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Review

THEME: *ANALYSIS OF THE SCANDINAVIAN
INVASION.*

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The theme: Analysis of the Scandinavian invasion.

Plan:

- 1. Introduction.**
- 2. The beginning of the Old English period.**
- 3. The Scandinavian invasion.**
- 4. The Scandinavian borrowed words
in Old English period.**
- 5. Conclusion.**
- 6. Bibliography.**

Introduction.

Since the 8th c. the British Isles were ravaged by sea rovers from Scandinavia, first by Danes, later – by Nowegians. By the end of the 9th c. the Danes had succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing in England more than half of England was yielded to the invaders and recognized as Danish territory – “Danelow”. The new settlers and the English in

termarried and intermixed they lived close together and did not differ either in social rank or in the level of culture and customs. In the areas of the heaviest settlement the Scandinavians outnumber the Anglo-Saxon population, which is attested by geographical names. Altogether more than 1,400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavians origin eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merget with the cociety around them, but the impact on the further development of the English language wasquite profound. The increased regional differences of English in the 11th and 12th C. Must party be attributed to the Scandinavian influence. Due to the contacts and mixture with Scan, the northern dialects had acquired lasting and sometimes in delible Scandinavian features. In later ages the Scandinavian element passed into other regions. The incorporation of the Scandinavian element in the London dialect and standart English was brought about by the changing linguistic situation in England the mixture of the dialects and the growing linguistic unfiction.

The beginning of the Old

English period.

The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5th c. of our era. Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles must have been inhabited for at least fifty thousand years. The Celts came to Britain in three waves and immediately preceded the Teutons. Economically and socially the Celts were a tribal society made up of kins, kinship groups, clans and tribes; they practiced a primitive agriculture, and carried on trade with Celtic Gaul.

Celtic languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before our era; later they were absorbed by other IE languages and left very few vestiges behind. The Brittonic branch

is represented by Kymric or Welsh in modern Wales and by Breton or Armorican spoken by over a million people in modern France. Another Brittonic dialect in Great Britain, Cornish, was spoken in Cornwall until the end of the 18th c.

In the first century B.C. Gaul was conquered by the Romans. Having occupied Gaul Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, in 55 and 54 B.C. Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons – to obtain tin, pearls and corn, - and also for strategic reasons, since rebels and refugees from Gaul found support among their British kinsmen.

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th and 6th c. spoke closely related tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup. Their common origin and their separation from other related tongues as well as their joint evolution in Britain transformed them eventually into a single tongue, English. The OE dialects acquired certain common features which distinguished them from continental Germanic tongues. Also they displayed growing regional divergence. Tribal dialects were transformed into local or regional dialects.

The following four principal OE dialects are commonly distinguished: Kentish, a dialect spoken in the area known now as Kent and Surrey and in the Isle of Wight. It had developed from the tongue of the Jutes and Frisians. West Saxon, the main dialect of the Saxon group, spoken in the rest of England south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel, except Wales and Cornwall, where Celtic tongues were preserved. Other Saxon dialects in England have not survived in written form and are not known to modern scholars. Mercian, a dialect derived from the speech of southern Angles and spoken chiefly in the kingdom of Mercia, that is, in certain region, from the Thames to the Humber. Northumbrian, another Anglian dialect, spoken from the Humber north to the river Forth.

The boundaries between the dialects were uncertain and probably movable. The dialects passed into one another imperceptibly and dialectal forms were freely borrowed from one dialect into another. Throughout this period the dialects enjoyed relative equality; none of them was the dominant form of speech, each being the main type used over a limited area. At the time of written OE the dialects had changed from tribal to regional; they possessed both an

oral and a written form and were no longer equal; in the domain of writing the West Saxon dialect prevailed over its neighbours.

In the 9th c. the political and cultural centre moved to Wessex. Culture and education made great progress there; it is no wonder that the West Saxon dialect has been preserved in a greater number of texts than all the other OE dialects put together. Towards the 11th c. the written form of the West Saxon dialect developed into a bookish type of language, which, probably, served as the language of writing for all English-speaking people.

The Scandinavian Invasion.

