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Content

1. Subject and aims of the History of English
2. Germanic languages
3. Old English Phonetics
4. The Old English grammar
5. Old English vocabulary and word formation
6. Middle English phonetics
7. Middle English grammar
8. Middle English vocabulary and word formation
9. Development of the syntactic system in the Middle English
- 10.

Theme: Subject and aims of the History of English**Plans:**

1. The subject of the History of English.
2. The aim of the History of English.
3. Sources of the History of English.

1. This outline history covers the main events in the historical development of the English language: the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of English-speaking communities relevant to language history.

2. Through learning the history of the English language the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical.

The history of the language is of considerable interest to all students of English, since the English language of today reflects many centuries of development. This is no less true of a foreign language. Therefore one of the aims of this course is to provide the student with knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present-day English.

Any student of English is well aware of the difficulties of reading and spelling English. The written form of the English word is conventional rather than phonetic. The values of Latin letters as used in English differ greatly from their respective values in other languages, e.g. French, German or Latin, example:

bit-[<i>bit</i>] three letters- <i>three sounds</i>	Full correspondence between Latin letters and English sounds
bite -[<i>bait</i>]no four letters- <i>three sound</i>	Correspondence between the vowels and their graphic representation: the final <i>e</i> is not pronounced, but conventionally serves to show that the preceding letter <i>i</i> has its English alphabetic value which is [ai], not [i] as in other languages
knight-[<i>nait</i>] six letters- <i>three sounds</i>	The letters <i>k</i> and <i>hg</i> do not stand for any sound but <i>hg</i> evidently shows that <i>I</i> stands for [ai]

The history of English sound and spelling accounts for these and similar peculiarities. Without going into details it will suffice to say that at the time when Latin characters were first used in Britain (7th c.) writing was phonetic: the letters stood, roughly, for the same sounds as in Latin. Later, especially after the introduction of printing in the 15th c, the written form of the word became fixed, while the sounds continued to change. This resulted in a growing discrepancy between letter and sound and in the modern peculiar use of Latin letters in English. Many modern spellings show how the words were pronounced some four or five hundred years ago, e.g. in the 14thc. *knight* sounded as [knix't], *root* as [ro:t], *tal* as ['ta:lu].

Another illustration may be drawn from the vocabulary. Since English belongs to the Germanic group of languages, it would be natural to expect that it has many words or roots in common with cognate Germanic languages: German, Swedish, Danish and others. Instead, we find many more words in Mod Exhaling exact parallels in the Romanic languages: French, Latin, and Spanish.

The word-*give-is* of native, Germanic origin, which is confirmed by the parallels from other Germanic tongues; the words-*peace* and *army*-are borrowings from Romance languages (note that in OE the respective words were Germanic.) In present-day English the proportion of Romance roots is higher than that of native roots. The history of English will say when and how these borrowings were made and will thus account for the composition of the modern vocabulary.

As far as grammar is concerned, it can only be noted at this stage that the history of the language will supply explanations both regular features of the grammatical structure and for its specific peculiarities and exceptions. It will explain why English has so few inflections; how its “analytical” structure arose –with an abundance of compound forms and fixed word order; why modal verbs, unlike other verbs, take no ending –s in the 3rd p. sg.; why some nouns add –en or change the root-vowel in the plural instead of adding –s (e.g. oxen, feet) and so on and so forth.

Another important aim of this course is of a more theoretical nature. While tracing the evolution of the English language through time, the student will be confronted with a number of theoretical questions such as the relationship between static’s and dynamics in language, the role of linguistic and extra linguistic factors, the interdependence of different processes in language history. These problems may be considered on a theoretical plane within the scope of general linguistics. In describing the evolution of English, they be discussed in respect of concrete linguistic facts, which will ensure a better understanding of these facts and will demonstrate the application of general principles to language material.

One more aim of this course is to provide the student of English with a wider philological outlook. The history of the English language shows the place of English in the linguistic world; it reveals its ties and contacts with other related and unrelated tongues.

3. Every living language changes through time. It is natural that no records of linguistic changes have ever been kept, as most changes pass unnoticed by contemporaries.

The history of the English language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The extant written texts in English are dated in the 7th c; the earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or 4th c.

The development of English, however, began a long time before it was first recorded. In order to say where the English language came from, to what languages it is related, when and how it has acquired its specific features, one must get acquainted with some facts of the prewritten history of the Germanic group.

Certain information about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers, especially Roman. They contain descriptions of Germanic tribes, personal names and place-names. Some data are also provided by early borrowings from Germanic made by other languages, e.g. the

Finnish and the Baltic languages. But the bulk of our knowledge comes from scientific study of extant texts.

Questions:

1. What is the subject and aims of history of English?
2. Explain why linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual.
3. At first glance the vocabulary of the language seems to change very rapidly, as new words spring up all the time. Could the following words be regarded as absolutely new? (Note the meaning, component parts and word-building pattern): *jet-plane* (cf. airplane), type script (cf. manuscript, air-lift, baby-sitter, sputnik, safari, best-seller, cyclization, air-taxi, astrobiology, sun, suit, pepper, gas.)
4. In the 14thc. the following words were pronounced exactly as they are spelt, the Latin letters retaining their original sound values. Show the phonetic changes since the 14thc: moon, fat, meet, rider, want, knee, turn, first, first, part, for, often, e.g. nut->[nat].

Key words:

dead language – ўлик тил, ёзма манбалардан маълум бўлган, ҳозир кундалик ҳаётда қўлланмайдиган тиллар;

language materials: phonetics, grammar, vocabulary- тил материли: талаффуз, грамматика, лексика;

the evolution of language- тилнинг ривожланиш натижасида ўзгариши;

linguistic situation- тил муҳити, яъни қабила, давлат ва халқ тарихига доир, давлатдаги сиёсий, иқтисодий ва маданий ўзгаришларнинг тилга таъсири доирасидаги тил муҳити.

Theme: Germanic languages

Plans:

1. The classification of Germanic languages.
2. Linguistic features of Germanic languages.
3. Chronological divisions in the History of English.

1. Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historical or genealogical classification, groups' languages in accordance with their origin is from a common linguistic ancestor.

Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which is one of the twelve groups of the IE linguistic family. Most of the area of Europe and large parts of other continents are OCCUPIED today by the IE languages, Germanic being one of their major groups.

The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows:

English — in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, and many other former British colonies and dominions;

German — in Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland;

Netherlandish — in the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium) (known also as Dutch and Flemish respectively);

Afrikaans — in the South African Republic;

Danish — in Denmark;

Swedish — in Sweden and Finland;

Norwegian — in Norway;

Icelandic — in Iceland;

Frisian — in some regions of the Netherlands and Germany;

Faroese — in the Froe Islands;

Yiddish — in Israel.

Lists of Germanic languages given in manuals and reference-books differ in some points, for the distinction between separate languages, and also between languages and dialects varies. Until recently Dutch and Flemish were named as separate languages; Frisian and Faroese are often referred to as dialects, since they are spoken over small, politically dependent areas; the linguistic independence of Norwegian is questioned, for it has intermixed with Danish; Br E and Am E are sometimes regarded as two independent languages.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English which in many countries is one of two languages in a bilingual community, e.g. in Canada. The estimates for English range from 250 to 300 million people who have it as their mother tongue. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 million. To this rough estimate we could add an indefinite number of bilingual people in the countries where English is used as an official language (over 50 countries).

All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history. The survey of their external history will

show where and when the Germanic languages arose and acquired their common features and also how they have developed into modern independent tongues.

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language (also termed Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic and simply Germanic). PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th c. B.C. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community.

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

PG is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. In the 19th c. it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages.

It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally colored. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. B.C., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. In the 1st c. B.C. in *COMMENTARIES ON THE GALLIC WAR* (*COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO*) Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes — the Suevians — who bordered on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. The tribal names *Germans* and *Teutons*, at first applied to separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group. In the 1st c. A. D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in *NATURAL HISTORY* (*NATURALIS HISTORIA*) made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. The tri-partite division of the Germanic languages proposed by 19th c. philologists corresponds, with a few adjustments, to Pliny's grouping of the Old Teutonic tribes. According to this division PG split, into three branches: East Germanic (*Vindili* in Pliny's classification), North Germanic (*Hilleviones*) and West Germanic (which embraces *Ingveones*, *Istsevones* and *Hermino-nes* in Pliny's list). In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.

Germanic languages can be described under three headings: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

East Germanic

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 A. D. they moved south-east and some time later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch, the *Vlsgote*, invaded Roman territory, participated in the assaults on Rome under Alaric and moved on to southern Gaul, to found one of the first barbarian kingdoms of Medieval Europe, the Toulouse kingdom. The kingdom lasted until the 8th c. though linguistically the western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanised Celts. The eastern Goths, *Ostrogote* consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the lower basin of the Dniester, were subjugated by the Huns under Atilla, traversed the Balkans and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy, with Ravenna as its capital. The short-lived flourishing of Ostrogothic culture in the 5th—6th c. under Theodoric came to an end with the fall of the kingdom.

The Gothic language, now dead has been preserved in written records of the 4th—6th c. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th c. Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Parts of Ulfilas' Gospels — a manuscript of about two hundred pages, probably made in the 5th or 6th c. — have been preserved and are kept now in Uppsala, Sweden. It is written on red parchment with silver and golden letters and is known as the SILVER CODEX (CODEX ARGENTEUS). Ulfilas Gospels were first published in the 17th c. and have been thoroughly studied by 19th and 20th c. philologists. The SILVER CODEX is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English.

North Germanic

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The North Germanic tribes lived on the southern coast of the Scandinavian peninsula and in Northern Denmark (since the 4th c). They did not participate in the migrations and were, relatively isolated, though they may have come into closer contacts with the western tribes after the Goths left the coast of the Baltic Sea. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th c. and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called *Old Norse* or *Old Scandinavian*. It has come down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the 3rd to the 9th c. Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material in an original Germanic alphabet known as the *runic alphabet* or the *runes*. The runes were used by North and West Germanic tribes.

