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OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI
ANDIJON DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

INGLIZ TILI GRAMMATIKASI KAFEDRASI

**O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY
ASPEKTLARI
(O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL TARIXI)
fani bo'yicha**

**O'QUV-USLUBIY MAJMUA
(3-kurs)**

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Amaliy mashg'ulotlar	–
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MUNDARIJA

I. O'QUV MATERIALLAR

1) Ma'ruza matnlari; 2) Seminar rejalari

II. MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI

1) Mustaqil ta'lim mavzularini o'zlashtirish bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar

III. GLOSSARIY

IV. ILOVALAR

1) Fan dasturi

2) Ishchi fan dastur

V. Tarqatma materiallar

VI. Testlar

5) Baholash mezonlari

6) Boshqa ma'lumotlar (fan bo'yicha boshqa materiallar mavjud bo'lsa keltiriladi)

VII O'UMning elektron variant (CD yoki DVD diskda)

LECTURE 1

*General information about Roman-German languages. Grimm's Law. Verner's Law
Problems for discussion.*

1. *The subject-matter of History of English.*
2. *The connection of History of English with other aspects of the language.*
3. *Intra and extralinguistic factors in the development of languages.*
4. *Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of language History.*
5. *Sources of language History.*
6. *Grimm's Law. Verner's Law*

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.

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 a knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present day English. In studying the English language of to-day, we are faced with a number of peculiarities which appear unintelligible from the modern point of view. These are found both in the vocabulary and in the phonetic and grammatical structure of the language. Let us mention a few of them.

In the sphere of vocabulary there is considerable likeness between English and German. Thus, for example: the German for **Summer** is **Sommer**, **foot**, is **Fuß**, or for **long** is **lang**. On the other hand, in certain cases English has something in common with French, as the following examples will show: English **autumn**- French **automne**, **river**-**riviere**, **change**-**changer**.

Similar facts are also found in the phonetic structure of the language, or, more precisely, in the relation between pronunciation and spelling. Here, too, we are faced with a series of phenomena which cannot be explained from the modern point of view. Why, for instance does the spelling of the words **light**, **daughter**, know, gnaw contain letters which do not indicate any sound? Why does the spelling **ea** indicate different sounds in the words **speak**, **great**, **bear**, **heard**, **heart**? Why is the sound [ju] spelt **u** in **sun**, **cut**, **butter**, but **o** in **love**, **son**, **brother**? The History of English sounds 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 (несоответствие, различие) between letter and sound and in the modern peculiar use of Latin letters in English. Finally let us turn to grammar. Why do the nouns **man**, **food**, **mouse** as against most Modern English Nouns form their plural by change of the root vowel? Why do the verbs **can**, **may**, **will** take no **s** in the 3rd person singular present indicative? All these phenomena are traced back to a distant past and they can not be accounted for without a study of language history.

Thus, the purpose of our subject is a systematic study of the language's development from the earliest times to the present day. Such study enables the student to acquire a more profound understanding of the language of today. Besides, history of English is an important subsidiary discipline for history of England and of English literature.

Moreover, one more aim of this course is to provide the student of English with a wider philological outlook. The history of English language show the place of English in the linguistic world, it reveals its ties and contacts with other related and unrelated languages.

2. History of the English language is connected with the other disciplines. It is based on the History of England, studying the development of the language in connection with the concrete conditions in which the English people lived in the several periods of their history. It is also connected with the disciplines studying present day English, viz, theoretical phonetics, theoretical grammar, and lexicology. It shows phonetic, grammatical, and lexical phenomena as they developed, and states the origins of the present day system.

3. In studying the history of a language we are faced with a number of problems concerning the driving forces or causes of changes in the language. These causes can apparently be of two kinds: external and internal. In the first case, language is influenced by factors lying outside it, or extralinguistic factors. Such historic events as social changes, wars, conquests, migrations, cultural contacts, and the like can hardly fail to influence a language, more especially its vocabulary. On other hand, many changes occur in the history of language which cannot be traced to any extralinguistic causes: the driving power in such cases is within the language itself. Most changes in the phonetic structure of a language, and also in its grammatical structure, are due to ternal causes. These aspects of external and internal history determine the linguistic situation and affect the evolution of the language.

4. A language can be considered from different angles. In studying Modern English (Mod E) we regard the language as fixed in time and describe each linguistic level-phonetics, grammar or lexis-synchronously, to no account of the origin of present day features or their tendencies to changes. The synchronic approach can be contrasted to the diachronic. When considered diachronically, every linguistic fact is interpreted as a stage or step in the never ending evolution of language. We concern with our lecture on this way.

5. 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 earliest 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. A.D.

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.

6. An essential feature of Germanic languages is their consonantal system, namely the result of the so called **first consonant shift**.

The phenomena stated in the law of the first consonant shift were found out by comparative linguistics early in the 19th century. Two famous names are to be mentioned in this connection: the Danish scholar **Rasmus Christian Rask** (1787 -1832) and the great German Linguist and fairy-tales collector **Jacob Ludwig Grimm** (1785 - 1863). The earliest statement of the shift was given in the second edition of Grimm's work **German Grammar (Deutsche Grammatik)**, which was published in 1822. Accordingly the law is also often called Grimm's Law. It expresses regular correspondences between consonant of Germanic and those of other Indo- European languages.

When we compare words of Germanic languages with the corresponding words of other Indo-European (IE) languages (mainly Latin, Greek, Sanskrit and Russian), we find correspondences between them, which can be represented by the following ways and they may be grouped under three categories or acts.

I. act Indo-European voiceless plosive (глухие взрывные) **p, t, k** correspond to Germanic voiceless fricative consonants **f, fe, h (x)** (глухие шелевые) .Forex. IE Germanic

p > f Latin. pater, Greek. pater, Sanskr. pitar, Russian полный.

Goth. fadar, OE.feder, NE full.

t > b Latin. tres, Greek. tries Russ^^

Goth. breis, OE. breo; busend;

k > h(x) Latin cor, noctem, acto, Greek. octo. Russ кровь.

OE. heorte, Goth. nahts, ahtou, Gem. acht. OE. hrof.

II. act Indo-European voiced plosive consonants (звонкие смолные) **b, d, g** correspond to Germanic voiceless plosive **p, t, k**.

Forex: IE Germanic

b > p Russ. слабый 'weak/ Goth. slepan' sleep' d > t Lat. duo, Greek. deka' OE twi, Eng. ten g > k Lat. granum 'grain' - Goth. kqurn Eng. corn.

III. act. Indo- European voiced plosive aspirated consonants bh, dh, gh correspond to Germanic voiced plosive consonants without aspiration. b, d, g.

Forex: IE Germanic.

bh > b sanskr. bhratar' brother', Lat. frater, Greek phrator, Russ. брат. Goth. brobar. NE. brother, German.bruder. Russ. брат.

dh > d Sansk. madhu, Russ. med, Lat. medius. OE. medu'mead',
Goth. midjis.

gh > g Lat. hostis'enemy'/ Goth. gasts, OE.lic3an'lie Russian 'гость'/ Germ. gast. OE giest.

The oldest Germanic texts were, as we have pointed out, Runic inscriptions, which may date from the 2nd or 3rd century. These are, however, short texts which do not yield much information on the structure of old Germanic languages. The earliest longer document is Ulfilas's Gothic Bible (4th century). It has been preserved in several MSS, the most famous being the so - called **Silver Code** (Codex Argenteus) of the 6th century, now in the University Library at Uppsala (Sweden).

Verner's Law.

Another important series of consonant changes in Germanic Languages was discovered in the late 19th century by the 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 Germanic voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x] which arose under Grimm's Law, and [s] inherited from Indo- European became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed *pa4er>fa'0 ar > fa'dar >'feder (OE) (G. *fadar) in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless. The voicing occurred in early Proto Germanic at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root morpheme Verner's Law accounts the appearance of voiced fricative or its later modifications [d] in the place of the voiceless [θ] which ought to be expected under Grimm's Law. In late Germanic, the Phonetic conditions that caused the voicing had disappeared: the stress had shifted to the first syllable.

The first act will read as follows: Indo- European p, t, k// Germanic f>v, θ >d, x> g, s> z

Let's give some examples.

IE Germanic.

P > f (b) > v Lat. caput. Goth.haubib, OE. heafod [v]. septem Goth.sibun, OE seofon
t > θ > d, d Lat. pater. Goth. fader OE fader NE father.

k > h, x > g. cunctari OE. han3ian OE. swe3er

s > z Lat. auris, Goth. auso, OE eare.

Verner's Law, stating connection between the consonant system of Germanic languages and the conditions of stress, gives rise to another question, which is fundamental for the problem of the origin of Germanic languages.

In all extant Old Germanic texts the stress falls on the initial syllable (the root syllable) of each word. This is clear, on the one hand, from the treatment of unstressed vowels of endings, and on the other, from alliteration. However, Verner's law, based on a comparison of Germanic words with their Greek, Sanskrit, and Slavonic counterparts, shows that in some cases the root vowel in Germanic languages was originally unstressed. This leads to the inevitable conclusion that originally stress in Germanic languages had been free, that is, in different words different syllables could be stressed - a system which was preserved in Slavonic languages, in Greek (with some limitations) and in Sanskrit well into the period of extant literary texts. In the earliest Germanic texts we find a system of fixed stress (on the first syllable), which was the result of a change of the original free- stress system, which was superseded by a fixed-stress system. This discovery by Verner had, as we shall presently see, important consequences. Germanic tribes used three different alphabets for their writings. These alphabets partly succeeded each other in time. The earliest of these was the Runic alphabet, each separate letter being called a Rune. Runes have a very peculiar look for eyes accustomed to Modern European alphabets. Thus, the Rune denoting the vowel [e] was M, the rune denoting the consonant [f] was , etc. The question of the origin of the Runic alphabet has been discussed by scholars for a long time. The view now prevailing is that it was derived either from the Latin alphabet, or from some other Italic alphabet close to the Latin. Namely writing at the time did not mean putting a colour or paint on some surface: it meant cutting letters into wood or engraving them on stone, bone or metal. In Runic horizontal lines would be tilted upwards or downwards and curves would be replaced by broken lines.

In accordance with these principles, Latin E becomes M, H becomes , S becomes etc. Latin letter D yielded the Runic letter, which was used to denote a dental fricative [θ] in mnE think, thought.

Just when and where the Runic alphabet was created is not known. It is supposed that it originated at some time in the 2nd and 3rd century AD., somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube, where Germanic tribes came into contact with the Roman culture. The earliest Runic inscriptions appear to belong to this time.

The Runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes: Goths, Anglo- Saxons, and Scandinavians. Numerous Runic inscriptions survive on rocks in different parts of Scandinavia. There are also Runic inscriptions on movable objects: a spear a helmet, a ring etc.

Next comes Ulfila's Gothic alphabet (4th century). This alphabet of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible, a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet, with some admixture Latin and Runic letters. In modern editions of the Gothic text a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet is used.

The Latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes in the Latin alphabet. It superseded both the Runic and Gothic alphabet when a new technique of writing was introduced, namely that of spreading some colour or paint on a surface instead of cutting or engraving the letters.

Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religious texts. The Latin alphabet was certainly not adequate to represent all sounds of Germanic languages. So it was adapted to the peculiar needs of separate languages. Thus, to denote the dental fricative [θ] the Runic letter , which had once been derived from Latin D, was used.

The oldest Germanic texts were, as we have pointed out Runic inscriptions, which may date from the 2nd or 3rd century. These are, however, short texts which do not yield much information on the structure of old Germanic languages.

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Next comes the Old High German **Song of Hildebrandt**, a fragment of an epic, 8th century, and the **Beowulf**, an OE epic, probably written in the 8th century and preserved in a single 10th-century MS. Then come Old Icelandic epic texts collected in the so-called **Older Edda** comprising songs written down in the 13th century.

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2. Ilyish B.A. History of the English Languages. L, 1973. pp 5-8.
3. Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П. История английского языка. М, 1976.
4. Rastorguyeva T. A. A History of the English. М, 1983. p.10-12.
5. Baugh A, Cable Th. A History of the English Language. New York, 1978.

LECTURES 2

Problem of periodization of the history of the languages. Celtic tribes. History of German languages.

Problems for discussion.

1. Problems of Periodization.
2. The Roman Conquest.
3. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest.
4. Formation of Germanic States in Britain.

The English Language has a long and eventful history. Its development began in the 5th century of our era, when groups of West Germanic tribes settled in the British Isles. During the sixteen hundred years of its history the English language has been undergoing constant change and it is changing still. It is customary to divide the history of the English Language into three main periods:

Old English which last from the 5th century to the end of the 11th, the dates of its end as suggested by various authorities range from 1066, which is the year of the Norman Conquest, to 1150.

Middle English - from the 12th to the 15th century, the period is believed to have ended in 1475, the year of the introduction of printing.

New English, which means the English of the last six centuries. With in it, historians usually distinguish the **Early New English** period from the 15th century to the 17th up to the age of Shakespeare, from which as called **Late New English** from the 17th till our times.

It is easy to see that the approximate dates fixing the boundaries between the periods are very close to important events in the social and political life of the country; 1100 follows close upon 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and 1500 is close to 1485 the year, when the Wars of the Rases came to an end, which marked the decay of feudalism and rise of the capitalism in England. The end of the 15th century is also the time when the English nation arises.

The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845-1912) the author of a number of works on the English Language an on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English according to the state of unstressed endings: 1st period, **Old English -the period of full endings:** This that any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending for example, the word **sin3an** 'sing' has the vowel [a] in its unstressed ending, while the word "**sunu**" 'son' has the vowel "u" in a similar position.

2nd period, Middle English - **the period of levelled endings.** This means that vowels of unstressed endings have been levelled under a neutral vowel (something like [ʌ]), represented by the letter. -e. Thus Old English, **sin3an** yields Middle English **sineu, sunu- sune.**

3rd period, **Modern English - the period of last endings.** This means that the ending is last altogether. Thus Middle English **singen** become Modern English 'sing'. Middle English **sone** become Made E. 'son'.

This division is based on a feature both **phonetic** (weakening and loss of unstressed vowel sounds) and morphological (weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes). But one of the historian of English Language Rastorguyeva T. A. gives an other criteria of periodisation of the History of English. She synchronically divides traditional periodization (three periods) also into subdivisions according to their historical events affecting the language and purposes of teaching and research. **OE period begins** with the Germanic of Britain (1) (5th c. 450-700 pre-written OE) or (2) with the beginning of writing (7thc.700-1066 written OE) **ME period** being with the Norman Conquest (3) Early ME (1066-1350) and ends on the introduction of printing (4) classical ME (1350 -1475).

NE period begining from (1476-1660) Early New English, (5) the Age of Chaucer and the Age of Shakes peare, (6) to the age of normalisation and correctness (1660-1800). The English language of the X1Xth and XXth c represents the seventh period (7) in the history of English - Late New English and Modern English. By the X1Xth century English had acrieved the relative stability typical of an age of literary and had acquired all the properties of a national language, with its functional stratification and recognised standards.

Prof. Arakin's and Ilyish's divisions into four periods (or three) is based on the social and political development of the era.(British Isles).

1. Early English Period (1-7th centuries, from ancient English tribes to English Peopleness).
2. Old English Period (7-11th, period of formation of English People).
3. Middle English Period (11-15th, period of from English Peopleness - to the formation of English nationality.
4. New English Period (16-20 centuries, a) Early New English - Period of Formation English National language, b) Late New English - English National Language.

The English Language originated from Anglo- Frisian dialects, which made part of the West Germanic Language group. The Germanic tribes which conquered Britain in the fifth century belonged, as Ancient historians say, to three tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. These tribes occupied the following territories on the continent: the Aples lived in Southern Sleswic, north of the Schleiriver; the Saxons lived south of the Angles, in Nothern Sleswic, which in now part of Denmark. Closely connected with these tribes were the Frisians, who occupied the coast of German ocean between the Rhine and the Ems, and the Hauks, who lived between the Ems and the Elbe. About the 4th century A. D. these tribes spread westwards; the Saxons appeard on the northern cost of Gaul (modern France), and some of their troops even penetrated as far the as mouth of the Illllll, on the Atlantic coast.

The earliest mention of the British Isles is in the 4th century B. C, when the Greek explorer Pytheas, of Massilia (now Marseilles), sailing round Europe, land in Kent. At this time Britain was inhabited by Celtic tribes (Britons and Gaels), who spoke various Celtic languages.

The 55 B. C. the Romans under Julius Caesar first landed in Britain. This first appearance of the Romans had no further consequences : after a brief stay the Romans went back to Gaul. In the year 54 Caesar landed in Britain for a second time, he routed the Britons and advanced as far as the Thames. But this stay was also a short one.

Permanent conquest of Britain began in 43 A. D., under the emperor Claudius. The Romans subdued the Britons, and colonized the country, establishing a great number of military camps, which eventually developed into English cities. About 80 A. D., under the emperor Domitian, the Romans reached the river Glotta (the Clyde) and the river Bodotria (the Forth). Thus, they occupied a territory including the modern cities of Edinburgh and Glasgow.

In this period Britain became a Roman province. This colonization had a profound effect on the country. Roman civilization - paved roads, powerful walls of military camps - completely transformed the aspects of the country. The Latin language superseded the Celtic dialects in townships and probably also spread over the country - side. In the fourth century, when Christianity was introduced in the Roman empire, it also spread among Britons.

The Romans ruled Britain for almost four hundred years, up to the early 5th century. In 410 Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend Italy from advancing Goths. So the Britons had to rely on their own forces in the coming struggle with Germanic tribes.

It was about mid - 5th century that Britain was conquered by Germanic tribes. An old saying names the year 449 as the year of the conquest, and Hengest and Horsa as the two leaders of the invaders.

The Britons fought against the conquerors for about a century and a half - till about the year 600. It is to this epoch that the legendary figure of the British King Arthur belongs.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way. The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth, the Saxons, the territory south of the Thames and some stretches north of it; the Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight.

Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken, and in its further development it went its own ways. It is at this time, the 5th century, that the history of the English language begins. Its original territory was England except Cornwall, Wales, and Strathclyde. These western regions the Britons succeeded in holding, and they were conquered much later. Cornwall in the 9th, Strathclyde in the 11th, and the Wales in the 13th century.

The Scottish Highlands, where neither Romans nor Teutons had penetrated, were inhabited by Picts and Scots. The Scots language, belonging to the Celtic group, has survived in the Highlands up to our own days. Ireland also remained Celtic; the first attempts at conquering it were made in the 12th century. The Germanic tribes which conquered Britain formed seven separate Kingdoms, which during four centuries struggled with one another for supremacy: Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Mercia, East Anglia and Northumbria, which consisted of two regions, Bernicia and Deira. In this prolonged struggle it was sometimes Northumbria, and sometimes Mercia, that would take the upper hand. In 828 the struggle came to an end with the decisive victory of Wessex Egbert, king of Wessex, subdued Mercia and Northumbria. Since then Kings of Wessex became Kings of England, and the capital of Wessex, Winchester became capital of England.

Down to the end of the 6th century Anglo- Saxon, Britain was almost entirely isolated from Europe, and particularly, from Rome. In 597 Pope Gregory I sent a mission to England in order to spread Christianity among the Germanic conquerors and to include England into the sphere of his political influence. Christianity also penetrated into England from Ireland, which had not been invaded by Germanic tribes. Irish monks had great influence in Northumbria under king Oswine (642-670). In the seventh century Christianity spread all over England. The Latin language was at the time an international language of the church and of church science in Western Europe. As a result of new ties with Rome the Latin language was introduced in England as the language of church. This development had an important consequence for the English language: it adopted a considerable number of Latin words which were directly or indirectly connected with religious and church notions.

Recommended Literatures for reading.

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3. Rastorgueva T. A. *A History of English*. M, 1983. pp. 25-40.

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LECTURE 3
Morphology
Problems for discussion.

1. *Modern Germanic Languages.*
2. *Ancient Germanic tribes and their classification.*

The English language is one of the Germanic or Teutonic languages, a large group belonging to one of the biggest linguistic families: Indo- European (IE). Germanic languages are spoken in many countries and continents. They are:

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 the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland.

Netherlandish - in the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium).

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 the Republic of Germany. **Faroese** - фарьёрский in the Faroe.

Jiddish - in different countries.

Some of them are national literary languages, others are local dialects spoken over small areas. 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 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).

Germanic languages are classified into three groups: (1) East Germanic, (2) North Germanic, (3) West Germanic. East Germanic languages have been dead for many centuries. Of the old East Germanic languages only one is well known. Gothic: a vast written document has come down to us in this language, namely, a translation of Bible made in the 4th century A. D. by the Gothic bishop **Ulfilas from the Greek.**

All the North Germanic and West Germanic languages have survived until our own times.

Now let us turn to the question of the tribes who spoke old Germanic Languages. Old Germanic tribes in the first centuries of our era were passing through the stage of development which is signalized by the term "barbarism" or great migrations. Friedrich Engels, in his work **On the History of Ancient Tuetons**, which was first published in the original German and in Russian in 1935, and also in Chapters 7 and 8 of his work **The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State** gave a detailed characteristic of the social structure of the ancient Tuetons, and of the emergence of Old Germanic states.

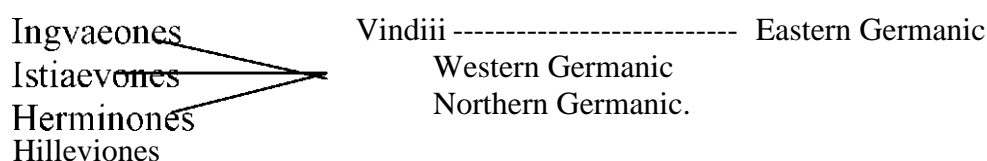
Our knowledge of the ancient Tuetons is based on testimonies by Greek and Roman writers, who for some reason or other were interested in them. The earliest of these was the Greek traveller and astronomer Pytheas (Пифей), from Massilia (Массилияние Марсель), who lived in the 4th century BC. He sailed from his native town through the straits of Gibraltar, along the West coast of Gaul (France), along the Channel, and he may even have reached the Baltic. Pytheas's work has not come down to us; only a few fragments have been preserved by the Greek geographer Strabo (Страбон), the author of a large work "Geography" (63 B.C. -20 A.D.) and by the Roman writer Pliny the Elder (23 - 79 AD).

Next comes the Roman General, Statesman, and writer Julius Caesar (Юлий Цезарь) (100-44 B.C.). In his **Comentaries on the War in Gaul**, Caesar gives several chapters to the Germans. Caesar's statement that the Germans lived in tribes and tribal unions is of particularly great value for the historians. It also follows from Caesar's account that the Tuetons were nomads in his time.

About a century later, Pliny the Elder wrote about the Tuetons in his great work "**Natural History**". Pliny gave a classification of Germanic tribes, which has been basically accepted by modern historians.

According to Pliny, Germanic tribes in the 1st century A.D consisted of the following groups:

1. **The Vindili**. Among them were Goths and the Burgundians (бургунды). They inhabited the eastern part of Germanic territory.
2. **The Ingvaeons**(ИНГЕВОНГ). These inhabited the north - western part of Germanic territory the shores of the Northern Sea, including what is now the Netherlands.
3. **The Iscaevons**: these inhabited the western Part of Germanic territory, on the Rhine. Among them were the Franks, who eventually conquered Gaul.
4. **The Hermiones**. These inhabited the southern part of Germanic territory, i.e. what is now southern Germany.
5. **The Peucini (Певкины)** and Bastarnae. These lived close to the Dacians, close to what is now Rumania.
6. **The Hilleviones**, who inhabited Scandinavia. If we include Pliny's group 5 in to group 1 we obtain the following five groups and its corresponding Germanic languages.



Next after Pliny comes the Great Roman historian Cornelius Tacitus (born ab.55. died ab. 120 A.D). In his short work "**Germania**". Tacitus characterized the social structure of the Old Germanic tribes around 100 AD.

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LECTURES 4

Grammatical categories of Nouns. Morphological structure of words.

Problems for discussion.

1. *Noun history*
2. *Grammatical categories of nouns*
3. *Noun declension*
4. *strong and weak declension of nouns*

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 (synthetic) 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 adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. Inflected parts of speech possessed certain grammatical categories displayed in formal and semantic correlations and oppositions of grammatical forms.

Grammatical categories are usually subdivided into nominal categories, found in nominal parts of speech and verbal categories found chiefly in the finite verb.

We shall assume that there were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness. Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: tense and mood - verbal categories proper - and number and person, showing agreement between the verb predicate and subject of the sentence. The distinction of categorial forms by the noun and the verb was to a large extent determined by their division into morphological classes: declension and conjugations.

The OE noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: number and case. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting, alongside other features, for the division of nouns into morphological classes. The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural. As will be seen below, they were well distinguished formally in all the declensions, there being very few homonymous forms.

The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. In most declension two, or even three, forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinctions of cases was less consistent than that of numbers. Every noun belonged to one of the several declension types which made up the noun system in OE. In historic times the choice of the nouns belonging to these types was not determined by any visible cause, it was fixed. However, in prehistoric times all OE nouns had a suffix (stem - suffix) between the root and the inflexional ending, which made up clearly defined groups. The part of the word comprising root and stem suffix is called the stem. In prehistoric English there existed the following stems:

- a** - stem and its variations / ja/ and / wa/ - masculine and neuter nouns.
- o** - stem and its variations / jo/ and /wo/ feminine nouns.
- i** - stem - all three genders.
- u** - stem - masculine and feminine.
- n** - stem - all three genders.
- r** - stem - masculine and feminine
- es** - stem - neuter.

A special type was the so called **root - stem** which formed some cases not by an inflexional ending, but by change of the root vowel due to mutation.

The stem - vowels had disappeared by the time of the earliest OE writings, they had merged with the ending proper. Nouns which had belonged to stems containing [j] or [i] always had a mutated root vowel: in other respects the inflexions of stems in - a, (- ja, -wa) had practically merged. The main variation consists in the presence of final **e** or its absence in the Nom. and ACC. Sg; in **wa** - and **wo** - stems **w** appears before the case - ending, except the Nom. and ACC. Sg; in **ja** - stems **j** - may appear in the same cases. (Nom. Sg. **here** - Gen. **heri** 3es).