In the 8th c. raiders from Scandinavia (the Danes) made their first plundering attacks on England. The struggle of the English against the Scandinavians lasted over 300 years, in the course of which period more than half of England was occupied by the invaders and reconquered again. The Scandinavians subdued Northumbria and East Anglia, ravaged the eastern part of Mercia, and advanced on Wessex. Like their predecessors, the West Germanic

invaders, the Scandinavians came in large numbers and settled in the new areas. They founded many towns and villages in northern England; in many regions there sprang up a mixed population made up of the English and the Danes. Their linguistic amalgamation was easy, since their tongues belonged to the same linguistic group.

The ultimate effect of the Scandinavian invasions on the English language became manifest at a later date, in the 12th-13th c., when the Scandinavian element was incorporated in the central English dialects; but the historical events that led to the linguistic influence date from the 9th and 10th c. Under King Alfred of Wessex, by the peace treaty of 878 England was divided into two halves: the north-eastern half under Danish control called Danelaw and the south-western half united under the leadership of Wessex.

The reconquest of Danish territories was carried on successfully by Alfred's successors but in the late 10th c. the Danish raids were renewed again; they reached a new climax in the early 11th c. headed by Sweyn and Canute. The attacks were followed by demands for regular payments of large sums of money. In 1017 Canute was acknowledged as king, and England became part of great northern empire, comprising Denmark and Norway. On Canute's death his kingdom broke up and England regained political independence; by that time it was a single state divided into six earldoms.

*Though the Scandinavian invasions of England are dated in the OE period, their effect on the language is particularly apparent in ME. The new settlers and the English intermarried and intermixed; they lived close together and did not differ either in social rank or in the level of culture and customs; they intermingled the more easily as there was no linguistic barrier between them. In the areas of the heaviest settlement the Scandinavians outnumbered the Anglo-Saxon population, which is attested by geographical names. Altogether more than 1400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavian origin (with the element *thorp* meanings «village», e.g. Woodthorp, Linthorp; *toft* 'a piece of land', e.g. Brimtoft, Lowestoft and others).*

Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merged with the society around them, but the impact on the linguistic situation and on the further development of the English language was quite profound. Due to

the contacts and mixture with Old Scandinavian, the Northern dialects (to use OE terms, chiefly Northumbrian and East Mercian) had acquired lasting and sometimes indelible Scandinavian features. As the result of the Scandinavian invasion there were some borrowings: fallow, husband, wrong, to call, to take.

Since the 8th c. the British Isles were ravaged by sea rovers from Scandinavia, first by Danes, later – by Norwegians. By the end of the 9th c. the Danes had succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing in England more than half of England was yielded to the invaders and recognized as Danish territory – “Danelaw”. The new settlers and the English intermarried and intermixed they lived close together and did not differ either in social rank or in the level of culture and customs. In the areas of the heaviest settlement the Scandinavians outnumber the Anglo-Saxon population, which is attested by geographical names. Altogether more than 1,400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavian origin eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merged with the society around them, but the impact on the further development of the English language was quite profound. The increased regional differences of English in the 11th and 12th C. must partly be attributed to the Scandinavian influence. Due to the contacts and mixture with Scandinavia, the northern dialects had acquired lasting and sometimes indelible Scandinavian features. In later ages the Scandinavian element passed into other regions. The incorporation of the Scandinavian element in the London dialect and standard English was brought about by the changing linguistic situation in England the mixture of the dialects and the growing linguistic uniformity.

The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or rapid transformation. The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English, Middle English, and

New English, with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language. OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) or with beginning of writing (7th c.) and ends on 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; the New period lasts to the present day. The History of the English language can be subdivided into seven periods.

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 (Angels, Saxon, Jutes and Frisians) The tribal dialects were used for oral communication, there were 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. 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. OE was a typical OG language, with a purely Germanic vocabulary, and few foreign borrowings; it displayed specific phonetic peculiarities. As far as grammar is concerned, OE was an inflected language with a well-developed system of morphological categories, especially in the noun and adjective.