The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the 9th c, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages. The famous Viking Age, from about 800 to 1050 A.D. is the legendary age of Scandinavian raids and expansion overseas. At the same period, due to overpopulation in the areas, they spread over inner Scandinavia.

The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance and the relative position of the three languages altered, as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbours. For several hundred years Denmark was the most powerful of the Scandinavian kingdoms: it embraced Southern Sweden, the greater part of the British Isles, the southern coast of the Baltic Sea up to the Gulf of Riga; by the 14th c. Norway fell under Danish rule too. Sweden regained its independence in the 16th c. while Norway remained a backward Danish colony up to the early 19th c. Consequently both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian and Old Swedish date from the 13th c. In the later Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries. Danish, and then Swedish developed into national literary languages. Nowadays Swedish is spoken not only by the population of Sweden, the language has extended over Finnish territory and is the second state language in Finland.

Norwegian was the last to develop into an independent national language.. During the period of Danish dominance Norwegian intermixed with Danish..

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Beginning with the 8th c. the Scandinavian sea-rovers and merchants undertook distant sea voyages and set up their colonies in many territories. The Scandinavian invaders, known as Northmen, overran Northern France and settled in Normandy (named after them). Crossing the Baltic Sea they came to Russia the "varyagi" of the Russian chronicles. Crossing the North Sea they made disastrous attacks on English coastal towns and eventually occupied a large part of England — the Danes of the English chronicles. They founded numerous settlements in the islands around the North Sea: the Shetlands, the Orkneys, Ireland and the Faroe Islands; going still farther west they reached Iceland, Greenland and North America.

Linguistically, in most areas of their expansion, the Scandinavian settlers were assimilated by the native population: in France they adopted the French language; in Northern England, in Ireland and other islands around the British Isles sooner or later the Scandinavian dialects were displaced by English. In the Faroe Islands the West Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians developed into a separate language called Faroese. Faroese is spoken nowadays, by about 30,000 people. For many centuries all writing was done in Danish; it was not until the 18th c. that the first Faroese records were made.

Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements (9th c). Their West Scandinavian dialects, at first identical with those of Norway, eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic. It developed as a separate language in spite of the political dependence of Iceland upon Denmark and the dominance of Danish in official spheres. As compared with other North Germanic languages Icelandic has retained a more archaic vocabulary and grammatical system. Modern Icelandic is very much like Old Icelandic and Old Norse, for it has not

participated in the linguistic changes which took place in the other Scandinavian languages, probably because of its geographical isolation. At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200 000 people.

West Germanic

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering with the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the South. They must have retreated further west under the pressure of the Goths, who had come from Scandinavia, but after their departure expanded in the eastern and southern directions. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names. On the eve of their "great migrations" of the 4th and 5th c. the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians (known as the Anglo-Frisian group), the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area or the modern Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes "known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Republic of Germany (hence the name *High Germans* as contrasted to *Low Germans* — a name applied to the West Germanic tribes in the low-lying, northern areas. The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are known since the early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, and others.

In the Early Middle Ages the Franks consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance. Towards the 8th c. their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. Under Charlemagne (768—814) the Roman Empire of the Franks embraced France and half of Italy, and stretched northwards up to the North and Baltic Sea. The empire lacked ethnic and economic unity and in the 9th c. broke up into parts. Its western part eventually became the basis of France. Though the names *France*, *French* are derived from the tribal name of the Franks, the Franconian dialects were not spoken there. The population, the Romanized Celts of Gaul, spoke a local variety of Latin, which developed into one of the most extensive Romance languages. French.

The eastern part, ' the Last Franconian Empire, comprised several kingdoms: Swabia or Alemania, Bavaria, East Franconia and Saxony; to these were soon added two more kingdoms — Lorraine and Friesland is seen from the names of the kingdoms, the East Franconian state had a mixed population consisting of several West Germanic tribes.

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch -me language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and Flemish;

- the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the 10th c; 12th c. records represent the earliest Old Dutch. The formation of the Dutch language stretches over a long period; it is linked up with the growth of the Netherlands into an independent bourgeois state after its liberation from Spain in the 16th c.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called *Dutch*, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language,

Netherlandish.. Netherlandish is spoken by almost 20 million people; its northern variety, used in the Netherlands, has a more standardized literary form.

About three hundred years ago the Dutch language was brought to South Africa by colonists from Southern Holland. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. Afrikaans has incorporated elements from the speech of English and German colonists in Africa and from the tongues of the natives. Writing in Afrikaans began as late as the end of the 19th c. Today Afrikaans is the mother-tongue of over four million Afrikaners and coloured people and one of the state languages in the South African Republic (alongside English).

The High German group of tribes did not go far in their migrations. Together with the Saxons, the Alemanians, Bavarians, and Thuringians extended east, driving the Slavonic tribes from places of their early settlement.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written records in OHG date from the 8th and 9th c. 4 glosses and texts, translations from Latin and religious poems. Towards the 12th c. High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighbouring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. The Written Standard of New High German was established after the reformation, though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th c. as Germany remained politically divided into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms. To this day German is remarkable for great dialectal diversity of speech.

The High German language in a somewhat modified form is the national language of Austria, the language of Liechtenstein and one of the languages in Luxemburg and Switzerland. It is also spoken in Alsace and Lorraine in France. The total number of German-speaking people approaches 100 million.

Another offshoot of High German is Yiddish. It grew from the High German dialects which were adopted by numerous Jewish communities scattered over Germany in the 11th and 12th c. These dialects blended, with elements of Hebrew and Slavonic and developed into a separate West Germanic language with a spoken and literary form. Yiddish was exported from Germany to many other countries: Russia, Poland, the Baltic States and America.

At the later stage of the great migration period — in the 5th c. — a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxons and Frisians, and, probably, the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the English language.

The Frisians and the Saxons who did not take part in the invasion of Britain stayed on the continent. The area of Frisians, which at one time extended over the entire coast of the North Sea. was reduced under the pressure of other Low German tribes and the influence of their dialects, particularly Low Franconian (later Dutch). Frisian was survived as a local dialect in Friesland (in the Netherlands). It has both an oral and written form, the earliest records dating from the 13th c.

In the Early Middle Ages the continental Saxons formed a powerful tribe in the lower basin of the Elbe. They were subjugated by the Franks and after the breakup of the Empire entered its eastern subdivision. Together with High German tribes they took

part in the eastward drive and the colonization of the former Slavonic territories. Old Saxon known in written form from the records of the 9th c. has survived as one of the Low German dialects.

The following table shows the classification of old and modern Germanic languages.

2. All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic.

The Germanic group acquired their specific distinctive features after the separation of the ancient Germanic tribes from other IE tribes and prior to their further expansion and disintegration that is during the period of the PG parent-language. These PG features inherited by the descendant languages represent the common features of the Germanic group. Other common features developed later, in the course of the individual histories of separate Germanic languages, as a result of similar tendencies arising from PG causes. On the other hand, many Germanic features have been disguised, transformed and even lost in later history.

The specific peculiarities of consonants constitute the most remarkable distinctive feature of the Germanic linguistic group. Comparison with other languages within the IE family reveals regular correspondences between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. Thus we regularly find [f] in Germanic where other IE languages have [p]; e.g., E *full*, R *полный*, Fr *plein*; wherever Germanic has [p] cognate words in non-Germanic languages have [b] (E *pool*, R *болото*). The consonants in Germanic look 'shifted' as compared with the consonants of non-Germanic languages. The alterations of the consonants took place in PG, and the resulting sounds were inherited by the languages of the Germanic group.

The changes of consonants in PG were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th c. and are often called Grimm's Law. It is also known as the *First* or *Proto-consonant shift* (to be distinguished from the 2nd shift which took place in OHG in the 9th c).

By the terms, of Grimm's Law voiceless plosives developed in PG into voiceless fricatives; IE voiced plosives were shifted to voiceless plosives and IE voiced aspirated plosives were reflected either as voiced fricatives or as pure voiced plosives.

Consonant Shift in Proto-Germanic (Grimm's Law)

Illustration	Non-Germanic	OG	NG
PIE-p PG=/ <i>t</i> into <i>o</i>	L <i>pes</i> L <i>tres</i>	<i>fot</i> <i>treo</i>	<i>foot</i> <i>three</i>
<i>k</i> into <i>x</i>	L <i>cor</i>	<i>heort</i>	<i>heart</i>
<i>b</i> into <i>p</i>	R <i>болото</i>	<i>pol</i>	<i>pool</i>
<i>d</i> into <i>t</i>	L <i>decem</i>	<i>tien</i>	<i>ten</i>

<i>c</i> into <i>k</i>	L <i>cneow</i>	<i>cneo</i>	<i>knee</i>
<i>bh</i> into <i>b</i>	O Ind <i>bharata</i>	<i>bropor</i>	<i>brother</i>
<i>dh</i> into <i>d</i>	O Ind <i>rudhira</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>
<i>gh</i> into <i>g</i>	L	<i>giest</i>	<i>guest</i>

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19th c. by a Danish scholar, Carl Verner. They are known as Verner's Law. Verner's Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. According to Verner's Law all the early PG voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x] which arose under Grimm's Law, and also it inherited from IE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless. The voicing occurred in early PG at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme. The process of voicing can be shown as a step in a succession of consonant changes in pre-historical reconstructed forms; consider, e.g. the changes of the second consonant in the word *father*.

Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)

IE	PG	Non-Germanic	OE	NE
<i>p</i>	<i>p</i> into <i>v</i>	L <i>caput</i>	<i>heafod</i> [v]	<i>head</i>
<i>t</i>	<i>t</i> into <i>d</i>	O Ind <i>salam</i>	<i>hund</i>	<i>hundred</i>
<i>k</i>	<i>k</i> into <i>g, y</i>	L <i>cunctari</i>	<i>hangian</i>	<i>hang</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i> into <i>z</i>	L <i>auris</i>	<i>eares</i>	<i>ears</i>

3. The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden Breaks or rapid transformations. Therefore any periodisation imposed on language history by linguists, with precise dates, might appear artificial, if not arbitrary, yet in all language histories. Divisions into periods and cross-sections of a certain length, are used for teaching and research purposes. The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and New English (NE), with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language. OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) or with the beginning of writing (7th c.) and ends with the Norman Conquest (1066); ME begins with the Norman Conquest and ends on the introduction of printing (1475), which is the start of the Modern or New English period (Mod E or NE); the New period lasts to the present day.