The presence or absence of - e in masculine nouns, as well as that of - u in feminine and plural of neuter nouns depends upon the quantity (length or shortness) of the root syllable. The patterns of declension types are given in such a way as to show the resemblance of different types as mentioned above; with that purpose one ending is given for several stems. Types of Noun Declension. Singular:

Masc. a,	Masc. ja,	Masc. wa-	Masc.	j- stems.
Nom. stan	ende	bearu	hyll	
Gen. stanes	endes	bearwes	hyllles	
Dat. stane	ende	bearwe	hylle	
Acc. stan	ende	bearu	hyll	
‘stone’	‘end’	‘wood’	‘hill’	
Plural				
(a-)	(ja-)	(wa-)	(i-) stems	
Nom. stanas	endas	bearwas	hyllas	
Gen. stana	enda	bearwa	hylla	
Dat. stanum	endum	bearwum	hyllum	
Acc. stanas	endas	bearwas	hyllas.	
Singular				
Neut. a-,	Neut. ja-,	Neut. wa-,	Neut. i -stems	
Nom. deor	rice	bealu	hilt	
Gen. deores	rices	bealwes	hiltles	
Dat. deore	rice	bealwe	hilte	
‘deer’	‘kingdom’	‘evil’	‘hilt’	
Plural				
Nom. deor	ricu	bealu	hilt	
Gen. deora	rica	bealwa	hilta	
Dat. deorum	ricum	bealwum	hiltum	
Acc. deor	rica	bealu	hilt	
Singular				
Fem. o-,	Fem. jo-,	Fem. wo-,	Fem. i- stems	
Nom. talu	brycz	sceadu	cwen	
Gen. tale	brycze	sceadwe	cwene	
Dat. tale	bryc3e	sceadwe	cwene	
Acc. tale	bryc3e	sceadwe	cwene	
‘tale’	‘bridge’	‘shade’	‘woman’	
Plural				
Nom. tale	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwene	
Gen. tala	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwena	
Dat. talum	bryc3um	sceadwum	cwenum	
Acc. tala	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwena.	
Singular			Plural	
Masc. u-,	Fem. u- stems		Masc. u-,	Fem. u-
Nom. sunu ‘son’	hand ‘hand’		sunu	handu
Gen. suna	handu		sunu	handu
Dat. suna	handu		sunum	handum
Acc. sunu	hand		sunu	handu

The Weak Declension. (n-stems)

Singular		
Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
Nom. nama ‘name’	eare ‘ear’	tun3e ‘tongue’
Gen. naman	earan	tun3an
Dat. naman	earan	tun3an
Acc. naman	earan	tun3an
Plural		
Nom. naman	earan	tun3an
Gen. namena	earena	tun3ena
Dat. namum	earum	tun3um
Acc. naman	earan	tunan

Root-stems

Singular

Masculine

Nom.	mann ‘man’	fot ‘foot’
Gen.	mannes	fotes
Dat.	menn	fet
Acc.	mann	fot

Feminine

boc ‘book’	mus ‘mouse’
boce	muse
bec	mys
boc	

Plural

Nom.	menn	fet
Gen.	manna	fota
Dat.	mannum	fotum
Acc.	menn	fet

bec	mys
boca	musa
bocum	musum
bec	mys

The stems in -r, e.g. “broþor” have no endings in the singular but are mutated in Dat. Sg.: (breper). in the plural they are declined as a-stems except the declinable Nom, Acc. The stems in -es are declined as N. a-stems; lamb(-es,-e) lamb, in the plural the stemsuffix r (<* Z < OE [S]) appears between root and ending: lamb -lambru..(lambra, lambrum) lambru.

There are two types of adjective declension, called strong and weak. Every adjective may be declined according to either pattern.

Adjectives have 5 cases in the masculine and neuter. The fifth is the instrumental case.

The Strong Declension.

Most adjectives are declined as a - stems for the masculine and neuter gender and as o-stems for the feminine.

Masculine

Singular	Plural
nom. god	gode
Gen. godes	godra
Dat. godum	godum
Acc. godne	gode
Instr. gode	-

Neuter

Singular	Plural
god	god
godes	godra
godum	godum
god	god
gode	-

Feminine

Singular	Plural
god	goda
godre	godra
godre	godum
gode	goda
-	-

The Weak Declension.

The weak declension of adjectives has the same endings as the weak declension of substantives. The only difference is found in the Genitive plural, where the adjectives have -ra.

Masculine Sg /	P1.	Neuter Sg/	P1.	Feminine Sg/	P1.
Nom. blaca	blasan	blace	blacan	blace	blacan
Gen. blacan	blæcra	blacan	blæcra	blæcan	blæcra
Dat. blacan	blacum	blacan	blacum	blacan	blacum
Acc. blacan	blacan	blace	blacan	blacan	blacan.

‘black’.

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

1. Morphological word- building, that is, creating new words by means of morphological elements.
2. Syntactical word- building, that is building new words from syntactical groups.
3. Semantic word- building, that is building new words by using existing words in new meanings.

Morphological. Morphological word- building is subdivided into two types: affixation and composition. The difference between the two types, as we shall see, is not an absolute one.

Affixation.

Suffixes. Suffixes play a rather important part in OE. We shall consider OE suffixes, grouping them according to the parts of speech which they derive.

Substantive Suffixes. Here we find a group of suffixes which are added to substantive or verb stems to derive names of the doer. Each of them is connected with a grammatical gender.

Thus, the suffix **-ere** is used to derive masculine substantives: *fiscere* 'fisherman', *fuJelere* 'fowler', *writere* 'writer', 'scribe', also *pro were* 'sufferer'. The suffix corresponds to the Gothic suffix **-areis** in *laisareis* 'teacher', *bo kareis* 'bookman', and Russian **-арь** in пахарь, вратарь.

The suffix is productive.

The suffix **-estre** is used to derive feminine substantives: *spinnestre* 'spinner' *b&cestre* 'woman baker', also *witeJestre* 'prophetess'.

The suffix **end** (connected with the participle suffix **-ende**) is used to derive masculine substantives: *fre ond* 'friend', *fe ond* 'hater', 'enemy', *h&lend* 'saviour', *de mend* 'judge', *wealdend* 'ruler'.

The suffix **-inJ** is used to derive patronymics: *5elinJ* 'son of a nobleman', 'prince', *cyninJ* 'king', *EdelwulfinJ* 'son of Ethelwulf', etc. It is also used to derive substantives from adjectives, as in *lflinJ* 'baby', *earminJ* 'poor fellow'. The suffix is productive. An enlarged variant of this suffix, **-linJ**, serves to derive substantives with some emotional colouring (depending on the meaning of the stem): *JoslinJ* 'gosling', *de orlinJ* 'darling', *hyrlinJ* 'hireling'. It is also productive.

The suffix **-en** is used to derive feminine substantives from masculine stems. As its original shape was **-in**, it is always accompanied by mutation: *Jyden* 'goodness' (<*3ydin), cf. *Jod* 'god', *fyxen* 'vixen' (<* fuxin), cf. *fox* 'fox'.

The suffix **-nis, nes** is used to derive abstract substantives from adjective stems: *Jodnis* 'goodness', *renes* 'trinity'. It is productive.

The suffix **-u), -o)** is used to derive abstract substantives; sometimes it is accompanied by mutation: *tre ow)* 'truth' from *tre ow* 'true', *fief)* 'theft' from *e of* 'thief', *JeoJu)* 'youth' (cf. *JeonJ* 'young'), *fisco)* 'fishing', cf. *fisc* 'fish', *hunto)* 'hunting', cf. *hunta* 'hunter'.

The suffix **unJ, inJ** derives feminine verbal substantives: *leornunJ*, *leorninJ* 'learning', *monunJ* 'admonishing', *r&dinJ* 'reading'. It is productive.

Some suffixes originated from substantives. Thus, from the substantive *do m* 'doom' came the suffix **dom**, as in *wisdo m* 'wisdom', *fre odo m* 'freedom'.

The substantive *ha d* 'title', 'rank' yielded the suffix **-had**, as in *cildha d* 'childhood', *m&Jad* 'virginity'.

The substantive *la c* 'gift' yielded the suffix **-lac**, as in *reoflac* 'robbery' from the stem of the verb *re afian* 'bereave', *wedla c* 'wedlock', *scinlac* 'fantasy'.

The substantive *r&den* 'arrangement', 'agreement' yielded the suffix **-raden**, as in *fre ondr&den* 'friendship', *sibbr&den* 'relationship', *mannr&den* 'faithfulness'.

The suffix **-scipe** (cf. the verb *scieppan* 'create') is found in the substantives *fre ondshipe* 'friendship', *weor/scipe* 'honour', *Jebe orscipe* 'feast' (from *be or* 'beer').

There is another phenomenon which must be mentioned in connection with suffixation. Some abstract substantives are derived from adjective stems without any suffix; they differ from the adjectives by their paradigm (as feminine **o** stems) and by mutation of the root vowel, due to the original suffix **-in**, e.g. *lenJu*

'length' from *on3* 'long', *stren3u* 'strength' from *stron3* 'strong', *brs du* 'breadth' from *brad* 'broad', *hatu* 'heat' from *hat* 'hot', *hs/u* 'salvation' from *ha/* 'whole', *ie/du* 'old age' from *ea/d* 'old', *wrs ppu* 'wrath' from *wra/wroth*.

Adjective suffixes. The suffix **-ede** derives adjectives from the group "adjective stem + substantive stem", as in *mice/he afdede* 'largeheaded', sometimes from a single substantive stem: *hocede* 'hooked', *hea/ede* 'broken'. It is productive.

The suffix **-ihite** derives adjectives from substantive stems, usually accompanied by mutation: *stanihte* 'stony' from *stan* 'stone', *Syrnihte* 'thorny' from *Sorn* 'thorn' (<* Surn).

The suffix **-i3** also derives adjectives from substantive stems, sometimes accompanied by mutation: *ha/if* 'holy' (from *hal* 'whole'), *mo di3* 'proud' (from *mod* 'feeling'), *misti3* 'misty' (from *mist* 'mist'), *i sificy* (from *is* 'ice'), *bysi3* 'busy', *dysi3* 'foolish'. It is productive.

The suffix **-en** (from **-in**) accompanied by mutation derives adjectives from substantives: *3y/den* 'golden' from *3o/d* 'gold' (<*3u/d), *wy/en* 'woollen' (from *wu/e* 'wool'), *sts nen* 'made of stone' (from *sta n* 'stone'), */i nen* 'flaxen' (from */in* 'flax').

The suffix **-isc**, usually accompanied by mutation derives adjectives, mostly denoting nationality: *En3/isc* 'English', *Frencisc* 'French', *We/isc* 'Welsh', *mennisc* 'human', *fo/cisc* 'popular'.

The suffix **-sum** derives adjectives from substantive, adjective, and verb stems: *sibbsum* 'peaceful' (from *sibb* 'peace'), */an3sum* 'dreary' (from */an3* 'long'), *hi ersum* 'obedient' (from *hi eran* 'hear', 'obey').

The suffix **-feald** (cf. the verb *fea/dan* 'fold') derives adjectives from numeral and adjective stems: */ri efea/d* 'threefold', *seofonfea/d* 'sevenfold', *mani3fea/d* 'manifold'.

The suffix **-full** (from the adjective *fu//* 'full') derives adjectives from abstract substantive stems: *sorffu//* 'sorrowful', *synnfu//* 'sinful', *carfu//* 'full of care'.

The suffix **-leas** (from the adjective */e as* 'deprived') derives adjectives from verb and substantive stems: *s/sp/e as* 'sleepless', *fe/e af/e as* 'unbelieving', *a r/e as* 'deprived of honour', *recce/e as* 'reckless'.

The suffix **-Hc** (from the substantive */i c* 'body') derives adjectives from substantive and adjective stems: *eor//i c* 'earthly', *fre ond/i c* 'friendly', */uf/i c* 'full of love', *fe ar/i c* 'yearly', *fo d/i c* 'pleasant', *de ad/i c* 'deadly', *s n/i c* 'unique'.

The suffix **-weard** derives adjectives from substantive, adjective, and adverb stems: *ha mweard* 'homeward', *middeweard* 'middle', *inneweard* 'internal'.

Verb suffixes. The suffix **-s-** accompanied by mutation derives verbs from substantive and adjective stems: *b/e tsian* 'bless' < *bledsian (from *b/o d* 'blood'; the original meaning was 'sprinkle with blood'); *c/s nsian* 'cleanses' (from *c/s ne* 'clean'), *ms rsian* 'announce' (from *ms re* 'famous'); *frimsian* 'rage'.

The suffix **-l«c-** (with mutation from **-lac-**) also derives verbs: *ne a l«can* 'approach', *Jerihtl«can* 'acquit'.

The suffix **-ett-** derives verbs: *bliccettan* 'sparkle', *sporetten* 'spur', *cohhettan* 'cough', *ceahhettan* 'croak'.

Prefixes. The prefix **a-** meaning 'out of', 'from' is found, for instance, in the verbs *a ri san* 'arise', *a wacan* 'awake', *a beran* 'sustain', *a bysJian* 'occupy'. A productive prefix.

A different prefix **a-** (connected with the adverb *a* 'always') derives generalizing pronouns and adverbs from interrogative ones, e.g.: *a hw&r* 'everywhere' (from *hw&r* 'where'), *a hw&jer* 'either' (from *hw&jer* 'which of the two').

The same prefix followed by the prefix **3i-** yields ***a3i-** > **«J-** (with mutation). **«3-**, like **a-**, derives generalizing pronouns and adverbs from interrogative ones: *&3hw&jer* 'either', *@Jhwilc* 'every', *&3iwe&r* 'anywhere'.

The prefix **be-** (cf. the adverb *bi* 'near' and the preposition *bi* 'by') is added to substantives and verbs. Sometimes it preserves its original meaning 'around', sometimes its meaning is weakened. E.g.: *beJa n* 'go around', 'adore', *beho n* 'hang with', *besettan* 'besiege', *bewe pan* 'lament', *bej/encan* 'think over', *beniman* 'deprive', *behe afdian* 'behead'.

The prefix **for-** expresses destruction or loss: *fordo n* 'destroy', *forweor)an* 'perish'.

The prefix **Je-** expresses either collectivity or perfection of an action: *Jefe ra* 'fellow- traveller', *Jefylc* 'troop' (cf. *folc* 'people'), *Jemynd* 'mind', *Jese on* 'see'.

The prefix **mis-** means negation or bad quality: *misli cian* 'displease', *misd&d* 'misdeed'.

The prefix **of-** has a reinforcing meaning: *ofsle an* 'kill', *oft e on* 'take away'.

The prefix **on-** (corresponding to German **ent-**, **emp-**, as in *entlassen*, *empfangen*) means change or separation: *onbindan* 'unbind', *onlu can* 'unlock'. In some cases its meaning is weakened, as in *onfo n* 'accept', *ondr&dan* 'dread'.

The prefix **to-** expresses destruction: *to brecan* 'break', *to teran* 'tear'.

The prefix **un-** has a negative meaning: *uncu* 'unknown'. Sometimes it means 'bad': *und&d* 'misdeed'. A productive prefix.

The prefix **wan-** also has a negative meaning: *wanhal* 'unwell'.

Composition. Composition is widely used in OE. There are compound substantives, adjectives, and, in lesser number, verbs.

Compound substantives may be formed by joining:

- (1) "substantive + substantive": *@fentid* 'evening time', *Joldsmi* 'goldsmith';
- (2) "adjective + substantive": *cwicseolf* 'quicksilver'.

Compound adjectives may be formed by joining:

- (1) "substantive + adjective": *wi n- s&d* 'satiated with wine';
- (2) "adjective + adjective": *wi d- cu* 'widely known';

(3) "adjective + substantive": *b/i/heort* 'happy- hearted', *f/s d- mod* 'glad- minded'.

Sometimes the first component takes the form of the genitive case, as *Mo nands f* (literally 'Moon's day') 'Monday'. *Ti wesds f* (literally 'Tiw's, the war god's, day') 'Tuesday', *Wednesday* 'Woden's day', 'Wednesday', */unresds f* (Thunor's, the god of thunder's, day) 'Thursday', *Frifeds f* (Friya's day) 'Friday', *Ss ternesds f* ('Saturn's day') 'Saturday', *Sunnands f* ('Sun's day') 'Sunday', *Enf/a/and* ('Angles' land) 'England', *Francna/and* ('Franks' land) 'France', *witenafemo t* ('wise man's assembly') 'State council', *Snotinfaha m* ('home of Snot's descendants') 'Nottingham', *Oenaford* ('oxen's ford') 'Oxford', *ds fese afe* ('day's eye') 'daisy'.

Compound verbs are rare. An example is *efen/ro wian* 'sympathize' (literally: 'suffer together').

Loan- Words. Old English has only words from two sources- from Latin and Celtic languages. Some words taken over from Latin had been borrowed by Latin from Greek.

Latin. These may be classified into two layers: (1) the oldest layer words taken over either directly from the Romans before the Anglo- Saxons settled in Britain, or from the Celtic inhabitants of Britain, (2) the second layer: words concerning religion and the church, taken over after the introduction of Christianity, which began in 597; these words belong to the 7th century.

First Layer. Here belong, on the one hand of objects of material culture, and on the other, names of products which the Anglo- Saxons bought from Roman merchants. The first group is represented by the words: *strst* 'street', from Latin *stra ta* (via) 'paved road'; *wea//* 'wall' from Latin *va//um*; *cycene* 'kitchen' from Latin *coquina*; *my/n* 'mill' from Latin *mo/inum*; *pipor* 'pepper' from Latin *piper*; *win* 'wine' from Latin *vinum*. The Latin substantive *castra* 'camp' made part of number of names of cities, which were camps in the Roman epoch: *Chester*, *Manchester*, *Worcester*, *Leicester*; Latin *co/onia* has been preserved in the place names *Linco/n*, *Co/chester*; Latin *portus* 'port' in *Portsmouth*, *Bridport*, Latin *strata* in *Stratford*; Latin *fossa* 'moat' in *Fossway*, *Fosbroke*.

Second Layer. The second layer consists of words which directly or indirectly belong to the sphere of religion and church. When Christianity was introduced in England (see §88), the Latin language came to be used as language of the church. At this time a certain number of Latin words were taken over into English: *biscop* 'bishop' from Latin *episcopus*, Greek *episkopos*; *c/eric* 'church man' from Latin *c/ericus*, Greek *k/e rikas*; *aposto/* 'apostle' from Latin *aposto/us*, Greek *apo sto/os*; *deofol* 'devil' from Latin *diabo/us*, Greek *dia bo/os*; *msse* 'mass' from Latin *missa*; *munuc* 'monk' from Latin *monachus*, Greek *monacho s*; *mafister* 'teacher' from Latin *magister*; *scrifan* 'prescribe' from Latin *scribere*. Some Latin loanwords yielded derivatives: *biscopha d* 'bishopric', *biscepunf* 'becoming a bishop', *script* 'shrift'.

Under Latin influence some native English words acquired new meanings: thus, the substantive *e astron*, which originally denoted a heathen spring holiday, acquired the meaning 'Easter'. Some new terms were created on the pattern of Latin words, e.g. *Jo dspell* 'gospel' (literally 'good news'), *r^nes* 'Trinity'.

Celtic. Celtic language had but a marginal influence on the English vocabulary. Among Celtic loan- words we may mention *du n* (MnE down) 'dune', *dun* 'dun', *binn* 'bin'. Some Celtic elements have been preserved in geographical names: Gaelic *amhuin* 'river' in *Avon*, *Evan*; Gaelic *cothair* 'fortress' in *Carnarvon*, Gaelic *uisge* 'water' in *Exe*, *Usk*, *Esk*; *dun*, *dum* 'hill' in *Dumbarton*, *Dumfries*, *Dunedin*; *llan* 'church' in *Llandaff*, *Llandover*, *Llandudno*; *coil* 'forest' in *Kilbrook*, *Killiemore*; *kil* 'church' in *Kilbride*, *Kilmacolm*; *Ceann* 'cape' in *Keadre*, *Kingussie*; *inis* 'island' in *Innisfail*; *inbher* 'mountain' in *Inverness*, *Inverurie*; *bail* 'house' in *Ballyshannon*. On the whole, the percentage of loan- words in OE was very insignificant, as compared with later periods.

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LECTURE 5
Old Roman-German Adjective, Pronoun and Numeral.
Problems for discussion.

1. *Adjective history*
2. *Pronoun history*
3. *Numeral history*

Degrees of Comparison.

The comparative Degree has the suffix -ra for the masculine gender, -re for the feminine and neuter; the superlative ends in -ost: heard-heardra-heardost. The earlier form of the suffixes was *-oza, *-iza for the comparative, *-osts, *-ists for the superlative. If the suffix contained [i], the root-vowel was mutated:

eald (old)	- yldra, ieldra	- yldest, ieldest
feor (for)	- fyrra, fierre	- fyrrest, fierrest
3eon3 (young)	- 3in3ra	- 3ingest,
sceort (short)	- scyrtra	- scyrtest.
great (great)	- grytra, gryttra	- grytest.
heah (high)	- hierra, hyrra	- huhst, hyhst.
lang (lang)	- lengra	- lengest,
strang (strong)	- strengra	- strengest.

There are some suppletive forms of Comparison.

god (good) - betra - betst, ybel (wicked) - wyrsa - wyrrest, wyrst; micel, mycel (large) - mara - mæst, lytel (little) - tessa - test; The comparative degree forms are declined according to the weak type, the superlatives are declined in both ways.

Adverbs are formed from adjectives by addition of the suffix -e, heard - e 'hard'. Adverbs from their degrees of Comparison by adding the suffixes - ra, - ora, -ost:

hearde - heardra - heardost.

Pronouns.

There are several types of pronouns in OE: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative.

Declension of personal pronouns.

	Singular.	Masc .	Fem.	Neut.	Plural.
Nom.	ic 'я' þu 'ты'	he 'он'	heo 'она'	hit hie 'они'	hi, hy
Gen.	min þin	his	hire his	hiera	'их' hyra, hiora
Dat.	me þe	him	here him	him	'им'
Acc.	me þe	hine	hie hit hie,	hy, hi	'их'.

In OE, as in Gothic, there are besides singular and plural personal, also dual pronouns for the 1 st and 2 nd pronouns.

	Dual	Plural
Nom.	wit 'мы двое' 3it 'вы двое'	we 'мы' 3e 'вы'
Gen.	uncer 'нас двоих' incer	'вас двоих' ure 'наш' eower 'ваш'
Dat.	unc 'нам двоим' inc	'вам двоим' us 'нам' eow 'вам'
Acc.	unc, uncit inc, incit	us 'usic' нас'eow, eowic 'вас'

There are two demonstrative pronouns in OE: Se 'that' and þes 'this', which have gender, number and case forms.

	se 'тот', masc.	seo 'та' Fem.	þes 'этот', Neut.	þeos 'эта', Plural.
Nom.	se	seo	þæt	pa 'эти' 'те'
Gen.	þæs	þære	þæs	para 'этих' 'тех'
Dat.	þæm	þære	þæm	þæm 'этим' 'тем'
Acc.	þone	pa	þæt	pa 'этих, тех'

The OE Verb was characterised by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form-building means. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical

forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

The verbs are divided in two main groups: strong and weak. Strong verbs form their preterite and participle II by changing of the root-vowel; weak verbs form their preterite and participle II by addition of a dental suffix. The weak verbs are a productive type: the strong group are a survival of Indo-European gradation, which was a regular change of vowel (e-o-zero) conveying grammatical and lexical distinctions.

The OE system of finite verbs forms includes to tenses-present and Preterite; three moods-Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative. The Category of Person is represented only in the Indicative singular and the Imperative; there is no indication of person in the Indicative plural or in any of the subjunctive forms.

The strong verbs are subdivided in 7 classes, each class with its own type of vowel-change. Class 7 is the regular one; it forms a number of small groups, and many verbs belonging to this class have weak forms besides the strong ones. The stems given below are distributed in the following manner:

I grade	II grade	III grade
Present	1 and 3	Plural and 2 person
Indicative,	person	Part II
Present	Sg.	Singular Preterite
Subjunctive	Preterite	Subjunctive
Infinitive,	(Past)	Preterite
Participle I		(Past)

The weak verbs are subdivided in 3 groups, according to the stem-vowel joining the endings to the root. They are:

1) The 1 st class formerly with [-ja] in the present and [i] in the past. Its root-vowel is mutated; the dental suffix was joined to the root by [i] which had disappeared after long syllables (deman-demde) and was weakened to /e/ after short syllables (fremman-fremede).

2) The 2 nd class has -ian in the infinitive (< ojan) and /o/ in the preterite. The vowel is not mutated.

3) The 3 rd class includes very few verbs: the dental suffix is joined immediately to the root, in the present there was /j/, but the 2 nd and 3 rd persons sg. show no trace of /j/.

The Non- Finite Forms The non- Finite forms are: the infinitive and the two Participles. The non-finite forms in OE are more loosely connected with the finite system than in Modern English, for two reasons: 1) there are no analytic forms in OE, although their prototypes exist as various combinations of link-verb and predicative; 2) the non- finite forms themselves possess fewer verbal features. Their subsequent development binds them more closely with the finite verb. Still since every OE verb can form verbals (non- finite forms), we must consider these as part of the verb paradigm.

1. The Infinitive. There are two infinitive forms; one of them is called the Dative Infinitive (the Indo-European infinitive had been a declinable noun). This infinitive is mainly used to denote purpose, but it is quite safe to say that it generally function as an independent member of the sentence: it could function as subject and predicative. The infinitive with the ending -an functioned, as a rule, in combination with preterite- present verbs and in other verbal collocations. The second infinitive is preceded by "to" and has the ending "anne"; it is used in independent syntactic positions, mainly as adverbial modifier of purpose, but also as subject and predicative.

1. bindan dēman bapian

2. to bindanne to dēmanne to bapianne

2. Participle I. Participle I has the ending -ende and is declined as a weak adjective. It is used attributively (in pre- and post- position) and predicatively:

m.n. bindend-e, fem-u m.n. bapiende, fem. -u

3. Participle II. Participle II has the ending -n or -ed, -od, according to the type of verb (strong or weak). It is declined as an adjective (according both to the strong and weak pattern) and is use mainly as attribute and predicative.

Preterite- Present Verbs

The so- called preterite- present verbs are a small group (12 verbs) of verbs which have vowel-gradation in their present- tense form, corresponding to vowel- gradation in the preterite of strong verbs. Their preterite is formed on the weak pattern. The verbs have a marked modal meaning; most of them exist in MnE as modal verbs.

Preterite		Imperative
1. wæs	Sing. bēo	
Sing. 2. bēop		
Sing. wes		
Plur. wære	wære	wesap
3. wæs		

The Substantive Verb

The substantive verb (i.e. the verb with the meaning of “to be, to exist”) is represented in OE by three roots; only two of them have infinitives.

Willan

Present Preterite				
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	Participle I
1. wille		wol- de		willende
Sing. 2. wilt	Sing. wille	- dest	Sing. wol- de	
3. wile, wille		- de		
Plur. willap	Plur. willen	-don	Plur. -den	

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LECTURES 6

Declension of the Adjectives. Grammatical categories of pronouns. Cardinal and ordinal numerals.

Problems for discussion.

1. *The Old English Adjective*
2. *The Old English pronouns*
3. *The Old English numerals*

In all historical Indo-European languages adjectives possess practically the same morphological features as the nouns, the the sequence of these two parts of speech is an ordinary thing in Indo-European. However, the Nostratic theory (the one which unites Altaic, Uralic, Semitic, Dravidian and Indo-European language families into one Nostratic super-family, once speaking a common Proto-Nostratic language) represented by Illych-Svitych and many other famous linguists, states that adjectives in this Proto-Nostratic tongue were morphologically closer to the verbs than to the nouns.

This theory is quite interesting, because even in Proto-Indo-European, a language which was spoken much later than Proto-Nostratic, there are some proofs of the former predicative function of the adjectives. In other families of the super-family this function is even more clear. In Altaic languages, and also in Korean and Japanese, which are originally Altaic, the adjective plays the part of the predicate, and in Korean, for example, the majority of adjectives are predicative. It means that though they always denote the quality of the noun, they act the same way as verbs which denote action. Adjective "red" is actually translated from Japanese as "to be red", and the sentence *Bara-wa utsukusii* will mean "the rose is beautiful", while *bara* is "a rose", *-wa* is the nominative marker, and *utsukusii* is "to be beautiful". So no verb here, and the adjective is a predicate. This structure is typical for many Altaic languages, and probably was normal for Proto-Nostratic as well.

