axborot manbalari bilan ishlay olish darajasi.
- Mustaqil ish uchun beriladigan topshiriqlarning shakli va xajmi, qiyinchilik darajasi semestr-dan-semestr-ga ko'nikmalar hosil bo'lishiga muvofiq ravishda o'zgarib, oshib borishi lozim. Ya'ni, talabalarning topshiriqlarni bajarishdagi mustaqilligi darajasini asta-sekin oshirib, ularni topshiriqlarni bajarishga tizimli va ijodiy yondashishga o'rgatib borish kerak bo'ladi.

TMI ni tashkil etishda talabaning akademik o'zlashtirish darajasi va qobiliyatini xisobga olgan holda quyidagi shakllardan foydalanish mumkin:

- fanning ayrim mavzularini o'quv adabiyotlari yordamida mustaqil o'zlashtirish, o'quv manbalari bilan ishlash;
- amaliy mashg'ulotlariga tayyorgarlik ko'rib kelish;
- ma'lum mavzu bo'yicha referat tayyorlash;
- maket, model va badiiy asarlar ustida ishlash;
- amaliyotdagi mavjud muammoning yechimini topish, test, munozarali savollar va topshiriqlar tayyorlash;
- ilmiy maqola, tezislar va ma'ruza tayyorlash;
- amaliy mazmundagi nostandart masalalarni yechish va ijodiy ishlash;
- uy vazifalarini bajarish va boshqalar;

Fan xususiyatidan kelib chiqqan holda talabalarga mustaqil ish uchun boshqa shakllardagi vazifalar ham topshirilishi mumkin. Talabalarga qaysi turdagi topshiriqlarni berish lozimligi kafedra tomonidan belgilanadi. Topshiriqlar puxta o'ylab ishlab chiqilgan va ma'lum maqsadga yo'naltirilgan bo'lib, talabalarning auditoriya mashg'ulotlarida olgan bilimlarini mustaxkamlash, chuqurlashtirish, kengaytirish va to'ldirishga xizmat qilishi kerak.

**Mavzuni mustaqil o'zlashtirish.** Fanning xususiyati, talabalarning bilim darajasi va qobiliyatiga qarab ishchi o'quv dasturiga kiritilgan aloxida mavzular talabalarga mustaqil ravishda o'zlashtirish uchun topshiriladi. Bunda mavzuning asosiy mazmunini ifodalash va ochib berishga xizmat qiladigan tayanch iboralar, mavzuni tizimli bayon qilishga xizmat qiladigan savollarga e'tibor qaratish, asosiy adabiyotlar va axborot manbalarini ko'rsatish lozim.

Topshiriqni bajarish jarayonida talabalar mustaqil ravishda o'quv adabiyotlaridan foydalanib ushbu mavzuni konspektlashtiradilar, tayanch iboralarning mohiyatini anglagan holda mavzuga taalluqli savollarga javob tayyorlaydilar. Zarur hollarda (o'zlashtirish qiyin bo'lsa, savollar paydo bo'lsa,

adabiyotlar yetishmasa, mavzuni tizimli bayon eta olmasa va h.k.) o'qituvchidan maslaxatlar oladilar.

Mustaqil o'zlashtirilgan mavzu bo'yicha tayyorlangan matn kafedrada ximoya qilinadi.

**Referat tayyorlash.** Talabaga qiyinchilik darajasi uning shaxsiy imkoniyatlari, qobiliyati va bilim darajasiga muvofiq bo'lgan biror mavzu bo'yicha referat tayyorlash topshiriladi. Bunda talaba asosiy adabiyotlardan tashqari qo'shimcha adabiyotlardan (monografiyalar, ilmiy, uslubiy maqolalar, Internetdan olingan ma'lumotlar, elektron kutubxona materiallari va h.k.) foydalanib materiallar yig'adi, taxlil qiladi, tizimga soladi va mavzu bo'yicha imkon darajasida to'liq, keng ma'lumot berishga xarakat qiladi. Zarur hollarda o'qituvchidan maslaxat va ko'rsatmalar oladi. Yakunlangan referat kafedrada ekspertlar ishtirokida ximoya qilinadi.

**Ko'rgazmali vositalar tayyorlash.** Talabaga muayyan mavzuni bayon qilish va yaxshiroq o'zlashtirish uchun yordam beradigan ko'rgazmali materiallar (jadvallar, chizmalar, rasmlar, xaritalar, maketlar, modellar, grafiklar, namunalar, musiqiy asar, kichik badiiy asar va h.k.) tayyorlash topshiriladi. Mavzu o'qituvchi tomonidan aniqlanib, talabaga ma'lum ko'rsatmalar, yo'l-yo'riqlar beriladi. Ko'rgazmali vositalarning miqdori, shakli va mazmuni talaba tomonidan mustaqil tanlanadi. Bunday vazifani bir mavzu bo'yicha bir necha talabaga topshirish ham mumkin. Talaba ko'rgazmali materiallardan foydalanish bo'yicha yozma ravishda tavsiyalar tayyorlaydi va kafedrada ximoya qiladi.

**Mavzu bo'yicha testlar, munozarali savollar va topshiriqlar tayyorlash.** Talabaga muayyan mavzu bo'yicha testlar, qiyinchilik darajasi xar xil bo'lgan masalalar va topshiriqlar, munozaraga asos bo'ladigan savollar tuzish topshiriladi. Bunda o'qituvchi tomonidan talabaga testga qo'yiladigan talablar va uni tuzish qonun-qoidalari, qanday maqsad ko'zda tutilayotganligi, muammoli savollar tuzishda mavzuning munozarali momentlarini qanday ajratish lozimligi,

topshiriqlarni tuzish usullari bo'yicha yo'l-yo'riq beriladi. Konsul'tatsiya paytlarida bajarilgan ishlarning qo'yilgan vazifa va talablarga javob berish darajasi nazorat qilinadi (qayta ishlab kelish, aniqlashtirish yoki to'ldirish taklif etilishi mumkin).

Test, savol va topshiriqlar majmuasi kafedrada ekspertlar ishtirokida ximoya qilinadi.

**Ilmiy maqola, tezislar va ma'ruzalar tayyorlash.** Talabaga biron bir mavzu bo'yicha (mavzuni talabanning o'zi tanlashi ham mumkin) ilmiy (referativ) xarakterda maqola, tezis yoki ma'ruza tayyorlash topshirilishi mumkin. Bunda talaba o'quv adabiyotlari, ilmiy-tadqiqot ishlari, dissertatsiyalar, maketa va monografiyalar xamda boshqa axborot manbalaridan mavzuga tegishli materiallar to'playdi, taxlil qiladi, zarurlarini ajratib olib, tartibga soladi, shaxsiy tajribasi va bilimi, ilmiy natijalariga asoslangan holda qo'shimchalar, izoxlar kiritadi, o'z nuqtai-nazarini bayon etadi va asoslaydi. Bunda talaba o'qituvchi bilan xamkorlikda ishlaydi. Tayyorlangan maqola, tezis yoki ma'ruza kafedrada ximoya qilinadi.

**Amaliy mazmundagi nostandart masalalarni yechish va ijodiy ishlash.** Bir mavzu yoki bo'lim bo'yicha nostandart, aloxida yondashish talab qilinadigan, nazariy ahamiyatga ega bo'lgan amaliy topshiriqlar, ijodiy yondashish talab qilinadigan ilmiy-ijodiy vazifalar, modellar, maketlar, namunalar yaratish vazifasi topshirilishi mumkin. Amaliy topshiriqlar masalani hal qilishning optimal variantlarini izlashga va topishga qaratilgan bo'lishi kerak. Talabanning qiziqish va qobiliyatiga qarab, unga ilmiy harakterdagi topshiriqlar berish, o'qituvchi bilan hamkorlikda ilmiy maqolalar tayyorlash va chop ettirish mumkin.