The amendments proposed to the traditional periodisation shift the boundary lines or envisage other subdivisions within the main periods: it has been suggested that ME

really began at a later date, c. 1150 (A. Baugh), for the effect of the Norman Conquest on the language could not have been immediate; another suggestion was that we should single out periods of transition and subdivide the three main periods into early, classical, and late (H. Sweet). Some authors prefer a division of history by centuries (M. Schlauch) or a division into periods of two hundred years (B. Strang).

It has been noticed that although language history is a slow uninterrupted chain of events, the changes are not evenly distributed in time: periods of intensive and vast changes at one or many levels may be followed by periods of relative stability. It seems quite probable that the differences in the rate of changes are largely conditioned by the linguistic situation, which also accounts for many other features of language evolution.

The *first* —pre-written or pre-historical — period, which may be termed *Early Old English*, lasts from the West Germanic invasion of Britain till the beginning of writing, that is from the 5th to the close of the 7th c. It is the stage of tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders (Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians), which were gradually losing contacts with the related continental tongues. The tribal dialects were used for oral communication there being no written form of English.

The *second* historical period extends from the 8th c. till the end of the 11th. The English language of that time is referred to as *Old-English* or *Anglo-Saxon*; it can also be called *Written OE* as compared with the pre-written Early OE period. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects. Towards the end of the period the differences between the dialects grew and their relative position altered. They were probably equal as a medium of oral communication, while in the sphere of writing one of the dialects, West Saxon, had gained supremacy over the other dialects (Kentish, Mercian and Northumbrian). The prevalence of West Saxon in writing is tied up with the rise of the kingdom of Wessex to political and cultural prominence.

The *third* period, known as *Early Middle English* starts after 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and covers the 12th, 13th and half of the 14th c. It was the stage of the greatest dialectal divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences — Scandinavian and French. The dialectal division of present-day English owes its origin to this period of history.

Under Norman rule the official language in England was French, or rather its variety called *Anglo-French* or *Anglo-Norman*; it was also the dominant language of literature. There is an obvious gap in the English literary tradition in the 12th c. The local dialects were mainly used for oral communication and were but little employed in writing. Towards the end of the period their literary prestige grew, as English began to displace French in the sphere of writing, as well as in many other spheres. Dialectal divergence and lack of official English made a favourable environment for intensive linguistic change.

Early ME was a time of great changes at all the levels of the language, especially in lexis and grammar. English absorbed two layers of lexical borrowings: the Scandinavian element in the North-Eastern area (due to the Scandinavian invasions since the 8th c.) and the French element in the speech of townspeople in the South-East, especially in the lighter social strata (due to the Norman Conquest). Phonetic and grammatical changes proceeded at a high rate, unrestricted by written tradition.

The *fourth* period — from the later 14th c. till the end of the 15th — embraces the age of Chaucer, the greatest English medieval writer and forerunner of the English Renaissance. We may call it *Late* or *Classical Middle English*. It was the time of the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language and the time of literary flourishing. The main dialect used in writing and literature was the mixed dialect of London. (The London dialect was originally derived from the Southern dialectal group, but during the 14th c. the southern traits were largely replaced by East Midland traits.) The literary authority of other dialects was gradually overshadowed by the prestige of the London written language.

Chaucer's language was a recognized literary form, imitated throughout the 15th c. literary flourishing had a stabilizing effect on language that the rate of linguistic changes was slowed down. At the same time the written forms of the language developed and improved.

The *fifth* period — *Early New English* — lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare that is from 1475 to c. 1660. The first printed book in English was published by William Caxton in 1475. This period is a sort of transition between two outstanding epochs of literary efflorescence: the age of Chaucer and the age of Shakespeare (also known as the *Literary Renaissance*).

It was a time of great historical consequence: under the growing capitalist system the country became economically and politically unified; the changes in the political and social structure, the progress of culture, education, and literature favoured linguistic unity. The growth of the English nation was accompanied by the formation of the national English language.

Caxton's English of the printed books was a sort of bridge between the London literary English of the ME period and the language of the Literary Renaissance. The London dialect had risen to prominence and compromise between the various types of speech prevailing in the country and formed the basis of the growing national literary language.

The *sixth* period extends from the mid-17th c. to the close of the 18th c. In the history of the language it is often called "the age of normalization and correctness", in the history of literature — the "neoclassical" age. This age witnessed the establishment of "norms", which can be defined as received standards recognized as correct at the given period. The norms were fixed as rules and prescriptions of correct usage in the numerous dictionaries and grammar-books published at the time and were spread through education and writing.

It is essential that during the 18th c. literary English differentiated into distinct styles, which is a property of a mature literary language. It is also important to note that during this period the English language extended its area far beyond the borders of the British Isles, first of all to North America.

Unlike the age of Shakespeare, the neo-classical period discouraged variety and free choice in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The 18th c. has been called the period of "fixing the pronunciation". The great sound shifts were over and pronunciation was being stabilized. Word usage and grammatical construction were subjected to restriction and normalization. The morphological system, particularly the verb system, acquired a stricter symmetrical pattern. The formation of new verbal

grammatical categories was completed. Syntactical structures were perfected and standardized.

The English language of the 19th and 20th c. represents the *seventh* period in the history of English — *Late New English* or *Modern English*. By the 19th c. English had achieved the relative stability typical of an age of literary florescence and had acquired all the properties of a national language, with its functional stratification and recognized standards (though, like any living language, English continued to grow and change). The classical language of literature was strictly distinguished from the local dialects and the dialects of lower social ranks. The dialects were used in oral communication and, as a rule, had no literary tradition: dialect writing was limited to conversations interpolated in books composed in Standard English or to recording folklore.

The 20th c. witnessed considerable intermixture, of dialects. The local dialects are now retreating, being displaced by Standard English. The "best" form of English, the *Received Standard*, and also the regional modified standards are being spread through new channels: the press, radio, cinema and television.

The expansion of English overseas proceeded together with the growth of the British Empire in the 19th c. and with the increased weight of the United States (after the War of Independence and the Civil War). English has spread to all the inhabited continents. Some geographical varieties of English are now recognized as independent variants of the language.

In the 19th and 20th c. the English vocabulary has progress of technology, science and culture and other multiple changes in all spheres of man's activities. Linguistic changes in phonetics and grammar have been confined to alterations in the relative frequency and distribution of linguistic units: some pronunciations and forms have become old-fashioned or even obsolete, while other forms have gained ground, and have been accepted as common usage.

The following table gives a summary of the periods described above; the right column shows the correlation between the seven periods distinguished in the present survey and the traditional periods.

Periodisation of the History of English

I	Early Old English(also: Pre-written OE)	c. 450-c. 700	OLD ENGLISH
II	OE(also: written OE)	C. 700-1066	
III	Early ME	1066-c. 1350	MIDDLE ENGLISH
IV	ME(also: Classical ME)	c. 1350-1475	
V	Early NE	1476-c. 1660	EARLY NEW ENGLISH

VI	Normalisation period(also: Age of Correctness, Neo-Classical period)	c. 1660- c. 1800	NEW ENGLISH (also: MODERN ENGLISH)
VII	Late NE, or Mod E(including Present-day English)	c. 1800- since 1945	

Questions:

1. Name the closest linguistic relations of English.
2. Account for the following place-names: *Germany, Saxony, Bavaria, Anglia, Thuringia, Swabia, Gothenburg, Gothland, Burgundy, Allemagne, Gotha, Jutland, Feance, France, Frankfurt, Normandy, Anglesea, England.*
3. Explain the sound correspondence in the following parallels from Germanic and non-Germanic languages:

R <i>боль</i>	OE <i>balu(mischief)</i>
R <i>соль</i>	G <i>Salz(salt)</i>
R <i>нагой</i>	NE <i>naked G nackt</i>
L <i>gena</i>	OE <i>cin [kin] NE chin</i>
R <i>приятель</i>	NE <i>friend</i>
4. Analyse the consonants correspondence in the following groups of words and classify the words into Germanic and non-Germanic: *foot, pedal, pedestrian; twofold, double, twin, brotherly, fraternal; tooth, dental, dentist; canine, hound, hearty, cordial; three, trinity; decade, decimals, ten; agriculture, acre; agnostic, know; tame, domestic.*
5. Why can examples from the Gothic language often be used to illustrate the PG state while OE and OHG examples are less suitable for the purpose?
6. Prove that suppletion is an ancient way of form-building which goes back to the epoch of the PIE parent-language.
7. What is historical the development of a language? Say the old and modern chronological divisions in the history of English?

Key words:

mutation - аблаут-немисча товуш(унли) алмашиниши демакдир;

IE(Indo-European)-Ҳинд-Европа тиллар оиласи;

PG(Proto-Germanic)-енг қадимги Герман қабилалари сўзлашган умумий Герман тили;

periodisation-инглиз тили тарихини ўрганишда уни даврларга бўлиш.

Theme: Old English Phonetics

Plans:

1. Old English vowels.
 - a) splitting of [a] and [a:];
 - b) development of monophthongs;
 - c) breaking and diphthongization;
 - d) palatal mutation.
2. Old English consonants:
 - a) hardening;
 - b) rhotacism;
 - c) voicing and devoicing.

1. Sound changes, particularly vowel changes, took place in English at every period of history.

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

The principal regular direction of the change [a] into [] and [a:] into [:] is often referred to as the fronting or palatalisation of [a, a:].