The Proto-Indo-European language gives us some stems which are hard to denote whether they used to mean an adjective or a verb. Some later branches reflect such stems as verbs, but other made them adjectives. So it was the Proto-Indo-European epoch where adjectives as the part of speech began to transform from a verbal one to a nominal one. And all Indo-European branches already show the close similarity of the structure of adjectives and nouns in the language. So does the Old English language, where adjective is one of the nominal parts of speech.

As well as the noun, the adjective can be declined in case, gender and number. Moreover, the instrumental case which was discussed before was preserved in adjectives much stronger than in nouns. Adjectives must follow sequence with nouns which they define - that is why the same adjective can be masculine, neuter and feminine and therefore be declined in two different types: one for masculine and neuter, the other for feminine nouns. The declension is more or less simple, it looks much like the nominal system of declension, though there are several important differences. Interesting to know that one-syllable adjectives ("monosyllabic") have different declension than two-syllable ones ("disyllabic"). See for yourselves:

Strong Declension

a, ó-stems

Monosyllabic

Sg.		
Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N blæc (black)	blæc	blacu
G blaces	blaces	blæcre
D blacum	blacum	blæcre
A blæcne	blæc	blace
I blace	blace	-
Pl.		
N blace	blacu	blaca
G blacra	blacra	blacra
D blacum	blacum	blacum
A blace	blacu	blaca

Here "I" means that very instrumental case, answering the question (by what? with whom? with the help of what?).

Disyllabic

Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
Sg.		
N éadig (happy)	éadig	éadigu
G éadiges	éadiges	éadigre
D éadigum	éadigum	éadigre
A éadigne	éadig	éadige
I éadige	éadige	
Pl.		
N éadige	éadigu	éadiga
G éadigra	éadigra	éadigra
D éadigum	éadigum	éadigum
A éadige	éadigu	éadigu

So not many new endings: for accusative singular we have *-ne*, and for genitive plural *-ra*, which cannot be met in the declension of nouns. The difference between monosyllabic and disyllabic is the accusative plural feminine ending *-a* / *-u*. That's all.

ja, jó-stems (*swéte* - sweet)

Sg.			Pl.		
Masc.	Neut.	Fem.	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N swéte	swéte	swétu	swéte	swétu	swéta
G swétes	swétes	swétre	swétra	swétra	swétra
D swétum	swétum	swétre	swétum	swétum	swétum
A swétne	swéte	swéte	swéte	swétu	swéta
I swéte	swéte	-			

wa, wó-stems

Sg.		
Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N nearu (narrow)	nearu	nearu

G	nearwes	nearwes	nearore
D	nearwum	nearwum	nearore
A	nearone	nearu	nearwe
I	nearwe	nearwe	
	Pl.		

N	nearwe	nearu	nearwa
G	nearora	nearora	nearora
D	nearwum	nearwum	nearwum
A	nearwe	nearu	nearwa

Actually, some can just omit all those examples - the adjectival declension is the same as a whole for all stems, as concerns the strong type. In general, the endings look the following way, with very few varieties (note that "-" means the null ending):

	Masc.		Fem.		Neut.	
	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N	-	-e	-u	-a	-	-u
G	-es	-ra	-re	-ra	-es	-ra
D	-um	-um	-re	-um	-um	-um
A	-ne	-e	-e	-a	-	-u
I	-e				-e	

As for weak adjectives, they also exist in the language. The thing is that one need not learn by heart which adjective is which type - strong or weak, as you should do with the nouns. If you have a weak noun as a subject, its attributive adjective will be weak as well. So - a strong adjective for a strong noun, a weak adjective for a weak noun, the rule is as simple as that.

Thus if you say "a black tree" that will be *blæc tréow* (strong), and "a black eye" will sound *blace éage*. Here is the weak declension example (*blaca* - black):

	Sg.		Pl.
	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	blaca	blace	blace
G	blacan	blacan	blacan
D	blacan	blacan	blacan
A	blacan	blace	blacan

Weak declension has a single plural for all genders, which is pleasant for those who don't want to remember too many forms. In general, the weak declension is much easier.

The last thing to be said about the adjectives is the degrees of comparison. Again, the traditional Indo-European structure is preserved here: three degrees (absolute, comparative, superlative) - though some languages also had the so-called "equalitative" grade; the special suffixes for forming comparatives and absolutes; suppletive stems for several certain adjectives.

The suffixes we are used to see in Modern English, those *-er* and *-est* in *weak*, *weaker*, *the weakest*, are the direct descendants of the Old English ones. At that time they sounded as *-ra* and *-est*. See the examples:

earm (poor) - *earmra* - *earmost*

blæc (black) - *blæcra* - *blacost*

Many adjectives changed the root vowel - another example of the Germanic ablaut:

eald (old) - *ieldra* - *ieldest*

strong - *strengra* - *strengest*

long - *lengra* - *lengest*

geong (young) - *gingra* - *gingest*

The most widespread and widely used adjectives always had their degrees formed from another stem, which is called "suppletive" in linguistics. Many of them are still seen in today's English:

gód (good) - *betera* - *betst* (or *sélra* - *sélest*)

yfel (bad) - *wiersa* - *wierest*

micel (much) - *mára* - *máést*

lýtel (little) - *læ'ssa* - *læ'st*
fear (far) - *fierra* - *fierrest, fyrrest*
néah (near) - *néarra* - *niehst, nýhst*
æ'r (early) - *æ'rra* - *æ'rest*
fore (before) - *furpra* - *fyrest* (first)

Now you see what the word "first" means - just the superlative degree from the adjective "before, forward". The same is with *niehst* from *néah* (near) which is now "next".

For those who are fond of word composition we can offer some essential materials about the Old English affixation for adjectives:

1. **-ede** (group "adjective stem + substantive stem") - *micelhéafdede* (large-headed)
2. **-ihste** (from substantives with mutation) - *þirnihte* (thorny)
3. **-ig** (from substantives with mutation) - *hálig* (holy), *mistig* (misty)
4. **-en, -in** (with mutation) - *gylden* (golden), *wyllen* (wóllen)
5. **-isc** (nationality) - *Englisc, Welisc, mennisc* (human)
6. **-sum** (from stems of verbs, adjectives, substantives) - *sibbsum* (peaceful), *hiersum* (obedient)
7. **-feald** (from stems of numerals, adjectives) - *þriefeald* (threefold)
8. **-full** (from abstract substantive stems) - *sorgfull* (sorrowful)
9. **-léás** (from verbal and nominal stems) - *slæpléás* (sleepless)
10. **-lic** (from substantive and adjective stems) - *eorþlic* (earthly)
11. **-weard** (from adjective, substantive, adverb stems)

- *inneward* (internal), *hámward* (homeward)

The next is the pronoun. Pronouns were the only part of speech in Old English which preserved the dual number in declension, but only this makes them more archaic than the rest parts of speech. Most of pronouns are declined in number, case and gender, in plural the majority have only one form for all genders.

We will touch each group of Old English pronouns and comment on them.

1. Personal pronouns

1st person			
	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	ic, íc	wé	wit
G	Mín	úre	uncer
D	Mé	Ús	unc
A	mec, mé	úsic, ús	uncit, unc
2nd person			
N	þú	Gé	git
G	þín	éower	incer
D	þé	éow	inc
A	þéc, þé	éowic, éow	incit, inc
3rd person			
N	hé (masc.), héo (fem.), hit (neut.)	híe (masc., neut.), héo (fem.)	
G	his, hire, his	hiera, heora	
D	him, hire, him	him	
A	hine, híe, hit	híe, héo	

Don't they look much like Modern English ones? Through the last 1500 years *mín* became *mine*, *gé* turned into *you* (*ye* as a colloquial variant). But changes are still significant: the 2nd person singular pronouns disappeared from the language, remaining only in poetic speech and in some dialects in the north of England. This is really a strange feature - I can hardly recall any other Indo-European language which lacks the special pronoun for the 2nd person singular (French *tu*, German *du*, Russian *ty* etc.). The polite form replaced the colloquial one, maybe due to the English traditional "ladies and gentlemen" customs. Another extreme exists in Irish Gaelic, which has no polite form of personal pronoun, and you turn to your close friend the same way as you spoke with

a prime minister - the familiar word, translated into French as *tu*. It can sound normal for English, but really funny for Slavic, Baltic, German people who make a thorough distinction between speaking to a friend and to a stranger.

The word for "*she*" was *héo* in Old English. The word *she* probably comes from the feminine demonstrative pronoun *séo* (see below), which derives from the Common Germanic **sjó*. But the exact origin of this simple word is unknown, and there is even a version that it came from Celtic languages (Irish *sí* [shee]) or from Scandinavian.

2. Demonstrative pronouns ('I' means the instrumental case)

		<i>sé</i> (that)			
		Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
N	Sé	Séo	þæt	þá	
G	þæs	þæ're	þæs	þára	
D	þæ'm	þæ're	þæ'm	þám	
A	þone	þá	þæt	þá	
I	þý, þon	-	þý, þon	-	
		<i>þes</i> (this)			
N	þes	þeos, þíos	þis	þás	
G	þisses	þisse	þisses	þissa	
D	þissum, þeossum	þisse	þissum	þissum	
A	þisne, þysne	þás	þis	þás	
I	þis, þys	-	þýs, þis	-	

Both demonstrative pronouns come from the same two Proto-Indo-European stems: **so-* / **sa-* and **to-*. Originally, in Indo-European languages there was a three-grade system of demonstrative pronouns, namely "this, next to me", "this, next to you", and "that, far from both of us". But, as well as many branches of the family, Germanic languages left only two of them, simplifying the structure to just "this" and "that".

All indirect case forms of the pronouns above begin with *þ-* [th]. It traces back to the Indo-European **t-* which became *þ* in Germanic.

3. Interrogative pronouns

N	hwá	hwæt
G	hwæs	hwæs
D	hwæ'm	hwæ'm
A	hwone	hwæt
I	-	hwý, hwí

Translation is simple. For those who have not guessed yet, *hwá* means 'who?', *hwæt* is 'what?'. These pronouns, which actually mean the masculine and the neuter varieties of the same pronoun, derive from Proto-Indo-European **kwis*, with **kw* becoming *hw* in Germanic languages. In Gothic the combination *hw* was considered as one sound which is another proof that the Indo-European the labiovelar sound *kw* was a single sound with some specific articulation.

Later Germanic languages changed the sound in a different way: in Norwegian it remained as *hv*, in German turned into *w* (as in *wer* 'who', *was* 'what'), in English finally changed into *wh* pronounced in most cases [w], but somewhere also like [h] or [hw].

Interesting that the instrumental of the word *hwæt*, once being a pronoun form, later became the word *why* in English. So 'why?' is originally an instrumental case of the interrogative pronoun. Other interrogative pronouns, or adverbs, as they are sometimes called, include the following, all beginning with *hw*:

hwilc 'which?' - is declined as the strong adjective (see [adjectives](#) above)

hwonne 'when?' - this and following are not declined, naturally

hwæ'r 'where?'

hwider 'whither?'

hwonan 'whence?'

4. Other kinds of pronouns

They include definite, indefinite, negative and relative, all typical for Indo-European languages. All of them still exist in Modern English, and all of them are given here:

a) definite

gehwá (every) - declined the same way as **hwá**

gehwilc (each),

ægþer (either),

æ'lc (each),

swilc (such) - all declined like strong adjectives

sé ylca (the same) - declined like a weak adjective

b) indefinite

sum (some),

æ'nig (any) - both behave the same way as strong adjectives

c) negative

nán, næ'nig (no, none) - declined like strong adjectives

d) relative

þe (which, that)

séþe (which, that) - they are not declined

In Proto-Indo-European and in many ancient Indo-European languages there was a special kind of declension called pronominal, using only by pronouns and opposed to the one used by nouns, adjectives and numerals. Old English lost it, and its pronouns use all the same endings as the nouns and adjectives. Maybe the only inflection which remembers the Proto-language times, is the neuter nominative **-t** in **hwæt** and **þæt**, the ancient ending for inanimate (inactive) nouns and pronouns.

And now finally some words about the article. In Proto-Indo-European no traces of definite or indefinite articles can be found, and the majority of ancient Indo-European languages lack it either. But still the article is considered a typical "late Indo-European" feature - it started appearing already when languages of the family existed separately. In Homer's Greek language there was no article, not in [Mycenaean Greek](#), but all classical [Greek](#) dialects already have the definite article in wide use. Later the definite article appears in Romance languages (though Latin did not have it at all), Celtic languages (again - [Gaulish](#) had no, but all Insular Celtic tongues generated it), in late Germanic (but not in Gothic nor in Old English), and even in several Slavic languages, those which belong to the so-called "Balkan language alliance" ([Macedonian](#), [Bulgarian](#)).

Old English did not use the article. It appeared later, coming, as it always happens, for the demonstrative pronoun. But even in this period the texts show us the frequent use of the demonstrative pronoun before nouns in the sentence: ...**he heold þæt rice** (he held the kingdom). I do not know why it happens and in general why the article appears in the language, I think it could do well without any.

As for the indefinite article, it was a product of the Old English numerals. It is obvious that all Indo-European languages have the general trend of transformation from the synthetic (or inflectional) stage to the analytic one. At least for the latest 1,000 years this trend could be observed in all branches of the family.

The level of this analytization process in each single language can be estimated by several features, their presence or absence in the language. One of them is for sure the declension of the numerals.

In Proto-Indo-European all numerals, both cardinal and ordinal, were declined, as they derived on a very ancient stage from nouns or adjectives, originally being a declined part of speech. There are still language groups within the family with decline their numerals: among them, Slavic and Baltic are the most typical samples. They practically did not suffer any influence of the analytic processes. But all other groups seem to have been influenced somehow. Ancient Italic and Hellenic languages left the declension only for the first four cardinal pronouns (from 1 to 4), the same with ancient Celtic.

The Old English language preserves this system of declension only for three numerals. It is therefore much easier to learn, though not for English speakers I guess - Modern English lacks declension at all.

Here is the list of the cardinal numerals:

1 <i>án</i>	20 <i>twentig</i>
2 <i>twá</i>	21 <i>twentig ond án</i>
3 <i>þrie</i>	30 <i>þritig</i>
4 <i>féower</i>	40 <i>féowertig</i>
5 <i>fif</i>	50 <i>fiftig</i>
6 <i>six, syx, siex</i>	60 <i>siextig</i>
7 <i>seofon, syofn</i>	70 <i>siofontig</i>
8 <i>eahta</i>	80 <i>eahtatig</i>
9 <i>nigon</i>	90 <i>nigontig</i>
10 <i>tien, tyn</i>	100 <i>hundtéontig, hund, hundred</i>
11 <i>endlefan</i>	110 <i>hundælleftig</i>
12 <i>twelf</i>	120 <i>hundtwelftig</i>
13 <i>þriotiene</i>	200 <i>tú hund</i>
14 <i>féowertiene</i>	1000 <i>þúsend</i>
15 <i>fiftiene...</i>	2000 <i>tú þúsendu</i>

And here is the declension of some of them:

1 *án* is declined just like a [strong adjective](#), can be only singular, but has masculine, neuter and feminine genders. It is the source of the future indefinite article 'a, an' in Modern English. So 'a house' in fact means "one house", here *-n* disappeared before a consonant. When at school, many of us thought that 'an' derived from 'a' and it appears vice versa.

2 *twá*:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	twegen	tú, twá	twá
G		twégea, twégra	
D		twæ'm, twám	
A	twegen	tú, twá	twá

So the genders have differences only in nominative and accusative cases, and indirect cases (genitive and dative) have common forms for all three genders. No number can be changed for it, and originally this numeral was dual, which seems natural.

3 *þrie*:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	þrie, þrí, þrý	þríó, þréó	þríó, þréó
G		þríora, þréora	
D		þrím	
A	þrie, þrí, þrý	þríó, þréó	þríó, þréó

A typical *i*-stem noun. Strange is the following: while in the case of "two" the Modern English lost masculine and neuter forms and picked up the feminine one for use ('two' < *twá*), here we have another case, when the feminine and neuter were forgotten, and today's *three* comes directly from the masculine *þrie*.

And the last is the numeral *begen, bú, bá* (both) which is declined the same way as *twá* and is also dual.

Ordinal numerals use the suffix *-ta* or *-þa*, etymologically a common Indo-European one (**-to-*).

1 <i>forma, fyresta</i>	15 <i>fiftéþa</i>
2 <i>óþer, æfterra</i>	16 <i>sixtéþa</i>
3 <i>þrida, þirda</i>	17 <i>siofontéþa</i>
4 <i>féorþa</i>	18 <i>eahtatéþa</i>
5 <i>fifta</i>	19 <i>nigontéþa</i>
6 <i>siexta, syxta</i>	20 <i>twentigþa</i>
7 <i>siofþa</i>	30 <i>þrittigþa</i>
8 <i>eahtþa</i>	40 <i>féowertigþa</i>
9 <i>nigþa</i>	50 <i>fiftigþa</i>
10 <i>téþa</i>	100 <i>hundtéontigþa</i>

- 11 *endlefta*
- 12 *twelfta*
- 13 *preotéopa*
- 14 *féowertéopa*

The two variants for the word "first" actually mean different attributes: *forma* is translated as "forward", and *fyresta* is "the farthest", "the first". Again double variants for the second nominal mean respectively "the other" and "the following".

Mainly according to Old English texts ordinal numerals were used with the demonstrative pronoun *þá* before them. This is where the definite article in 'the first', 'the third' comes from. To say "the 22nd", for example, you should combine the following: either *twá and twenigopa* (two and twentieth), or *óþer éac twentigum* (second with twenty). So the order is different from the modern English, but instead closer to Modern German where "the 22nd" sounds like *zwei und zwanzig* (two and twenty).

At all, it is easy to notice that the words in English became much shorter, and therefore simpler in pronunciation and learning. It is much easier to pronounce "hundredth" than *hundtéontigopa*, "fourth" than *féowertéopa*. Modern English acquired words mainly having one or two syllables, but this was not the rule in the Old English period.

LECTURE 7

Old Roman-German Verb.

Problems to be discussed

1. Preterite-present verbs

2. Anomalous verbs

The preterite-present verbs are a class of verbs which have a present tense in the form of a strong preterite and a past tense like the past of a weak verb. These verbs derive from the subjunctive or optative use of preterite forms to refer to present or future time. For example, *pitan*, "to know" comes from a verb which originally meant "to have seen" (cf. OE *piſe* "manner, mode, appearance"; Latin *videre* "to see" from the same root). The present singular is formed from the original singular preterite stem and the present plural from the original plural preterite stem. As a result of this history, the first-person singular and third-person singular are the same in the present.

Few preterite-present verbs appear in the Old English corpus, and the forms marked with an asterisk are unattested reconstructions, formed by analogy.

In spite of heavy irregularities, there are four groups of similarly-conjugated verbs:

1. *Āgan*, *durran*, *mōtan*, and *pitan*
2. *Cunnan*, *gemunan* (outside the past tense), and *unnan*
3. *Dugan*, *magan*, and *genugan*
4. *Sculan* and *þurfan*

Note that the Old English meanings of many of the verbs are significantly different from that of the modern descendants; in fact, the verbs "can, may, must", and to a lesser extent "thurf, durr" appear to have [chain shifted](#) in meaning.

Conj ugati on	Pron oun	'know , know how to'	'be able to, can'	'be obli ged to, mu st'	'kn ow'	'ow n'	'av ail'	'dar e'	'remem ber'	'nee d'	'be allo wed to, ma y'	'gra nt, allo w, wis h'	'have use of, enjoy'
Modern descendant		can, could	may , mig	shal l, sho	wit, wos t	owe , *au	dow , *di	*dur e,	*(i-)mu ne ^{clarification}	thur f, thar	mot e (arc	*an n, oul	*(i-)no w, (i-)nigh

			ht	uld	(arc hai c)	ght	ght (arc haic)	dare	<i>needed</i>	f (arc haic)	haic , mus t	d	t ^{<i>clarificat ion needed</i>}
<u>Infinitives</u>		Cunna n	Ma gan	scul an	þita n	āga n	Dug an	*dur ran	*ge-mu nan	þurf an	*m ōtan	unn an	*ge-/ *benug an
		tō cunne nne	tō ma gen ne	tō scu len ne	tō pit enn e	tō āge nne	tō dug enn e	tō dur ren ne	tō ge-mun enne	tō þur fen ne	tō mōt enn e	tō unn enn e	tō ge-/be nugen ne
<u>Prese nt indic ative</u>	ic/hē/ hit/h ēo	Cann	Mæ g	sce al	pāt	āh	Dea h	dear r	geman	þear f	mōt	ann	geneah
	þū	Canst	Mea ht	sce alt	pāst	āhst	*de aht	dear st	gemanst	þear ft	mōs t	*an st	*genea ht
	Plura l	Cunno n	Ma gon	scul on	þito n	āgo n	Dug on	durr on	gemuno n	þurf on	mōt on	unn on	genuga n
<u>Past indic ative</u>	Ic	Cūðe	mih te, mea hte	sce old e	piess e, pist e	āhte	Doh te	dors te	gemund e	þorf te	mōs te	uðe	benoht e
	hē/hi t/hēo		Mih te										
	þū	cūðest	Mea htes t	sce old est	piess est, pist est	āhte st	Doh test	dors test	gemund est	þorf test	mōs test	uðe st	benoht est
	Plura l	cūðon	Mea hton	sce old on	piess on, pist on	*āht on	*do hton	*dor ston	*gemun don	*þorf ton	*m ōston	uþo n	*benoh ton

<u>Present subjunctive</u>	Singular	cunne	Mæge	scyl e	þite	āge	Dug e	durr e	gemune	þurf e	mōt e	unn e	*genug e
	Plural	Cunne n	Mægen	scyl en	þite n	*āgen	*du gen	*dur ren	gemune n	*þur fen	mōt en	*un nen	*genug en
<u>Past subjunctive</u>	Singular	Cūðe	Mih te	sce old e	pi ss e, pist e	*āht e	*do hte	*dor ste	gemund e	*þor fte	*m ōste	*uð e	*benoh te
	Plural	Cūðen	Mih ten	sce old en	*pi ss e n, pist en	*āht en	*do hten	*dor sten	gemund en	*þor ften	*m ōste n	*uþ en	*benoh ten
<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	cunne	Mæge	scyl e	þite	āge	Dug e	durr e	gemune	þurf e	mōt e	unn e	*genug e
	Plural	Cunna þ	Mægaþ	scyl aþ	þita þ	āga þ	Dug aþ	durr aþ	gemuna þ	þurf aþ	mōt aþ	unn aþ	*genug aþ
<u>Present participle</u>		Cunne nde	Mægen de	scul end e	þite nde	*āgen de	*du gen de	*dur rend e	*gemun ende	*þur fend e	mōt end e	*un nen de	*genug ende
<u>Past participle</u>		cunne n/(ge) cūþ	Mægen	scul en	(ge) þite n	*(ge) āgen n	*du gen	*dor ren	*munen	*þur fen	mōt en	*un nen	*nugen

Additionally, there is a further group of four verbs which are anomalous: "want" (modern "will"), "do", "go" and "be". These four have their own conjugation schemes which differ significantly from all the other classes of verb. This is not especially unusual: "want", "do", "go", and "be" are the most commonly used verbs in the language, and are very important to the meaning of the sentences in which they are used. Idiosyncratic patterns of inflection are much more common with important items of vocabulary than with rarely used ones.

Dōn 'to do' and *gān* 'to go' are conjugated alike; *pillan* 'to want' is similar outside of the present tense.

Tense/mood	Pronoun	'do'	'go'	'will'
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<u>Infinitives</u>		dōn	Gān	pillan
		tō dōnne	tō gānne	tō willanne
<u>Present indicative</u>	Ic	dō	Gā	pille
	þū	dēst	Gæst	pilt
	hē/hit/hēo	dēð	Gæð	pile
	Plural	dōð	Gāð	pillað
<u>Past indicative</u>	ic/hē/hit/hēo	dyde	Ēode	polde
	þū	dydest	ēodest	poldest
	Plural	dydon	Ēodon	poldon
<u>Present subjunctive</u>	Singular	dō	Gā	pille
	Plural	dōn	Gān	pillen
<u>Past subjunctive</u>	Singular	dyde	Ēode	polde
	Plural	dyde	Ēode	polde
<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	dō	Gā	pille
	Plural	dōþ	Gāþ	pillap
<u>Present participle</u>		dōnde	*gānde	pillende
<u>Past participle</u>		gedōn	Gegān	*gepillan

The verb 'to be' is actually composed of three different stems:

Tense/mood	Pronoun	sindon	pesan	bēon
<u>Infinitive</u>		sindon	pesan	bēon
<u>Present indicative</u>	Ic	eom	þese	bēo
	þū	eart	þesst	bist
	hē/hit/hēo	Is	pes(t)	bið
	Plural	sind(on)	pesað	bēoð
<u>Past indicative</u>	ic/hē/hit/hēo	þæs		
	þū	pære		
	Plural	pæron		
<u>Present subjunctive</u>	Singular	sīe	þese	bēo
	Plural	sīen	pesen	bēon
<u>Past subjunctive</u>	Singular	pære		
	Plural	pæren		
<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	þes		bēo
	Plural	þesað		bēoð
<u>Present participle</u>		*sindonde	pesende	bēonde

<u>Past participle</u>	*gesindon	*gepeson	gebēon
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The present forms of *pesan* are almost never used. Therefore, *pesan* is used as the past, imperative, and present participle versions of *sindon*, and does not have a separate meaning. The *bēon* forms are usually used in reference to future actions. Only the present forms of *bēon* contrast with the present forms of *sindon/pesan* in that *bēon* tends to be used to refer to eternal or permanent truths, while *sindon/pesan* is used more commonly to refer to temporary or subjective facts. This semantic distinction (made only during the present tense) was lost as Old English developed into modern English, so that the modern verb 'to be' is a single verb which takes its present indicative forms from *sindon*, its past indicative forms from *pesan*, its present subjunctive forms from *bēon*, its past subjunctive forms from *pesan*, and its imperative and participle forms from *bēon*. (Modern German had an analogous, but even more complicated, development for its verb *sein*.) In late OE and ME, the form *earon/learun*, from the [Old Norse](#) *erun*, replaced *bēop* and *sind* (See also [List of English words of Old Norse origin](#)).

Recommended Literatures for reading.

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LECTURE 8

Strong and weak verbs in Old Roman-German. Grammatical categories of Old Roman-German Verbs.

Problems for Discussion.

1. Verbs in Old Roman-German: strong and weak forms of the verb

2. Grammatical categories of Strong and weak verbs in Old Roman-German

Verbs in Old English are divided into [strong](#) and [weak](#) verbs. Strong verbs indicate tense by a change in the quality of a [vowel](#), while weak verbs indicate tense by the addition of an ending.