**Talabalar mustaqil ishini samarali tashkil etishda:**

- tizimli yondoshish;
- barcha bosqichlarini muvofiqlashtirish va uzviylashtirish;

- bajarilishi ustidan qat'iy nazorat o'rnatish;
- tashkil etish va nazorat qilish mexanizmlarini takomillashtirib borish zarur.

**Mustaqil ish topshiriqlari muvaffaqiyatli yakunlanishi uchun quyidagi talablar bajarilishi lozim:**

maqsad (bilimni mustaxkamlash, yangi bilimlarni o'zlashtirish, ijodiy faollikni oshirish, amaliy ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirish va x.k.), aniq asoslanishi;

vazifa va topshiriqlarning aniq-ravshan belgilanishi;

topshiriqdarni bajarish algoritmi va metodlaridan talabalarning yetarli darajada xabardor bo'lishi;

maslaxat va boshqa yordam turlarining to'g'ri belgilanishi (yo'llanma va ko'rsatma berish, mavzuning mazmuni va mohiyatini tushuntirish, muammoli topshiriqlarni bajarish usullari bo'yicha tushuncha berish, ayrim muammoli momentlarni birgalikda xal qilish va x.k.);

xisobot shakli va baholash mezonini aniq belgilash;

nazorat vaqti, shakli va turlarini aniq belgilab olish (amaliy mashg'ulotlar, konsultatsiya uchun yoki nazorat uchun maxsus ajratilgan vaqt; ma'ruza yo referat matni, bajarilgan topshiriqlar daftari, nazorat ishlari, uy vazifasi daftari, test, maqola, nostandart topshiriqlar, savollar, maqola, ko'rgazmali jixozlar va ijodiy ishlar; savol-javob, bajarilgan ish mazmuni va mohiyatini tushuntirib berish, yozma shaklda bayon qilish va x.k.).

**Talabalar mustaqil ishini shartli ravishda ikkiga ajratish mumkin:**

auditoriyada amalga oshiriladigan TMilari. O'tilgan mavzuni qayta ishlash, kengaytirish va mustaxkamlashga oid topshiriqlar bajariladi;

auditoriyadan tashqarida amalga oshiriladigan TMilari. O'quv dasturidagi ayrim mavzularni mustaqil holda o'zlashtirish, uyga berilgan vazifalarni bajarish,

amaliy va laboratoriya ishlariga tayyorgarlik ko'rib kelish, ijodiy va ilmiy-tadqiqot xarakteridagi ishlar va h.k.

Birinchi tur ishlari talabalarning nazariy va amaliy bilimlarini o'zlashtirib borish darajasi, amaliy mashg'ulotlarga (amaliyot, laboratoriya, seminar darslari) tayyorgarlik saviyasi va uy vazifalarining bajarilish sifatini tekshirish maqsadida, odatda, nazorat ishlari olish, savol-javob, suxbat, munozara, amaliy topshiriqlarni bajartirib ko'rish va x.k. usullarda asosan amaliyot darslarida nazorat (joriy nazorat) qilinadi.

Joriy nazoratda talabaning dars paytida o'tilgan materiallarni o'zlashtirish va uyga berilgan topshiriqdarni bajarishdagi faolligi, bajarish saviyasi va o'zlashtirish darajasi e'tiborga olinadi.

Ikkinchi tur ishlar fanning ishchi o'quv dasturida auditoriyadan tashqarida o'zlashtirilishi belgilangan mavzu bo'yicha ma'lumot va axborotlarni mustaqil ravishda izlab topish, taxlil qilish, konspektlashtirish (yoki referat tarzida rasmiylashtirish) va o'zlashtirish, ijodiy yondashishni talab qiladigan amaliy topshiriqdarni bajarish ko'rinishida amalga oshiriladi. Bu turdagi ishlarni bajarish jarayoni va o'zlashtirish sifatining nazorati darsdan tashqari paytlarda, maxsus belgalangan konsultatsiya soatlarida amalga oshiriladi.

**Talabalar mustaqil ishini baxolash.** TMI natijalari O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirining 2009-yil 11-iyundagi 204-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan "Oliy ta'lim muassasalarida talabalar bilimni nazorat qilish va baholashning reyting tizimi to'g'risidagi Nizom"ga asosan baholab boriladi.

#### **Talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmuni va xajmi VI – semestr**

<b>№</b>	<b>Mustaqil o'rganish uchun mavzular</b>	<b>Mustaqil ishga oid topshiriq turi</b>	<b>Bajarish muddati</b>	<b>Xajmi (soatda)</b>
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1.	Basic concepts and principles of English language history	PPT	Yanvar	4
2.	Morphemic structure of the word, morpheme and word distortion in different periods	Analyses of CEFR grid	Yanvar	4
3	The main criteria for the classification of vowel sounds in Old English	Goal samples	Yanvar	4
4.	Syntactic and analytical forms of words in Old English.	Portfolio	Fevral	4
5	Structural, semantic and functional typology of the sentence in Old English	Pack of activites	Fevral	4
6	Phonetic division of syntagma in Old English, phonetic analysis of words	Pack of activites	Fevral	4
7	Types of intonation in simple and compound sentences in Old English	PPT	Fevral	4
8	Articulatory and acoustic classification of consonants in Old English	Essay	Mart	4
9	The articulatory and acoustic classification of monophthongs and diphthongs in Old English.	PPT	Mart	4
10	Structural-semantic and functional development of verb, word groups	Tset	Mart	4
11	History of syntactic structures, word combinations, sentences and parts of sentences	Test	Aprel	4
12	The main methods used in the study of language history	Opinion essay	Aprel	4
13	Analyzing the basic concepts and principles of historical phonetics and phonology	Agree and disagree essay	Aprel	4
14	Preservation of local dialects and their social manifestations	PPT	May	4
15	Changes in the New English grammatical system	Handout	May	4
	<b>Jami</b>			<b>60</b>

### **Talabalar mustaqil ishi bo'yicha konsul'tatsiyalar tashkil etish tartibi**

1. Talabalar mustaqil ishi (TMI) bo'yicha konsul'tatsiya darsi auditoriyadan tashqarida amalga oshirishga mo'ljallangan mustaqil ishlarni

bajarish yuzasidan tegishli yo‘llanmalar berish va uni bajarilishini nazorat qilib borish maqsadida tashkil qilinadi.

2. TMI bo‘yicha konsultatsiya darsi fanning kalendar-tematik rejasiga muvofiq o‘tkaziladi.

3. Konsul’tatsiya darsi tegishli fan o‘qituvchisi tomonidan o‘tkaziladi.

4. Fan o‘qituvchisi konsultatsiya darsida quyidagi ishlarni amalga oshiradi:

- TMI topshiriqlarini bajarish yuzasidan tegishli yo‘llanma beradi;

- topshiriqni bajarish rejasini tuzishga yordamlashadi;

- tegishli adabiyotlar va axborot manbalarini tavsiya qiladi;

- TMI yuzasidan tayyorlangan ishlanma, hisobot, referat va topshiriq natijalarini qabul qiladi xamda baxolaydi.

5. TMI bo‘yicha konsultatsiyalar o‘quv jarayonining 2 smenada tashkil etilishiga qarab talabalarning darsdan bo‘sh vaqtlarida dars jadvaliga kiritiladi.