The third period, known as Early Middle English, starts after 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and covers 12, 13, and half of the 14th c. It was the stage of the greatest dialectical divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences – Scandinavian and French. The dialectical division of present day English owes its origin to this period of history. Under Norman rule the official language in England was French. The local dialects were mainly used for oral communication and were but little employed in writing. Early ME was a time of great changes at all levels of the language, especially in grammar and lexis. English absorbed 2 layers of lexical borrowings: the Scandinavian element in the North-Eastern area and the French element in the speech of townspeople in the South-east. 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. 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 phonetic and grammatical structure had incorporated and perpetuated the fundamental changes of the preceding period. Most of the inflections in the nominal system – in nouns, adjectives, pronouns – had fallen together. The verb system was expanding, as numerous new analytical forms and verbal phrases on the way to becoming analytical forms were used alongside old simple forms.

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. The growth of the vocabulary was a natural reflection of the progress of culture in the new, bourgeois society, and of the wider horizons of man's activity. Extensive phonetic changes were transforming the vowel system, which resulted in the growing gap between the written and the spoken forms of the word. The inventory of grammatical forms and syntactical constructions was almost the same as in Mod E, but their use was different. The abundance of grammatical units occurring without any apparent restrictions, or regularities produces an impression of great «freedom of grammatical construction».

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». This age witnessed the establishment of «norms». 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. The neo-classical period discouraged variety and free choice in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Word usage and grammatical construction were subjected to restriction and normalization. The morphological system, particularly the verb system, acquired a more strict symmetrical pattern. The formation of new verbal grammatical categories was completed. The English Language of the 19th and 20th c. represents

The seventh period- in the History of English – Late New English or Modern English. 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. In the 19th and 20th c. the English vocabulary has grown on an unprecedented scale reflecting the rapid 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 Scandinavian borrowed words in

Old English period.

1. Basic grammatical Features of GLs. Like other old IE languages are based on a common principle, that is GLs had a synthetic structure which means that the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position or by auxiliary words. The original structure of a noun in GLs. was the following a noun consists of three elements:

- the root*
- a stem-building suffix*
- a case inflexion*
- the root a lexical meaning of a word, a case inflexion*
- the thing devoted by a noun and other things or action.*

It would appear that originally stem building suffixes were a means of classifying the nouns according to their meanings. There is only one type of nouns in Gothic which is characterized by distinct semantic feature they are the words of relationship derived by means of the stem-building suffix - r: fadar, brodar, swistar, modor etc.

In several types of in the dative pl. acc.pl

- dagam (to days)

- dagans

- gibom (to gifts)

- gibos

- gastim (to guests)

- gastins

- sunum (to suns)

- sununs

These three part structure is changed into two parts in GLs. In the earliest times the grammatical form were built in the synthetic way:

- by means of inflections

- sound interchange

- suppletive

The earliest set of vowel interchange is called vowel gradation or ablaut. Ablaut is an independent vowel interchange unconnected with any of phonetic conditions. About the types of Verbs strong and weak

2. The History of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5th century of our era. The earliest inhabitants of the Isles were Celts. The Celts came to Britain in three ways. The first milleiun B.C. was the period of Celtic migrations and expansion. Celtic languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before our era; later they were absorbed by IE languages. The Gothic branch was survived as Irish (Erse) has expanded to Scotland as Scotch-gaelic, (The Isle of Man) The Breton branch is represented by Welsh in Wales and by Breton in France (Bretagne) and another Bretonic dialect in Great Britain Cornish was spoken in Cornwall until the end of the 18th century. In the first century B.C. Caul was conquered by the Romans. (Caesar, 55 B.C.).

The British Isles had long been known to the Romans as a source of valuable tin ore, pearls and corn. The Roman occupation of the British Isles lasted nearly 400 years, up to the 5th century. (Constantine). Since the Romans had left the British Isles some time before the invasion of the West Germanic tribes (WGT) there could never be any direct contacts between the newcomers and the Romans. It was about the 5th century (449) that Britain was conquered by GIs. The invaders settled in the British Isles as follows:

- The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames;*
- The Saxons, the territory south of the Thames;*
- The Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight.*

3. The Germ. tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th and the 6th spoke closely related tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup later tribal dialectal division was superseded by geographical division, that is they were transformed into regional dialects. Four principal OE dialects are commonly distinguished:

- Kentish spoken in Kent Surrey and the Isle of Wight. Records: Translation of Pealms 50-20 and old charters.