Strong verbs use the Germanic form of [conjugation](#) known as [ablaut](#). In this form of conjugation, the stem of the word changes to indicate the tense. Verbs like this persist in modern English; for example *sing*, *sang*, *sung* is a strong verb, as are *swim*, *swam*, *swum* and *choose*, *chose*, *chosen*. The root portion of the word changes rather than its ending. In Old English, there were seven major classes of strong verb; each class has its own pattern of stem changes. Learning these is often a challenge for students of the language, though English speakers may see connections between the old verb classes and their modern forms.

The classes had the following distinguishing features to their infinitive stems:

- I. ī + one consonant.
- II. ēo or ū + one consonant.
- III. Originally e + two consonants. By the time of written Old English, many had changed. If C is used to represent any consonant, verbs in this class usually had short e + lC; short eo + rC; short i + nC/mC; or (g +) short ie + lC.
- IV. e + one consonant (usually l or r, plus the verb *breccan* 'to break').
- V. e + one consonant (usually a stop or a fricative).
- VI. a + one consonant.
- VII. Other than the above. Always a heavy root syllable (either a long vowel or short + two consonants), almost always a non-umlauted vowel – e.g., ō, ā, ēa, a (+ nC), ea (+ lC/rC), occ. æ (the latter with past in ē instead of normal ēo). Infinitive is distinguishable from class 1 weak verbs by

non-umlauted root vowel; from class 2 weak verbs by lack of suffix *-ian*. First and second preterite have identical stems, usually in *ēo* (occ. *ē*), and the infinitive and the past participle also have the same stem.

Stem changes in strong verbs					
Class	Root weight	Infinitive	First preterite	Second preterite	Past participle
I	Heavy	ī	ā	i	
II		ēo <i>or</i> ū	ēa	u	o
III		<i>see table below</i>			
IV	Light	e(+r/l)	Æ	ǣ	o
V		e(+ <i>other</i>)			e
VI		A	ō		a
VII	Heavy	ō, ā, ēa, a (+nC), ea (+rC/lC), <i>occ.</i> Æ	ē <i>or</i> ēo		same as infinitive

The first [preterite](#) stem is used in the preterite, for the [first-](#) and third-person [singular](#). The second preterite stem is used for second-person singular, and all persons in the [plural](#) (as well as the preterite [subjunctive](#)). Strong verbs also exhibit [i-mutation](#) of the stem in the second- and third-person singular in the [present tense](#).

The third class went through so many sound changes that it was barely recognisable as a single class. The first was a process called '[breaking](#)'. Before ⟨h⟩, and ⟨r⟩ + another consonant, ⟨æ⟩ turned into ⟨ea⟩, and ⟨e⟩ to ⟨eo⟩. Also, before ⟨l⟩ + another consonant, the same happened to ⟨æ⟩, but ⟨e⟩ remained unchanged (except before combination ⟨lh⟩).

The second sound change to affect it was the influence of palatal sounds ⟨g⟩, ⟨c⟩, and ⟨sc⟩. These turned preceding ⟨e⟩ and ⟨æ⟩ to ⟨ie⟩ and ⟨ea⟩, respectively.

The third sound change turned ⟨e⟩ to ⟨i⟩, ⟨æ⟩ to ⟨a⟩, and ⟨o⟩ to ⟨u⟩ before nasals.

Altogether, this split the third class into five sub-classes:

- e + two consonants (apart from clusters beginning with l).
- eo + r or h + another consonant.
- e + l + another consonant.
- g, c, or sc + ie + two consonants.

e. i + nasal + another consonant.

Stem changes in Class III				
Sub-class	Infinitive	First preterite	Second preterite	Past participle
a	E	Æ	U	o
b	eo	Ea		
c	E			
d	Ie			
e	I	A		u

Regular strong verbs were all conjugated roughly the same, with the main differences being in the stem vowel. Thus *stelan* "to steal" represents the strong verb conjugation paradigm.

Tense/mood	Pronoun	'steal'
<u>Infinitives</u>		Stelan
		tō stelanne
<u>Present indicative</u>	ic	Stele
	þū	Stilst
	hē/hit/hēo	Stilð
	Plural	Stelaþ
<u>Past indicative</u>	ic/hē/hit/hēo	Stæl

	þū	Stæle
	Plural	Stælon
<u>Present subjunctive</u>	Singular	Stele
	Plural	Stelen
<u>Past subjunctive</u>	Singular	Stæle
	Plural	Stælen
<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	Stel
	Plural	Stelaþ
<u>Present participle</u>		Stelende
<u>Past participle</u>		(ge)stolen

Weak verbs

Further information: [Germanic weak verb](#)

Weak verbs are formed by adding alveolar (*t* or *d*) endings to the stem for the past and past-participle tenses. Examples include *love*, *loved* and *look*, *looked*.

Originally, the weak ending was used to form the preterite of informal, noun-derived verbs such as often emerge in conversation and which have no established system of stem-change. By nature, these verbs were almost always transitive, and even today, most weak verbs are transitive verbs formed in the same way. However, as English came into contact with non-Germanic languages, it invariably borrowed useful verbs which lacked established stem-change patterns. Rather than inventing and standardizing new classes or learning foreign conjugations, English speakers simply applied the weak ending to the foreign bases.

The linguistic trends of borrowing foreign verbs and verbalizing nouns have greatly increased the number of weak verbs over the last 1,200 years. Some verbs that were originally strong (for example *help*, *holp*, *holpen*) have become weak by analogy; most foreign verbs are adopted as weak verbs; and when verbs are made from nouns (for example "to scroll" or "to water") the resulting verb is weak. Additionally, conjugation of weak verbs is easier to teach, since there are fewer classes of variation. In combination, these factors have drastically increased the number of weak verbs, so that in modern English weak verbs are the most numerous and productive form, although occasionally a weak verb may turn into a strong verb through the process of analogy, such as *sneak* (originally only a noun), where *snuck* is an analogical formation rather than a survival from Old English.

There are three major classes of weak verbs in Old English. The first class displays i-mutation in the root, and the second class none. There is also a third class explained below.

Class-one verbs with short roots exhibit [gemination](#) of the final stem consonant in certain forms. With verbs in ⟨r⟩, this appears as ⟨ri⟩ or ⟨rg⟩, where ⟨i⟩ and ⟨g⟩ are pronounced [j]. Geminated ⟨f⟩ appears as ⟨bb⟩, and that of ⟨g⟩ appears as ⟨cg⟩. Class-one verbs may receive an [epenthetic](#) vowel before endings beginning in a consonant.

Where class-one verbs have gemination, class-two verbs have ⟨i⟩ or ⟨ig⟩, which is a separate syllable pronounced [i]. All class-two verbs have an epenthetic vowel, which appears as ⟨a⟩ or ⟨o⟩.

In the following table, three verbs are conjugated. *Spebban* "to put to sleep" is a class-one verb exhibiting gemination and an epenthetic vowel. *Hælan* "to heal" is a class-one verb exhibiting neither gemination nor an epenthetic vowel. *Sīðian* "to journey" is a class-two verb.

Tense/mood	Pronoun	'put to sleep'	'heal'	'journey'
Infinitives		Spebban	hælan	sīðian
		tō spebbanne	tō hælanne	tō sīðianne
Present indicative	ic	Spebbe	hæle	sīðie
	þū	Spefest	hælst	sīðast
	hē/hit/hēo	Spefeþ	hælþ	sīðað
	Plural	Spebbaþ	hælaþ	sīðiað
Past indicative	ic/hē/hit/hēo	Spefede	hælde	sīðode
	þū	Spefedest	hældest	sīðodest
	Plural	Spefedon	hældon	sīðodon
Present subjunctive	Singular	Spebbe	hæle	sīðie
	Plural	Spebben	hælen	sīðien
Past subjunctive	Singular	Spefede	hælde	sīðode
	Plural	Spefedon	hælden	sīðoden

<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	Spefe	hæ̅l	sī̅ða
	Plural	Spebbaþ	hæ̅laþ	sī̅ðiað
<u>Present participle</u>		Spefende	hæ̅lende	sī̅ðiende
<u>Past participle</u>		Spefed	hæ̅led	sī̅ðod

During the Old English period, the third class was significantly reduced; only four verbs belonged to this group: *habban* 'have', *libban* 'live', *secgan* 'say', and *hycgan* 'think'. Each of these verbs is distinctly irregular, though they share some commonalities.

Tense/mood	Pronoun	'have'	'live'	'say'	'think'
<u>Infinitives</u>		habban	libban, lifgan	secgan	hycgan
		tō hæbberne	tō libberne	tō secgerne	tō hycgerne
<u>Present indicative</u>	ic	hæbbe	libbe, lifge	secge	hycge
	þū	hæfst, hæfast	lifast, leofast	segst, sagast	hygst, hogast
	hē/hit/hēo	hæfð, hafað	lifað, leofað	segð, sagað	hyg(e)d, hogað
	Plural	habbaþ	libbað	secgaþ	hycgað
<u>Past indicative</u>	ic/hē/hit/hēo	hæfde	lifde, leofode	sægde	hog(o)de, hygde
	þū	hæfdest	lifdest, leofodest	sægdest	hog(o)dest, hygdest
	Plural	hæfdon	lifdon, leofodon	sægdon	hog(o)don, hygdon

<u>Present subjunctive</u>	Singular	hæbbe	libbe, lifge	secge	hycge
	Plural	hæbben	libben, lifgen	secgen	hycgen
<u>Past subjunctive</u>	Singular	hæfde	lifde, leofode	sægde	hog(o)de, hygde
	Plural	hæfden	lifde, leofoden	sægden	hog(o)den, hygden
<u>Imperative</u>	Singular	hafa	leofa	sæge, saga	hyge, hoga
	Plural	habbaþ	libbaþ, lifgaþ	secgaþ	hycgaþ
<u>Present participle</u>		hæbbende	libbende, lifgende	secgende	hycgende
<u>Past participle</u>		gehæfd	gelifd	gesægd	gehogod

Recommended Literatures for reading.

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LECTURES 9 - 10

Old Roman-German Syntax.

Types of sentences in Old Roman-German. Syntactical relations in simple sentences.

Problems for discussion.

1. *Types of sentences*
2. *Syntactical relations in simple sentences*
3. *Compound sentences*
4. *Complex sentences*

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

Subject clauses are not often found in OE texts, predicative clauses do not seem to occur in OE texts, object clauses are mainly found in indirect speech, that is, in connection with verbs meaning „say“, „announce“, „ask“, „think“, and the like. They may be introduced by the conjunction *þæt*, by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, or, occasionally, be joined on asyndetically. As for attributive clauses they are introduced either by the relative pronoun *þe* or by the pronoun *sē*. Adverbial clauses cover a wide variety of meanings, such as place, time, cause, purpose, concession, comparison, etc. Accordingly

the number of conjunctions introducing such clauses is considerable. Here we find *þā* „when“, *þonne* „when“, *opþæt* „until“, *for* „because“ and others. And yet many constructions – especially in early original prose – look clumsy, loosely connected, disorderly and wanting precision, which is natural in a language whose written form had only begun to grow.

Once it has been established that a sequence of clauses makes up a complex sentence, the question arises whether the clauses are in a paratactic or hypotactic relations, that is, whether the clauses are linked as equals or asymmetrically, cf. *He went jogging and then left for work* (paratactic) vs. *After he went jogging he went to work.* (hypotactic). Parataxis is traditionally subdivided into two types. One type, called „asyndetic“, has no overt conjunctions. Typical examples are: *I came, I conquered*, where no co-ordinating conjunctions are present. The second type of parataxis, called „syndetic“, is characterized by overt co-ordinating conjunctions, as in *I came and I conquered*.

It is sometimes said that OE syntax, at least in the earlier poetry, was characteristically paratactic. But the evidence of extant documents, allowing for different style and genre, and different conventions about literacy, suggests that the structure of OE allowed for a great variety of types of hypotaxis. One factor that makes OE seem more paratactic is the greater frequency in formal writing of uncoordinated and co-ordinated sentences. Complex sentences consist of two or more clauses conjoined. In OE, as in PDE, there are a lot of complex sentence types. They are: co-ordinate, relative, purposive, result, causal, conditional, concessive, temporal and comparative. The complex clause types of OE are roughly equivalent to PDE co-ordinate and subordinate clauses with similar names. However, in some cases evidence for syntactic as opposed to semantic subordination is not as apparent as in PDE. In PDE there is often a morphological difference between adverbs and conjunctions. It is therefore in most cases possible to tell from form as well as meaning whether a clause is introduced by an adverb or a conjunction, cf. *afterwards* vs. *after*, *therefore* vs. *because*. However, in OE most such pairs are homonymous (with the connective derived from the adverb), cf. *æfter* „afterwards, after“, *for þon* „therefore, because“, *þa*, *þonne* „then, when“, *þær* „there, where“, *swa* „so, as“. The main exception is the pair *gif ... þonne* „if ... then“ (as is true in the case of the PDE reflex *if ... then*, *þonne* cannot occur alone without *gif* as the marker of a conditional construction). Usually the context invites unambiguous interpretation of a sequence of clauses as a sequence of independent sentences or as connected in a complex sentence. Ambiguities nevertheless do exist, as in;

Nu hæbbe we awriten þære Asian supdæl,;

Now have we described that Asia's southern-part,;

nu wille we fon to hire norðdæle

now will we turn to its northern-part

Historical syntax has been studied to a much smaller extend than either phonetics, lexicology or morphology. Though the main trends in the development of syntactic structure appear to be clear, many more detailed investigations have yet to be made to complete the picture.

References

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2. Traugott, E. (1996). „The Cambridge History of the English Language“.
3. Расторгуева, Т. (2002). “История английского языка”.

LECTURE 11

Old Roman-German Vocabulary.

Problems for discussion.

1. General characteristics
2. Compounds
3. Kennings
4. Prefixes and suffixes
5. Metathesis
6. Survival

The surviving vocabulary of Old English (OE) is relatively small. The *Thesaurus of Old English* (TOE), with which you will be working, contains almost 34,000 different word forms, whereas a modern desk dictionary might contain 80,000. Some of these words have more than one meaning, i.e. they

are **polysemous**: TOE contains just over 50,000 meanings altogether. An example of multiple meaning or **polysemy** is OE *ecg*, pronounced in the same way as its Modern English (Mod. E.) descendant 'edge'. In addition to meaning 'edge', it also means 'blade', the part of an object that has a sharp edge, and 'sword', an object distinguished by having a sharp edge or blade. This is an example of **metonymy**, the identification of an object by one of its attributes, as when the Prime Minister is referred to as 'No. 10'. 'Edge' in Mod. E. also has a **metaphorical** sense, where an abstract idea is conveyed by referring to something concrete, as in 'her voice had an edge to it'.

Much of the vocabulary of Mod. E. derives from OE. This applies particularly to our **core vocabulary**: common words in everyday use for fundamental concepts. Examples include the natural world (*earth, sea, wind, fire, water; sun, moon, star*); people (*man, woman, child, father, mother, brother, daughter*); the body (*hand, arm, elbow, finger, foot, nose, mouth*); and other basic concepts such as *food, drink; heaven, hell; friend, neighbour; love, good, evil; hot, cold; after, over, under*. However, not all words which look alike necessarily refer to the same thing – such misleading words are often called **false friends**. An example pair is OE *bēor* / Mod. E. *beer*. Although both refer to alcoholic drinks, the nature of the drink is quite different.

The examples above are all typical of OE words in being one or two syllables in length. Where there are two syllables, the stress is on the first. Initial stress is a characteristic feature of the [Germanic](#) languages as a group and remains the most common type of word structure in Mod. E. We have also retained from OE many of the ways of making new words, but at the same time English has borrowed numerous words from other languages, notably French and Latin. Thousands of French words were brought into English after the [Norman Conquest](#) of 1066, which ended the rule of the Anglo-Saxon kings and introduced considerable social change. New words occur especially in fields where Norman influence was strongest, such as Law, Literature and Fashion. These loan words from other languages often exhibit different stress patterns from the basic Germanic vocabulary, as with *anatomy* and *cagoule* from French, *armada* and *potato* from Spanish, *kamikaze* from Japanese, *anathema* from Greek and *flamingo* from Portuguese.

2. Compounds

New words are often formed in Mod. E. by combining two existing words to form a compound, as in *aircraft, hatchback, motorway* and *raincoat*. Such words are more specific in their meanings than the words they combine. This practice is even more characteristic of OE, where a high proportion of the vocabulary, particularly the vocabulary of poetry, comprises compounds. For instance, OE *sæ* 'sea' combines with OE *mann* 'man' to give a compound *sæmann* 'sailor'. The same first [element](#) combines with OE *dēor* 'animal' to give *sædēor* 'sea creature'. It also combines with OE *rima* 'rim' to give *særima* 'coast', and with OE *faru* 'journey' to give *sæfaru* 'voyage'. You can often work out what a word means by breaking it down into its constituent parts.

2.1 Kennings

Sometimes a little more thought is required to understand a compound, as with *sæmearh*, a combination of *sæ* with *mearh* 'horse' (the ancestor of Mod. E. *mare*). Here the second element refers not to a living animal but to the horse as a mode of transport, so the compound as a whole translates as 'ship'. Compounds like *sæmearh* which are to be understood metaphorically rather than literally are common in OE poetry, and are known as 'kennings'. Other examples are *nithelm* 'darkness', a combination of *niht* 'night' with *helm* 'helmet'; *bānhūs* 'body', from *bān* 'bone' and *hūs* 'house'; and *swanrād* 'sea', from *swan* 'swan' and *rād* 'road'.

3. Prefixes and suffixes

As in Mod. E., new OE words could be formed from existing ones with the addition of [prefixes](#) or [suffixes](#). Prefixes tend to affect meaning, for instance by reversing or intensifying the application of the original word (e.g. *excusable, inexcusable; sound, unsound*). Suffixes are used to change one type of word into another: for instance, to create a noun from a verb (e.g. *sing, singer*), or an adverb from an adjective (e.g. *sad, sadly*).

Common OE prefixes include:

mis- defective (*dæd* 'deed', *misdæd* 'misdeed'; *faran* 'to go', *misfaran* 'to go astray')

ofer- excess (*æt* 'eating', *oferæt* 'gluttony'; *fyllan* 'to fill', *oferfyllan* 'to fill to overflowing')

un- negative (*cūþ* 'known', *uncūþ* 'unknown'; *riht* 'right', *unriht* 'wrong')

However, prefixes sometimes have little if any effect. For instance, *giefan* and *forgiefan* both mean 'to give'. Many verbs can occur with or without the prefix *ge-*; *niman* and *geniman* both mean 'to take'. This is

sometimes summarized in dictionaries and grammars of OE as *(ge)niman*, and the *ge* is ignored when the words are alphabetized.

Common suffixes, many of which are still used in Mod. E., help to identify types of word.

Common **adjective** suffixes include:

-ful (*cearu* 'care, sorrow', *cearful* 'sorrowful')

-ig (*blōd* 'blood', *blōdig* 'bloody')

-isc (*cild* 'child', *cildisc* 'childish')

-lēas (*hlāford* 'lord', *hlāfordlēas* 'lordless')

-lic (*wundor* 'wonder, miracle', *wundorlic* 'wonderful, miraculous')

Many **adverbs** end in:

-e (*heard* 'hard, fierce', *hearde* 'fiercely')

-lice (*hrædlic* 'quick', *hrædlice* 'quickly')

Abstract **nouns** often end in:

-dōm (*wīs* 'wise', *wīsdōm* 'wisdom')

-hād (*cild* 'child', *cildhād* 'childhood')

-nes (*beorht* 'bright', *beorhtnes* 'brightness')

-scipe (*frēond* 'friend', *frēondscipe* 'friendship')

Other common Mod. E. suffixes, such as those in words like *devotion*, *fortitude*; *generous*, *generosity*; *social*, *sociable*, *sociability*, were adopted later from French or Latin.

4. Metathesis

The transposition of sounds within a word is known as 'metathesis', and it affects a small but distinctive group of Mod. E. words derived from OE. Examples include *beorht* 'bright', *brid* 'young bird', *gærs* 'grass', *þerscold* 'threshold', *þrītig* 'thirty', *þurh* 'through' and *wæps* 'wasp'.

5. Survival

Many of the surviving OE words occur very rarely, or only in *specialised* contexts. These are marked in TOE by four superscript flags, g, o, p, q.

- g indicates words which occur only as translations of foreign words, usually Latin. Such translations are sometimes written in a manuscript and sometimes occur in bilingual wordlists or glossaries.

- o indicates words which occur very rarely, often only once.

- p indicates words which occur only in poetry.

- q indicates words about whose very existence we are doubtful, perhaps because they occur in a manuscript which is difficult to read or has been altered in some way.

Searches can be made in TOE on the g, o and p flags. If a large number of words in a field have g or o flags, then either it is a field with a lot of specialized vocabulary or one that was not much written about. A lot of p flags, as in sections such as Warfare or Emotions, indicate that the subject commonly occurs in poetry. Poetry was an important literary form in Anglo-Saxon culture. Its structure was based on half lines linked by [alliterating](#) sounds, which is one reason why it was advantageous for poets to have groups of synonyms beginning with different letters.

Some of the editorial discussions of difficult words in TOE are recorded in the View Comments section at the foot of the screen. Where we reconstruct an Old English word that has never actually been found, it is preceded by an asterisk *. There are no such words in the database, but they may occur in discussions.

Further reading

The general books on OE and the history of the English Language listed in Unit 3 have sections on vocabulary.

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Routledge (and previous editions).

Smith, J. J. 2009. *Old English: A Linguistic Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 59-73 'The Old English Lexicon'.

LECTURE 12

Word formation. Affixation in Old Roman-German. Borrowings in Old Roman-German.

Problems for Discussion.

1. Affixation and Borrowings in Old Roman-German.

2. The noun

3. The adjective

4. The adverb

5. The verb

Middle English is the period of the levelling of endings. For this reason, many distinctions disappear; the productive types absorb the more archaic ones and those which are less productive. New forms appear, e.g. analytical verb forms.

The Noun. Only two numerous groups exist in ME, distinguished mainly by their plural forms. The one is the former **a**-declension which has absorbed the lesser types; the other is the **n**-declension, which consists of former feminine nouns (the weak declension). There are few survivals of unchangeable neuters; the root-declension has lost some words, but it continues to exist.

The noun has two cases- the common case and the possessive. The weak declension has no case forms at all.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
C. lof	lofes	care	caren	fot	fet
G. lofes	lofes	care	caren	fotes	fetes

Adjective. The adjective has lost its case-system altogether. There remain only a few traces of the number distinction and the distinction between the strong and weak declension.

	Strong	Weak
<i>Singular</i>	hard	hard-e
<i>Plural</i>	- e	-e

The comparative and the superlative degrees are formed with the suffixes **-er**, **-est** respectively. The mutated forms still occur, but the vowel may already be levelled on the pattern of the positive form. The suppletive forms of comparison remain the same, with corresponding phonetic changes.

Adverb. The suffix **-e** may already have disappeared, and so the "flat" adverbs come into existence (hard). At the same time, the suffix **-lic**, often forming adverbs with **-e** (*eornost/ice - earnest/y*) comes, by metanalysis, to denote adverbs rather than adjectives: */arge/y, busi/y*.

Verb. The strong verbs have levelled the vowel of the preterite singular and there is a tendency towards merging of the preterite singular in the 4th and 5th classes; sometimes the vowel of preterite plural is analogical to that of participle II.

	Present	Preterite	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Participle</i>
1. riden rod		ride(n)	riden
2. chesen ches		chose (n)	chosen
3. binden band, bond		bounde (n)	bounde (n)
4. helpen halp		Holpen	holpen
5. beren bar		beren, bar	boren
6. geten gat		Geten	geten
7. faren for		Foren	faren
8. leten let		Leten	leten
9. fallen fel		Fellen	fallen

The productive weak type is formed by the merging of the 2nd and some verbs of the 1st class; the endings are **-ed** - **-de**. The irregular verbs still form a group apart.

Conjugation (the 14th century)

	<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>
	1. bind (e) dem (e)		
<i>Sing.</i>	2. bindest, -est bint		<i>Sing.</i> bind(e) dem(e)
	3. -eth - eth		
<i>Plur.</i>	- en - en		<i>Plur.</i> bind(en) dem(en)

<i>Preterite Indicative</i>		<i>Subjunctive</i>
<i>Sing.</i> hand dem	-de -dest - <i>de</i>	<i>Sing.</i> bound(e) dem-de
<i>Plur.</i> hounde(n)	-den	<i>Plur.</i> bound(en) dem-den
<i>Participle I</i>		<i>Infinitive</i>
bindinge		to bind(en)
deminde		to dem(en)

The preterite-present verbs are grouped in the same way, as in OE except that *shal*, *scholde* may function as auxiliaries of the future tense and junctive forms respectively.

Substantive Verb. The suppletive forms of the substantive verb show a slightly different distribution: the present subjunctive is represented only by **- be -** forms.

<i>Present Indicative</i>		<i>Subjunctive</i>
<i>Sing.</i> 1. am be	be	
2. art bist		
3. is bith		
<i>Plur.</i> are(n) ben, beth	ben	
<i>Preterite</i>		<i>Participle II</i>
<i>Inddicative</i>	<i>Subjunctive</i>	
<i>Sing.</i> was	were	ben
were, wast		
was		
<i>Plur.</i> weren	were(n)	

Phrase. Noun, Adjective and Verb Patterns. In Early Me while the nominal parts of speech were losing most of their grammatical distinctions, the stucture of the main word phrases - with nouns, adjectives, and verbs as headwords - was considerably altered.

In OE the dependent components of noun patterns agreed with the noun in case, number and gender, if they were expressed by adjectives, adjective - pronouns or participles. If expressed by nouns, they either agreed with the head- noun in case and number (nouns in apposition) or had the form of the Gen. case.

By Late ME agreement in noun patterns had practically disappeared, except for some instances of agreement in number. Formal markers of number had been preserved in nouns, demonstrative pronouns and some survivals of the strong declension of adjectives; most adjectives and adjectivised participles had lost number inflections by the age of Chaucer; cf. a few phrases from Chaucer: *sg*: ... *this* holy mayden ... *that* requeste *pl*: *These* wodes eek recoveren grene. ('These woods become green again.')

as *this* clerkes seyn('as these learned men say') A *good* man was ther of religioun. ('There was a good man, a priest.');

Goode men, herkneth everych on! ('Good men, listen!') but far more often there was no agreement in number:

... his woundes *newe*, the *same* ship, *strange* place *straunge* strondes, etc. ('his new wounds,' 'the same ship,' 'strange place', 'strange strnds.')

The last traces of agreement in adjectives were lost in the 15th c. when the inflection - e was dropped; only the demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite article and nouns in apposition indicated the indefinite article and nouns in apposition indicated the number of the head - word, like in Mod E. When the noun were shown by its determiners (articles and pronouns). Sometimes in Late ME the adjective stood in post-position, which can be attributed to the influence of French syntas (in French the adjective was placed after the niun), e.g.: *Brother dere*; *cares colde*; *woundes newe*. (Chaucer) (Relics of this practice are now found as some modern set phrases such as *court martial*, *time immemorial*.)