<b>Hafta kunlari</b>	<b>Juftlik</b>	<b>Fan nomi</b>	<b>Auditoriya, vaqti</b>	<b>Mashg‘ulot turi</b>	<b>O‘qituvchining F.I.SH.</b>
Shanba	1-juftlik	Til tarixi	421-xona (13 00-14 30)	Konsul’tatsiya	G.Tajibayev

## GLOSSARY

### GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED IN THIS COURSE

**ablaut.** The process of inflecting a verb by changing its vowel *sing sang-iung*.

**adjective.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a property or state: *the BIG BAD: too HOT*.

**adverb.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to the manner or time of an action: *tread SOFTLY; BOLDLY*

**agrammatism.** A symptom of aphasia in which the patient has trouble producing well-formed words and grammatical sentences, and trouble understanding sentences depend on their syntax

**agreement.** The process in which a verb is altered to match the number, person, and gender of its subject or object: versus They *SMELL*

**anomia.** A symptom of aphasia in which the patient has difficulty retrieving or recognising words,

**aphasia.** A family of syndromes in which a person suffers a loss or impairment of language abilities following damage to the brain.

**Aristotelian category.** See **Classical** category.

**article.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that modify a **noun phrase**. such as *the, a, an, some, any, every, each, both, neither, none, all, none, some, any, every, each, both, neither, none, all*. Often subsumed in the **determiner** category.

**associationism.** The theory that intelligence consists in associating ideas that have been experienced in close succession or that resemble one another. The theory is usually linked to the British empiricist philosophers John Locke, David Hume, David Hartley, and John Stuart Mill, and it underlies behaviorism and much connectionism,

**auxiliary.** A special kind of verb used to express concepts related to the truth of the sentence, such as tense, negation, question/statement, necessary/possible

**back-formation.** The process of extracting a simple word from a complex word that was not originally derived from the simple word, *to bartend* (from *bartender*), *to burgle*

(from *burglar*). *bahuvrīhi*. A headless compound that refers to someone by what he has or does rather than by what he [s. *glitfoot*, *four-eyes*, *c-utthwnt*].

**behaviorism**. A school of psychology, influential from the 1920s to the 1960s. It rejected the study of the mind as unscientific, and sought to explain the behavior of **organisms** (including humans) with laws of stimulus-response conditioning. Usually associated with the psychologist B. F. Skinner.

**canonical root**, A root that has a standard sound pattern for simple words in the language, a part-of-speech category, and a meaning arbitrarily related to its sound,

**case**. A distinction among noun forms corresponding approximately to the distinction among (subjects, objects, indirect objects, and the objects of prepositions).

In English it is the difference between *I* and *me*, *he* and *him*, and so on.

**central sulcus**. The groove in the brain that separates the frontal lobe from the pari-

etial lobe, also called the Central fissure and the Rolandic fissure. ?

**classical category**. A category with well-specified conditions of membership, such as "odd number" or "President of the United States."

**coda**. The consonants at the end of a syllable. .

**cognitive neuroscience**. The study of how cognitive processes (language, memory, perception, reasoning, action) are carried out by the brain.

**cognate**. A word that resembles a word in another language because the two words descended from a single word in an ancestral language, or because one language

**compound**. A word formed by joining two words together;

**connectionism**. A school of cognitive psychology that models cognitive processes with simple neural networks subjected to extensive training. Much, but not all, of

**contemporary** connectionism is a form of associationism.

**consonant**. A phoneme produced with a blockage or constriction of the vocal tract. conversion. The process of deriving a new word by changing the part-of-speech category of an old word: *an impact* (noun) → *to impact* (verb); *to read* (verb) → *good read* (noun).

**cortex**. The surface of the cerebral hemispheres of the brain, visible as gray matter,

containing the bodies of neurons and their synapses with other neurons: the main site of neural computation underlying the higher cognitive, perceptual, and motor processes

**declension.** The process of inflecting a noun, or the set of the inflected forms of a noun: *ihich, ducks*

**default.** The action taken in a circumstance that has no other action specified for it. For example, if you don't dial an area code before a telephone number, the local area code will be used as the default. (

**derivation.** The process of creating new words out of old ones, either by affixation (*ihreuk + -abli: - + h'eukahlei i;n^ -i- -er —> sm^er*), or by compounding (*[supt-r u-o>na]—\* supenvoman*).

**determiner.** The part-of-speech category comprising articles and similar words: *a, the, mine, more, much, many*. **diphthong.** A vowel consisting of two vowels pronounced in quick succession: *hire*;

**Early Modern English.** The English of Shakespeare and the King James Bible, spoken from around 1430 to 1700.

**empiricism.** The approach to studying the **mind that** emphasizes learning and environmental influence over innate structure. A second sense, not used in this book, is the approach in science that emphasizes experimentation and observation over

**eponym.** A noun derived from a name *a SCHOOL: a SHVLOCK*.

**family resemblance category.** A category whose members have no single trait in common, but in which subjects of members share traits, as in a family. Examples include tools, furniture, *and* games.

**FMRI.** Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging, A form of MRI that depicts the metabolic activity in different parts of the brain, not just the brain's anatomy

**generative linguistics.** The school of linguistics associated with Noam Chomsky that attempts to discover the rules and principles that govern the form and meaning of words and sentences in a particular language and in human languages in general.

**generative phonology.** The branch of generative grammar that studies the sound pattern of languages.

**gerund.** A noun formed out of a verb by adding *-mg*:

**Middle English.** The language spoken in England from shortly after the Norman invasion in 1066 to 1500 around the time of the Great Vowel Shift in the 1400s.

**Modern English.** The variety of English spoken since the eighteenth century.

**Modern English.**

**mood.** Whether a sentence is a statement, an imperative, or a subjunctive.

**morphemes.** The smallest meaningful pieces into which words can be cut

**morphology.** The component of grammar that builds words out of pieces (morpheme.). Morphology is often divided into inflection and derivation.

**MRI.** Magnetic Resonance Imaging. A technique that constructs pictures of cross-sections of the brain or body.

**neural network.** A kind of computer model, loosely inspired by the brain, consisting of interconnected units that send signals to one another and turn on or off depending on the sum of their incoming signals. The connections have strengths that increase or decrease during a training process.

**neurons-** The information-processing cells of the nervous system, including brain cells and the cells whose axons (output fibers) make up the nerves and spinal cord.

**neurotransmitter.** A chemical that is released by a neuron at a synapse and that excites or inhibits the other neuron at the synapse,

**noun.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a thing or person: *dog, couch, John, country*.

**nucleus.** The vowel or vowels at the heart of a syllable:

**number.** The distinction between singular and plural: *chipmunk* versus *chipmunks*-

**Old English.** The language spoken in England from around 450 to 1100. Also called Anglo-Saxon, after the tribes speaking the language that invaded Britain around 450

**onset.** The consonants at the beginning of a syllable: *play*.

**participle-** A form of **the verb that cannot** stand by itself, but needs to appear with an auxiliary or other verb: *He has* (perfect participle); *He was* (passive participle); *He is talking*. [progressive participle].

**part of speech.** The syntactic category of a word: noun, verb, adjective, preposition, adverb, conjunction

**passive.** A construction in which the usual object appears as the subject, and the usual subject is the object of the preposition *by* or absent altogether / *was robbed*.  
*He was nibbled to death by ticks.*

**pattern associator memory.** A common kind of neural network or connectionist model consisting of a set of input units, a set of output units, and connections between every input unit and every output unit, sometimes via one or more hidden layers of units. Pattern associator memories are designed to memorize the outputs for each of a set of inputs, and to generalize from similar inputs to similar outputs.

**perfect.** A verb form used for an action that has already been completed at the time the sentence is spoken / *has* v..

**person.** The distinction between *I* (first person), *you* (second person), and *he/she/it* (third person)

**PET.** Positron Emission Tomography, A technique for constructing pictures of cross-sections of the brain or body in which areas with different levels or amounts of metabolic activity are shown in different colors.

**phoneme.** A vowel or consonant; one of the units of sound corresponding roughly to the letters of the alphabet that are strung together to form a morpheme: *hat, beat, fish, stout*.