Splitting of [a] and [a:] in Early OE

PG	OE	Other languages	OG	OE	NE
<i>a</i> into	<i>a</i> <i>o, a</i> <i>a</i>	<i>Gt</i> pata <i>Gt</i> mann(a) <i>Gt</i> magan		pat mon magan	that man may
<i>a:</i> into	<i>a</i> <i>o:</i>	<i>OHG</i> dar <i>OHG</i> mano		par mona	there moon

The PG diphthongs [ei, ai, iu, au] underwent regular independent changes in Early OE, they took place in all phonetic conditions. The diphthongs with the *i* – glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in *u* were reflected as long diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [ea:].

Development of monophthongs

PG	Gothic	OE	NE
<i>a+i</i>	stains	stan	stone
<i>a:</i>			

<i>e+i</i>	<i>i:</i>	meins	min	mine, my
<i>a+u</i>		auso	eare	ear
<i>ea:</i>				
<i>e+u</i>		kiusan	ceosan	choose
<i>eo:</i>				
<i>i+u</i>	<i>io:</i>	diups	deop, diop	deep

The tendency of assimilative vowel change, characteristic of later PG and of OG languages. 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 diphthong.

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

Breaking and diphthongization

	Condi tions	Early OE	OE	Other OE languages	WG	NE
Breaking	1. Before <i>l+l</i> or <i>l+other</i> consonants	<i>a</i>	<i>ea</i>	Gt alls	eall	all
Breaking	2. <i>h</i> + other consonants	<i>e</i>	<i>eo</i>	OHG fehtan	feohtan	fight
Breaking	3. <i>r</i> + other consonants	<i>e</i>	<i>eo</i>	OHG herza	heorte	heart
Diphthongiza tion	after <i>sk'</i> and <i>k'</i>	<i>e</i> <i>e</i>	<i>ie</i> <i>ie</i>	OHG scal L cerasus	sceal cieres	shall cherries
Diphthongiza tion	<i>j</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ie</i>	Gt giban	giefan	give

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.

Palatal mutation

Vowels	Gt or OE	OE (palatal mutation)	NE
<i>a</i> into <i>e</i>	Gt mats	mete	meat
<i>o</i> into <i>e</i>	OE dohtor	dehter	daughter
<i>u</i> into <i>y</i>	OE full	fyllan	fill
<i>ea</i> into <i>ie</i>	OE eald	ieldra	elder

3. 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 rose in PG under Grimm's and Verner's Law.

After the changes Grimm's Law and Verner's Law PG had the following two sets of fricative consonants: voiceless [*f*, *θ*, *x*, *s*] and [*v*, *d*, *y*, *z*]. In WG and in Early OE the difference between the two new groups was supported by new features. PG voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives, developed new voiced allophones. The PG voiced [*d*] was always hardened to [*d*] in OE and other WG languages. 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 [*g*] into [*r*] and thus became sonorant, which ultimately merged with older IE [*r*]. this process, termed rhotacism.

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.

	Gothic	OE	NE
Hardening			
<i>d</i> into <i>d</i>	wasida [<i>d</i>]	werede	wore
<i>v</i> into <i>b</i>	bropar	bropor	brother
<i>y</i> into <i>g</i>	guma	guma	man
Voicing and devoicing	Gothic	OE	NE
<i>v</i> into <i>v</i> or <i>f</i>	sibun [<i>v</i>]	seofon [<i>v</i>]	seven

<i>f</i> f into v or	wulfs	wulf [f]	wolf
<i>o</i> O into d or	siupan [O]	seopan [d]	seethe
<i>x</i> y into y or	dagos	dayas	days
<i>s</i> s into z or	kiusan [s]	ceosan [z]	choose
<i>m</i> Rhotacis	Gothic	OE	NE
<i>s</i> z into	maiza	mara	more

Questions:

1. Comment on the phonetic status of OE short diphthongs.
2. Account the difference between the vowels in OE *pat*, *eal* and *monn*, all going back to words with [a].
3. Account for the interchange of vowels in OE *dayas*, *badian*.
4. Say the words in OE and Gothic.
5. Account for the difference between the root-vowels in OE and in parallels from other OG languages.
6. Explain the term mutation and innumerate the changes referred to mutations in Late PG and Early OE. What do they all have in common?
7. Define the values of the letters *f*, *d*, *s* and comment on the system of OE consonant phonemes.
8. Why can the voicing of fricative consonants in Early OE be regarded as a sort of continuation of Verner's Law? Describe the similarities and differences between the two process.
9. What peculiarities of OE consonants can account for the difference in the sound values of letters?

Key words:

Splitting-йўқолиш; тушиб қолиш;

Breaking-синиш(ба'зи ундошдан кейин унлининг биттага кўпайиши);

Hardening-қаттиқлашиш;

Voicing and Devoicing-жаранглашиш ва жарангсизлашиш;

Rhotacism-“р”лашув;

root-ўзак, яъни сўзнинг туб маъносини билдирадиган, бирор кўшимча олмаган қисми;

stem- негиз, яъни сқзнинг асосий маъносини билдирувчи, сўз ўзгартувчи, кўшимчалар олмаган қисми;

case-келишик, яъни отнинг бошқа гап бўлақларига муносабатини кўрсатувчи сўз турловчи грамматик категория.

Theme: The Old English grammar

Plans:

1. The noun. The pronoun. The adjective.
2. The verb.
3. Syntax.

1. OE was a synthetic or inflected type of language; it showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms OE employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes and suppletive formation.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral, the adverb, the verb, the preposition, the conjunction, the interjection.

The OE noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: number and case. Nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category. The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural.

The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative.

The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The total number of declensions, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five.

Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables.

The morphological classification of OE nouns rested on the most ancient IE grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. They are usually termed root-stems and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants: OE *man*, *boc*; NE *man*, *book*.

The loss of stem-suffixes as distinct component parts had led to the formation of different sets of grammatical endings. Thus *n*- stems had many forms in – *an*; *u*-stems had the inflection –*u* in some forms.

OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masculine, Feminine, and Neutral. Abstract nouns built with the help of the suffix –*pu* were feminine; OE *lengpu*, *hyhpu* (NE *length*, *height*), nomina agentis with the suffix –*ere* were masculine: OE *fiscere*, *bocere*=NE *fisher*, *learned man*.

Also OE masc. Feminine nouns denoting males and females there were nouns with unjustified gender, ex.: OE *widowa*, Masc. *widower* – OE *widowe*, Fem. NE *widow*; OE *spinner*, Masc. NE *spinner* – OE *spinnesere*, Fem., NE *spinster*.

The division into genders was in a certain way connected with the division into stems, though there was no direct correspondence between them: some stems were

represented by nouns of one particular gender like *o* – stems were always Fem., others embraced nouns of two or three genders.

Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic; monosyllables with a long root-syllable differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable.

Declensions of nouns

<i>a</i> -stems				
Singular				
M	Short-stemmed N	Long-stemmed N	<i>ja</i> -stems M	<i>wa</i> -stems N
<i>Nom. fisc</i>	scip	deor	ende	cneo(w)
<i>Gen. fises</i>	scipes	deores	endes	cneowes
<i>Dat. fisce</i>	scipe	deore	ende	cneowe
<i>Acc. fisc</i>	scip	deor	ende	cneo(w)
Plural				
<i>Nom. fises</i>	scipu	deor	endas	cneo(w)
<i>Gen. fiscal</i>	scipa	deora	enda	cneowa
<i>Dat. fiscum</i>	scipum	deorum	endum	cneowum
<i>Acc. fiskas</i>	scipu	deor	endas	cneo(w)
NE fish	NE scip	NE deer	NE end	NE knee

2. OE pronouns fell roughly under the same main classes as modern pronouns : personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for other groups – relative, possessive and reflexive – they were as yet not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

OE pronouns had three persons, three numbers in the 1st and 2nd (two numbers- in the 3rd) and three genders in the 3rd p. the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. had suppletive forms. The pronouns of the 3rd p., having originated from demonstrative pronouns, had many affinities with the latter.

It is important to note that the Gen. case of personal pronouns had two main applications: like other oblique cases of noun-pronouns it could be an object, but far more frequently it was as an attribute or a noun determiner, like a possessive pronoun, e. g. *sunu min*, his *freader*=NE *my son*, his father.

Declension of personal pronouns

First person			
Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
<i>Nom.</i>	ic	wit	we
<i>Gen.</i>	min	uncer	ure, user

<i>Dat.</i>	me	unc	us	
<i>Acc.</i>	mec, me	uncit	usic, us	
Second person				
<i>Nom.</i>	pu	zit	ze	
<i>Gen.</i>	pin	incer	eower	
<i>Dat.</i>	pe	inc	eow	
<i>Acc.</i>	pec, pe	incit, inc	eowic, eow	
Third person				
singular			plural	
	M	F	N	All genders
<i>Nom.</i>	he	heo, hio	hit	hie, hi, hy, heo
<i>Gen.</i>	his	hire, hierie	his	hira, heora, hiera, hyra
<i>Dat.</i>	him	hire, hierie	him	him, heom
<i>Acc.</i>	hine	hie, hi, hy	hit	hie, hi, hy, heo

The were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE *that*, which distinguished three genders in the *sg.* and had one form for all the genders in the *pl.* and the prototype of *this* with the same subdivisions: *pes* Masc., *peos* Fem., *pis* Neut. And *pas* *pl.* They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system: *Nom.*, *Gen.*, *Dat.*, *Acc.*, and *Inst.*

Declension of *se*, *seo*, *pat*

Case	Singular			Plural
	M	N	F	All genders
<i>Nom.</i>	se	pat	seo	pa
<i>Gen.</i>	pas	pas	pare	para
<i>Dat.</i>	pam	pam	pare	pam
<i>Acc.</i>	pone	pat	pa	pa
<i>Instr.</i>	py, pon	py, pon	pare	pam

3. As stated before, the adjective in OE change for number, gender and case.

As in other OG languages, most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the declensions, as well as their origin, were similar to those of the noun declensions. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG.

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes *-ra* and *-est/ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

The root-vowel interchange in *glad* goes back to different sources. The variation [a~a] is a purely phonetic phenomenon.

The adjective *god* had suppletive forms. Suppletion was a very old way of building the degrees of comparison.