A noun used attributively had from of the Gen. case or was joined to the head-noun by a preposition. In Chaucer's time the use of - 's- Gen was less restricted than in Mod E, so that inanimate nouns commonly occurred as inflectional Gen. in noun pattern: *fadres sone* 'father's son', *seintes lore*

'saint's lore', *every shires ende* 'end of every shire.' Yet the use of prepositions had certainly become more extensive: *the sergeaunts of the toun of Rome* 'the officials of the town of Rome,' *men of armes* 'men of arms', etc. (see also 433434 for the history of the Gen. case).

In the age of the literary Renaissance, the noun patterns became fixed syntactic frames in which every position had a specific functional significance. The attribute in pre-position was enclosed between the determiner and the headword; hence every word occupying this position was an attribute. This is evidenced by wide use of nouns as attributes in noun patterns at the time of Shakespeare, an age famous for its unconventional handling of parts of speech, e.g: Jog on, jog on, the *footpath* way; the *darling* buds of May; the *master* mistress of my passion; *rascal* counters. (Shakespeare) The standardised frame of the noun pattern is also confirmed by the fact that the position of the head noun could not be left vacant - it was at that time that the indefinite pronoun *one* and the demonstrative *that* began to be used as the so-called "prop-words", e. g.: A barren-spirited fellow, one that feeds On object and imitations.. (Shakespeare)

With the growth of the written language noun patterns became more varied and more extended. Attributes to nouns could contain prepositional phrases with other attributes:

For drunkennesse is verrey sepulture *Of mannes wit and his discrecioun*. (Chaucer)
(For drunkenness is the burying (lit. "sepulture") of man's wit and his discretion.)

In Early NE noun patterns began to include syntactic complexes: predicative contractions with the Gerund and the Infinitive. In ME and Early NE adjective patterns, as before, included a variety of dependent components. Adjectives were commonly modified by adverbs, e. g:

He was a *verrey* parfit gentil knyght. (Chaucer)
(He was a very perfect noble knight.)

The main difference from the preceding ages lay in the ways of connection between the adjective and the nouns or noun-pronouns used as dependent components of the pattern. In OE an adjective could take an object. In the Dat. or gen. case. In ME these objects were replaced by the Comm. case usually preceded by a preposition., e.g: *with face pale of hewe; so harde of his herte; amyable of port; unlyk to my dede; .. discreet in alle his wordes and dedes; so patient unto a man*. (Chaucer) ('with a pale face; hard-hearted; amiable in behaviour, unlike my deed; discreet in all his words and deeds; so patient to a man').

Some adjectives, especially the most frequent ones, displayed great vacillation in the choice of prepositions. For instance, in the 14th c. *fair* and *good* occur with the prepositions *of, in, to, at, by*.

The adjective freely combined with the Infinitive since the earliest periods. Examples from Chaucer are: *redy for to ryde* 'ready to ride'; *I am free to wedde* 'I am free to marry'; *A manly man, to been an abbot able* 'a manly man, able to be an abbot'.

The use of adjectives with the *-ing* -form was more restricted; in later periods it increased steadily as the gerund and gerundial complexes began to replace the Infinitive in adjective phrases, e.g.; measurable *in loking* and *in berunge* (Chaucer) ('moderate in appearance and behaviour' (lit. "looking and bearing")) But yet her portion is *worth your taking* notice, Master Aimwell. (Shirley, early 17th c.)

The history of the verb pattern embraced a number of important changes and developments.

In some respects verb patterns became more uniform. In OE the verb could take various objects and adverbial modifiers expressed by the oblique cases of nouns. In ME the oblique cases were replaced by the Comm. case (or the Obj. case of pronouns), with- or without- prepositions. Even though the inflectional *-s*- Gen. survived, it was no longer used in verb patterns (it occurred in attributive function only). The use of prepositions in verb patterns grew, and so did the number of transitive verbs which took an object without a preposition. The following quotations from Chaucer's poems show the replacement of the oblique cases: by the Comm. case of nouns and the Obj. case of pronouns:

That *hem* hath holpen whan that they were seeke
(Who has helped them when they ill -OE *helpen* took an object in the Dat. case)
And first *to Cecilie*, as I understonde,
He yaf that one
(And first he gave that one (rose) to Cecily'- the object correspond to the OE Dat. and Acc. cases.)
After her deeth ful ofte may she wayte.
(She often waited for death'- the corresponding OE verb *bidan* governed the Gen. case.)

At *nyght* were come into that hostelrye
Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignye...

('At night came into that inn a company of twenty-nine' the respective OE form was *nihtes* - the Gen. case in an adverbial function.)

In a tabard he rood *upon* a mere.

('He rode upon a mare in a long coat' - OE *meorum ridan* 'ride a horse' with a noun in that Dat. case)

Throughout ME and Early NE the use of prepositions displayed great fluctuation. Many verbs were used with a variety of prepositions until the age of prescriptive grammars and dictionaries, and some verbs a long time after. During the NE period the size and complexity of verb patterns grew, as the verbs came to be extended by noun patterns of more complicated structure, by Infin. phrases and predicative constructions with diverse components.

Some verb phrases merged into single grammatical or lexical units and in this sense were "simplified". As shown in the preceding paragraphs verb phrases consisting of a finite and a non-finite verb turned into analytical forms, thus passing from the level of syntax to that of morphology. Verb phrases consisting of verbs and adverbs - which modified or specified the meaning of the verb - formed lexical units known as "composite verbs" or "verb-adverb combinations" (this process made up for the loss of many OE verb OE verb prefixes). Likewise, many verb phrases became inseparable "group-verbs" or phraseological units, e.g. *maken me/odie* ('sing') in Chaucer and *have mind upon your head*, *have war*, *have business*, etc. in Shakespeare.

Simple Sentence. In the course of history the structure of the simple sentence in many respects became more orderly and more uniform. Yet, at the same time it grew complicated as the sentence came to include more extended and complex parts: longer attributive groups, diverse subjects and predicates and numerous predicative constructions (syntactic complexes).

In OE the ties between the words in the sentence were shown mainly by means of government and agreement, with help of numerous inflections. In ME and Early NE, with most of the inflectional endings levelled or dropped, the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by their relative position, environment, semantic ties, prepositions, and by a more rigid syntactic structure.

Every place in the sentence came to be associated with a certain syntactic function: in the new structure of the sentence syntactic functions were determined by position, and no position could remain vacant. This is evidenced by the obligatory use of the subject. For instance, in OE the formal subject, expressed by the pronoun *hit*, was used only in some types of impersonal sentences, namely those indicating weather phenomena. In ME the subject *it* occurs in all types of impersonal sentences, e.g.

For *it* reynyd almoste euery othir day. (Brut)

('For it rained almost every other day.')

Of his falshede *it* dilleth me to ryme. (Chaucer) ('Of his falsehood it annoys me to speak.')

The use of the verb-substitute *do*, as well as the use of auxiliary and modal verbs without the notional verb proves that the position of the predicate could not be vacant either. This is evident in short answers and other statements with the notional verb left out, e.g.:

Helpeth me now, as I *dyde* yow whileer. (Chaucer) ('Help me now as I did (help) you formerly.')

Stand! So I *do* against my will ... Is Guilliams with the packet gone? He is, my lord, an hour ago. (Shakespeare)

As compared with OE the subject of the sentence became more varied in meaning, as well as in the forms of expression. We have already mentioned the increased use of the formal subject *it*. Due to the growth of new verb forms the subject could now denote not only the agent or thing characterised by a certain property, but also the recipient of an action or the "subject of a state and feeling".

The predicate had likewise become more varied in form and meaning. The simple predicate could be expressed by compound forms which indicated multiple new meanings and subtle semantic distinctions, lacking in OE verb forms or expressed formerly by contextual means.

Though some types of compound predicates had turned into simple - as the verb phrases developed into analytical forms - the verb phrases developed into analytical forms - the compound predicate could express a variety of meanings with the help of numerous new link-verbs and more extended and complex predicatives. ME witnessed a remarkable growth of link-verbs: about 80 verbs occur copulas in texts between the 15th and 18th c. In a way the new link-verbs made up for the loss of

some OE prefixes and compound verbs which denoted the growth of a quality or the transition into a state, e. g.: And tho it *drewe* nere Cristenesse. (Brut) ('And though it drew near Christmas', 'Christmas was coming') Cecilie cam, whan it *was woxen* night... ('Cecily came when it was night ...') as me best thinketh (Chaucer) ('as it seems best to me')

It *fa//epprofyte* to summe men to be bounde to a stake. (Wyklif) ('It appears good for some men to be bound to a stake.') A murd'rous guilt shows not itself more soon Than love that would *seem* hid ... The rose *looks* fair ... (Shakespeare).

The structure of the predicative became more complex: it could include various prepositional phrases and diverse attributes, e.g.: *Of twenty yeer of age* he was, I gesse. (Chaucer) ('He was twenty years old, I guess.')

That's a depp story of deeper /ove;

For he was more than over shoes in /ove. (Shakespeare)

The compound verbal predicate in ME was characterised by a wider use of modal phrases and verbs of aspective meaning, e.g.:

Of twenty yeeer of age he was, I gesse. (Chaucer) ('He was twenty years old, I guess.') *That's a deep srory of a deeper love:* For he was *more than over shoes in love* (Shakespeare) The compound verbal predicate in ME was characterised by a wider use of modal phrases and verbs of aspective meaning, e.g.:

No though I seye, I *nam* nat *lief* to *gabble* (Chaucer) ('No though I say I am not inclined to gabble.')

Most frequent in Chaucer's works was a verb phrase of aspective meaning *gan* plus Inf. (NE *begin*):

He stired the coles til *relente gan* the wex. ('He was stired the coales till the wax began to melt.') One of the peculiar features of the OE sentence was multiple negation . The use of several negative particles continued throughout the ME period, e.g. : Ne bryng nat every man into thyn hours. (Chaucer) ('Don't bring every man into your house.')

(-ne- is a negative particle used with verbs, *nat* -another negative particle)

No berd hadde he *ne nevere* sholde have. (Chaucer) ('He had no beard , and never would have one')

See also the example: No *though I seye, I man nat lief* to *gabble* above where *nam* is made up of the negative particle *ne* and *am* . In Shakespeare's time the use of negations is variable: the sentence could contain one or more means of expressing negation. Cf.:

So is it *not* with me as with that Muse...

Good madam, hear me speak.

And let no quarrel, *nor no* brawl to come .

Taint the condition of this present hour ... (Shakespeare)

Gradually double negation went out of use. In the age of Correctness - the normalising 18th c. - when the scholars tried to improve and perfect the language, multiple negation was banned as illogical: it was believed that one negation eliminated the other like two minuses in mathematics and the resulting meaning would be affirmative. These logical restrictions on the use of negations became a strict rule of English grammar.

Word Order. In ME and Early NE the order of words in the sentence underwent noticeable changes: it has become fixed and direct : subject plus predicate plus object (S+P+O) or subject plus the notional part of the predicate (the latter type was used mainly in questions).

Stabilisation of the word order was a slow process, which took many hundreds of years: from Early ME until the 16th or 17thc. The fixation of the word order proceeded together with reduction and loss of inflectional endings, the two developments being intertwined; though syntactic changes were less intensive and less rapid. They may have been delayed by the break in the written tradition after the Norman conquest and by the general unsettling of the grammatical system during the Early ME dialectal divergence, whereas morphological changes may have been intensified for these very reasons.

Though the word order in Late ME may appear relatively free, several facts testify to its growing stability. The practice of placing the verb-predicate at the end of a subordinate clause had been abandoned, so was the type of word order with the object placed between the Subject and the Predicate

belonged to the Subject, and the Predicate (see OE examples in §224) The place before the Predicate belonged to the Subject, which is confirmed by the prevalence of this word order in prosaic , texts and also, indirectly, by the transition of the "impersonal" constructions into "personal": as shown above, in the pattern *the mann(e) liketh* the noun was understood as the Subject, though originally it was an Object in the Dat . case (cf. *him liketh*)

In the 17 th and 18th c. the order of words in the sentence was generally determined by the same rules as operate in English today. The fixed, direct word order prevailed in statements, unless inversion was required for communicative purposes or for emphasis, e.g.:

Now *comes* in the sweetest *morsel* in the night ... These numbers *will I tear* and write in prose. (Shakespeare)

The order of the Subject and Predicate remained direct in sentences beginning with an adverbial modifier:

theb *the two bears will not bite* one another when they meet. (In OE an initial adverbial required an inverted word order - P+S-)

In questions the word order was partially inverted - unless the question referred to the subject group. The analytical forms of the verb and the use of the do -periphrasis instead of simple forms made it possible to place the notional part of the Predicate after the Subject even with simple Predicate. Cf.:

Are they good ? ... Can you make n use of your discontent? comes here? ... Lady, will you walk about with your friend ? never make you laugh? (Shakespeare)

Occasionally we find simple verb forms in questions placed before the Subject: Which way *looks* he? ... How *came* you to this? Full inversion in questions is more common with Shakespeare than with later authors (for the history of forms with *do*).

Predicative Constructions. One of the most important developments in Late ME and Early NE syntax was the growth of predicative constructions. Predicative constructions date from the OE period, when Dat. Absolute was used in translations from Latin and the Acc. with the Inf.- in original English texts; the latter construction occurred only with verbs of physical perception; a short time later a new type of construction appeared after verbs of physical perception: the Acc. with Part I .

In Late ME and in Early NE the Acc. with the Inf. and the Acc. with the Part. came to be used with an increasing number of verbs of various meanings. New types of predicative constructions appeared in Late ME and Early NE texts: the Nom. with the Inf. and with Participles I, II (also known as Subjective predicative constructions) , the Nom. Absolute construction and the Absolute construction with prepositions, and , finally, the *for* - phrase with the Inf. and the Gerundial construction.

The following quotations from Early NE texts exemplify various predicative constructions:

Objective Predicative Constructions ("Complex Object") I would desire *you to draw* your knife and grave your name (Dekker) When the Noble Caesar saw *him stab*: ... and bid *then speak* for me: ... mothers shall but smile when they behold.

Their infants quarter'd with the hands of war. (Shakespeare) *Subjective predicative construction ("Comp/ex Subject")* Although *he* were adjudged , in the court of Rome to *have forfeited*, all the right wick he had to his Kingdome ... (Holinshed)

He was reported to be a very uncontended person. (Puttenham)

Absolute constructions

My flesh being trauled, my heart doth hear the spear. (Wyatt) ... and, after that dede done, ther was no more money yoven us. (Paston Letters)

... and with hym mette a shippe callyd Nicolas of the Towre *with other shippis wayting on him*. (Paston Letters)

(The Absolute construction could at first be introduced by various prepositions: later *with* was standardised.)

Gerundial complexes

... the very next day after his *coming home* departed out of this world to receive his reward in the Spiritual court of Heaven. (Dekker)

For-phrase with the Infinitive

The descriptions whereof were too long *for mee to write*, and you to read (Dekker)

The advantage of the for-phrase and the Gerundial construction over other predicative constructions was that they were less restricted syntactically: they could be employed in various syntactic functions. All predicative constructions were formed according to a single pattern: they consisted of a nominal element indicating the agent or subject of an action or state and a non-finite form denoting this action. When relationships between the component parts of predicative constructions were firmly established, the second element began to be expressed by nominal parts of speech without the help of verbals, e.g. adjectives and nouns: .. and you shall not sin

If you do say we think *him over - proud* and *under - honest*. (Shakespeare) ... came the Emperour ... from hunting, the *Dolphin on his right hand, the Duke of Orleans on the left*. (Fabian)

Though all predicative constructions are based on a uniform underlying pattern, they have developed from different sources; from verb patterns with direct and prepositional objects followed by an infinitive or a participle, noun patterns with participles used as attributes, verbal nouns modified by possessive pronouns or nouns, elliptical infinitive sentence. Some scholars believe that predicative constructions in English arose under the influence of Latin and that they should be regarded as direct borrowings from Latin (M. Callaway). Though predicative constructions were frequently used in translations from Latin at all historical periods, there seems to be no doubt of their native origin. The earliest instances of the Acc. with the Inf. are found in BEOWULF, an original OE epic; as mentioned above they were first used after verbs of physical perception and were soon extended to other verbs while the Inf. began to alternate with Part. I.

In Late ME and Early NE predicative constructions of different types were commonly used both in translation and in original texts. In the age of the Literary Renaissance many works were translated from Latin into English - it has been found that predicative constructions, especially the Objective preeddicative and the Absolute construction were more frequent in translations from Latin into English - it has been found that predicative constructions, especially the Objective predicative and the Absolute construction were frequent in translations from Latin than in original prose. Since their frequency continued to grow in later ages it seems probable that the literal translation of Latin constructions played a certain role in their further growth: it is also probable that some of the more complicated patterns - with the passive forms of the verbals - appeared as direct replicas of Latin constructions. With the exception of these aspects, neither the origin of the constructions nor their growth in NE can be attributed to foreign influence. Their growing productivity in the NE period is part of the development towards more complicated syntactic structures in the written forms of the language in the ages of Literary efflorescence.

Compound and Complex Sentences. The growth of the written forms of English, and the advance of literature in Late ME and Early NE manifested itself, among other changes in the further development of the compound and complex sentence. Differentiation between the two types became more evident, the use of connectives - more precise. The diversity of sentence structures in Late ME and Early NE reveals considerable freedom in the nature and use of clauses. The flexibility of patterns and the variable use of connectives were subjected to new constraints and regulations in the period of normalisation.

The complicated hierarchical structure of the sentence in Late ME and also correlation of connectives inherited from OE is illustrated by the opening stanza of Chaucer's CANTERBURY TALES.

The poem begins with an adverbial clause of time introduced by *whan that*: the interrogative adverb *whan* ('when') is accompanied by the conjunction *that*, the two words together being used as a conjunction: another adverbial clause of time *whan Zephirus ...* goes on for two and a half lines then two temporal clauses are joined by *and*, and two more clauses are inserted - an attributive clause beginning with *That s/hepen ...* and a parenthetical clause: then, finally, the principal clause begins with the adverb *thanne* which correlates with *whan that* and *whan* in the first and fifth lines.

Many new conjunctions and other connective words appeared during the ME period: both ... and, a coordinating conjunction, was made up of a borrowed Scandinavian dual adjective *bath* and the native *and- be cause*, a subordinating conjunction, was a hybrid consisting of the native English preposition *by* and a borrowed Latin noun, *cause* (*by + cause* 'for the reason') - numerous connectives developed from adverbs and pronouns - *who, what, which, where, whose, how, why*. These connectives

sometimes occurred in combination with *that* (like *whan that* in the above quotation from Chaucer), which probably served to show that the former pronouns and adverbs were employed in a new , connective, function.

The following examples from Chaucer's works illustrate various types of subordinate clauses in ME and some of the connectives used to join the clauses, especially the polyfunctional *that Subject and object c/auses*: And notified is thurghout the toun *That* every wight, with greet devocioun, Sholde preyen Crist *that* he this mariage Receyve in gree, and spede this viage.

('And it is notified throughout the town that every man should pray to Christ with great devotion that he receive this marriage favourably and make the voyage successful.')

An attributive *c/ause joined by that and which correlated with thi/ke ('such')*:

A knyght ther was and that a worthy man *That* fro the type that he first bigan To riden out, he loved chivalrie ...

('There was a knight and he was a worthy man , that loved chivalry. from the time he first began to ride out (as a knight.')

That oon of hem was blynd and myghte nat see,

But it were with *thi/ke* eyen of his mynde

With whiche men seen, *after that* they been blynde.

('That one them was blind and could not see except with such eyes of his mind, with which men see after they get blind.')

An *adveribal clause of result* joined by *so ... that*: And so ferforth she gan oure lay declare *That* she the constable, er *that* it was eve Converted, and on Crist made hym bileve.

('And she began to declare ("preach") our creed to such a degree that she converted the governor and made him believe in Christ , before evening came.')

The last two quotations conttation also *adveribal clauses of time* introduced by *after that, er that*.

An *adveribal clause of manner* introduced by *as*: And for to kepe his lordes hir degre - As it is ryght and skylfyl that they be Enhaunsed and honoured, ...

('And to maintain the rank of his lords , as it is right and reasonable that they should be promoted and honoured, ...')

Adveribal clauses of condition joined by *if that* and *if*: What wot I, *if that* Crist have hider ysent My wyf by see ...

('What do I know if Christ has hither sent my wife by sea.')

And if so be that thou me fynde fals, Another day do hange me by the hals

('And if it be so that you find me false, the next day hang me by the neck.')

Adveribal clauses of conession joined by wher -so and though that:

But forth she moot, *wher- so* she wepe or singe.

('But she must (go) forth, wheteher she weeps or sings')

For I ne can nat fynde

A man , *though that* I walked in-to Ynde

Neither in citee nor in no village.

('For I cannot a man, though I walked to India, either in a city or in a village.')

An *adverial clause of cause* joined with the help of *by way of reason and by cause that* Than seye they ther-in swich difficultee *By way of resoun*, for to speak al playn, *By cause that* ther was swich diversitee Bitwene her bothe lawes ...

('Then they saw there such difficulty in it for the reason, to speak plainly, because there was so much difference between their two laws ... ')

Recommended Literatures for reading.

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LECTURE 13

Middle period of Roman-German Languages.

Problems for discussion.

1. Phonetic peculiarities of Middle period: - Levelling of Unstressed Vowels

- Consonants

- Rise of new diphthongs and related phenomena

An important change characteristic of the ME period affected the unstressed vowels. All unstressed vowels were as a rule weakened and reduced to a neutral vowel something like [ə], which was denoted by the letter **e**. Thus, for example, the infinitive suffix **-an** was reduced to **-en**, as in *bindan* > *bi nden*, *tellan* > *tellen*, etc.; in a similar way, *sunu* > *sune*, *sone* 'son' (compare § 289), the nominative plural ending **-as** became **-es**, as in *stanas* >

stones, and the like. This weakening of unstressed vowels is closely connected with developments in declension and conjugation.

From the 13th century onwards, some dialects showed certain vacillation in spelling unstressed vowels, which probably reflected peculiarities of pronunciation. Thus, in Northern dialects the unstressed vowel was often spelt **i** or **y**: *askid*, *bundin*; in West Midland dialects a **u**- spelling appears, as in *fadur*, *st-nus*.

From the phonemic viewpoint this change indicates a decided separation of the unstressed vowel phoneme system from that of the stressed vowels. Whereas the stressed position allows a distinction of many vowel phonemes, the number of unstressed vowel phonemes is very greatly reduced. Thus, while in OE there was no difference between the number of vowel phonemes in stressed and in unstressed syllables, in ME there arises a very significant difference in this respect, and the way is paved for the state of things typical of MnE.

Consonants. OE palatal **c**, which occurred initially before front vowels except those which were a result of mutation, medially before **i**, and finally after **i**, developed into the affricate [tʃ], as in *cild* > *child*, *wrecca* > *wrecche* 'wretch', *hwilc* > *which*, &lc > *qch*, *bise can* > *bise chen* 'beseech', *t&can* > *t^chen* 'teach', *streccan* > *strecchen* 'stretch', *l&ccan* > *lacchen* 'catch', *r&can* > *r^chen* 'reach out', *cirice* > *chirche* 'church', *ic* > *ich* 'I', *cycen* > *kichen* 'kitchen', *swilc* > *swich* *such*.

In the Northern dialects and in the northern part of the Midlands variants are also found with a [k]-sound. These are presumably due to Scandinavian influence in those areas. For example: *kirk* 'church', *mikel* 'large', *birk* 'brich', *ik* 'I'.

The preservation of the [k]-sound in the verbs *seken* 'seek', *thinken* 'seem', *thenken* 'think', *rekken* 'reck', *wriken* 'act' (OE *sec(e)an*, *lync(e)an*, *penc(e)an*, *recc(e)an*, *wyrc(e)an*) may also be due to the influence of the short forms of 2nd and 3rd persons singular present indicative: *se cst*, *se c*], *pencst*, *pyncp*, etc., where the consonant was followed by another consonant (s or j).

The OE cluster [sc] changed into [ʃ]: *scip* > *ship*, *sceal* > *shal*, *scinan* > *shinen*.

In a few cases ME has variants with [k] and [tʃ], [sk] and [ʃ], e.g. *se ken*- *bise picken* 'pick'- *pitchen* 'throw', *bank* 'hill', 'river bank'- *bench*, *scateren*- *shateren*.. An analogous pair *skirt*- *shirt*, and also *scre chen*- *shre ken* is probably due to Scandinavian origin of **sk**-variants.

The OE long consonant denoted by the spelling **c3** developed into the voiced affricate [dʒ], as in *bryc3* > *bridge*, *hryc3* > *ridge* 'back', *myc3* > *midge*, *sec3an* > *seggen* 'say', *lec3an* > *leggen* 'lay', *byc3an* > *biggen* 'buy'.. A [dʒ] also developed in the words *sen3ean* > *sengen*, *singen* 'sing', and *hen3e* > *hinge*..

Alongside of *seggen*, *leggen* the forms *seien*, *sayen*, *leyen*, *layen* are also found. These are due to the analogy of the past tense forms *seide*, *saide* (<s^3de), *leide*, *laide* (<l@3de)

In the Southern dialects initial **f**- became voiced, as in *f^der* > *vader* 'father', *fst* > *vat*, *fox* > *vox*, *fl&sc* > *vl^sh* 'meat', *fre ond* > *vrend*, *fyrst* > *vrst*, *verst*, *for* > *vor*, *fin3er* > *vinger*, *fe la* > *vqle* 'many'.

In Kent initial **s**- in words of OE origin was also voiced, as in *synne* > *zenne* 'sin', *sec3an* > *ziggen* 'say', *swerian* > *zwqrien* 'swear', *seolfor* > *zelver* 'silver', *seofon* > *zeven* 'seven'.

In a few words the consonant **v** when followed by another consonant changed into **u**, as in *hafoc*, gen. sing. *hafces* > *havkes* > *haukes* and on the analogy of the derivative *haukes* anew nominative *hauk* was derived; *nafo3a r* > *navgar* > *nauger* 'auger'.

Rise of new diphthongs and related phenomena. New diphthongs arise in ME, basically different in type from the OE diphthongs, which as we have seen, were monophthongized in ME. The new diphthongs originate from groups consisting of a vowel and either a palatal or a velar fricative.

The palatal fricative **ȝ** [j] and the velar spirant **ȝ** [ɣ] are vocalized combine with the preceding vowel, and yield diphthongs of a new type.

The palatal consonant yields diphthongs in **-i**, and the velar one, which seems to have possessed a labial element in its articulation from the outset, yields diphthongs in **-w**.

The following changes took place accordingly:

1. Rise of diphthongs in **-i**: **ȝi** > ai, ay, e.g. **dȝ** > dai, day, **wȝ** > mai, may.

lȝ > lai, lay, **feȝer** > fair, fayr. **eȝ** > ei, ey, e.g. **weȝ** > wei, wey, **seȝl** > seil, **reȝn** > rein. **ēȝ** > ei, ey, e.g. **ȝreȝ** > grei, grey, **heȝ** > hei, hey.

2. Rise of diphthongs in **-w**:

aȝ > aw, e.g. **draȝan** > drawnen, **ȝnaȝan** > gnawen

saȝu > sawe 'saw', 'legend'. **aȝ** > Qw except in the Northern dialect, e.g. : **aȝen** > Qwen 'own'.

The new diphthongs contained a second narrow element, as distinct from OE diphthongs, whose second element was always either as wide or even wider than the first.