**phonetics.** How the sounds of language are articulated and perceived.

**phonology.** The component of grammar that determines the sound pattern of a language, including its inventory of phonemes, how they may be combined to form legitimate words, how the phonemes must be adjusted depending on their neighbors, and patterns of intonation, timing, and stress,

**phrase.** A group of words that behaves as a unit in a sentence and that typically has some coherent meaning: *in the dark, the man in the gray suit; dancing in the dark; a raid of the wolf*.

**pluperfect.** A construction used for an action that had already been completed at some time in the past: *When I arrived, John had HATEN-* See also **perfect**.

**pfuralia tantum.** ]\oiins that are always plural, such *asjeam. suds*, and *the blues*. The singular is *flurale tantutn*.

**psycholinguist.** A scientist, usually a psychologist by training, who studies how people understand, produce, or learn language.

**predicate.** A state, event, or relationship, usually involving one or more participants, often identified with the verb phrase of a sentence. *The gerhil ATf riir. PEA.^LI*.

**prepo.sition.** A part-of-speech c3tegor>' comprising words that typically refer to a spatial or temporal relationship: *m, on, near, in; for, under, before*

preterite. The simple past-tense form of a verb. *He walked; We sang*. It is usually contrasted with a verb form that indicates a past event using a participle, such as *He lias walked* or *We have sung*.

**productivity.** The abihiy to speak and understand new word forms or sentences, ones no! previously heard or used.

progressive, A verb form that indicates an ongoing event: *He is WAVING his hands*.

**recursion.** A procedure thai invokes an instance of itself, and thus can be applied, ad infinitum, to create or analyse entities of any size: 'A *verb phrase* can consist of a verb followed by a noun phrase followed by a *verb phrase*.'

**regular. - irregular.**

**umlaut.** The process of shifting the pronunciation of a vowel toward the front of the mouth. In German, vowels that undergo umlaut {or that underwent it in earlier hi'-toncal periods) are indicated by two dots; *a. 6. U.* verb. The part-of-speech category comprising words thai typically refer to ^n action or

**weak verbs.** In the Germanic languages, the verbs that form lie past

**u-ug-test.** A test of linguistic productivity in which a person is glen a novel word and encouraged to use it in some inflected form. Here is a wig. Now there are two of them; there are two.

**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI**  
**OLIY TA’LIM, FAN VA INNOVATSIYALAR VAZIRLIGI**  
**IS’HOQXON IBRAT NOMIDAGI NAMANGAN DAVLAT CHET**  
**TILLARI INSTITUTI**

**«TASDIQLAYMAN»**

**O‘quv ishlari bo‘yicha prorektor**  
\_\_\_\_\_ **P.M.Lutfullayev**

**«\_\_\_\_\_» \_\_\_\_\_ 2024-yil**

**TIL TARIXI**  
**FANINING**  
**O‘QUV DASTURI**

**2024-2025 o‘quv yili, kunduzgi ta’lim shakli (3-kurs talabalari uchun)**

Bilim sohasi:	100000 – Ta’lim
Ta’lim sohasi:	110000 – Ta’lim
Ta’lim yo‘nalishi:	60111800 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

**Namangan-2024**

<b>Fan/modul kodi</b> TT2604		<b>O'quv yili</b> 2024/2025	<b>Semestr</b> 6	<b>ECTS-Kreditlar</b> 4
<b>Fan/modul turi</b> Tanlov		<b>Ta'lim tili</b> Ingliz		<b>Haftadagi dars soatlari</b> 4
<b>1</b>	<b>Fanning nomi</b>	<b>Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari (soat)</b>	<b>Mustaqil ta'lim (soat)</b>	<b>Jami yuklama (soat)</b>
	<b>Til tarixi</b>	60	60	120

## **I. FANNING MAZMUNI**

**Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad** – talabalarni til tarixi to'g'risidagi asosiy nazariy tushunchalar, chet tili tarixini o'rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, til tarixining ilmiy bilimlar tizimida tutgan o'rni bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sathlarining elementlari rivojlanishining asosiy qonuniyatlarini o'rgatishdan iborat.

**Fanning vazifalari** - talabalarga ingliz tili tarixi mohiyatiga oid bilimlarni egallashga imkoniyat yaratish, ularda tilning shakllanishi, til qatlamlari va birliklarining tarixiy rivojlanishini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish, hamda ingliz tili tarixi turli davrlarining bir-biri bilan o'zaro munosabatlari to'g'risida tushunchalarga ega bo'lishlarini ta'minlashdan iborat.

## **II. ASOSIY NAZARIY QISM (MA'RUZA MASHG'ULOTLARI)**

### **II.1. Fan tarkibiga quyidagi mavzular kiradi:**

#### **Theme 1. Introduction to the course. German languages**

The place of Germanic languages in the Indo-European language family. Modern Germanic languages, their distribution and classification. Information about the Germanic tribes: (Pytheas, Julius Caesar, Tacitus). Classification of the Germanic tribes during the "great migration of peoples" their location.

#### **Theme 2. Specific features of the Germanic language**

The first migration of consonants, Grimm's law, Werner's law, vowel

changes, the system of nouns, the number change of verbs and the system of dividing verbs into suffixed verbs, the Germanic alphabet, the most important written monuments of Germanic languages and their classification. The problem of dividing the history of the English language into periods.

### **Theme 3. Old English period. Celtic tribes in the British Isles and on the European continent**

The occupation of the British Isles by the Roman troops, the historical monuments protected by the Romans. Western Germanic tribes in the region and their relationship with Rome. The conquest of the British Isles by the Anglo-Saxon, Frisian and Jute tribes and the emergence of the Anglo-Saxon states. The beginning of feudalism in England. Emergence of the English people. The struggle for sovereignty of the Anglo-Saxon countries. England in the 7th century conversion to Christianity. Scandinavian invasion.

### **Theme 4. Historical laws of the Old English sound system**

Palatalization. Prolongation of vowels before sonorous consonant combinations, lengthening of vowels because of dropping the next consonant.

### **Theme 5. Morphology of Old English period**

In the period of Old English, the noun. Grammatical categories of the noun: gender, number, agreement. Based on the ancient classification of nouns. Plural in nouns formation of forms and their types. In modern English, the change of the vowel in the root with the help of internal inflection. External flexion. Sound exchange without inflection.

### **Theme 6. Adjectives of Old English period**

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

### **Theme 7. Pronouns of Old English period**

Personal pronouns, grammatical categories of pronouns: person, number (existence of binary number). Origin of demonstrative pronouns. Numbers. Cardinal and ordinal numbers

### **Theme 8. Verbs of Old English period**

Strong and weak verbs in Old English. Preterit – present tenses and

their morphological characteristics. Superlative verbs. The main grammatical categories of Old English verbs are: person, number, tense, mood. Relative category of the verb.

### **Theme 9. Old English Syntax. Types of sentences**

Word in interrogative sentences order. Expression of the main parts in the sentence. Syntactic in a simple sentence representation of relations. Duties of covenants.

### **Theme 10. Vocabulary composition and their development during the Old English period**

Features of the vocabulary of the Old English period. Common Indo-European and Common Germanic words in the Old English vocabulary, the enrichment of the vocabulary and its various ways.

### **Theme 11. Productive and less productive affixes. Compound words**

Ways of forming compound words in the Old English period. Sound exchange (umlaut); Old words have a new song. The use of appropriate words. Two languages: the enrichment of English vocabulary at the expense of Scandinavian and French languages.

### **Theme 12. The period of Middle English history**

The main historical events of the Middle English period. The Norman Conquest of England. Enrichment of the English vocabulary as a result of the Norman invasion. The economic center is the emergence of the London dialect.