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Suffixation	soft	softra	softost	soft
Suffixation plus vowel interchange	glad	gladra	gladost	glad
Suppletion	god lytel micel	bettra lassa mara	bet(e)st last mast	good little much

4. The OE 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 of the verb had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

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. Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: sg. and pl. the category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and 3rd. the category of mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. 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.

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and Participle. The Infinitive had no verbal grammatical categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: two forms which roughly corresponded to the Nom. and Dat. cases of nouns.

The Participle was a kind of verbal adjective which was characterised not only by nominal but also by certain verbal features.

Morphological classification of OE verbs

Strong	Weak	Minor groups
Seven classes with different gradation series	Three classes with different stem-suffixes	Preterite-presents Suppletive Anomalous

There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. They were native words descendents 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.

Strong verbs in OE

Classes	Infinitiv e	Past singular	Past Plural	Participl e II	NE
1	writan	wrat	writon	writen	write
2	ceosan	ceas	curon	coren	choo se
3	findan feohtan	fand feaht	fundon fuhton	finden fohten	find fight
4	beran	bar	baron	boren	bear
5	sittan	sat	saton	seten	sit
6	scacan	scoc	scocon	scacen	shake
7	growan	Greow	greowon	growen	grow

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 were weak.

Weak verbs in OE

Class es	Infinitive	Past tense	Participle II	NE
I	styrian cepan	styrede cepte	styred ceped	stir keep
II	locian	locode	locod	look
III	libban habban	lifde hafde	lifd hafd	live have

Several minor groups of verbs can be referred neither to strong nor to weak verbs. The most important of these verbs the so-called preterite-presents or past-present verbs.

Preterite-presents

OE	NE
cunnan, can, cunne, cunnen	can
cude, cudest, cudon, cuden, cud	could
sceal(l), scealt, sculon, scule, sculen	shall
sceolde, sceolest, sceoldon, sceolden	should
magan, mag, magende	may
willan	will
mot	must
ag	owe, ought

Two verbs suppletive. OE *gan* whose Past tense was built from a different root:

gan – *eode* – *ge-gan*(NE go); and *beon*(NE be).

4. 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 languages. 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 connections 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.

Questions:

1. Explain why OE can be called a synthetic or inflected language. What form-building means were used in OE?
2. Speak on the differences between the categories of case, number and gender in nouns, pronouns and adjectives.
3. Explain the difference between the grouping of nouns into declensions and the two declensions adjectives.
4. Point out instances of variation in the noun paradigms. From which stems were the new variants adopted?
5. Prove the suppletion is an ancient way of form-building that can be traced to PIE.
6. Find instances of breaking in the principal forms of strong and weak verbs.
7. Prove that the non-finite forms in OE had more nominal features than they have today.

Key words:

morphology-морфология, сўзларнинг состави ва ўзгариш формалари системаси, грамматиканинг сўз состави ва формаларини ўрганувчи бўлим;

assimilation-ассимиляция, талаффузда сўз тартибидаги икки товушнинг бир-бирига таъсири натижасида ўзаро мувиқлашуви, бир-бирига сингиб кетиши;

category-категория, предмет турларини ёки уларнинг умумий белгиларини билдирувчи тушунча;

strong verbs-кучли феъллар, ўзакдаги унлини ўзгартириш билан ясайдиган феъллар;

weak verbs-кучсиз феъллар, ўтган замон ёки II сифатдош формаларини дентал суффикслар –d ёки –t ёрдамида ясайдиган феъллар.

Theme: Old English vocabulary and word formation

Plans:

1. Etymological survey of the OE vocabulary.
2. Native words.
3. Borrowings in OE.
4. Word-formation in OE.

1. The full extent of the OH vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. There is no doubt that many words have not been recorded in the extant texts at all. The evidence of the records has been supplemented from other sources: from the study of the words of closely related OG languages and from later, more extensive ME texts.

Modern estimates of the total vocabulary of OE range from about thirty thousand words to almost one hundred thousand (A. I. Smirnitsky, M. Pei), — the latter figure being probably too high and unrealistic.

Examination of the origin of words is of great interest in establishing the interrelations between languages and linguistic groups. Word etymology throws light on the history of the speaking community and on its contacts with other peoples.

The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic; except for a small number of borrowings, it consisted of native words inherited from PG or formed from native roots and affixes.

2. Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main layers in the native OE words are: a) common IE words, b) common Germanic words, c) specifically old English words.

Words belonging to the common IE layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. They go back to the days of the IE parent-language before its extension over the wide territories of Europe and Asia before the appearance of the Germanic group. They were inherited by PG and passed into the Germanic languages of various subgroups, including English.

Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship, etc.; verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of man; adjectives indicate the most essential qualities; this layer includes personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals. In addition to roots, this portion of OE and Germanic heritage includes word-building elements. OE examples of this layer are: *eolh, mere, mona, sawan, nagl, beard, brodor, modor, sunu, don, niwe, long, ic, pat, twa*, etc. (NE *elk* 'sea', *moon, tree, sow, nail, beard, brother, mother, son, do, be, new, long, I, that, two*).

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. Being specifically Germanic, these words constitute an important distinctive mark of the Germanic

languages at the lexical level. This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common IE words.

OE	Gothic	NE
hand	hant	hand
eorpe	airpa	earth
singan	siggwan	sing
findan	finpan	find

The third etymological layer of native words can be defined as specifically OE, that is words which do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words are few, if we include here only the words whose roots have not been found outside English: OE *clipian* 'call', OE *brid* (NE *bird*) and several others.

3. Although borrowed words constituted only a small portion of the OE vocabulary — all in all about six hundred words, — they are of great interest for linguistic and historical study. The borrowings reflect the contacts of English with other tongues resulting from diverse political, economic, social and cultural events in the early periods of British history. OE borrowings come from two sources: Celtic and Latin.

Borrowings from Celtic

There are very few Celtic loan-words in the OE vocabulary, for there must have been little intermixture between the Germanic settlers and the Celtic in Britain. Though in some parts of the island the Celts population was not exterminated during the WG invasion, linguistic evidence of Celtic influence is meager. Obviously there was little that the newcomers could learn from the subjugated Celts. Abundant borrowing from Celtic is to be found only in place-names. The OE kingdoms *Kent*, *Delra* and *Bemicia* derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. The name of *York*, the *Downs* and perhaps *London* have been traced to Celtic sources (Celtic *dun* meant 'hill'). Various Celtic designations of 'river' and 'water' were understood by the Germanic invaders as proper names: *Ouse*, *Exe*, *Esk*, *Usk*, *Avon*, *Evan* go back to Celtic *amhuin* 'river', *uisge* 'water'; *Thames*, *Stour*, *Dover* also come from Celtic. Some elements frequently occurring in Celtic place-names can help to identify them: *-comb* 'deep valley' in *Batcombe*, *Duncombe*, *Winchcombe*; *-torr* 'high rock' in *Ton*, *Toraoss*; *-llan* 'church' in *Llan-daff*, *Llanelly*; *-pill* 'creek' in *Pi/lle*, *Huntspill*. Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids; the Celtic component, combined with a Latin or a Germanic component, make a compound place-name; e.g.

Celtic plus Latin Celtic plus Germanic

York-shire	Man-
Corn-wall ¹	chester
Salis-bury	Win-
Lich-field	chester
Devon-shire	Glou-
Canter-bury	

Latin Influence on the Old English Vocabulary

The role of the Latin language in Medieval Britain is clearly manifest; was determined by such historical events as the Roman occupation of Britain, the influence of the Roman civilisation and the introduction of Christianity. It is no wonder that the Latin language exerted considerable influence on different aspects of English: the OE alphabet, the growth of writing and literature. The impact of Latin on the OE vocabulary enables us to see the spheres of Roman influence on the life in Britain.

Latin words entered the English language at different stages of OE history. Chronologically they can be divided into several layers.

The earliest layer comprises words which the WG tribes brought from the continent when they came to settle in Britain. Contact with the Roman civilisation began a long time before the Anglo-Saxon invasion

The adoption of Latin words continued in Britain after the invasion, since Britain had been under Roman occupation for almost 400 years. Though the Romans left Britain before the settlement of the West Teutons, Latin words could be transmitted to them by the Romanised Celts.

Early OE borrowings from Latin indicate the new things and concepts which the Teutons had learnt from the Romans; as seen from the examples below they pertain to war, trade, agriculture, building and home life.

Words connected with *trade* indicate general concepts, units of measurements and articles of trade unknown to the Teutons before they came into contact with Rome: OE *ceapian*; *ceap*, *ceapman* and *mansion*, *man~un~*, *mauȝze* ('to trade', 'deal', 'trader', 'to trade', 'trading', 'trader') came from the Latin names for 'merchant' — *caupo* and *mango*.

Units of measurement and containers were adopted with their Latin names: OE *pund* (NE *pound*), OE *ynce* (NE *inch*) from L *pondo* and *uncia* OE *mynet*, *mynetian* ('coin', 'to coin'). OE *ftasce*, *ciest* (NE *flask*, *chest*).

The following words denote articles of trade and agricultural products, introduced by the Romans: OE *win* (from L *vinum*), OE *butere* (from L *butyrum*), OE *plume* (from L *prunus*), OE *dese* (from L *caseus*), OE *pipor* (from L *piper*), (NE *wine*, *butter*, *plum*, *cheese*, *pepper*)

Roman contribution to *building* can be perceived in words like OE *cealc*, *tiele*, *coper* (NE *chalk*, *tile*, *copper*). A group of words relating to *domestic life* is exemplified by OE *cytel*, *disc*, *cuppe*, *pyle* (NE *kettle*, *dish*, *cup*, *pillow*), etc.

Borrowings pertaining to *military affairs* are OE *mil* (NE *mile*) from L *millia passuum*, which meant a thousand steps made to measure the distance; OE *weall* (NE *watt*), from L *vallum*, a wall of fortifications erected in the Roman provinces.

4. The bulk of the OE vocabulary were native words. In the course of the OE period the vocabulary grew; it was mainly replenished from native sources, by means of word-formation.