The fricatives **ȝ** [j] and **ȝ** [ɣ] were also vocalized in some other words where no diphthongs resulted from the process. Here we have to distinguish between two cases: (1) the fricative is preceded by a narrow vowel, which combines with the consonant into a long monophthong, (2) it is preceded by **l** or **r**, which does not undergo any change in the process.

3. Rise of long front vowels

i + **ȝ** > i, e.g. **iȝe** > i/ 'hedgehog', **tiȝe** > ti/e 'brick', **siȝpe** > *sithe* 'scythe'.

i + **ȝ** > i, e.g. **stiȝen** > *stien* 'ascend'.

y + **ȝ** > i in Northern and East Midland dialects, e.g. **ryȝe** > *rie* 'rye', **byȝe** > *bieth* 'buys'; in West Midland and South- Western dialects **y** + **ȝ** > ui: **ru/e**, **buieth**; in Kentish **y** + **ȝ** > ei: *reye*, *beieth*.

y + **ȝ** > i (in Northern and East Midland dialects), e.g. **dryȝe** > *drie* 'dry'

in West Midland and South- Western dialects **y** + **ȝ** > ui, u: **druie**, **drue**; in Kentish **y** + **ȝ** > ei: *dreie*. **ea** + **h** > eih, ih, e.g. **heah** > *hein* > *hegh*, **neah** > *neih* > *nigh*. **eo** + **ȝ**, **h** > ei > i, e.g. **leoȝan** > *leien* > *lien* 'lie'; **ȝeoh** > *thigh*.

4. Rise of long back labialized vowels:

u + **ȝ** > u (spelt **ou**, **ow**), e.g. **fuȝol** > *foul* 'bird'. **u** + **ȝ** > u (spelt **ou**, **ow**), e.g. **buȝan** > *bowen* 'bow'.

The velar spirant **ȝ** also changes into **w** after the liquids **l** and **r**: **lȝ** > lw, e.g. **ȝalȝe** > *galwe* 'gallows'.

rȝ > rw, e.g. **morȝen** > *morwen* 'morning', **borȝian** > *borwen* 'borrow', **folȝian** > *folwen* 'follow'.

More phonetic changes.

When a vowel was followed by the voiceless spirant **h**, a glide developed between them and a diphthong arose:

a + **h** > augh, **naht** (< *nawiht*) > *naught*; **rahte** > *raughte* 'reached out'. **a** + **h** > (in Midland and Southern dialects), e.g. **dah** > *dough*; in Northern dialects **a** + **h** > agh: *dagh*.

o + **h** > ough, e.g. **brohte** > *broughte*, **troh** > *trough*.

o + **h** > ough, ugh, e.g. **ploh** > *plough*, **boh** > *bough*, **ȝenoh** > *inough* 'enough'.

In dialects where OE **y** [u] was preserved as such, that is, in the West Midland and in the South-West, the [u] changed in the 13th century into **u** before

[**ti**], [**l̥ti**], [**dȝ**], [**nti**], [**i**]. Thus, for instance, OE *myce* 'large' became ['mutisl] > ['mutislj], OE *swy/c* 'such' became [swulti] > [swulti] > [swut-], OE

cycene 'kitchen' became [kutisn] > ['kutisn]; *clyccan* 'clutch' > [clutisn], *crycc*

'crutch' > *crucche* > *crucche*; *cycȝel* 'cudgel' > *cuyyel* > *cuggel*; *b/yscan* 'blush' > *blushen* > *blushen*; *rysce* 'rush' > *rush* > *rush*; *ȝrysce* 'thrush' > *thrushe* > *thrushe*. In the 15th century some of these variants, e.g. *much*, *such*, *crutch*, *thrush* penetrated into the national language.

French sounds. Several Old French sounds had no counterpart in ME. When a word containing one of these sounds was borrowed by the English language, the sound had to be substituted by some other sound or sound cluster which was nearest to it.

French words containing the [u]- vowel were probably pronounced in different ways. Those who could speak French would articulate the [u] in more or less the French way. Others would substitute either [iu] or [eu] for it. Thus, for example, the word *nature* might be pronounced [na'tur], [na'tiur] or [na'teur].

The diphthong [eu] also occurred in native English words, where it had originated from the OE group **eow**, and it was spelt **eu**. After French words were taken over, the popular substitute for French [u] merged with this diphthong, and their eventual development was identical. Accordingly, the spellings **ew** and **u** (**e**) came to denote the same sound, and in several words the spelling **ew** was replaced by **ue**. For example, the ME substantive *hewe* 'hew', (OE *heow*, *hiw*) came to be spelt *hue* on the analogy of such French words as *due*; in a similar way, the ME words *trew* (OE *treowe*) and *trewthe* (OE *treow*) came to be spelt *true*, *truth*. The substantive *c/ewe* (OE *c/iwe*, *c/eowe*) was split into two separate words: the spelling *c/ew* was retained for the word meaning 'ball of thread', while the spelling *c/ue* was adopted for the word meaning 'something that helps to solve a problem' (this developed from the meaning 'ball of thread' owing to the word being used in the sense of 'the thread of Ariadne'). The verb *rewen* (OE *hreowan*) came to be spelt *ruen*, and its derivative *reuthe* came to be spelt *ruth* (compare the adjective *ruth/css*).

On the other hand, some words borrowed from French came to be spelt with the digraph **ew**. For example, the ME substantive *crue* (its original meaning was 'tise, accretion, later 'crew of a ship', originating from a participle of the Old French verbs *croister*, *croitre* 'grow') was respelt *mew*. The ME substantive *mue* (from French *mue*) was respelt *mew*; the ME *pue* (from French *pui*) was respelt *pew*. The ME substantive *nue//* (from French *newe//*) was respelt *newe//*.

The Old French vowel [o] (spelt **oe**) was substituted by [e] in ME. Thus, the French substantive *boeuf* [bof] 'ox', 'beef' was borrowed into ME as *beef* [be:f]. In the substantive *peop/e* (pronounced [pe:pl]) in ME the spelling **eo** seems to have denoted the sound [o].

Special mention must be made of the French nasal vowels [i], [ɛ], [a], [o], [u]. The spelling **an** represented in Old French the pronunciation [an]: a nasal vowel was followed by a nasal consonant, which was eventually dropped. The same can be said about the groups [in], [en], [on], [Un]. As there were no nasal vowels in English, nasal vowels were substituted by oral ones, while the following consonant remained unchanged.

French [in], [im] was substituted by **in**, **im**, as in the words *instance*, *simple*.

French [ɛn], [sm] appears as **en**, **em**, e.g. *offence*, *assent*, *mention*, *sense*, *entren*, *member*, *tempest*, *resemblen*.

French [an] appears as **an** or **aun**: *abandon* mansion, *chaunce*, *chaunge*, *commaunden*, *dauncen*, *graunten*; French [am] as **am**, **aum**: *lampe*, *chaumbre*.

French [on] appears as [u:n], spelt **oun**, **own**: *round*, *fount*, *noun*, *renown*, *sound*, *count*, *counsel*. Narrow pronunciation of nasal **o** was characteristic of the Anglo-Norman language.

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LECTURE 14

Phonetic peculiarities of Middle period of Roman-German Languages. Morphology of Middle period of Roman-German Languages.

Problems to be discussed:

1. *The structure of the sentence*
2. *Types of simple sentences*
3. *Compound sentences*
4. *Word order*

The structure of the sentence in OE as well as in ME was the same. W-O is rather liberal, and in some cases influenced by the French language. Post position of the adjective which is characteristic for the French penetrates into the English syntax, especially when the adjective is borrowed from French (weel she soong the service dyvyne (she sang very well at divine service)). The ties between words are practically the same in both periods. But it lost some positions as compared with the OE. The predicate of the sentence agrees with the subject, repeating the person and the number of the noun or pronoun. This agreement is especially prominent with the third and the second person singular. (Verba, 152). As the category of number is still preserved adjectives and pronouns partly agree in number with the nouns they modify. ME impersonal sentences still are used without formal subject. For negations negative particle *ne* is used and such formations as *nought/nat* appeared. One predicate group could contain several negative words. The structure of the sentence in ENE is conditioned by the previous development of its morphology. With the practical loss of endings by the nouns and adjectives, their position in the sentence becomes quite relevant to the meaning they render – so the direct w-o prevails, the subject precedes the predicate in non-emotional sentence. Agreement as a means of grammatical connection of the words is limited to the demonstrative pronouns that preserve their plural form. The predicate agrees with the subject when it is expressed by the verb to be or the passive form. Joining (присоединение) becomes the main way of connecting the words in the sentence.

The simple sentence: The connection between the parts of the sentence was shown by the form of the words as they had formal markers for gender, case, number and person. As compared with later periods agreement played an important role in the sentence. The order of words was relatively free. The presence of formal markers made it possible to miss out some parts of the sentence which would be obligatory in an English sentence now. The formal subject was lacking in many impersonal sentences (though it was present in others). One of the most important features was multiple negation within a single sentence or clause. The most common negative particle was *ne*, which was placed before the verb, it was often accompanied by other negative words, *nāht* or *nōht* (which was later shortened to *not*) *Ne con ic nōht sin3an... ic nāht sin3an ne cūðe* (I cannot sing (lit. cannot sing nothing) I could not sing. The sentence was made up of the same parts, except that those parts were usually simpler. Attributive (определение) groups were short and among the parts of the sentence there were very few predicative (предикатив, именная часть сказуемого) constructions. In the course of history the structure of the simple sentence in many respects became more orderly and more uniform. But the sentence came to include more extended and complex parts. In ME and ENE with most of endings leveled or dropped the relationship between the parts of the sentence were shown by their relative position, semantic ties, prepositions and by a more rigid (жесткая) syntactic structure. Every place in the sentence came to be associated with a certain syntactic function. E.g. the pronoun *hit* (it) in OE (formal subject) was used only in impersonal sentences indicating weather phenomena. In ME the subject *it* occurs in all types of impersonal sentences. The subject of the sentence became more varied in meaning as well as in the forms of expression. Some types of compound predicates had turned into simple. Double negation went out of use.

Compound and complex sentences: they existed since the earliest times. Coordinate clauses were mostly joined by *and*. Repetition of connectives at the head of each clause was common in complex sentences: *Þā hē Þær tō 3efaren wæs, Þa ēodon hīe tō hīora scipum* (then he came there, then they went to their ship). The pronoun and conjunction *Þæt* was used to introduce object clauses (объектный оборот), and adverbial clause (придаточное). Some clause are regarded as intermediate between coordinate and subordinate. They are joined *asyndetically* (бессоюзно), and their status is not

clear. In ME and ENE differentiation between compound (сложносочиненное) and complex (сложноподчиненный) became more evident. Many new conjunctions and other connective words appeared during the ME period: *bothe...and*, , numerous connectives developed from adverbs and pronouns – *who*, *what*, *which* etc. In the 16-17 cs/ the structure of the sentence became more complicated and was further perfected in the 18th c.

So, The syntax of Old English was much more flexible than modern English because of the declensions of the nouns. But there were certain rules. Word-order was not completely free. The case endings told the function of the word in the sentence, so word order was not very important. But as the stress began to move to the first syllable of words, the endings were not pronounced as clearly and began to diminish from the language. So in modern English, word order is very important because we no longer have declensions to show case distinctions. Instead we use prepositions. The general word order was **subject - verb - object**, but it did vary in a few instances:

1. When an object is a pronoun, it often precedes the verb.
2. When a sentence begins with an adverb, the subject often follows the verb.
3. The verb often comes at the end of a subordinate clause.

Let's scan the examples:

SVO order:

He (S) hæfde (V) þa (O) [i.e. Hamtunscire] of þe (S) ofslog (V) þone aldorman (O). (He had it [i.e. Hampshire] until he killed the ealdorman)

VSO order:

Þa geascode (V) he (S) þone cyning (O) (Then he discovered the king)

OSV order:

Hiene (O) þa (S) on Andred adræfde (V) (Cynewulf then drove him into [the forest] Andred)

VOS order:

Ða on morgenne gehierdun (V) þæt (O) þæs cyninges þegnas (S) (Then in the morning the kings thegns heard that)

Thus you can find that word-order wasn't free. The sentences were structured. You can see the development of word-order in Old English. And structure SVO was distinct in Middle English, because in that period there were fewer inflections to mark the function of words in a sentence, there was less variation of standard patterns than in Old English. Though writers of verse had more freedom than prose writers to alter the word order for stylistic or metrical effects, provided that the relationship between the words was clear from grammatical form or context. In any way English syntax changed drastically during the Middle English period. The changes in syntax were hastened by the aftermath of the Norman Conquest, but they were not a result of contact with the French language, and they did not happen overnight.

The English language vocabulary. Dialects. Borrowings. (8th lecture)

Old English should not be regarded as a single monolithic entity just as Modern English is also not monolithic. It emerged over time out of the many dialects and languages of the colonising tribes, and it was not until the later Anglo-Saxon period that they fused together into Old English. Even then it continued to exhibit local language variation, the remnants of which continue to be found in dialects of Modern English. Thus it is misleading, for example, to consider Old English as having a single sound system. Rather, there were multiple Old English sound systems. Old English has variation along regional lines as well as variation across different times. For example, the language attested in Wessex during the time of Æthelwold of Winchester, which is named Late West Saxon (or Æthelwoldian Saxon), is considerably different from the language attested in Wessex during the time of Alfred the Great's court, which is named Early West Saxon (or Classical West Saxon or Alfredian Saxon). Furthermore, the difference between Early West Saxon and Late West Saxon is of such a nature that Late West Saxon is not directly descended from Early West Saxon (despite what the similarity in name implies).

The four main dialectal forms of Old English were Mercian, Northumbrian, Kentish, and West Saxon. Each of those dialects was associated with an independent kingdom on the island. Of these, all of Northumbria and most of Mercia were overrun by the Vikings during the 9th century. The portion of Mercia that was successfully defended and all of Kent were then integrated into Wessex.

After the process of unification of the diverse Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in 878 by Alfred the Great, there is a marked decline in the importance of regional dialects. This is not because they stopped existing; regional dialects continued even after that time to this day, as evidenced both by the existence of Middle and Modern English dialects later on, and by common sense—people do not spontaneously adopt another dialect when there is a sudden change of political power.

However, the bulk of the surviving documents from the Anglo-Saxon period are written in the dialect of Wessex, Alfred's kingdom. It seems likely that with consolidation of power, it became necessary to standardise the language of government to reduce the difficulty of administering the more remote areas of the kingdom. As a result, documents were written in the West Saxon dialect. Not only this, but Alfred was passionate about the spread of the vernacular, and brought many scribes to his region from Mercia to record previously unwritten texts.

The Church was affected likewise, especially since Alfred initiated an ambitious programme to translate religious materials into English. To retain his patronage and ensure the widest circulation of the translated materials, the monks and priests engaged in the programme worked in his dialect. Alfred himself seems to have translated books out of Latin and into English, notably Pope Gregory I's treatise on administration, *Pastoral Care*.

Because of the centralisation of power and the Viking invasions, there is little or no written evidence for the development of non-Wessex dialects after Alfred's unification.

Thomas Spencer Baynes claimed in 1856 that, due to its position at the heart of the Kingdom of Wessex, the relics of Anglo-Saxon accent, idiom and vocabulary were best preserved in the Somerset dialect.

During the Middle English period (roughly 1100–1500) the English language is characterized by a complete lack of a standard variety. By contrast, during much of the Old English period, the West Saxon dialect had enjoyed a position as a written standard, and the transition to Early Modern English is marked by the emergence of the middle class dialect of London as the new standard variety of the language.

The lack of a written standard in Middle English is a natural consequence of the low status of English during this period. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the ruling classes spoke (Norman) French, while English lived on as the spoken language of the lower classes. In the absence of a high-prestige variety of English which might serve as a target for writers of English, each writer simply used his own variety of the language.

The Middle English dialects can be divided into five major groups:

- **South-Western (SW)** (or simply **Southern**), a continuation of OE West Saxon;
- **South-Eastern (SE)** (or **Kentish**, though it extended into neighbouring counties as well), a continuation of OE Kentish;
- **East Midland (EM)**, in the eastern part of the OE Mercian area;
- **West Midland (WM)**, in the western part of the OE Mercian area;
- **Northern (N)**, north of the Humber.

In general, southern Middle English dialects tend to be more conservative (i.e. preserve more of the phonological and morphological features of Old English) and northern dialects more progressive. The same difference can be discerned between the southern and northern parts of the East and West Midland dialect areas. This is particularly noticeable in the case of the West Midland dialect, which is primarily preserved in two major text groups. One of these is early (c. 1220) and from the southern part of the West Midland area (represented here by *Ancrene Riwle*); the other one is later (c. 1375) and from the northern part of the West Midland area (represented here by *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*). The language variants of the two text groups differ in many respects, the early group having much in common with the South-Western dialect, the later group having more in common with the Northern dialect.

Middle English dialect differences can be of three types:

- **phonological**: the recognition of the Middle English dialects listed above is primarily based on phonological differences, i.e. on the extent to which various sound changes took place before or during the Middle English period in different parts of England.

- **morphological:** clear dialect differences can be found in the forms of the verb *be*, in present tense verb inflexion, and in various pronominal forms.
- **lexical:** the proportion of words of Scandinavian origin varies considerably, being highest in texts from areas with Scandinavian settlements during the Old English period (the Danelaw), i.e. chiefly the East Midland and Northern areas. By contrast, French loanwords, which entered the English language on a large scale only after the upper classes started using English again, do not serve to distinguish Middle English dialects. Instead, the proportion of such words varies with time, being higher in later texts. Information about the origin of individual words in the texts will be found in the glossaries.

Speaking about borrowings. Borrowings

OE: loan-words were not so frequent in OE. They are Celtic and Latin. Celtic element is not very significant and is mainly reduced to the following: *dūn* (down) *dun* (*dun* – настойчивый, тускло-коричневый), *bin* (*bin* – мусорное ведро). These may occur as separate words, but a great many are found only as elements of place-names, and some common names of people are of Celtic origin – Arthur (noble), Donald (proud), Kennedy (ugly head). Latin words in OE are usually classified into two layers. Some were taken into Germanic languages in pre-British period, these words are found in many Germanic languages, and are so assimilated now that only a specialist can trace their origin: *cealc* – chalk – Lat. Calcium, *castel* – castle – Lat. Castellum, *disc* – dish – Lat. Discus). Traditionally to this first layer we refer the place names containing Latin stems: *cester* – Lat. Castra (camp) – Chester, Manchester... The second layer of the Latin borrowings is connected with the introduction of Christianity, and denotes religious notions plus some notions connected with the cultural and social phenomena which appeared in society after this event. A significant portion of religious terms are not specifically Latin, for they were borrowed into it from Greek:

OE	NE	Latin	Greek
apostol	Apostle	apostolus	Apostolos
deofol	Devil	Diabolus	diabolos

Some borrowed stems came easily into the word-building system of the language, forming the hybrids. (Lat)Biscop-(Germ)hād – bishophood. (епископство, духовенство), translation-loans are also found in the names of days of the week. Nowadays all the grammatical terms in English are replaced by words of Latin origin.

ME: The changes were mainly quantitative . this is the period when new words and new morphemes were actively borrowed and promptly assimilated grammatically. This made the vocabulary of the late ME quite different from that of the Germanic languages. French borrowings were especially numerous. Some spheres of life were for years controlled by French speaking elite. In some cases the borrowings ousted (вытеснять) native English words, but frequently they coexisted. (bailiff – судебный пристав, council, attorney, crime, army, lieutenant, victory, confession etc.) These were the words of such spheres as: town crafts, school, leisure and pleasure (carol, charm), military terminology, religious terminology, words of everyday usage: aunt, cousin etc. The names of domestic animals remain of native origin, for they lived in the country and English shepherd take care of them but the names of meat of these animals were borrowed mutton, pork, beef, even butcher. Actually words of French origin were found practically everywhere. French borrowings have the status of literary words. But no matter how drastic were the innovations, the majority of the everyday words remain native.

LECTURE 15

Roman-German Syntax.

Problems for discussion.

1. *Spread of London Dialect in the 15th century*
2. *Development of the Literary Language.*

3. *Introduction of Printing*
4. *The Restoration.*
5. *The Renaissance*
6. *William Shakespeare.*
7. *Expansion of English*

Spread of London Dialect in the 15th century. In the course of the 15th century London literary language gradually spread all over the country, superseding local dialects. Spoken English in various parts of Britain gradually approaches the literary norm, and differences between the norm and popular speech tend to become obliterated. This process has been carefully studied by the eminent British scholar Henry Cecil Wyld. According to his classification, written documents of the 15th century can be classified into three: (1) those written in the London literary language (2) those written in a more or less pure local dialect, (3) those written basically in the London literary language but bearing some traces of local dialects. This classification cuts right across another classification that according to the kind of documents: (1) official documents (2) literary texts, (3) private letters.

London documents of the former half of the 15th century are poems by Thomas Hoccleve (Hoccleve), official London papers, and also official documents from other towns. The literary language is also found in letters written by kings, queens, ministers, and other officials.

Local dialect speech is found, for instance, in poems by Osbern Bokenam, born 1393, whose *Legends of the Saints* appeared about 1440, representing the Suffolk dialect (East Midlands): letters by Margaret Paston (1400-1470), also in the Suffolk dialect, and letters of the Cely family in Essex dialect (also East Midlands).

In some texts written basically in London English occasional influence of local dialects is found. These are poems by John Lydgate (1370 - 1451), showing East Midlands influence, prose works by Sir John Fortescue, with slight traces of South - Western dialects; prose works by John Capgrave (1393-1464) with elements of East Midlands dialects. In the private letters of John Shilingford, Mayor of Exeter in Devonshire, written in 1447-1450, there are only slight traces of the local South-Western dialect. The fact that a Devonshire man, writing private letters to his friends also living in Devonshire, does not use the local dialect but the London literary language, is eloquent proof of the authoritative position London English had acquired by the mid - 15th century.

The formation of a national language was greatly fostered by two events of the late 15th century.

The most significant event of the period was the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485), which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. They came to an end in the battle of Bosworth, when Richard III was defeated by Henry Tudor, who became king of England as Henry VII. The political result of this prolonged struggle was the rise of an absolute monarchy. This meant a high degree of political centralization and thus contributed to centralization in language as well. That is, to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

Another great event was the introduction of printing. Printing was invented in Mayence (Germany) by Johann Gutenberg in 1438. From Mayence printing spread to Strasburg, then to Italy and to the Netherlands. In the town of Bruges, in Flanders, the Englishman William Caxton (1422-1491) became acquainted with this art. He published the first English printed book, *The Recuyell of the Histories of Troy*, in Bruges. Returning to England, he founded the first English printing office in London in 1476, and in 1477 appeared the first book to be printed in England, namely, *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*. The spread of printed books was bound to foster the normalization of spelling and also of grammatical forms.

As the language of printed books was a first-rate factor in fixing spellings and grammar, the question arises how MSS were edited before printing and what motives guided Caxton in choosing this or that variant.

Caxton was a native of Kent, but he had acquired the London dialect. In spelling, he stuck to the tradition of the scribes. There are hardly any specific Kenticisms in Caxton's language; thus, the typical Kentish feature of the Old English *y* appearing as *e* (for London *i*) is not more frequent in his texts than in those of purely London authors of the time.

As far as grammatical forms go, there is reason to believe that Caxton made a conscious choice from among competing variants. In his preface to the *Histories of Troy* he says that having completed the translation he submitted it to princess Margaret, sister of King Edward IV (reigned 1461 - 1483), and "anon she found a

default in my English which she commanded me to amend." However, Caxton does not say what it was that the princess commanded him to amend: whether style, dialect features or something else .

Introduction of printing greatly helped normalization of spelling Norms adopted by the first printers have basically survived up to our own days . Phonetic changes which have occurred since then have hardly been reflected in the spelling. As a result vowel letters in English acquired meanings different from those they have in French, German, Italian, and other European languages; besides each vowel letter acquired different sound values depending on its environment. Thus the letter **a** denotes different vowel sounds in the words *make, cat, watch, watch, any*.

Development of the Literary Language. The 17th and 18th centuries witnessed some great social and political upheavals, which influenced the language as well. The most outstanding events of the time were the bourgeois revolution of the 17th century, the Restoration of 1660 , and the industrial revolution in the 18th century. But even before these events an important development took place in the history of the language.

Until the early 17th century the English language was only spoken in the British Isles. In the 17th century it crossed the borders. With the first English settlers in America the language entered the New World. A first attempt at founding an English colony in America was made in 1584, but this brought about no results: most began again. It was caused now by acute political struggle in the 16th-century Reformation was persecuting the Puritans. Political and religious persecution made them seek a way out in emigration. First a group of Puritans crossed into the Netherlands, and in 1620 the famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America, in the region which is now the state of Massachusetts/ This was the start of English colonies in America, which eventually separated from the metropolis and became the United States of America. This was also the beginning of history of English of the New World.

Meanwhile political struggle in Britain became more and more acute and led to civil war, which ended with a puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwealth in 1649.

The language of the Commonwealth belongs to the Early Modern English period, which lasted till about 1660.

The literary language of the time bears a strong imprint of puritan ideology.

However, puritan influence had made itself felt even before the revolution. It is very tangible in a famous Bible translation published in 1611, the authorized version, also often called the king James' Bible. This was the work of a commission appointed by the king for the purpose. The translators set themselves the task of achieving a clear, simple, and easily intelligible language. But they also strove for a solemn and grand style and would therefore often use archaic expressions.

As for Milton, the greatest poet and writer of the epoch (1608-1674), he created a peculiar individual style coloured by Greek and biblical influences, and he cannot be considered to be typical of the literary language of the time.

The language of John Bunyan (1628-1688), whose allegory

The Pilgrim's Progress was published in two instalments in 1678 and 1684, shows a strong influence of biblical tradition, on the one hand , and of the popular language, on the other. Bunyan avoided using words of French and Latin origin.

The restoration of the Stuarts under Charles II in 1660 reinstated to some extent the influence of the nobility and along with it is that of the aristocratic language culture which had been overthrown by the Revolution. Charles II and his court returning from France, favoured French influence in all spheres of social life including language. Colloquial speech of Restoration comedies (Wycherley, Congreve, Vanbrough, Farquhar. etc) is full of French words and phrases . At this very time a purist movement arose which found its literary expression in a book by Thomas Sprat, *History of the Royal Society*. Sprat protested against the wide use of artificial phrases and metaphors and demanded a return to a simple, clear, and natural way of speaking . He preferred the speech of artisans, preferred the speech of artisanse, peasants, and merchants to that of scholars and wits . This expressed the view of a bourgeois democratic opposition to the nobility's speech culture. Most new French loanwords were connected with the life of the nobility.

An interesting document of late 17th-century English is Samuel Pepys 's *Diary* (Pepys lived 1633-1703; the diary covers the years 1660-1669)

About the same time an interest arose in the study of living dialects. The first step in this direction was made by John Ray, who published in 1674 a book entitled *Collection of English Words Not Generally Used*.

Since the mid-17th century a trend makes itself felt against the somewhat entangled syntactic structures of the preceding period in favour of shorter and simpler syntactic formations. This trend is represented by John Evelyn (1620 - 1706) , who expressed such views in a letter in 1665 . He was followed by John Dryden (1631-1700) and Richard Bentley (1662 -1742).