### **Theme 13. Phonetic system of Middle English period**

Change of vowel system. Formation of unstressed vowels and their subsequent fall. Lengthening and shortening of vowels in the middle period. Lengthening and shortening of Old English diphthongs in the Middle Ages. Formation of new diphthongs. Change of consonant system. Changes in English language graphics in the Middle Ages.

### **Theme 14. Grammar of Middle English period**

Morphology. It happened in the morphology of the English language in the 12th-15th centuries' changes. Agreements in the classification of nouns simplifying and replacing their prepositions with compounds.

### **Theme 15. New English phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and word formation**

Main historical sources of modern spellings. Loss of consonants. The noun. The pronoun. The adjective. The verb. Borrowings from contemporary language in New English. Word derivation. Native prefixes. Borrowed suffixes. Semantic changes in the vocabulary.

<b>II.2. MA'RUZA MAVZULARINING TAQSIMLANISHI</b>		
<b>№</b>	<b>Mavzular</b>	<b>Soati</b>
<b>6- Semestr</b>		
1	Introduction to the course. German languages	2
2	Specific features of the Germanic language	2
3	Old English period. Celtic tribes in the British Isles and on the European continent.	2
4	Historical laws of the Old English sound system.	2
5	Morphology of Old English period.	2
6	Adjectives of Old English period.	2
7	Pronouns of Old English period	2
8	Verbs of Old English period.	2
9	Old English Syntax. Types of sentences.	2
10	Vocabulary composition and their development during the Old English period	2
11	Productive and less productive affixes. Compound words.	2
12	The period of Middle English history.	2
13	Phonetic system of Middle English period	2
14	Grammar of Middle English period.	2
15	New English phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and word formation	2
	<b>Jami</b>	<b>30</b>

### **III. SEMINAR MASHG'ULOTI MAVZULARI**

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### **Theme 14. Grammar of Middle English period**

Morphology. It happened in the morphology of the English language in the 12th-15th centuries' changes. Agreements in the classification of nouns simplifying and replacing their prepositions with compounds.

### **Theme 15. New English phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and word formation**

Main historical sources of modern spellings. Loss of consonants. The noun. The pronoun. The adjective. The verb. Borrowings from contemporary language in New English. Word derivation. Native prefixes. Borrowed suffixes. Semantic changes in the vocabulary.

<b>III.2. SEMINAR MASHG‘ULOTI MAVZULARINI TAQSIMLANISHI</b>		
	<b>Seminar mavzulari</b>	<b>Soati</b>
1	Introduction to the course. German languages	2
2	Specific features of the Germanic language	2
3	Old English period. Celtic tribes in the British Isles and on the European continent	2
4	Historical laws of the Old English sound system	2
5	Morphology of Old English period	2
6	Adjectives of Old English period	2
7	Pronouns of Old English period	2
8	Verbs of Old English period	2
9	Old English Syntax. Types of sentences	2
10	Vocabulary composition and their development during the Old English period	2
11	Productive and less productive affixes. Compound words.	2
12	The period of Middle English history	2
13	Phonetic system of Middle English period	2
14	Grammar of Middle English period	2
15	New English phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and word formation	2
	<b>Jami:</b>	<b>30</b>

<b>V.1. MUSTAQIL TA'LIM VA MUSTAQIL ISHLAR</b>		
<b>6-semestr</b>		<b>Soat</b>
1	Basic concepts and principles of English language history	4
2	Morphemic structure of the word, morpheme and word distortion in different periods	4
3	The main criteria for the classification of vowel sounds in Old English	4
4	Syntactic and analytical forms of words in Old English.	4
5	Structural, semantic and functional typology of the sentence in Old English	4
6	Phonetic division of syntagma in Old English, phonetic analysis of words	4
7	Types of intonation in simple and compound sentences in Old English	4
8	Articulatory and acoustic classification of consonants in Old English	4
9	The articulatory and acoustic classification of monophthongs and diphthongs in Old English.	4
10	Structural-semantic and functional development of verb, word groups	4

11	History of syntactic structures, word combinations, sentences and parts of sentences	4
12	The main methods used in the study of language history	4
13	Analyzing the basic concepts and principles of historical phonetics and phonology	4
14	Preservation of local dialects and their social manifestations	4
15	Changes in the New English grammatical system	4
	<b>Jami</b>	<b>60</b>

## **VI. FAN O‘QITILISHINING NATIJALARI (SHAKLLANADIGAN KOMPETENSIYALAR)**

Fanni o‘zlashtirishi natijasida talaba:

- ingliz tilining morfologik tuzilishi va tovush tizimi; o‘rganilayotgan tildan o‘qitish olib borilayotgan tilga tarjima amaliyoti spetsifikasi va stilistik xususiyatlari, me‘yoriy grammatika asoslari;

- ingliz tilining rivoji va til doirasidagi asosiy ekstralingvistik jihatdan shakllanishning asosiy omillari hamda tarixiy manbalari, uning dialektik xilmaxilligi haqida tasavvurga ega bo‘lishi, zamonaviy ingliz tili rivojlanish bosqichlari haqida, fanning terminologik apparati haqida **tasavvurga ega bo‘ladi (bilim);**

- O‘rganilayotgan til tarixi davrlari haqida, qadimgi, o‘rta va yangi ingliz tili davrlariga oid muhim yozma yodgorliklar haqida, grammatika sohasida ingliz tilining rivojlanish qonuniyatlari haqida, zamonaviy ingliz tili fonologik tizimining shakllanishida asosiy omil bo‘lib xizmat qilgan asosiy fonetik o‘zgarishlar haqidagi masalalarini **bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi (ko‘nikma);**

- ingliz tili lug‘at boyligining o‘rishining asosiy manbalari haqida ko‘nikmalariga ega bo‘lishi, tili o‘rganilayotgan mamlakatlar tarixi, geografiyasi, iqtisodiy, ijtimoiy-siyosiy tizimi, xalqaro munosabatlari, ularning jahon hamjamiyatidagi geosiyosiy o‘rni haqida bilishi va ular haqida ingliz tilida o‘z fikrlarini bayon qilish; atlas, statistik jadvallar, siyosiy, tabiiy va iqtisodiy xaritalar bilan ishlash **ko‘nikmalariga ega bo‘lishi (malaka).**

## **VII. TA‘LIM TEXNOLOGIYALARI VA METODLARI**

- ✓ ma‘ruzalar;
- ✓ interfaol keys-stadilar;
- ✓ seminarlar ( mantiqiy fikrlash, tezkor savol-javoblar);
- ✓ guruhlarda ishlash;
- ✓ individual loyihalar
- ✓ jamoa bo‘lib ishlash va himoya qilish uchun loyihalar

## VIII. KREDITLARNI OLISH UCHUN TALABLAR

Fanga ajratilgan kreditlar talabalarga har bir semestr bo'yicha nazorat turlaridan ijobiy natijalarga erishilgan taqdirda taqdim etiladi.

Oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha yozma ishni topshirish.

Talabalar bilimni baholash 100 ballik tizimda amalga oshiriladi. Oraliq nazorat semestrlarda bir marta test shaklida o'tkaziladi.

Talabalar bilimni baholashda nazorat turlari bo'yicha baholar umumiy bahoga foiz hisobida quyidagicha taqsimlanadi:

**Davomat – 10 foiz;**

**Taqdimot/loyiha – 10 foiz;**

**Mustaqil ta'lim – 10 foiz;**

**Oraliq nazorat(lar)ga – 20 foiz;**

**Yakuniy nazorat – 50 foiz**

Yuqoridagi baholash tizimida fanning xususiyatidan kelib chiqqan holda, kafedra tomonidan ma'ruza, amaliy, seminar hamda laboratoriya mashg'ulotlari uchun belgilanadi.