According to their morphological structure OE words fell into three main types:

a) simple words or words with a simple stem, containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes: land, singan, god (NE land, sing, good);

b) derived words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more affixes: be-ginnan, weorp-ung, ge-met-ing (NE begin, worthiness, meeting);

c) compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme: mann-cynn, weal-geat, fewer-tiene (mankind, wall gate, fourteen).

Questions:

1. Why does the OE vocabulary contain so few borrowings from the Celtic language of Britain?

2. What contacts were there with Romans?

3. What do you know about Celts?

4. How was the word-formation in OE?

Key words:

native-words-бир тилга хос сўзлар;

borrowings-ўзлашмалар;

word-formation-сўз ясаш.

Theme: Middle English phonetics

Plans:

1. Spelling changes in ME.
2. Evolution of the sound in ME.

1. The most conspicuous feature of late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in Late ME texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different. Before considering the evolution of English sounds one must get acquainted with the system of ME spelling in order to distinguish between sound changes and graphical changes.

After the period of Anglo-Norman dominance (11th – 13th c.) English regained its prestige as the language of writing, though for a long time writing was in the hands of those who had a good knowledge of French. Therefore many innovations in ME spelling reveal an influence of the French scribal tradition. The diagraphs *ou*, *ie*, and *ch* which occurred in many French borrowings and were regularly used in Anglo-Norman texts were adopted as new of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:], and [ts].

Some replacements were probably made to avoid confusion of resembling letters: thus o was employed not only for [o] but also to indicate short [u] alongside the letter u; it happened when u stood close to n, m, or v, for they were all made up of down strokes and were hard to distinguish in a hand-written text. That is how OE *munuc* became ME monk, though it was pronounced as [munk] and OE *lufu* became ME love [luve] (NE monk, love). This replacement was facilitated – if not caused – by the similar use of the letter o in Anglo-Norman.

Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling

Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants
Single letters	
a [a]	c [s] or [k]
y, as well as i [i]	f [f]
o [o] or [u]	g [dʒ] or [g]
	j [dʒ]
	k [k]
	s [s] or [z]
	v (often spelt as u) [v]
	y [j]
Diagraphs	
ee [e:] or [e:]	ch, tch [ts]
ie [e:]	dg [dʒ]
oo [o:] or [e:]	gh [x] or [x']
ou [u:] or [ou]	qu [kw]
ow [u:] or [ou]	th [θ] or [ð]
	sh, sch, ssh [s]
	wh [hw]

2. The evolution system of the English language has undergone profound changes in the thousand years which have elapsed since the OE period. The changes affected the pronunciation of words, word accentuation, the systems of vowel and consonant phonemes.

In so far as possible the sound changes in the following survey are grouped into main stages: Early ME changes, which show the transition from Written OE to Late ME – the age of literary flourishing or ‘the age of Chaucer’ – and Early NE changes, which show the transition from ME to later NE.

Extensive changes of vowels are one of the most remarkable features of English linguistic history. A variety of changes affected vowels in stressed syllables; the modification of unaccented vowels was more uniform and simple. It is convenient to begin the description of vowel changes with unstressed vowels, for they will be found in many examples given for other purposes and should therefore be made clear in advance. It should be borne in mind, however, that the boundaries between stressed and unstressed vowels were not static: in the course of time a vowel could lose or acquire stress. As in many words stress was shifted; consequently, the vowel would pass into the other group and would be subjected to other kind of changes.

In Early ME the pronunciation of unstressed syllables became increasingly indistinct. As compared to OE, which distinguished five short vowels in unstressed position (representing three opposed phonemes [e/i], [a] and [o/u]), Late ME had only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [i], which are never directly contrasted; this means that phonemic contrasts in unstressed vowels had been practically lost.

At the end of OE and in the immediately succeeding centuries accented vowels underwent a number of quantitative changes which affected the employment and the phonological status of short and long vowels in the language. It should be recalled that in OE quantity was the main basis of correlation in the vowel system: short vowels were phonemically opposed to long ones, roughly identical in quality. At that time vowel length was for the most part an inherited feature: OE short vowels had developed from PG short vowels, while long ones went back to long vowels or bi-phonemic vowel sequences, except for a few lengthening, mainly due to the loss of consonants.

Qualitative vowel changes in Early ME were less important. They affected several monophthongs and displayed considerable dialectal diversity. On the whole they were independent of phonetic environment. The close labialized vowels [y] and [y:] in ME can be regarded as evidence of growing dialectal divergence. At the same time it is a relatively rare instance of similar alterations of a short and a long vowel.

One of the most important sound changes of the Early ME period was the loss of OE diphthongs and the growth of new diphthongs, with new qualitative and quantitative distinctions. OE possessed a well developed system of diphthongs: falling diphthongs with a closer nucleus and more open glide arranged in two symmetrical sets – long and short: [ea:, eo:, ie:] and [ea, eo, ie].

To sum up the Early ME vowels changes the system of vowels in Late ME is given table.

Monophthongs	Diphthongs
Short: i, e, a, o, u	ei, ai, oi, au
Long: i:, e:, e:, a:, o:, u:	au, ou

Questions:

1. Analyse the relations between the letters and sounds in the extract and say in which instances the ME system was phonetic – and more conventional – than the OE system.
2. Prove, by instances of phonetic changes, that ME was divided into a number of dialects.
3. Comment on qualitative vowel changes and quantitative vowel changes in ME.

Key words:

1. Qualitative vowel changes –товушнийг сифат ўзгариши;
2. Quantitative vowel changes – товушнийг микдорий ўзгариши.

Theme: Middle English grammar

Plans:

1. Preliminary remarks.
2. The noun.
3. The pronoun.
4. The adjective. The verb.

1. In the course of ME and 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. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech; the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the conjunction, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME (provided that the article is treated as an independent part of speech).

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.

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 groups 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". 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.

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 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. Bough), 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 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.

2. 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 neutralized some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions – as well as the affluence of some types upon other types – disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.

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. 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.

The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME.

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the plural.

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 distinction. 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.

3. 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 the noun, was simplified. In Early ME the OE Fem. 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, heo, sce, sho, she*; one of them *–SHE* – Finally prevailed over the others. The new Fem. Pronoun, Late ME *she*, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of Fem. gender *–seo* (OE *se, seo, pet*, 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 extralinguistic factors.

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* (Oei). Like the pronoun *she*, it came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect.

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 pl forms of the 2nd p. – *ye, you, your* – were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pl. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of *thou, three, thine*. Later *thou* became obsolete in Standard English.

Demonstrative pronouns were adjective-pronouns; like other adjectives, in OE they agreed with the noun in case, number and gender and had a well-developed morphological paradigm.

In Early ME the OE demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, pet* and *pes, peos, pis* – lost most of their inflected forms: out of seventeen forms each retained only two. The ME descendants of these pronouns are *that* and *this*, the former Nom. and Acc. Cases, Neut. sg, which served now as the sg. of all cases and genders. Each pronoun had a respective pl. form, which made up a balanced paradigm of forms opposed through number.

Sg. this	Pl. thise/thes (e)	(NE this-these)
That	tho/those(e)	(NE that-those)

(Number distinctions in demonstrative pronouns have survived as an archaic trait in the modern grammatical system, for no other noun modifier agrees now with the noun in number.)

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.

The degree of comparison is the only set 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.

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 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.

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 3 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 | |, 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 and Early the root-vowels in the principal forms of all the classes of strong verbs underwent the regular changes of stressed vowels are seen from the spelling, the vowels in ME. The sound changes of stressed vowels were described in detail in; they will be mentioned below only in as much as they have grammatical significance.

The evolution of the weak verbs in ME and in Early NE reveals a strong tendency towards greater regularity and order. Table 7 shows the main changes in the classes of weak verbs (subclasses of OE Class 1 are described in as sources of modern non-standard verbs: Class 3 is not shown as it did not exist in ME). The OE verbs of Class 3, either joined the other classes of weak verbs as, e.g. OE *libban*, ME Class 1 *liven*, NE *live* or became irregular, e.g. OE *habban*, ME *haven*, NE *have*; OE *seozan*, ME *seyen*, NE *say*.

The verbs included in the minor groups underwent multiple changes in ME and Early NE: phonetic and analogical changes, which affected their forms, and semantic changes which affected their functions.

Several preterit-present verbs died out. The surviving verbs lost some of their old forms and grammatical distinctions but retained many specific peculiarities. They lost the forms of the verbals which had sprung up in OE and the distinctions between the forms of number and mood in the forms or even to one.

ME *can* (from OE *cann*, Pres. Ind .sg 1st and 3rd p.) was used not only in the sg but also in the pl by the side of *cunnen*, the descendant of OE pl *cunnon*; the latter, as well as the Subj. forms *cunnen*, *cunne* died out by the end of the ME period. The Past

tense Ind. and Subj. appears in ME in two variants: *couth* (e) and *coud*(e). *Couth* became obsolete in NE, but *coud* was preserved. The insertion of *l* in spelling (*could*) may be due to the analogy of *should* and *would* where *l* was etymologically justified. In ME the verb *can*, and especially its Past Participle is still used in the original meaning 'know.

Questions:

1. Compare the historical productivity of different form-building means: synthetic (inflections, sound interchanges), analytical, suppletive.
2. Which part of speech has lost the greatest number of grammatical categories?
Which part of speech has acquired new categories?
3. Compare the development of case and number in nouns, adjectives and pronouns.
4. Speak on degrees of comparison in ME.
5. Speak on ME verb system.

Key words:

number-сон категорияси;

singular-бирлик категорияси;

plural-кўплик категорияси.

Theme: Middle English vocabulary and word formation**Plans:**

1. Preliminary remarks in ME vocabulary.
2. Scandinavian and French influences on the vocabulary.
3. Word-formation in ME.

1. According to the estimates made by modern philologists, in the course of the thousand years – from OE to modern times – the English vocabulary has multiplied tenfold. Perhaps, it were possible to count all the periods, the figure would be much higher. Among the changes in the vocabulary we can distinguish losses of words or their meanings, replacements and additions.