Joseph Addison (1672 -1719) and Richard Steele (1672 1729), publishers of the magazine *The Spectator* (1711- 1714), al so shared this view, typical of Late Modern English . Considerable space in the magazine was given to papers on language: the authors followed a definite line, commenting on various questions of syntax and use of words.

A paper entitled *The Humble Petition of Which*, published in issue No. 78 on 30 May 1711, become widely popular. The two pronouns undersigned say here : "We are descended of ancient families , and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the jacksprat *that* supplanted us"

In this locular style Addison and Steele protested against growing use of the relative pronoun *that* which they thought an element of low colloquial style. It is curious that, historically speaking the argument about the ancient descent of *who* and *which* is quite mistaken; In Old English it was *pat*, neuter gender from of the pronoun *se* which functioned as relative pronoun (alongside *pe*); *who* and *which* appeared as relative pronouns in the Middle English period only.

The author of a paper published in issue No. 135 of *The Spectator* on 4 August 1711 under the title *On the Conciseness of the English in Common Discourse* protested against the wide use of colloquial abbreviations, such as *mob* (from Lat. *mobile*), *incog* (from *incognito*), etc.

A paper published in issue No. 285, on 26 January 1712, speaking about Milton's language, says: 'If clearness and perspicuity were only to be consulted , the poet would have nothing else to do but to clothe his thoughts in the most plain and natural expressions. But since it often happens, that the most obvious phrases, and those which are used in ordinary conversation, become too familiar to the ear, and contract a kind of meanness by passing through the mouths of the vulgar, a poet should take particular care to guard himself against idiomatic ways of speaking . '

From the viewpoint of this new trend , the language of the 16th and early 17th century was bound to appear wild and clumsy . Publications of Shakespeare's works appearing in the 18th century are full of arbitrary changes designed to make Shakespeate's text conform to the "correctness" of the 18th century. The greatest poet of the time Alexander Pope (1688-1744), who edited Shakespeare's works in 1725, entirely failed to understand the forms in Shakespeare's texts.

In the 17th and 18th century a great number of grammarians and orthoepists appeared, who set as their task the establishing of correct language forms. In 1621 Alexander Gill's book, *Logonomia Ang/ica* (that is, English Word -law) was published. Gill stuck to conservative views in the sphere of pronunciation and condemned new tendencies in this field. However, his work is not devoid of interest; he quotes in a peculiar system of transcription the variants of pronunciation which he disapproves of, and in this way gives some valuable information about the pronunciation of his time.

(Next came Charles Butler, author of *Eng/ish Grammar*, which appeared in 1634. Butler proposed a modernized and rationalized spelling system. Mentioning some vacillations in spelling, he declares: "We have in our language many syllables which having gotten *nu* pronunciation, doo yet retain their old orthography, so that their letters doo not rightly express their sound ... the which error if we will correct ... the question will be whether we should conform our writing to the *nu* sound , or reform our sound and return to the old"At the time of the Commonwealth there appeared John Wallis's *Grammatica Linguae Ang/icanae* (1653). Wallis was able to make abjective observations of pronunciation and he was not limited conservative views of the language.

The most serious of the orthoepists was Christopher Cooper, author of *Grammatica Ang/icana*, published in 1685. Cooper was fully aware of the difference between sounds and letters and gave a list of homonyms resulting from phonetic change . He testifies that the following words were pronounced alike: *heart - hart; a notion- an ocean; are-air- heir, etc.*

In the early 18th century we find a valuable source of information about the pronunciation of the time in Jones's book *Practica/ Phonographer* (1701.) Jones states it as his task to describe "English speech ... as it is commonly used in England, particularly in London, the Universities or at Court,"

William Baker's book , *Ru/es for True Spe//ing and Writing Eng/ish*, appeared in 1724. Baker noted divergencies between pronunciation and spelling and gave lists of words showing such divergencies.

Flourishing of Literature in Early New English (Literary Renaissance). The growth of the national literary language and especially the fixation of its Written Standard is inseparable from the flourishing of literature known as the English Literary Renaissance.

The beginnings of the literary efflorescence go back to the 16th c. After a fallow period of dependence 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 Renaissance (also the "Elizabethan age" for it coincided roughly with the reign of Elizabeth). The most notable forerunners of the literary Renaissance in the first half of the 16th c. were the great English humanist Thomas More (1478-1535) and William Tyndale, the translator of the Bible. The chief work of Thomas More, *UTOPIA* was finished in 1516; it was written in Latin and was first translated into English in 1551. In *UTOPIA* Th. More expressed his opposition to the way of life in contemporary England, which he defined as "a conspiracy of the rich against the poor" and drew a picture of an ideal imaginary society in which equality, freedom and well-being were enjoyed by all. More's other works were written in English; most interesting are his pamphlets issued during a controversy with W. Tyndale over the translation of the Bible.

William Tyndale was a student at Oxford and Cambridge and a priest in the church. In 1526 he completed a new English translation of the Bible. Both in his translations and original works Tyndale showed himself one of the first masters of English prose. He exerted a great influence not only on the language of the Church but also on literary prose and on the spoken language. The later versions of the Bible, and first of all the Authorised Version - **KING JAMES' BIBLE** (produced by a body of translators and officially approved in 1611) was in no small measure based on Tyndale's translation.

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.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616) was the chief of the Elizabethan dramatists as well as genius whose writings have influenced every age and every country. Shakespeare's plays were greatly admired in the theatres less than half of them were printed in his lifetime. The first collected edition of his plays was the Folio of 1623.

It is universally recognised that Shakespeare outclassed all his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies and sonnets) and surpassed them all in his mastery of the English tongue. His works give an ideal representation of the literary language of his day. His vast vocabulary (amounting to over 20,000 words), freedom in creating new meanings, versatility of grammatical construction reflect the fundamental properties of the language of the period.

Geographical Expansion of the English Language from the 17th to 19th c. English Outside Great Britain. In the last three hundred years the English language has extended to all the continents of the world and the number of English speakers has multiplied. We may recall that in OE and Early ME periods the English dialects were confined to part of the British Isles: they were spoken in what is known as England proper; from the 13th to the 17th c. the English language extended to the whole of the British Isles with the exception some mountainous regions in Wales, Northern Scotland and some parts of Ireland.

The number of English speaking people grew: at the end of the 11th c. it is estimated at one and a half or two millions; by 1700 English had over eight million speakers. In the course of two centuries of British expansion overseas,

colonisation and emigration to other continents the number of English speakers increased at such a high rate that by 1900 it had reached one hundred and twenty three million.

England's colonial to the New World began in the late 16th c. when her first colonies were set up in Newfoundland (1583). But the real start came later: in 1607 the first permanent settlements were founded in Jamestown and in 1620 the famous ship "May flower" brought a group of English settlers to what became known as New England. These Puritans from the Stuart absolutism came from the London area, from East Anglia and Yorkshire; later colonists came from other regions, including Scotland and Ireland. Immigrants to the Southern areas were of a higher class origin: they received vast stretches of land from the kings of England and gave rise to the Southern "aristocratic" slave-owning plantations. Many immigrants from Great Britain settled in the West Indies, which became a part of the British Empire in the 17th c.

The colonists spoke different dialects of English. In North America those dialects gradually blended into a new type of the language. American English: contacts with other languages, especially Spanish in the South and French in Canada, have played a certain role in its development.

American English was first proclaimed to be an independent language by Noah Webster (1758-1843), a schoolmaster from Connecticut. In his *DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE* (1828) the first in the world - famous series of "Websters", he showed the differences in vocabulary and pronunciation between the English of Britain and the English of the new independent state (after the War for Independence which ended in 1783); Am E, in his opinion, was pure uncorrupted descendant of Chaucer and Shakespeare, while Br E had been spoiled by linguistic change. He admitted, though, that the two types of English were basically identical.

The expansion of English to Asia is mainly connected with the occupation of India. India was one of the main issues in the colonial struggle of European powers in the 18th c. The conquest of India had been prepared by the activities of the East India trade company founded in the 17th c. In the late 18th c. Britain secured partial control over the administration in some of the Indian provinces. In the first half of the 19th c. India became a British colony and Britain acquired other possessions in Asia, turning them into colonies, dominions or protectorates. Thus the English language extended to many areas in Asia, as the language of the state and writing.

Australia was a place of deportation of British convicts since the late 18th c. A flow of immigrants were attracted to Australia, at first by the free grants of land, later - by the discovery of gold. The bulk of the population in Australia as well as in New Zealand, came from Great Britain: their language is regarded by some linguists as an independent geographical variant of English though its difference from Br E is not great: it is confined to some peculiarities of pronunciation and specific words.

British penetration into Africa was a lengthy affair that extended over the 19th c. In consequence of financial dependence on British capital, Sudan and Egypt fell under British political control. Tropical Africa and South Africa were raided by the British navy, as sources of slave labour for America and the West Indies. Trade companies were supported by open warfare, and in a long series of wars many African territories fell under British rule. Cecil Rhodes and H. Kitchener undertook to extend British territories, so as to connect Cairo and the Cape colony by a stretch of British land. Numerous conflicts with the Dutch settlers in South Africa led to the Anglo-Boer war of 1899-1902, which established the supremacy of the British. All these events were accompanied by the spread of English to new areas.

In the course of the 20th c. use of the English language was reduced. We should distinguish between countries with an English speaking population (or with a large proportion of English speakers) and countries in which English is only as the State language the main language of the press, radio and literature. The distinction, however, is not always possible, for in both groups of countries part of the population is bilingual, and the proportion of English speakers cannot be precisely estimated. The list of countries with an English-speaking population outside the Isles includes the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the South African Republic.

Recommended Literatures for reading.

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LECTURE 16-17

Specific features of vocabulary in the middle period. Development of New period.

Problems for discussion.

1. *Phonetic changes in Vowel and Consonant Systems*
2. *The Great Vowel Shift*
3. *Grammatical Changes*
4. *Development of the Vocabulary.*
5. *Contemporary Dialects*

Phonetic Changes. At the outset of the MnE period the vowel [ɪ] of unstressed endings was lost. This vowel had been on the verge of loss in the 14th century already. The rhythm of Chaucer's verse shows that in many cases it was no longer pronounced. In the 15th century it finally disappeared.

Loss of [ə] started in the Northern dialects: in Scotland this process was already completed by the late 14th century, as may be seen from the rhythm of Barbour's poem *Bruce* (ab. 1375).

The vowel [ɪ] was lost when it was final and also when it was followed by a consonant, as in the plural forms of substantives, e.g. *tab/es*, *hats*, *books*, in the 3rd person singular present indicative e.g. */ikes*, *sits*, *shines*, *seems*, *needs*, and in the past tense and second participle in **-ed**, */iveed*, *fī//ed*, *stopped*, *wa/ked*.

However, the [ə] was preserved, and later changed into [ɪ] in the groups

[siz], *[ziz]*/*[jiz]*, *[t]* in *asses*, *houses*, *washes*, *watches*, *judges*, *wanted*, */oaded*.

The vowel [ə] was also preserved and eventually developed into [ɪ] in some *and* *adjectivized* participles in **-ed**, e.g. */earned* *wicked*, *ragged*, *crooked*, *rugged*, *dogged*, *b/essed*.

Loss of Vowels in Intermediate Syllables. In some three-syllable and four-syllable words the vowel of a middle syllable was lost, e.g. *chapiter* > *chapter*, *courtesy* > *curtsey*, *curtsy* (but *courtesy* 'politeness' has retained its intermediate vowel *j*, *phantasie* > *fancy* (but also *phantasy*, *fantasy*), *medicine* ['*medsin*'], *co/one/* [*k l n* > '*k:nl*'] *business* ['*biznis*'], but also *busyness* ['*bizinis*'], *para/ysie* > *pa/sy* *damise* /> *damse/*, *crimesin* > *crimson*, *dirige* > *dirge* (from Latin *dirige*, the first word of the hymn), *copice* > *copse*.

The Change [er] > [ar]. At the same time [er] changed into [ar]. This change began in the 14th century, but was completed only in the late 15th. Spelling in most cases reflected the change, and the spelling **ar** appeared in these cases; in few words the combined spelling **ear** was adopted; and in some words the spelling **er** was preserved.

This change occurred, for example, in the following words; *ferr* > *far*, *sterre* > *star*, *werre* > *war*, *merren* > *mar*, *ter* > *tar*, *herte* > *heart* [*hart*], *herthe* > *hearth* [*hare*], *herken* > *hark*, *heark*, *ferm* > *farm*, *dernen* > *darn*, *ber* > *barn*,

sterven > *starve*, *hervest* > *harvest*, *ferthing* > *farthing*, *kerven* > *carve*, *mervei/* > *marve/*, *dwergh* > *dwarf*. In the words *c/erk*, *sergeant*, and in the proper names *Derby*, *Berke/ey*, *Berkshire*, *Hertford* the change [er] > [ar] was not reflected in the spelling

Development of [x]. We must distinguish two variants of the development of [x] (1) before **t** (2) in final position.

(1) [x] before **t** is lost, and the preceding short vowel is lengthened. For example: */ight* [*/ix* > *li:t*] *bright* [*brixt* > *bri:t*] *night* [*nixt* > *ni:t*], *brought* [*br;xt*], *caught* [*kauxt*]

Long [i]: arising from this change took part in the vowel shift: [*li:t* > *lait*]. Spelling did not reflect this change, and these words are spelt with **gh** up to the present time. After the digraph **gh** had become silent, it was introduced into the word *de/ight* (from Fr. *de/it*), on the analogy of the word */ight*. In a similar way, the word *spright/y* is an arbitrary variant of the word *sprite* (*spirit*) In forms like *brought*, *fought* the [ou] developed into [ɔ:]

In Northern dialects the [x] before **t** has been preserved to our days.

(2) [x] final mostly changes into [f], as in *rough*, *enough*, *cough*, *laugh*, *tough*, *slough*, *trough*, *trough* also in *draught*; cf. *draft*. The word *dwergh* came to be spelt *dwarf*. In all other cases the spelling remained unchanged, so that the digraph **gh** came to denote the consonant [f].

In a few words final [x] was lost, as in *bough*, *dough*, *though*, *through*.

On the other hand, the word *laughter* is pronounced with [f], which is probably due to influence of the word *laugh*.

Loss of [i] before [k, m, f, v]. [ɪ] was lost before [k] and the labial consonants [m, f, v]. Thus the words *talk*, *walk*, *yolk*, *palm*, *calm*, *calf* (plural *calves*), *half* (plural *halves*) came to be pronounced ['*ts:k*, *ws:k*, *tj3:k*, *jouk*, *fouk*, *pa:m*, *kam*, *ka:f*, *ka:vz*, *ha:vz*, *ha:f*, *ha:vz* .]

However [ɪ] before [v] was preserved in words of Latin origin, as in *dissolve*, *resolve*, *valve*.

[ɪ] was also lost before [d] in *should* and *would*, which were usually unstressed.

At the time when [ɪ] was in the process of dropping and a word could be pronounced both with [ɪ] and without it, an [ɪ] appeared in words which had not had it in ME. This often happened in words of French origin; introduction of [ɪ] might be supported by influence of the Latin prototype of the word and by imitation of French latinizing spelling of the 14th and 15th centuries. Here belong factors the words *fault* (ME *faute* < Old French *faute* < Latin *falta* from *fallo* 'deceive'), *falcon* (ME *fauoun* < Old Fr. *faucon* < Lat .

falco), realm (ME *reaume* < Old Fr. *reaume* < Lat. *regalimen*). It may be assumed that the letter first appeared as an etymologizing spelling, and then, under influence of various, the sound [ɹ] appeared in these words.

The Vowel Shift. The most significant phonetic change of this period was the Great Vowel Shift, beginning in the 15th century. It left its imprint on the entire vowel system of the MnE period.

The essence of the shift was the narrowing of all ME long vowels, and diphthongization of the narrowest long ones: [i] > [aɪ] [u] > [aʊ].

The shift can be represented by the following diagram:

ai -i: i: i:	u:	u: — aʊ
e: e ei ou o: s:	a: ə:	

The chronological frame of the shift remains somewhat doubtful. The well-known English scholar Henry Sweet (1845 - 1912) and the Danish scholar O. Jespersen (1860 - 1943) thought that the shift was only completed in the 18th century and that the pronunciation of the 16th and 17th centuries was something intermediate between the ME and the modern pronunciation. O. Jespersen represented this view in the following manner:

Spelling	Chaucer's	Shakespeare's	Present-day pronunciation	pronunciation	pronunciation
abate		[a'ba:t]	[ibət]		[i'beit]
foul		[fu:l]	[foul]		[faʊl]
bite		[bi:t]	[beit]		[baɪt]

Investigation undertaken by Prof. H. C. Wyld led to a different result. H. C. Wyld studied all sorts of documents of the 15th and 16th century: private letters, diaries, etc., and reached the conclusion that the shift was completed by the late 16th century and that the pronunciation of Shakespeare's time basically coincided with present-day pronunciation.

The separate items of the shift may be presented in the following way: a: > ei i: > ou
s: > e: > i: i o > u:
e: > i u > aʊ
e: > i: i: > aɪ

In the 16th century the vowel [e:] from ME [s:] differed from the vowel [i:] from ME [e:] and the words *peak*, *beat*, *mean* did not rhyme with the words *meek*, *meet*, *keen*. In the late 17th century [e:] changed into [i:] and the difference between the vowels disappeared.

<i>Spe//ing</i>	<i>Midd/e Eng/ish</i>	<i>Modern Eng/ish</i>
	<i>Pronunciation</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>
1. take	['ta:ki]	[teik]
Name	['na:mi]	[neim]
Grave	['gra:vi]	[greiv]
2. beat	[bs :t]	[be:t]> [bi:t]
Clean	[kls :n]	[kle:n]>[kli:n]
3. meet	[me:t]	[mi:t]
Sleep	[sle:p]	[s ^{li:} p]
Keen	[ke:n]	[ki:n]
4. like	['li:ki]	[laik]
Time	['ti:mi]	[taim]
Rise	['ri:zi]	[raiz]
5. boat	[bi:t]	[bout]
Load	[li:d]	[loud]
Moan	[mi:n]	[moun]
Go	[gi:]	[gou]
6. tool	[to:l]	[tu:l]
Moon	[mo:n]	[mu:n]
Food	[fo:d]	[fu:d]
Do	[do:]	[du:]

As will be seen, the ME long [s:] (from OE [ʒ]) or [ea] changed into long close [e:] To denote this vowel the spelling **ea** was introduced, this was to distinguish this sound from another vowel-the long close [e:], which according to the vowel shift changed into [i:] and was denoted by the spelling **ee**. However, when in the 17th century the former vowel also changed into [i:] , the difference between the two spellings lost its phonetic value (the two phonemes were merged into one), and since then the spellings **ea** and **ee** became hieroglyphic, i.e. they serve to distinguish between two words pronounced in the same way e.g. *sea* and *see*, *heal* and *heel*, *meat* and *meet*, *leak* and *leek*, etc. In a few words ME [e:], which in the vowel shift become [i:], is denoted by the spelling **ie** e.g. *field*, *fiend*, *chief*; occasionally also **ei**, as in *deceive*, *seize*.

ME long [ə] became [ou] in the vowel shift. This sound has been denoted by the spelling **oa** since 16 century.

ME long [o:] became [u:] and is denoted by the spelling **oo**.

All these changes show, as has already been stated, one general tendency: narrowing of long vowels and diphthongization of the narrowest of them. Thus, all items of the shift appear as elements of a single process affecting all ME long vowels.

Among words containing long [o:], which in the vowel shift became [u:], there were some which in OE had the vowel [a:]hwa 'who', *an* 'one', *strac* 'struck' (past tense of *strike*); ME *who*, *on strok*. In these words long open [ə:] changed into long close [o:], which developed into [u:] in the shift; in the words *on* and *strok* it developed further into [u:>u]

It goes without saying that all these changes occurred gradually, without being noticed by the speakers. It is therefore necessary to make some additional remarks about some of them.

To clarify the phonetic meaning of the change [a:>e] we must bear in mind that [a] may be both a back, a medium, and a front vowel. ME long [a:] must have been rather front and, in any case, not a back vowel. This is confirmed by several considerations. On the one hand, it mostly arose OE [a] [ʒ] in open syllables i.e. from a rather front vowel. On the other hand, its very development into [ei] in the shift [rather than into [ə]] also points to it having been a front vowel.

On its way from [a:] to [ei] the vowel must have passed through a number of intermediate stages, something like [a:>@:>s: >e> ei]. Diphthongization seems to have come at a rather late stage of development.

In a similar way, the changes of [i:>ai] and of [u:> au:] must have taken place through intermediate stages approximately [i:> ii>ei<si>@i>ai] and [u:> ou>ou>iu>au]

If we compare system of long vowels which existed before the shift with that which arose from the shift, we can state that there appeared no new sounds, that is, no sounds that had not existed in ME. This will be made clear by the following table:

Middle English	Modern English
Sound Example	Sound Example
[ei] wey	[ei] make
[i:] time	[i:] see

However, the vowel shift is an important event in the history of the English sound system, as the distribution of long vowels was completely changed. Thus, for instance, long [i:] appears in MnE in the word *see*, which in ME had the vowel [e:], and it does not appear in the word *time*, which was pronounced with an [f:] in ME. had the vowel [e:] and it does not appear in the word *time*, which was pronounced with an [f:] in ME.

The causes of the shift (as well as many other problems in the history of sound systems) have not yet been clarified. In the last few decades various attempts have been made to approach the problem from different angles. We will cast a look at some of them.

The Berlin scholars Wilhelm Horn and Martin Lehnert have treated this problem in their book *Sound and Life*. They aim at explaining the narrowing and diphthongization of long vowels starting from intonation conditions: they put forward that pronunciation of a vowel with a high tone (in emotional speech) contributes to narrowing of its articulation, and they confirm this statement by observation of similar phonemes in Modern English speech. This approach, interesting as it is, does not seem to give an adequate explanation of all the phenomena involved.

A completely different view is found in works by scholars studying phonemics. Among these, again, there are several varieties of explanation.

For example the French scholar Andre Martinet seeks the causes of the vowel shift in some phonemic events of the centuries preceding it. He points out that in the OE period quantity (that is, length and shortness) of vowels were phonemic signals, that is, a long and the corresponding short vowel were different phonemes. In ME, as a result of lengthening and shortening of vowels in specified environments (cf. 319 ff.), length and shortness lost their phonemic status: a long and the corresponding short vowel became mere allophones of one and the same phoneme. As, however, lengthening in open syllables had not affected the short [i] and short [u], short [i] and long [i:], short [u] and long [u:] remained different phonemes, which contradicted the entire vowel system of the ME period. Hence arose the need to reinforce the length of [i:] and [u:] by additional features: their articulation was emphasized and resulted in diphthongization. This, according to Martinet, was the start of the whole vowel shift. It is difficult to give an assessment of this theory at present, but there is no doubt that it deserves serious attention.

Other variants of a phonemic explanation of the vowel shift were proposed by Bohumil Trnka, V. Y. Plotkin, and V. A. Kviatkovsky. Each of them tries to find the driving power which set the system of long vowels in motion.

V. Y. Plotkin connects the shift with the loss of unstressed [ə]. He notes that as a result of this loss there arose a great number of monosyllabic words which differed from each other by length shortness of the vowel alone: "A very great number of dissyllabic words become monosyllabic: in this process words having the syllabic structure *tatte, tate* and *tat* (here *t* stands for any consonant, and *a* for any vowel. - *B. I*) merge into one type *tat*" and words having the syllabic structure *tate* and *tat* are reduced to the type *tat*. Under such circumstances the difference between long and short vowels was bound to acquire a phonemic relevance once again: but this contradicted the age-old tendency to discard phonemic relevance of vowel quantity. As a result of this contradiction, there came a change in the quality of long vowels, which accordingly were now distinguished from the short ones not by quantity alone. Four diphthongs resulted from this development: [ai, ei, ou, au].

This theory also deserves serious appreciation. Future development will show to what explains the causes of the vowel shift.

V. A. Kviatkovsky, author of the most recent inquiry into the phonemic problems posed by the vowel shift, thinks that the main result of the shift is the rise of a new binary phonemic opposition that between monophthongs and diphthongs.

All these views certainly require and deserve a detailed further analysis.

Phrases. MnE is characterized by further growth of the pattern "substantive + substantive", the first item acting as attribute and indicating some feature of the thing denoted by the second item. Among the first components of such phrases we find substantives of very different meanings, for example, *your rye straw hats midnight mushrooms, midnight hags*.

Alongside of this type the "substantive genitive + substantive" remains in use, and it can be illustrated by such examples from Shakespeare: *this man's life, his nurse's tears, the people's mouths the dead man's knell, the tyrant's head, my country's love* (= love for my country).

Agreement in MnE goes on decreasing. Very few cases of agreement survived. Loss of adjective inflection made agreement of adjectives with substantives impossible. Only the two pronouns *this* and *that* still agree in number with their head word which is quite an isolated phenomenon in MnE.

Government. Little has remained of government, too. Practically only the personal pronouns and the interrogative and relative pronoun *who are* *gaverend when they depend on a verb or a preposition their* from is bound to be the objective, not the nominative case. But even here developments set in which tendency to do away with this rule is found. On the hand, the pronoun *it* has no distinction of cases, the pronoun *ye* *you* tends lose distinction, and as to the other personal pronouns, difference of cases also tends to disappear. The phrase *between you and I* is found in Shakespeare more than once.

Joining. As agreement and government decline, the role of joining naturally grows. In such phrases as *old wrinkles a neat's tongue dried, a heart unfortified*, etc. the adjective (or participle) is connected with its head word by joining.

The same applies to the phrase to the phrase "verb + substantive" and "verb + pronoun" (except the pronouns mentioned above)

Closure. Closure plays a considerable part in MnE, Practically any word or phrase enclosed between, say, an article and a substantive becomes by this very fact an attribute to the substantive. A few examples

from Shakespeare will show this: *the a/ways - wind -obeying deep; the ne'er -yet-beaten horse of Parthia: a ten-times - barredup chest; a wor/d-without-end bargain.*

Closure is also possible for an adverbial modifier, which comes inside the predicate, if the latter is expressed either by an analytical verb form or by the phrase "link verb+substantive or adjective". Closure is typical of adverbial modifiers characterizing the duration or frequency of an action, as in: *I shou/d be sti// p/ucking the grass to know where sits the wind; you have often begun to te// me what I am ; the merit of service is se/dom attributed to the true and exact performer.*

Here is quite an exceptional case of closure: between the components of an analytical verb from (the predicate) we find the subject and four adverbial modifiers: Therefore our sometime sister, now our queen, the imperia/ jointress of this war-/ike state have we as 'twere with a defeated joy , with one auspicious and one dropping eye, with mirth in funera/ and with dirge in marriage, in equa/ sca/e weighing de/ight and do/e, taken to wife.

The Sentence. No material change can be found in the structure of the simple sentence in Early MnE as compared with ME. The means of expressing the subject, the object, and other parts of the sentence remain basically the same.