Davomat, taqdimot, mustaqil ta'limga ajratilgan foizlar (**30 foiz**) **joriy nazorat**, ma'ruza mashg'ulotlaridagi **oraliq nazorati** uchun (**20 foiz**) va **yakuniy nazorat** uchun (**50 foiz**) olinadi.

Ma'ruza dars mashg'ulotlari mavjud bo'lmagan fanlardan umumiy baholarni foizlarda taqsimlanganda amaliy mashg'ulotlari uchun **50 foiz** va yakuniy nazoratlar uchun **50 foiz** miqdorida olinadi.

Fan bo'yicha yakuniy nazorat test shaklida o'tkaziladi

### ASOSIY ADABIYOTLAR:

3. Расторгуева Е.А История английского языка. – Москва. Астрель АСТ, 2005. – 348 с.

4. Qo'ldoshev A. Ingliz tili tarixi. – Toshkent. O'zDJTU. 2011. – 186 b.

3. Viney B. The history of the English language. – London. Oxford University Press. 2008. - 85 p.

### QO'SHIMCHA ADABIYOTLAR:

1. Ильиш Б. А. История английского языка. - Москва., Просвещение. 2003. – 108 с.

### AXBOROT MANBAALARI

1. <https://new.tdpu.uz/>

2. <https://lex.uz/>

3. <http://e-library.namdu.uz/>

4. [www.ziyouz.com](http://www.ziyouz.com)
5. <https://new.tdpu.uz/>
6. <https://lex.uz/>
7. [www.ziyouz.com](http://www.ziyouz.com)

**Dastur Namangan davlat chet tillari instituti tomonidan ishlab chiqilgan va tasdiqlangan:**

Ingliz tili o‘qitish metodikasi kafedrasining 2024-yil, “\_\_\_”-avgustdagi № \_\_\_-sonli majlisida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqqa tavsiya etilgan.

Jahon tillari fakulteti kengashining 2024-yil, “\_\_\_”-avgustdagi № \_\_\_-sonli majlisida ma’qullangan va tasdiqqa tavsiya etilgan.

NamDCHTI o‘quv-uslubiy kengashining 2024-yil, “\_\_\_”-avgustdagi № \_\_\_-sonli majlisida muhokama qilingan va tasdiqlangan.

**Fan/modul uchun mas’ul:**

G.Sh.Tajibayev - Namangan davlat chet tillari instituti Ingliz tili o‘qitish metodikasi kafedra dotsenti, Ped.f.f.d., (PhD), dotsent

**Taqrizchilar:**

N.T.Dosbayeva – NamDCHTI Ingliz tili amaliy kursi kafedra professori, Filol.f.d., (DSc)

F.M.Erqulova – NamDCHTI, Ingliz tili o‘qitish metodikasi kafedra dotsenti, Ped.f.f.d., (PhD)

## BAHOLASH TARTIBI VA MEZONLARI

Fanga ajratilgan kreditlar talabalarga har bir semestr bo'yicha nazorat turlaridan ijobiy natijalarga erishilgan taqdirda taqdim etiladi.

Oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha yozma ishni topshirish.

Talabalar bilimni baholash 100 ballik tizimda amalga oshiriladi. Oraliq nazorat semestrlarda bir marta test shaklida o'tkaziladi.

Talabalar bilimni baholashda nazorat turlari bo'yicha baholar umumiy bahoga foiz hisobida quyidagicha taqsimlanadi:

**Davomat – 10 foiz;**

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Fan bo'yicha yakuniy nazorat test shaklida o'tkaziladi

## NAZORAT SAVOLNOMALARI

### Variant 1

Early History of Great Britain.

England of the XIII-XIV th centuries: social-economic development.

Influence of Chaucer to London dialect.

System of vowel phonemes in Old Germanic languages.

### Variant 2

Vocabulary of Old English period.

Old English system of writing.

Historical changes in vocabulary.

Borrowings of the XVII-XVIIIth centuries.

### Variant 3

Germanic vocabulary in French.

Scandinavian influence on English.

Latin borrowings in English in periods.

Middle English dialect.

### Variant 4

Early new English sub period.

Formation of national English literary language.

Borrowings from other languages in French Norman period .

Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages.

#### Variant 5

Germanic languages and their classification.

West – Germanic lengthening of consonants.

Germanic tribes and their dialects.

Give information about Indo- European family of languages.

#### Variant 6

Give information about Varner's law.

The second consonant shift.

What is Franks casket?

The subject of History of English.

#### Variant 7

What do you know about Grimm's Law?

Give information about old English alphabet.

Grammatical features of Germanic languages.

Germanic languages and their classification.

#### Variant 8

Differences of Romanic and Germanic languages.

Special kind of vowel alteration in Indo-European languages.

Give information about old English alphabet.

#### Variant 9

Origins of the English language.

Influences of the Roman Conquest to English in old English.

Synchronic and Diachronic aspects in history of English.

Variant 10

Old Germanic texts.

The Anglo-Saxon conquest.

Middle English vocabulary.

Give information about old English alphabet.

Variant 11

Periods in the history of English

Writings in Old English

Give information about old English vocabulary

Variant 12

Give information about old English alphabet

Sources for study of the periods in the history of English

King Alfred's contribution to English.

Phonetic structure of Middle English

Variant 13

Stress in Old English

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

Phonetic changes in new English period

Variant 14

Borrowings of new English period

Give information about Middle English vocabulary.

Reason of settling of Germans to British Isles

Variant 15

Give information about Middle English dialects

Give information about old English vocabulary

Palatalization in O.E.

Variant 16

When happened Mutation before 'h'

Borrowings of Middle English period

Peculiarities of west-Saxon dialects

Variant 17

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

Borrowings of new English period

Word building in O.E.

Variant 18

Give information about old English vocabulary

Borrowings of new old English period

Composition of O.E. vocabulary

Variant 19

What is Grims Law

Meaning and use of cases in O.E.

Ways of developing the vocabulary in O.E.

Variant 20

Grammatical categories in O.E. substantives

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

Old English words

Variant 21

What is Dane law

Give information about old English vocabulary

Mood in Middle English

The problem of aspect in O.E. verbs

Variant 22

Degrees of comparison in O.E.

Ways of expressing syntactical relations in O.E.

Why do we call Dane law

Variant 23

Appearing the preposition in O.E.

The Scandinavian conquest to British Isles

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

The interjection in O.E.

Variant 24

Morphology of North-West-Saxon Dialects

The composite sentences in O.E.

Principal features of Germanic languages: phonetics

Variant 25

Vowels in Middle English period

Consonants in new English period

System of vowel phonemes in Common Germanic and some interpretations of consonant changes in Common Germanic

Principal features of Germanic word stock. Etymology

Variant 26

Etymological layers of the subject

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

Word composition in Old English period

Variant 27

The Pronoun in Middle English period

The Adjective. Degrees of Comparison of Adjectives

Nominal grammatical categories. Noun declensions

Variant 28

Give information about King Alfred's contribution

Phonetic structure vowels in Middle English period

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

Variant 29

Old English consonants

Phonetic changes: vowels in New English period

Give information about old English vocabulary

Variant 30

Diphthongs in Old English

Old English fracture (Breaking)

Why do we divide English history into seven periods?

Variant 31

Loss of consonants in Old English period

Give information about Middle English vocabulary

When did the Mutation “h” happen?

Variant 32

Metathesis in OE

Peculiarities of North-West-Saxon dialects

General features of OE phonetic changes

Count the seven periods of English history

Variant 33

Give information about Middle English phonetics

Word-building in OE

Borrowings of new English period

Consonants of OE

Variant 34

Where was North-West-Saxon Dialects spoken?

Principal features of Germanic languages:

Middle English dialects

Variant 35

What was the first printed book in English?

Loss of consonants in O.E.

Give information about old English vocabulary

Variant

What is the purpose of this course?

What can you say about names England and English?