- West Saxon spoken in the rest of south of the Thames and Bristol Channel except Wales and Cornwell: works of king Alfred (849-900) Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (till 891) about Alfred and Wulfstan.

-Mercian spoken in the central region from the Thames to the Humber. Records: Translation of the Psalter (IX c) and human.

- Northumbrian from the Humber north to the river Forth. Records: Runic text of the Ruthwell cross and Frank's Casket, translation of gospels Caldmons Human and Bede's Dying Song. King Alfred:) (Ilyishpp 41-43) Self preparation (Rastpp 65-71)

Breaking and diphthongization are the main sources of short diphthongs in OE. They are of special interest to the historians of English, for OE short diphthongs have no parallels in other OGL-es and constitute æ specifically OE feature.

Short diphthongs are always phonetically conditioned as they are found only in certain phonetic environments and appear as positional allophones of respective monophthongs. Secondly, they are similar in quality to the long diphthongs, and their phonemic status is supported by the symmetrical arrangement of the vowel system. Their phonemic status cannot be confirmed by the contrast of minimal pairs: [ea], [æ], [æ], as well as [eo] and [e] occur only in complementary distribution, never in identical phonetic conditions to distinguish morphemes; they also occur as variants in different dialects. On these grounds it seems likely that short diphthongs, together with other vowels, make up sets of allophones representing certain phonemes: [a, æ, ea] and [e, eo]. Perhaps the rise of short diphthongs merely reveals a tendency to a symmetrical arrangement of diphthongs in the vowel system, which was never realised at the phonemic level.

Throughout the history of English new words have been incorporated into the language through borrowing (from languages as varied as Latin, Greek, Scandinavian, Arabic, and many others) as well as through the application of morphological and derivational rules to existing words and morphemes. Words currently entering the language are called neologisms (from "neo" new and "log" word).

The full extent of OE vocabulary is not known to present day scholars. Philological study in the last centuries have given us a fairly complete outline of OE vocabulary as regards its etymology, word structure, word-building and stylistic differentiation. OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic. Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers. The three main layers in the native OE words are:

- 1. Common IE words;*
- 2. Common Germanic words;*
- 3. Specifically OE words*

The oldest part of the OE vocabulary belong to common IE layer. They were inherited by PE and passed into the Germanic languages, including English.

Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, names of parts of human body, terms of kinship, etc. OE vocabulary include, nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns, numerals. In addition to roots it includes words-building and form-building elements. Examples are: mere, mona, treow, beard, modor, sunu, beon, long, ic, min, twa, (NE sea, moon, tree, beard, mother, son, be, long, I, my, two).

The Common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. Examples: eorpe, land, sea, heall, sand, earm (NE earth, land, sea, hill, sand, arm). Specifically English words, that is words which do not exist in other languages. These are very few: clipian "call", bird "bird". As to T.Rastorgueva

the borrowed words in OE vocabulary all in all about 600. The borrowings were mostly from Latin and Celtic languages. There were very few Celtic loan-words. Abundant borrowings from Celtic is to be found in place-names. OE kingdoms Kent, Deira, Bernicia derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. Proper names as Ouse, Exe, Esk, Usk, Avon, Evan go back to Celtic amhuin "river" and usige "water". Outside the place-names Celtic borrowings in OE were few: OE binn, cradol, bratt, dun, cross (NE crib, cradle, cloak, hill, cross). In later ages some of Celtic borrowings have died out or survived only in dialects, e.g. loch, "lake", coomb "valley".

Latin influence on OE vocabulary. The role of the Latin language in Britain was immense. It was determined by such historical events as the Roman occupation, the introduction of Christianity. It is no wonder that the Latin language influenced on different aspects of English, alphabet, the growth of writing and literature. Latin words entered the English at different stages of EO history. The earliest layer comprises word which the WG tribes brought from the continent. The adoption of Latin words continued in Britain after the invasion, which lasted for almost 400 years.