Like many other lexical changes losses were connected with events in external history: with changing conditions of life and the obsolescence of many medieval concepts and customs. Some rituals of the heathen religion were abandoned – after the introduction of Christianity – and their dropped of the use, e. g. OE *tiber*, *blot* which meant ‘sacrifice’. Losses could also affect the plane of content. Though the word survived, some of its meanings became obsolete. Thus OE *gift* had the meaning ‘price if a wife’ connected with one of the early meanings of the verb *gyfan* (NE *give*) ‘give in marriage’. Though losses proper can be illustrated by numerous examples in all periods, they played a less important role in the development of the vocabulary than replacements and additions. It has been calculated that from 80% to 85% of the OE words went out of use in the succeeding periods. Most of these words were not simply lost; they were replaced by other words of the same or similar meanings. The replacement came as a result of the co-existence and rivalry of synonyms and the ultimate selection of one of the rivals thus OE *clippan* came to be replaced by ME *callen*, NE *call*. Replacements could also occur in the sphere of content: the word was retained but its meaning was changed or was replaced by a new meaning, formerly rendered by OE *swefn*; OE *cniht* ‘boy, servant’ changed its meaning to ME and NE knight.

Additions embrace a large number of vocabulary changes. The sum total of this type of change far offsets the process of obsolescence and decay. Among additions we can find pure innovations, that is entirely new words which did not take the place of any other items but were created to name new things, new ideas and qualities, e. g. ME *citee* ‘town with a cathedral’, *duke*, *duchess*, *prynce* – new ranks and titles; NE *bourgeois*, *potato*, *nylon*. The development of new meanings in the existing words extended the vocabulary and led to the growth of polysemy and homonymy. For instance, OE *craft* meant ‘science’, ‘skill’, ‘stength’; in ME and NE *craft* lost the meaning ‘science’ but acquired new meanings ‘group of skilled workers, guild’ and ‘vessel’; ME *journee* meant ‘day’s work’, sometimes ‘day’s march’, later ‘travel, journey’.

2. The historical events which led to the contacts between OE and O Scand were described above. The Scandinavian invasions had far-reaching linguistic consequences which became apparent mainly not recorded until the 13th c. As mentioned before, the

presence of the Scandinavians in the English population is indicated by a large number of place-names in the northern and eastern areas: most frequent are place-names with the Scandinavian components *thorp* 'village', *toft* 'piece of land', *by* from O Scand *byr* 'village', *beck* 'rivulet', *ness* 'cape', e. g. *Troutbeck*, *Inverness*, *Woodthorp*, *Grimsby*, *Brimtoft*.

Gradually the Scandinavian dialects were absorbed by English, leaving a profound impression on the vocabulary of the Northern English dialects. The total number of Scandinavian borrowings in English is estimated at about 900 words; about 700 of them belong to Standard English. It is difficult to define the semantic spheres of Scandinavian borrowings: they mostly pertain to everyday life and do not differ from native words. Only the earliest loan-words deal with military and legal matters and reflect the relations of the people during the Danish raids and Danish rule. These early borrowings are Late OE *barda*, *cnearr* (different types of ships), *cnif* (NE knife), *lip* 'fleet', *orrest* 'battle'. Among legal terms are Late OE *lagu*, *utlagu*, *feolaga*, *husbonda* (NE *law*, *outlaw*, *fellow*, *husbond*), and also the verb *tacan* 'NE *take*'.

Examples of everyday words of Scandinavian origin which have been preserved in present-day Standard English are given below in alphabetical order according to the part of speech. Nouns – *bag*, *band*, *birth*, *brink*, *bulk*, *cake*, *crook*, *dirt*, *egg*, *freckle*, *gap*, *gate*, *keel*, *kid*, *leg*, *link*, *loon*, *raft*, *root*, *score*, *scrap*, *seat*, *skill*, *skim*, *skirt*, *skull*, *sky*, *slaughter*, *sneer*, *steak*, *thrift*, *window*, *wing*; adjectives – *awkward*, *flat*, *happy*, *ill*, *loose*, *low*, *mEEK*, *odd*, *rotten*, *scant*, *scarce*, *sly*, *tight*, *ugly*, *weak*, *wrong*; verbs – *bait*, *bask*, *call*, *cast*, *clamp*, *crawl*, *cut*, *die*, *drown*, *gape*, *gasp*, *hit*, *happen*, *lift*, *nag*, *raise*, *rake*, *rid*, *scare*, *scatter*, *scowl*, *snub*, *take*, *thrive*, *thrust*, *want*.

The French language was brought to England by the Norman conquerors. The Normans remained masters of England for a sufficiently long time to leave a deep impress on the language. The Norman rulers and immigrants, who invaded the South-Western towns after the Conquest, spoke a variety of French, known as 'Anglo-Norman'. This variety died out about two hundred years later, having exerted a profound influence upon English. In the 13th and 14th c. English was exposed to a new wave of French influence; this time it came from Central, Parisian French, a variety of a more cultivated, literary kind.

The total number of French borrowings by far exceeds the number of borrowings from any other foreign language (though sometimes it is difficult to say whether the loan came from French or Latin). The greater part of French loan-words in English date from ME. During the initial hundred and fifty years of the Norman rule the infiltration of French words into the English language progressed slowly. The French borrowings of the ME period are usually described according to semantic spheres. To this day nearly all the words relating to the government and administration of the country are French by origin: *assembly*, *authority*, *chancellor*, *council*, *counsel*, *country*, *court*, *crown*, *exchequer*, *govern*, *government*, *nation*, *office*, *parliament*, *people*, *power*, *realm*, *sovereign* and many others. Close to this group are words pertaining to the feudal system and words indicating titles and ranks of the nobility: *baron*, *count*, *countess*, *duchess*, *duke*, *feudal*, *liege*, *manor*, *marques*, *noble*, *peer*, *prince*, *viscount*. It is notable that very few words of these semantic groups are native, e.g. *lord*, *lady*, *king*, *queen*, *earl*, *knight*. (OE *cniht* originally meant 'boy', 'servant', OE *earl* 'man', 'warrior')

These borrowings show that the Normans possessed a far more elaborate administrative system and a more complex scale of ranks.

The host of military terms adopted in ME are a natural consequence of the fact that military matters were managed by the Normans and that their organization of the army and military service was new to the English. The examples are: *did, armour, arms, army, banner, battle* (from O Fr and ME *bataille*), *captain* (from earlier *cheftain*), *company, dart, defeat, dragoon, ensign, escape, forge, lance, lieutenant, navy, regiment, sergeant, siege, soldier, troops, vessel, victory* and many others.

It is interesting that some of the loan-words from French were originally borrowed from Germanic languages at an earlier stage of history, e.g. ME *were* (from O Fr *guerre*) entered O Fr, or rather its parent-language, the spoken Latin of Gaul, at the time of the first Franconian kingdoms.

A still greater number of words belong to the domain of *law* and *jurisdiction*, which were certainly under the control of the Normans. For several hundred years court procedure was conducted entirely in French, so that to this day native English words in this sphere are rare. Many of the words first adopted as juridical terms belong now to the common everyday vocabulary: *acquit, accuse, attorney, case, cause, condemn, court, crime, damage, defendant, false, felony, guilt, heir, injury, interest, judge, jury, just, justice, marry, marriage, money, penalty, plaintiff, plead, poor, poverty, properly, prove, rent, robber, session, traitor*.

A large number of French words pertain to the *Church* and *religion*, for in the 12th and 13th c. all the important posts in the Church were occupied by the Norman clergy: *abbey, altar, archangel, Bible, baptism, cell, chapel, chaplain, charity, chaste, clergy, divine, grace, honour, glory, lesson, miracle, nativity, paradise, parish, passion, pray, preach, procession, religion, rule, sacrifice, saint, save, sermon, tempt, vice, virgin, virtue*.

Besides these spheres which reflect the dominant position of the Normans in Britain as conquerors and rulers, there are many others which reveal the influence of the Norman way of life on the English.

From the loan-words referring to *house, furniture* and *architecture* we see that the Normans introduced many innovations, which became known to the English together with their French names: *arch, castle, cellar, chimney, column, couch, curtain, cushion, lamp, mansion, palace, pillar, porch, table, wardrobe*. Some words are connected with *art*: *art, beauty, colour, design, figure, image, ornament, paint*. Another group includes names of *garment*: *apparel, boot, coat, collar, costume, dress, fur, garment, gown, jewel, robe*.

Many French loan-words belong to the domain of *entertainment*, which is natural enough, for the Norman nobles amused themselves with various pastimes. The borrowed *chase* competed with its native synonym *hunt*, which has survived as well; other examples are: *cards, dance, dice, leisure, partner, pleasure, sport, tournament, trump*. Some of these words can be described as relating to knighthood, such as *adventure* (ME *aventure*) *array, chivalry, contest, courteous, honour, romance*.

Finally, many French loan-words cannot be referred to a definite semantic sphere and can only be listed as miscellaneous, e.g.: *advice, air, allow, anxious, boil, carry, change, close, cover, cry, deceive, double, eager, enjoy, enter, envy, excuse, face,*

firm, flower, honest, hour, joy, large, letter, manner, move, necessary, nice, noise, obey, occupy, pale, pass, please, previous, push, river, remember, satisfy, search, scissors, single, sudden, sure, travel, treasure, very, use.

3. The growth of the English vocabulary from internal sources - through word-formation and semantic change – can be observed in all periods of history; as mentioned above, internal sources of vocabulary growth may have become relatively less important in ME, when hundreds of foreign words (especially French) entered the language. In the 15th, 16th and 17th c. the role of internal sources of the replenishment of the vocabulary became more important though the influx of borrowings from other language continued. As before, word formation fell into two types: word derivation and word composition.