Influence of Latin to the English language

CARD

Where and when was the Gothic language spoken?

What did Christianizing occur in Britain?

Influence of French to the English language

CARD

Why do we have difficulties of reading and spelling in English?

What can you tell about modern Germanic Languages?

Influence of Italian to the English language

CARD

Why do we learn history of English language?

What dialects did old English consist of?

Influence of Latin to the English language

CARD

Where and when was Northumbrian spoken?

Latin language influence to English language

Influence of French to the English language

CARD

Describe the linguistic situation in Britain before and after the Germanic settlement.

What had happened with dialects?

Influence of Dutch to the English language

CARD

What period did Germanic conquerors come to Britain and what was happened?

What dialect is origin of English language?

Influence of Latin to the English language

CARD

What is the second period of the chronological division of English language? And what's happened then?

Modern Germanic languages.

Influence of French to the English language

CARD

What subgroups are Germanic languages divided?

Classify the languages belonging to Germanic subgroups.

Describe the language families.

CARD

What linguistic family does the English language belong?

Describe the earliest period of the Germanic history (Proto-Germanic).

Speak on the origin of the East, North and West Germanic languages.

CARD

How many people speak English in the contemporary world?

Why is English sometimes spoken of as the "20th century Latin"?

In how many countries is English the official language?

CARD

What is the genealogical classification of languages?

Name the groups of the Indo-European family of languages.

Which languages make separate groups in the Indo-European family of languages?

CARD

Name the subgroups of the Germanic group of languages.

Which languages belong to the West Germanic subgroup?

Name the Germanic kingdoms, which existed on the territory of Britain in the 6th century.

## CARD

Why is the Gothic language of special interest for linguists?

When did the English language originate?

Name the Celtic tribes that inhabited Britain before the Roman period.

## CARD

Name the Germanic tribes on the dialects of which the English language was based?

How long did the Roman reign in Britain last?

Why did the Roman have to leave Britain in the 5th century?

## CARD

How did the Roman colonization influence the language of the Celts?

Who described the Conquest of Britain by the Germanic tribes?

What group did the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes belong to?

## CARD

What helped the formation of the English language based on the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes?

What was the political situation in Britain after the Germanic Conquest?

Name the nine Germanic kingdoms, which existed on the territory of Britain in the 6th century.

## CARD

Which kingdom had the dominating position in the 7th century?

Which was the most powerful kingdom in Britain in the 8th century?

Explain the meaning of "Dane law".

CARD

When did the Scandinavian invasions begin?

How long did Britain remain a part of the Danish Empire?

Who became the king of England after the fall of the Danish power?

CARD

When was the Anglo-Saxon power restored?

Name the periods of the history of the English language.

Calculate which is the shortest and which is the longest period in the history of the English language.

CARD

What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?

What did the letters of the Runic alphabet look like?

What is "Ruth well Cross"?

CARD

What is "Beowulf"?

Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?

Name the most important Old English literary documents.

CARD

What is "Frank's casket"?

Who was speakers of Mersian?

Which dialect was base of English language?

## CARD

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What is "Ruth well Cross"?

#### CARD

What is "Beowulf"?

Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?

Name the most important Old English literary documents.

#### VARIANT

Why does English divide three periods?

How many countries is English the official language?

What is the genealogical classification of languages?

#### VARIANT

Name the groups of the Indo-European family of languages.

Which languages make separate groups in the Indo-European family of languages?

Name the subgroups of the Germanic group of languages.

### **VARIANT**

Which languages belong to the West Germanic subgroup?

Are the relations of languages based upon belonging of the nations speaking those languages to the same race?

### **VARIANT**

Give the explanation about J.Grimm's law.

Explain the relation between the Lithuanian word pirmas 'first' and English first from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.

What is Christianization?

### **VARIANT**

Explain the relation between the Latin word duo 'two' and English two from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.

Explain the relation between the Russian word три and English three from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.

Why is the Gothic language of special interest for linguists?

### **VARIANT**

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## **VARIANT**

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What did the letters of the Runic alphabet look like?

What is “Beowulf”?

## **VARIANT**

Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?

How many vowel monophthongs were there in Old English?

What does it mean when we say that the Old English system of vowels was symmetric?

## **VARIANT**

Explain the fact that in Old English texts we come across such spelling variants as man - mon, land - lond, etc.?

How many diphthongs were there in Old English phonetic structure? Name them.

Give the definition of ablaut.

## **VARIANT**

Write out the four basic forms of the verb *writan* 'to write'.

Give the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives *strong*, *long*, *eald* in Old English. Explain them.

Is there historic relation between the modern words *road* and *to ride*?

## **VARIANT**

Name the nine principal phonetic changes that took place in Old English.

What is the Old English fracture?

Explain the change *\*herte* > *heorte*.

## **VARIANT**

Explain what is diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonant.

Name the four main dialects of the Old English language.

What does it mean that the Old English dialects were basically tribal?

## **VARIANT**

In which territory was the *Wessex* dialect spoken?

What is the collective name for the *Northumbrian* and *Mercian* dialects?

Which Middle English dialect was the basis for the formation of the national literary language?

## **VARIANT**

Name literary documents written in in the *London* dialect.

In which dialect were Geoffrey Chaucer's works written?

Why was the London dialect of special importance among other Middle English dialects?

### **VARIANT**

When did The Hundred Years' War end?

Who was defeated in The Hundred Years' War?

When did The Wars of Roses take place?

### **VARIANT**

What were the reasons for The Wars of Roses?

write on the circumstances of the Yorks' coming to power in 1461.

When did the restoration of the Lancastrians take place?

### **VARIANT**

What influences to English were by the Tudors' dynasty?

What impact had the stability and unity of the country after the end of The Wars of Roses on the development of the national language and literature?

When and where was printing invented?

### **VARIANT**

Name the first English printer.

Where did William Caxton learn the art of printing?

When was the first press founded in England?

### **VARIANT**

When were the first English books printed? Name them.

The features of which dialects can be traced in the first English printed books?

Why did the introduction of printing cause the establishment of the spelling standard?

### **VARIANT**

How is it possible to explain the gap between spelling and pronunciation in the New English language?

What time can we practically ascribe the stabilization of the spelling standard to?

How did the literary language influence everyday speech?

### **VARIANT**

Give examples of pronunciation and spelling variants in Early New English.

Explain the notion of the functional universality of New English.

What were the relations of the English language with Latin and French in the 15th and 16th centuries?

### **VARIANT**

Which dialect was the growth of the English language based upon?

Explain the Vikings linguistic policy.

What is the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible? When was it issued?

### **VARIANT**

What is the Great Vowel Shift?

When and where was the Ruthwel cross founded?

How did Britain reinforce its positions in America in the 18th century?

## **VARIANT**

When did the colonization begin?

Give examples of Indian loan-words in English?

When were Australia and New Zealand colonized?

## **VARIANT**

What was the first English colony in Africa?

How did the expansion of Britain influence the development of the English language?

What is Great Vowel Shift?

## **VARIANT**

How is it possible to explain the gap between spelling and pronunciation in the New English language?

What dialect of Old English is base of Standard English?

When was the first press founded in England?

## FOYDALANILADIGAN ADABIYOTLAR RO‘YXATI

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### AXBOROT MANBAALARI

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13. <https://lex.uz/>
14. [www.ziyouz.com](http://www.ziyouz.com)

## TARQATMA MATERIALLAR VA KEYSLAR TO‘PLAMI

### **Case study 1.**

Imagine you have found a manuscript written in an unknown language. But you are sure that it was in one of the Germanic languages. Think of what should be done to establish the language of the manuscript.

### **Case study 2.**

You used the time machine and you occurred to find yourself in one of the European countries of the VI-VII centuries. Try all the measures to communicate with the native people.