Early OE borrowings from Latin indicate the new things and concepts. They pertain to war, trade, agriculture, building and home life. Words connected with trade indicate general concepts, units of measurement: OE ceapian, ceap, ceapman, manzian, manzung, manzere (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. OE pund, ynce, mynel, flasce, ciest (NE pound, inch, coin, flask, chest).

Borrowings pertaining to military affairs are OE mil, stret (NE mile, street).

Among the Latin loan-words adopted in Britain were some place =names. Lat. castra in the shape of caster, ceaster "camp" which survived today. The main influence of Latin on the OE vocabulary began with the introduction of Christianity. Numerous Latin words fell into two main groups:

I. Words pertaining to religion:

OE *apostol* *from Lat. apostolus* *NE* *apostle*.

anteft *antiphone* *anthem*

biscop *exiscopus* *bishop*

candel *candella* *candle*

munue *monachus* *monk etc.*

Many monastic schools were set up in Britain after the introduction of Christianity. These conditions are reflected in a large number of borrowings connected with education:

OE *scol* *Lat. schola* *NE* *school*

scolere *scholaris* *scholar*

mazister *magister* *master*

fers *versus* *verse*

dihtan *dictare* *compose*

II. The OE vocabulary developed in two ways:

1. by forming new words from the elements existing in the language.

2. by taking over words from other languages.

There are three main types of word-building in OE:

1. Morphological, that is creating new words by means of morphological elements: affixation and composition.

2. Syntactical, that is, building new words from syntactical groups.

3. *Semantic word-building, that is building new words by using existing words in new meanings.*

*One of the productive word-building means is affixation (suffixes and prefixes): - noun-forming suffixes: -ere OE *fiscere*, *writere* (NE *fisherman*, *writer*);*

*- estre - OE *spinnestre* (NE *spinner*);*

*- end - OE *freond*, *demend* (NE *friend*, *junge*);*

*- nis, -nes OE *zodnis* (NE *goodness*)'*

- p, -up, op, used to derive abstract nouns

*OE *treowp*, *piefp*, *fiscop* (NE *truth*, *thief*, *fishing*)*

The other noun-building suffixes are : - unz, - inz,- dom, -scipe. There were also adjective building, verb-building suffixes. Composition is widely used in OE. There are compound nouns, adjectives and verbs, their second component were nouns.

III. Stylistic Stratification of OE vocabulary.

Extant OE texts fall into a number of genres: poetic, religious, legal, more or less neutral. Modern philologists subdivide OE words into three stylistically distinct groups: neutral words, learned words, poetic words.

*Neutral words were characterized by the highest frequency of occurrence, wide use in word-formation. The majority of these words have been preserved to the present day. OE *mann*, *stan*, *blind*, *drincan*, *beon*.*

Learned words are found in texts of religious legal, philosophical character. Among the learned words there were many borrowings from Latin.

Poetic words in OE are of special interest: OE poetic employs a very specific vocabulary. The main specific of OE poetry is its wealth of synonyms. In epic poem Beowulf, f. e. there are thirty seven words for the meaning "warrior", twelve for "battle", seventeen for "sea". These compounds were used as stylistic devices for expressive effect, to bring out and emphasize a certain quality, and for the sake of alteration.

The system of word accentuation in OE was described in 115. In OE stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word, rarely on its second syllable: the prefix or the root of the word were stressed while the suffixes and endings were unaccented. Word stress in OE was fixed: it never moved in inflection and seldom in derivation. This way of word accentuation, characteristics of OE, was considerably altered in the succeeding periods. The word accent acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during the ME period.

In words of three or more syllables the shift of the stress could be caused by the recessive tendency and also by the "rhythmic" tendency, which required a regular alteration of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under the rhythmic tendency, a secondary stress would arise at either preserved as a secondary stress or else became the only or the principal stress of the word.

Conclusion.

The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or rapid transformation. The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods:

Old English, Middle English, and New English, with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language.

OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) or with beginning of writing and ends on 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; the New period lasts to the present day. The History of the English language can be subdivided into seven periods.

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.

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