The means of derivation used in OE continued to be employed in later periods and their relative position and functions and were generally the same. Suffixation has always been the most productive way of deriving new words, most of the OE productive suffixes have survived and many new suffixes have been added from internal and external sources. The development of prefixation was uneven: in ME many OE prefixes grew again; like suffixes, Early NE prefixes could come from foreign sources. Sound interchanges and the shifting of word stress were mainly employed as a means of word differentiation, rather than as a word-building means. The Early NE witnessed the growth of a new specifically English way of word derivation – conversion, which has developed into a productive way of creating new words.

Sound interchange has been a productive means of word derivation in English. In OE they served as a supplementary means of word differentiation and were mostly used together with suffixes. New vowel alterations in related words could arise as a result of quantitative vowel changes in Early ME since those changes were positional, they did not necessarily take place a difference in the root vowels. For instance, the vowels remained or become long in ME *cleene, wise, wild*, but remained or become short in the related words *clensen, wisdom, wilderness*.

During the ME prefixes were used in derivation less frequently than before. The decline of prefixation can be accounted for by a number of reasons.

OE	ME	NE
fyllan – a-fyllan	fillen	fill
brecan – to-brecan	brecen	break
lician – ge-lician	liken	like

Suffixation has remained the most productive way of word derivation through all historical periods. Though some of the OE suffixes were no longer employed and were practically dead, many new suffixes developed from native and foreign sources, so that there has been no decline in the use of suffixes even in ME despite the fact that the

vocabulary was mainly replenished through borrowings. Several OE suffixes of *nomina agentis* were lost as means of derivation; in ME –end, -en, -estre occur as inseparable parts of the stem. ME *frend*, *fyxen/vixen*, *spinnestre* (NE *friend*, *she-fox*, *spinster*).

Questions:

1. What conclusions can be drawn about the nature of contacts between the English and Scandinavians from the nature of Scandinavian loan-words?
2. Comment on the English-Scandinavian etymological doublets – *skirt-shirt*; *scatter-shatter*.
3. Compare the French and Scandinavian influence on the ME vocabulary (linguistic, geographical and social aspects; the number, nature and spheres of borrowings).

Key words:

influence – та'сир;

means – восита;

sound interchanges – товуш ўзгариши.

Theme: Development of the syntactic system in the Middle English

Plans:

1. Early new English.
2. Development of the National literary English language (16th – 19th c.)
3. New English phonetics.

1. The 15th and 16th c. in Western Europe are marked by renewed interest art and literature and by a general efflorescence of culture. The rise of new vigorous social class – the bourgeoisie – proved an enormous stimulus to the progress of learning, science, literature and art. The universities at Oxford and Cambridge (founded in the 12th c.) became the centers of new humanistic learning. Henry VII assembled at his court group of brilliant scholars and artists. As before, the main subject in schools was Latin; the English language was labeled as (a rude and barren tongue), fit only to serve as an instrument in teaching Latin. The influence of classical languages on English grew and was reflected in the enrichment of the vocabulary. Of all the outstanding achievements of this age, the invention of printing had the most immediate effect on the development of the language, its written form. William Caxton (1422 – 1491) learned the method of printing during his visit to France in 1473 and in 1477 opened up his own printing press in Bruges. The first English book printed in 1475 was Caxton's translation of the story of Troy RECUYELL OF THE HISTORYES OF TROYE.

The Tudors encouraged the development of trade inside and outside the country. The great geographical discoveries (beginning with the discovery of the New World in 1492) gave a new impetus to the progress of foreign trade: English traders set forth on daring journeys in search of the biggest trade and sea powers. The main events of the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1558 -1603) were her relations with France, Spain and Portugal. In the late 16th c. England founded her first colonies abroad. The contacts of England with foreign nations gave an inevitable influence on the growth of the vocabulary.

As Britain consolidated into a single powerful state, it extended its borders to include Wales, Scotland and part of Ireland.

The growth of the national literary language and especially the fixation of its Written Standard are inseparable from the flourishing of literature known as the English Literary Renaissance. The beginning of the literary efflorescence goes back to the 16th c. After a fallow period of independence on Chaucer, literary activity gained momentum in the course of the 16th c. and by the end of it attained such an importance as it had never known before. This age of literary flourishing is known as the 'age of Shakespeare' or the age of Literary Renaissance. As elsewhere, the Renaissance in England was a period of rapid progress of culture and a time of great men. The literature of Shakespeare's generation proved exceptionally wealthy in writers of the first order.

2. The formation of the national literary English language covers the Early NE period (c. 1475—1660). Henceforth we can speak of the evolution of a single literary language instead of the similar or different development of the dialects.

There were at least two major external factors, which favored the rise of the national language and the literary standards: the unification of the country and the progress of culture. Other historical events, such as increased foreign contacts, affected the language in a less general way: they influenced the growth of the vocabulary.

Towards the end of Early NE, that is by the middle of the 17th c, one of the forms of the national literary language — its Written Standard — had probably been established. Its growth and recognition as the correct or "prestige" form of the language of writing had been brought about by the factors described in the preceding paragraphs: the economic and political unification of the country, the progress of culture and education, the flourishing of literature.

The Written Standard can be traced to definite geographical and social sources. Elements of various provincial dialects; were incorporated in the spoken and written forms of London speech.

The Written Standard of the early 17th c. was, however, far less stabilized and normalized than the literary standards of later ages. The writings of the Renaissance display a wide range of variation at all linguistic levels: in spelling, in the shape of grammatical forms and word-building devices, in syntactical patterns and in the choice and use of words.

The main functional divisions of the English language, which had been formed by the 19th c., were its standard or literary forms and its substandard forms. The literary language comprised a great number of varieties. It had a Written and a Spoken Standard; within the Written Standard there developed different literary and functional styles. Two varieties of English in Great Britain distinguished from Standard English – Scottish and Anglo-Irish – claimed to be literary tongues. The English language in Ireland displayed sharper differences from British English than the Scottish dialect, as for several hundred years it developed in relative isolation from the monopoly.

In the last three hundred years the English language has extended to all continents of the world and the number of English speakers has multiplied. 3. Early NE witnessed the greatest event in the history of English vowels – the Great Vowel Shift, - which involved the change of all ME long monophthongs, and probably some of the diphthongs. The Great Vowel Shift is the name given to a series of changes of long vowels between the 14th and the 18th c. During this period all the long vowels became closer or were not caused by any apparent phonetic conditions in the syllable or in the word, but affected regularly every stressed long vowel in any positions.

The Great Vowel Shift

ME (Intermediate stage)	NE	ME	NE
i:	ai	time [ˈti:mə]	time
e:	i:	kepen [ˈke:pən]	keep
e:	i:	street [stre:t]	street
a:	ei	maken [ma:kən]	make
o:	ou	stone [sto:n]	stone
o:	u:	moon [mo:n]	moon

u:	au	mous [mu:s]	mouse
au	o:	drawen [ˈdrauən]	draw

It must be noted that some of the diphthongs which arose during the Great Vowel Shift could also appear from sources. The diphthong [ou] was preserved from ME without modification; [ei] could descent from ME [ai] which had merged into one diphthong. Those were the diphthongs with i-and –u glides going back to Early ME vowel and consonant changes. It is important to note that the Great Vowel Shift was not followed by any regular spelling changes: as seen from the examples the modification in the pronunciation of words was not reflected in their written forms. During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed for they contained long vowels.

The names of some English letters before and after the shift:

ME: A [a:], E [e:], O [o:], I [i:], B [be:], K [ka:];

NE: A [ei], E [i:], O [ou], I [ai], B [bi:], K [kei].

As compared to the Great Vowel Shift other vowel changes of the NE seem few and insignificant. Yet, like all the sound changes of that time, they account for the modern system of vowels and clarify certain points in modern spelling. The short vowels in Early New were on the whole more stable than the long vowels: only two short vowels out of five underwent certain alterations: [a] and [u].

In addition to the main sources of long monophthongs and diphthongs in Early NE, such as the Great Vowel Shift and the vocalization of the sonorant [r], there were a few other instances of the growth of long vowels from short ones in some phonetic conditions. These lengthenings resemble Early ME quantitative vowel changes before consonant groups; only this time the consonant sequences which brought about the lengthening were different: [ss], [ft] and [nt]; the sequences mainly affected the vowel [a].

The main qualitative and quantitative changes of vowels between the 11th and 18th c. are summarized.

	Early ME	Early NE
Lengthening	before <i>ld, nd, mb</i> in open syllables	before <i>ss, st, nt, ft</i>
Shortening	before other consonant clusters	before [θ, d, t, k]

Another development accounting for the appearance of sibilants and affricatives in the English language is dated in Early NE and is connected with the phonetic assimilation of lexical borrowings. In the numerous loan-words of Romance origin adopted in ME and Early NE the stress fell on the ultimate or penultimate syllable.

In Early NE clusters [sj, zj, tj, dj] – through reciprocal assimilation in unstressed position – regularly changed into [s, ç, ts, dç]. Three of these sounds, [s, tç, dç], merged with the phonemes already existing in the language, while the fourth, [ç], made a new phoneme. Now the four sounds formed a well-balanced system of two correlated pairs: [s, ç], [tç, dç].

Sometimes a similar voicing occurred in consonant clusters containing sibilants, fricatives and affricates.

ME NE	ME	NE
s z	resemblen [rə'semblən]	resemble
f v	of [of]	of
θ ð	there [θe:r]	threere
ks gz	anxietie [aŋksie'tiə]	anxiety
ds dç	knowledge [ˈknouləts]	knowledge

ME spelling way of writing was originally based on a phonetic principle: it was designed to give an accurate graphic representation of pronunciation by using letters to indicate sounds. Mod E spelling displays many deviations from this principle. The differences between the pronunciation and the spelling of words are obvious, especially to those who are familiar with the employment of Latin letters in other languages.

ME spelling innovations incorporated many sound changes which had taken place since the 9th – 10th c., and yet spelling had generally become more ambiguous and conventional.

Questions:

1. What are the peculiarities of NE?
2. Comment on the Written Standard.
3. Recall the NE phonetic changes.

Key words:

Written Standard – ёзув стандарти;

Great Vowel Shift – унлиларнинг жой алмашиниши.

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