### **Case study 3.**

Some people think that the events described in the first consonant shift took place in the XIX century when Jacob Grimm worked out the statements of the law. Give your reasons to explain that his ideas are wrong.

### **Case study 4.**

Linguists say that the first consonant shift made a great contribution to form a separate group of languages later called Germanic. On what bases this statement is supported by historians?

### **Case study 5.**

Some people are sure that the English language developed from the Latin language. Give reasons to reject this idea.

### **Case study 6.**

We know that the English language was greatly influenced by the French language. Explain on what social conditions the intercourse took place.

### **Case study 7.**

Imagine that you live in the IX century England. You want to know about some events which took place earlier. Where would you go and why.

### **Case study 8.**

Imagine that you are in the village of Ruthwell in Scotland and you have found a tall stone with strange inscriptions. What would you do in order to understand the meaning of this inscription?

### **Case study 9.**

Imagine Caedmon was your friend. Some striking changes took place in his character and behavior. You want to know the reason, what would you do?

### **Case study 10.**

Imagine you are the author of the epic poem “Beowulf” and you want to write the continuation of this poem. What events would you choose as the subject for your creative work?

### **Case study 11.**

Imagine you are King Alfred. You want to translate more works of Greek and Latin philosophers. Whose work would you choose to translate into Old English to begin with?

### **Case study 12.**

Imagine you live in King’s court in the XII century England. Would you make attempts to learn the English language spoken by the common people.

### **Case study 13.**

Imagine you are member of House of Lords. It is the XIII century. You are asked to make a speech. What language would you prefer to make your speech?

### **Case study 14.**

Imagine you are an elementary school teacher and you are asked to explain the strange pronunciation of the English “one” to little ones beginning to read. How would you explain?

### **Case study 15.**

Imagine you are a beginning level teacher. One of your pupils used the form “mouses” instead of “mice”. First give the right version and then explain why it is so.

### **Case study 16.**

Imagine you are a teacher. One of your pupils mispronounced the word “bought” as [bought]. First give the correct pronunciation then explain why it is pronounced in this way.

### **Case study 17.**

Imagine you are a school teacher. One of your learners asked about the difference between the terms “New English” and “Modern English”. How would you answer this question?

### **Case study 18.**

Imagine you have to explain to some people the fact why some words in British and American English are used in different meanings. How would you explain?

### **Case study 19.**

Imagine you have to explain how a language spoken by 4 million people on an island became a global language. How would you explain?

# TESTLAR

## Section 1

1. When did the occupation of France and the British Isles by Celts from Central Europe take place?
  - A. the 5 th centure
  - B. about 1 st Country
  - C. BC about 500 c. BC
  - D. The 10 th centure BC
2. Who was the author of the Gothic Translation of the Bible?
  - A Pliny the Elder.
  - B. King Alfred
  - C. King Arthur
  - D. Ulfilas
3. How many alphabets were used by ancient Germans?
  - A. 4
  - B. 3
  - C.2
  - D.1
4. How was the Latin alphabet used in the British Isles called?
  - A. Insular Latin
  - B. New Latin
  - C. Continental Latin
  - D. Innovated Latin
5. What languages in its written form is closest to the ancient Germanic Language?
  - A Swedish.
  - B. Germanic
  - C. Dutch
  - D. Icelandic
6. When did the first consonant shift take place?

- a) Before the 10 th century BC
  - b) Before the 4 th century BC
  - c) Before the 4 th century AD
  - d) Before the 10 th century AD
7. When did the great migration of nations take place?
- a) 1-5c. BC
  - b) 2-7 c. AD
  - c) 8-11c. AD
  - d) 10-5c. BC
8. What languages belong to the West Germanic group?
- a) English, German, Dutch, Frisian
  - b) English, Swedish, Faroese, Icelandic
  - c) English, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic
  - d) English, Dutch, Finnish, Icelandic
9. Endemic language is a language spoken in:
- a) one – country.
  - b) two countries
  - c) Three or more countries
  - d) many countries
10. While long vowels generally tended to become closed and to diphthongize, short vowels on the contrary, often changed into \_\_\_\_\_
- a) back vowels
  - b) diphthongs
  - c) more open sounds
  - d) long vowels
11. Is a result of voicing by Verner’s Law there arose \_\_\_\_\_?
- a) an interchange of consonants
  - b) ablaut
  - c) variability of endings
  - d) additional endings

12. Find the tribes who gave rise to the English language
- a) Germans, Low Saxons, Bavarians, Heruls
  - b) Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, Franks
  - c) Angles, Celts, Jutes, Notuegans, Franks
  - d) Latin, Grek, Normans, Britts, Wallens
13. Find the group that does not exist in the Germanic languages.
- A. South Germanic
  - B. East Germanic
  - C. West Germanic
  - D. North Germanic
14. In the 4<sup>th</sup> century the bishop Ulfilas translated the Bible from the Greek into..
- A. Gothic
  - B. English
  - C. German
  - D. Latin
15. The Greek traveler and astronomer Pytheas was from....
- A. Rome
  - B. Paris
  - C. Athens
  - D. Massilia

## **Section 2**

- 1 The book "Commentaries on the War in the "Gaul" was written by...
- A. Julius Caesar
  - B. Pliny the Elder
  - C. Strabo
  - D. Pytheas
2. The earliest statement of the First consonant shift was given by...
- A. J. Grimm

- B. R. Rask
  - C. H. Paul
  - D. F. de Saussure
3. The system of strong verbs is based on ...
- A. inflection
  - B. vowel gradation
  - C. agglutination
  - D. affixation
4. To which Modern English word does the OE word *waron* correspond?
- A. wear
  - B. were
  - C. wore
  - D. worn
5. The process as a result of which long vowels were narrowed and the narrowed ones become diphthongized is named as:
- A. phonologization
  - B. diphthongization
  - C. great vowel shift
  - D. narrowing
6. The first document written in London dialect was ...
- A. "Canterbury Tales" by Chaucer
  - B. Brune
  - C. The Petersborough Chronicle
  - D. The Proclamation of Henry III
7. The Norman Conquest began in ...
- A. 1066
  - B. 1055
  - C. 1258
  - D. 1363
8. The oldest English written scriptures were in

- A. Runes
  - B. Latin
  - C. Hieroglyphs
  - D. Gothic alphabet
9. Complete occupation of Britain was accomplished by the Emperor:
- A. Julius Caesar
  - B. Augustine
  - C. Claudius
  - D. Antonio
10. The chronological limits of the OE period are
- A. VII -XI
  - B. I-VI
  - C. XI-XV
  - D. XVI-XVIII
11. The chronological limits of the Middle English period are...
- A. . XI-XV
  - B. I-VI
  - C. I-V
  - D. XVI-XVIII
12. Define the type of the stem in the word "sunu"
- A. root stem
  - B. o-stem
  - C. i-stem
  - D. u-stem
13. Addition of an extra syllable consisting of the initial consonant and the vowel e (spelled as ai) in the past tense is called:
- A. conglutination
  - B. reduplication
  - C. doubling
  - D. agglutination
14. Weak verbs derive their past tense and second participle by means of a ...
- A. dental suffix
  - B. ablaut
  - C. suppletion
  - D. prefixation
15. Angles occupied the territory north of .....

- A. Humber
- B. Forth
- C. Thames
- D. Kent


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two countries
Three or more countries
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XVI-XVIII
Define the type of the stem in the word "sunu"
root stem

o-stem
i-stem
u-stem
Addition of an extra syllable consisting of the initial consonant and the vowel “I” (spelled as ai) in the past tense is called:
conjugation
reduplication
doubling
agglutination
Weak verbs derive their past tense and second participle by means of a ...
dental suffix
ablaut
suppletion
prefixation
Angles occupied the territory north of .....
Humber
Forth
Thames
Kent