The freedom of word order become gradually still more restricted than it had already been in ME. However, structures remain possible which were eventually discarded from normal Late MnE literary style. For example, we find in *Ham/et* the following sentence: *Mother, you have father much offended*, where the direct object *my father* comes in between the two components of the predicate verb: its auxiliary *have* and the second participle. Of course no misunderstanding can arise here about the syntactical function of each element, but such sentence structure is no longer possible in present- day English.

Infinitive and Infinitive Constructions. The phrase " *for to*+infinitive" which arose in ME, is sometimes found in Shakespeare as well. Such an infinitive expresses sometimes purpose, as in *which for to prevent, I have thus set it down: that these pirates ... had not o'erboard thrown me for to seek my mother:* sometimes, again there is no meaning of purpose, as in : *forbid the sea for to obey the moon ; here /acks but your mother for to say amen.* Eventually this use of *for to* became obsolete.

In the 15th and 16th centuries use of the "objectiv+infinitive" continues to grow. Thus, in Regionald Pecock's The Reperession of Over Much B/aming of the C/ergy (1457) the following examples are found: a//awith ech of thi/ke weies to be grounded, but for that he knowith me admytte and a//owe the writings of Doctoures, therefore he makith agens me this assault: he presupposith the gouernauncis ... to be before known of the same men: and trustist thi se/f to be a /eder of b/ynd men.

In the 17th and 18 th centuries the construction spread still wider. A number of verbs begin to combine with it, as in Jonathan Swift's sentences: *and the*

Emperor was so much de/ighted that he ordered this entertainment to be repeated several days; of destroying the Bing-Endian exiles, and compelling that people to break the smaller end of their aggs; *in Samuel Richardson:* was she so persecuted in favour of a very disagreeable man, one Solmes, as to induce her to throw herself into my protection?

In the 19th and 20th centuries the construction spread still further and become a typical feature of contemporary English.

Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in new English. The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was not restricted to Latin and Greek. The influx of *French* words continued and reached new peaks in the late 15th and in the late 17th c.

French borrowings of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art and fashions. French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years; Paris led the fashion in dress, food and in social life and to a certain extent in art and literature; finally, the political events in France in the 18th-19th c. were of world - wide significance. All these external conditions are reflected in French loans. Examples of diplomatic terms are *attache, communique, dossier*; the words *ball, beau, cortege, cafe, coquette, hotel, picnic, restaurant* refer to social life; *ballet, ensemble, essay, genre* pertain to art; military terms are *brigade, corps, manoeuvre, marine, police, reconnaissance*; fashions in dress and food are illustrated by words like *blouse chemise, corsage, cravat, champagne, menu, soup*. Words of miscellaneous character are; *comrade, detail, entrance, essay, machine, moustache, progress, ticket*.

As seen from the lists, later French borrowing differ widely from the loanwords adopted in ME. Most of them have not been completely assimilated and have retained a foreign appearance to the present day- note

their spellings, the sounds and the position of the stress. Words like *genre* and *restaurant* have nasalised vowels and a French spelling: *police*, *fatigue*, *marine* receive the stress on the last syllable and are pronounced with long [i:] indicated by the letter i like French words; the digraph *ch* stands for in *machine*, in *beau* the letters *eau* have also retained the sound value of the French prototype [o:].

In addition to the three main sources - Greek, Latin and French, English speakers of the NE period borrowed freely from many other languages. It has been estimated that even in the 17th c. the English vocabulary contained words derived from no less than fifty foreign tongues. We shall mention only the most important ones.

The main contributors to the vocabulary were Italian, Dutch, Spanish, German, Portuguese and Russian. A number of words were adopted from languages of other countries and continents, which came into contact with English: Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

Next to French, Latin and Scandinavian, English owes the greatest number of foreign words to *Italian* though many of them like Latin loan - words, entered the English language through French. A few early borrowings pertain to commercial and military affairs while the vast majority of words are related to art, music and literature, which is a natural consequence of the fact that Italy was the birthplace of the Renaissance movement and of the revival of interest in art.

In the 14th c. English imported the Italian words *ducato*, *million*, *florin* (from the name of Florence, where the coin was minted), *pistol*, *cartridge alarm* (probably borrowed from French but traced to Italian all' are all to arms). Italian words relating to art are well known to speakers of all European languages. Examples of musical terms adopted in English are: *aria*, *bass*, *cello* (genetically, a diminutive suffix in *violonello*), *concerto*, *duet*, *finale*, *piano*, *solo*, *sonata*, *soprano*, *tenor*, *violin*.

The Italian loan-words *balcony*, *cameo*, *corridor*, *cupola*, *design*, *fresco*, *gallery*, *granite*, *parapet*, *pedestal*, *studio* reveal the priority of the Italians in certain spheres of culture. The loans *replica*, *sonnet*, *stanza* indicate new concepts in literature.

As seen from the examples some loan-words retained their Italian appearance, others were Gallicised (i.e. assumed a French shape); probably they had entered the English language through French, e.g. *artisan*, *campaign*, *intrigue*. Many words in general use do not differ from English words either in sounds or spelling and cannot be distinguished from native words without a special study: *barrack* *cash*, *canteen* *escort*, *gallop*, *laundry*, *manage*, *medal*, *pants* *pilot*; these borrowings were probably imported at an earlier date and have lost their foreign flavour.

Borrowings from *Spanish* came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial and political fields, due to the rivalry of England and Spain in foreign trade and colonial expansion. This is apparent from the nature of Spanish borrowings in English made in the 16th and 17th c., e.g.: *armada*, *barricade* *cargo*, *embargo*, *escapade*. Many loan-words indicated new objects and concepts encountered in the colonies: *banana*, *canoe*, *chocolate* *cocoa*, *tomato*.

Borrowings from *Germanic languages* are of special interest as English is a Germanic language too. The influence of Scandinavian in Early ME has certainly remained unsurpassed and the unique conditions of close language contacts were never repeated. By the 15th 16th c. c. Germanic languages had diverged far apart; their linguistic affinities were disguised by the changes of the intervening periods. Therefore loan-words from related Germanic tongues were no less foreign to English speakers than those from other linguistic groups. Yet their sound form was somewhat closer to English and their assimilation progressed rapidly. Dutch words and some of the German words do not differ in appearance from native English words.

Dutch made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the 15th and 16th c., when commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were at their peak. Dutch artisans came to England to practise their trade, and sell their goods. They specialised in wool weaving and brewing, which is reflected in the Dutch loan-words: *pack*, *scour*, *spool*, *stripe* (terms of weaving); *hops*, *tub*, *scum*. Extensive borrowing is found in nautical terminology: *bowline*, *buoy*, *cruise*, *deck* *dock*, *freight*, *keel*, *skipper*. The flourishing of art in the Netherlands accounts for some Dutch loan-words relating to art: *easel*, *landscape*, *sketch*.

Loan-words from German reflect the scientific and cultural achievements of Germany at different dates of the New period. Mineralogical terms are connected with the employment of German specialists in the English mining industry, e.g.:

coba/t, nicke/, zinc. The advance of philosophy in the 18th and 19th c. accounts for philosophical terms, e.g. *transcendenta/, dynamics* (going back to classical roots). Some borrowings do not belong to a particular semantic sphere and can only be classified as miscellaneous: *kindergarten, halt, stroll, plunder, poodle, waltz.*

The Russian element in the English vocabulary is of particular interest. Russian loan-words entered the English language as far back as the 16th c., when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company) established the first trade relations with Russia. English borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th c., indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia, observed by the English: *astrakhan be/uga, boyar, copeck, inte//igentsia, muzhik, roub/e samovar, troika, tsar, verst vodka.*

The loan-words adopted after 1917 reflect the new social relations and political institutions in the USSR: *bo/shevir Komsomo/, Sovet.* Some of the new words are translation-loans: *col//ective farm, Five-Year-Plan, wa// newspaper.* In the recent decades many technical terms came from Russian indicating the achievements in different branches of science: *sputnik, cosmonaut* (in preference of the American *astronaut*), *synchrophasotron.*

Contemporary Dialects. In the course of the MnE period local dialects were, as we saw, gradually superseded by the literary language. However, they have not disappeared and they still are a means of communication in the respective territories.

Modern dialects are divided into six groups. The modern Scottish and Northern dialects correspond to the ME Northern, the modern Western, Central and Eastern to the ME Midland. The Southern dialects are a more unified group.

Each group has its peculiarities in the sphere of phonetics and vocabulary. We will note the main phonetic peculiarities of each group.

(1) **Peculiarities of dialects in the phonetic sphere.** ME long [u:] has not undergone the shift. Thus, the words *house, out, down, mouth, crowd, now* are pronounced [hu:s, u:t, du:e, kru:d, nu:].

(2) ME long [a:] was preserved in ME and became [ei] in the vowel shift. The literary *stone, bone, who/e, road* correspond to Scottish *stane, bane, hai/, raid.*

(3) Words like *dane, g/ance, chance,* etc. are usually pronounced with long [a:]: *da:ns, gla:nstja:ns* etc.

(4) The consonant [r] has been preserved, with a roll of the tip of the tongue.

(5) Many Scottish dialects have preserved the guttural spirant [x] which is denoted by **gh**, as in *naught, sought, brought.*

Northern. (1) In most Northern dialects ME long [u:] has been preserved as such, that is it, has not undergone the vowel shift: in a few dialects it has become [ou] or [au].

(2) OE long [a:] was preserved in ME and developed into [ei] in the vowel shift, (as in Scottish).

(3) ME long open [ɔ:], which had changed into long closed [o:] in the vowel shift, was not narrowed into [i:]. The literary pronunciation of *speak hea/, dea/* [spi:k, hi:l, di:l] corresponds to Northern [spe:k, he:l, de:l].

(4) Long [ɜ:] developed only before [m] and [f], as in *calm, plam, calf, half;* in all other cases Northern dialects have long [ɛ:] e.g. in *dance, chance, ask, past.*

(5) In Northumberland, Durham, Lancashire, and Yorkshire short [u] did not change into [ɪ]. The corresponding words are pronounced with [u] or a vowel intermediate between [u] and [o].

(6) ME short [a] was not changed into [ɜ:]. Thus, words like *hat cat, hand,* etc. are pronounced [hat, kat, hand].

(7) In Northern Northumberland a uvular [r] is pronounced.

(8) Initial [h] has mostly been dropped.

(9) There is a tendency to drop final [l] and [ɪ] before dental consonants.

Western.

(1) ME long open [ɜ:], which became long closed [e:] in the vowel shift, has not been narrowed to [i:] (as in the Northern dialects).

(2) ME short [a] has not developed into [ɜ:] (as in Northern dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] is dropped.

Central

(1) ME long open [s:] became long closed [e:], has not developed into [i:] (as in Northern and Western dialects).

(2) ME short [a] has not developed into [ж:] (as in Northern and Western dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] has been dropped (as in Western dialects).

Eastern.

(1) ME short [a] has not developed into [ж] (as in Northern, Western, and Central dialects).

(2) Initial [h-] is often dropped; on the other hand it is some times added to words where it has no historical origin.

Southern. ME long [s], which developed into long closed [e:] in the vowel shift, has not changed into [i:] (as in Northern, Western, and Central dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] often drops; on the other hand, it sometimes appears in words where it has no historical origin (as in Eastern dialects).

(4) In some Southern dialects initial [s-], [f-], [e-] in words of Germanic origin have been voiced, i.e. become [z-], [v-], [ə] respectively; initial **thr-** has changed into **dr-**

The consonant [n] in unstressed syllables has changed into [n].

In the sphere of vocabulary dialects also have characteristic peculiarities. Thus, the following words are found in dialects, which are not used in literary English: *ingle* 'fire in the hearth', *Look out* 'synd' 'draught', *lownd* 'softly', *elding* 'fuel', *fuddle* 'drinking bout', *game* 'bold', *yuckel* 'woodpecker'.

In English literature of the 17th-19th centuries there are many examples of dialect speech used for the sake of local colouring.

Thus, many of the poems by the Scottish poet Robert Burns (1759-1796) are in the Scottish dialect.

Some Southern dialect features are found in Squire Western's speech in the novel *Tom Jones* by Henry Fielding (1707-1754).

Sir Pitt Crawley in *Vanity Fair* by William Makepeace Thackeray (1811-1863) also speaks Southern dialect.

The poet Alfred Tennyson (1809 - 1892) wrote several poems in the Northern dialect, representing the life of Northern peasants and artisans (*Northern, Farmer, The Northern Cobbler, Owd Roa*).

Some elements of Southern dialect speech are to be found in the novels of Thomas Hardy (1840-1928).

Recommended Literatures for reading.

1. B.A. Ilyish. *History of the English Language*. L., 1973. p. 254-267. 295302

2. T.A. Rastorgueva. *History of English*. M., 1983. p. 296-313

3. B.D. Аракина *История английского языка*. М. 1985. стр. 193-207

4. И. П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян. *История английского языка*. М. 1976. стр. 79-90, 191-194, 299-304, 309-310, 92-101

5. К. Бруннер. *История английского языка*. Том I, 1956 p. 4-350

6. А.И. Смирницкий. *История английского языка*. МГУ., стр. 93-135.

Seminar plans:

Seminar 1

General information about Roman and German languages

Plan

1. *The subject-matter of History of English.*

2. *The connection of History of English with other aspects of the language.*

3. *Intra and extralinguistic factors in the development of languages.*

4. *Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of language History.*

5. *Sources of language History.*

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка*. М., 1985. стр. 4-25.

2. А. И. Смирницкий. *Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.)* МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
3. Ф. С. Алексеева . *Древнеанглийский язык.* М, 1971.
4. Josef Raith. *Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen lesebuch)* Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. *The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.*
6. I. P.Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 2

New period of development of languages

Plan

1. *The First Consonant shift (Grimm's Law).*
2. *Verner's Law.*
3. *Stress in Germanic Languages.*
4. *Germanic alphabets.Old Germanic Written Records.*

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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6. I. P.Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 3

New period of development of languages

Plan

1. *Problems of Periodization.*
2. *The Roman Conquest.*
3. *The Anglo-Saxon Conquest. Formation of Germanic States in Britain.*

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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5. Henry Sweet. *The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.*
6. I. P.Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 4

The main events in the history of development of Roman-German languages in New period

Plan

1. *Noun history*
2. *Adjective history*
3. *Pronoun history*

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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Seminar 5

The importance of capital dialect in the essence of National language

Plan

1. Verb history
2. Strong and weak verbs
3. Grammatical categories of the verbs
4. Present-preterite verbs
5. Anomalous verbs

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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6. I. P.Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 6

The importance of capital dialect in the essence of National language

Plan

1. Syntactical relations between parts of speech
2. Phrases and types of phraseological units
3. Sentence structure: types of simple sentences
4. Compound and complex sentences

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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5. Henry Sweet. *The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.*
6. I. P.Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 7

Preservation of local dialects and their social forms

Plan

1. Development of the vocabulary
2. Three main layers in the development of vocabulary
3. Borrowings
4. Suffixation in the system of vocabulary

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. *Практикум по истории английского языка.* М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. *Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.)* МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
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5. Henry Sweet. *The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.*
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Seminar 8
Appearing professional jargons
Plan

1. Phonetic changes in New period
2. Vowel changes in New period
3. Consonant changes in New period

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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Seminar 9
Appearing professional jargons
Plan

1. Scandinavian invasion
2. Norman conquest
3. Vikings
4. French influence in the system of languages

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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Seminar 10
Spread of written documents of the national language with the relation of printing books
Plan

1. British dialect
2. American dialect
3. Australian dialect

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
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Seminar 11
Main phonetic changes in new period
Plan

1. Social influence
2. Political influence

3. Cultural influence

4. Literary influence

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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Seminar 12

Main phonetic changes in new period.

Plan

1. Types of jargons
2. Professional jargons
3. The role of jargons in the system of languages

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
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5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
6. I. P.Ivanova. A Reader in Early English. L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 13

Grammatical changes of the languages

Plan

1. William Caxton's works
2. Canterbury Tales
3. Written documents of the national language

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.) МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
3. Ф. С. Алексеева . Древнеанглийский язык. М, 1971.
4. Josef Raith. Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen Lesebuch) Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
6. I. P.Ivanova. A Reader in Early English. L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 14

Passing of the system of conjugation of irregular verbs into the regular ones

Plan

1. Stressed and unstressed vowels
2. Qualitative and quantitative changes
3. Lengthening and diphthongization of vowels

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.) МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.

3. Ф. С. Алексеева . Древнеанглийский язык. М, 1971.
4. Josef Raith. Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen lesebuch) Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
6. I. P.Ivanova. A Reader in Early English. L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 15

Passing of the system of conjugation of irregular verbs into the regular ones

Plan

1. Grammatical categories of notional parts of speech
2. Development of the gerund
3. Syntactic functions of notional parts of speech
4. Forms and meanings of notional parts of speech

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.) МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
3. Ф. С. Алексеева . Древнеанглийский язык. М, 1971.
4. Josef Raith. Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen lesebuch) Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
6. I. P.Ivanova. A Reader in Early English. L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminars 16

Development of the passive voice, differences between the passive meanings of the action and state

Plan

1. Seven class of verbs
2. Strong verbs
3. Weak verbs
4. Conjugation of verbs
5. Auxiliary verbs

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.) МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
3. Ф. С. Алексеева . Древнеанглийский язык. М, 1971.
4. Josef Raith. Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen lesebuch) Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
6. I. P.Ivanova. A Reader in Early English. L. 1973. p. 5-29

Seminar 17

Development of the passive voice, differences between the passive meanings of the action and state

Plan

1. Grammatical category of voice of the verb
2. Differences between active and passive voice of the verb
3. Statives: words of the category of state
4. Syntactic functions of the verbs

Literatures for Seminar and Practice:

1. И.П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева, Л.П. Чахоян. Практикум по истории английского языка. М, 1985. стр 4-25.
2. А. И. Смирницкий. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка. (с VII по XVII в.) МБ 1953. стр. 13-36.
3. Ф. С. Алексеева . Древнеанглийский язык. М, 1971.

4. Josef Raith. *Altenglisches Worterbuch (zum altenglischen lesebuch)* Munchen, 1965.
5. Henry Sweet. *The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.*
6. I. P. Ivanova. *A Reader in Early English.* L. 1973. p. 5-29

Ingliz tili tarixi fanidan talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mavzulari

№	Mustaqil ta'lim mavzulari	Berilgan topshiriqlar	Izoh
1	The Old English period	Referat, prezentasiya	
2	The English language in V - XI centuries	Referat, prezentasiya	
3	Old English dialects	Referat, prezentasiya	
4	The Runic alphabet	Referat, prezentasiya	
5	Old English alphabet and pronunciation	Referat, prezentasiya	
6	Phonetic peculiarities of Old English	Referat, prezentasiya	
7	Old English morphology	Referat, prezentasiya	
8	Old English prepositions and conjunctions	Referat, prezentasiya	
9	Old English vocabulary	Referat, prezentasiya	
10	Types of word formation in Old English	Referat, prezentasiya	
11	Middle English period.	Referat, prezentasiya	
12	Political situation in the British Isles	Referat, prezentasiya	
13	Middle English dialects	Referat, prezentasiya	
14	The Scandinavian invasion	Referat, prezentasiya	
15	The Norman conquest	Referat, prezentasiya	
16	Middle English phonetics	Referat, prezentasiya	
17	London dialect and spread of the national language	Referat, prezentasiya	
18	Middle English morphology	Referat, prezentasiya	
19	Middle English syntax	Referat, prezentasiya	
20	The origin of the article	Referat, prezentasiya	
21	Middle English vocabulary	Referat, prezentasiya	
22	Scandinavian influence on the vocabulary	Referat, prezentasiya	
23	French influence on the vocabulary	Referat, prezentasiya	
24	New English period	Referat, prezentasiya	
25	New English phonetics	Referat, prezentasiya	
26	New English morphology	Referat, prezentasiya	
27	New English syntax	Referat, prezentasiya	
28	New English vocabulary	Referat, prezentasiya	

GLOSSARY

absolute monarchy

A system of government headed by a monarch as the only source of power, controlling all functions of the state.

абсолютная монархия

Система правления во главе с монархом как единственный источник власти, контролирующая все функции государства.

mutlaq monarxiya Davlatning barcha funktsiyalarini nazorat qiluvchi yagona hokimiyat manbai bo'lgan monarx boshchiligidagi hukumat tizimi.

abstract

A summary of a textual source.

Аннотация

Краткое содержание текстового источника.

Matn manbaining qisqacha mazmuni.

access rights

Information about who can access the resource or an indication of its security status.

права доступа

Информация о том, кто может получить доступ к ресурсу или указание его статуса безопасности.

foydalanish huquqlari Resursga kimlar kirishi mumkinligi va uning xavfsizlik holati haqida ma'lumot.

accrual method

The method by which items are added to a collection.

метод начисления

Метод, с помощью которого элементы добавляются в коллекцию.

hisoblash usuli Elementlar to'plamga qo'shilgan usul. hisoblash davriyligi

auxiliary sciences of history

A set of specialist scholarly disciplines which help evaluate and use historical sources, and which may be used to support historical research.

вспомогательные науки истории

Набор специализированных научных дисциплин, которые помогают оценить и использовать исторические источники, и которые могут быть использованы для поддержки исторических исследований.

Tarixning yordamchi fanlari Tarixiy manbalarni baholash va ulardan foydalanishga yordam beruvchi va tarixiy tadqiqotlarni qo'llab-quvvatlash uchun ishlatilishi mumkin bo'lgan mutaxassis ilmiy disiplinlar majmui.

Baltica

A separate continental plate of the Early Paleozoic composed of what is now the United Kingdom, Scandinavia, European Russia and Central Europe. It is named for the Baltic Sea.

Baltica

Отдельная континентальная плита раннего палеозоя, в состав которой входят ныне Великобритания, Скандинавия, Европейская Россия и Центральная Европа. Он назван в честь Балтийского моря.

Baltica

Hozirgi vaqtda Buyuk Britaniya, Skandinaviyada, Yevropa Rossiya va Markaziy Evropadan iborat bo'lgan Erta Paleozoyning alohida qit'a plitasi. Boltiq dengizi uchun bu nom berilgan.

barbarian

A Greek word adopted by the Romans to refer to any people who did not adopt the Roman way of life. It is said to have come originally from the sound "bar-bar", which, according to the Greeks, was supposed to be the noise that people made when speaking foreign languages.

варвар

Греческое слово, принятое римлянами, относится к любым людям, которые не приняли римский образ жизни. Говорят, что он изначально произошел от звукового «бара-бара», который, по мнению греков, должен был быть тем шумом, который люди создавали, говоря на иностранных языках.

barbar

Rimliklarga tomonidan qabul qilingan yunoncha so'z, Rim hayot tarzini qabul qilmagan har qanday kishiga murojaat qilish uchun. Dastlab, yunonlar ko'ra, chet el tilida gaplashayotgan odamlarning shov-shuvi bo'lishi kerak bo'lgan tovushli "bar-bar" dan kelgani aytiladi.

Bering Land Bridge

Also called ***Beringia***.

The vast tundra plain that was exposed as a land bridge between the continents of Asia and North America during the Last Glacial Maximum, about 21,000 years ago. It is theorized to have served as a migration route for people, animals, and plants for several thousand years before being once again submerged beneath rising sea levels.

Берингов мост

Также называется Берингия.

Обширная тундровая равнина, которая была открыта как сухопутный мост между континентами Азии и Северной Америки во время последнего ледникового максимума, около 21 000 лет назад. Предполагается, что он служил миграционным маршрутом для людей, животных и растений в течение нескольких тысяч лет, прежде чем снова погрузиться в воду под уровнем моря.

Bering Land Bridge

Bundan tashqari, Beringia deb nomlangan.

Osiyo va Shimoliy Amerikaning qit'alari orasida oxirgi muzlik maksadida, taxminan 21 000 yil muqaddam, quruqlik ko'prigi sifatida namoyon bo'lgan keng tundra tekisligi. Bir necha ming yil avval dengiz sathidan ko'tarilgan dengiz sathidan pastga tushib ketishidan oldin odamlar, hayvonlar va o'simliklar uchun migratsiya yo'nalishi bo'lib xizmat qilgan.

bibliography

A list of works, including books, journals and essays, on a particular subject.

Список используемой литературы

Список работ, в том числе книги, журналы и очерки, по определенной теме.

bibliografiya

Muayyan mavzu bo'yicha kitoblar, jurnallar va insholar, shu jumladan asarlar ro'yxati.

Big History biography

An account of an individual's life, especially one written by someone other than the individual featured in the account.

Большая история

биография

Отчет о жизни человека, особенно тот, который написан кем-то, кроме человека, указанного в этом аккаунте.

Katta tarix

biografiya

Inson hayotining hisobi, xususan, hisob-kitobda aks ettirilgan shaxsdan boshqasi tomonidan yozilgan.

black legend

Blitzkrieg

German for "lightning war". A military strategy used by the German Army at the beginning of World War II to achieve victory through a series of quick offensives, especially in Belgium, the Netherlands and France. The strategy involved a heavy initial bombardment, followed by the rapid mobilisation of armour and motorised infantry to break the weakest parts of the enemy line.

черная легенда

блицкриг

Немец для "молниеносной войны". Военная стратегия, используемая немецкой армией в начале Второй мировой войны для достижения победы посредством серии быстрых наступлений, особенно в Бельгии, Нидерландах и Франции. Стратегия включала тяжелую первоначальную

бомбардировку, за которой следовала быстрая мобилизация брони и моторизованной пехоты для прорыва самых слабых частей вражеской линии.

qora afsona

Blitskrieg

Nemis uchun "chaqmoq urushi". Ikkinchi Jahon Urushi boshida Germaniya Armiyasi tomonidan qo'llaniladigan harbiy strategiya, xususan, Belgiya, Niderlandiya va Frantsiyada bir qator tezkor hujumlarga qarshi g'alaba qozondi. Ushbu strategiya birinchi navbatda bombardimon bo'lib, dushmanning eng zaif qismlarini parchalash uchun zirhli va motorli piyodalarni tezkor safarbar qilishni o'z ichiga oladi.

Bolsheviks

A small, tightly organised, revolutionary Marxist group in early 20th-century Russia which split from the Russian Socialist movement in 1903 and was led by Vladimir Lenin. In November 1917, during the so-called October Revolution, the Bolsheviks ("Majority") took control of a chaotic Russia, becoming the *de facto* rulers after the subsequent civil war.

большевики

Небольшая, жестко организованная, революционная марксистская группа в России начала 20-го века, которая откололась от русского социалистического движения в 1903 году и возглавлялась Владимиром Лениным. В ноябре 1917 года, во время так называемой Октябрьской революции, большевики («большинство») взяли под контроль хаотическую Россию, став фактическими правителями после гражданской войны.

Bolsheviklar

1903-yilda Rossiya sotsialistik harakatlaridan ajralib, XX asrning boshlarida Rossiyada Vladimir Lenin boshchiligida kichik, qattiq tashkil etilgan inqilobiy marksistik guruh. 1917 yilning noyabrida, oktyabr inqilobi deb ataladigan davrda, bolsheviklar ("ko'pchilik") haotik Rossiyani nazorat qilib, keyingi fuqarolik urushidan keyin de-fakto hukmdorlar bo'lishdi.

book review

A critical examination of a text, usually including a summary of the work and opposing views.

рецензия на книгу

Критический анализ текста, обычно включающий краткое изложение работы и противоположные взгляды.

kitobni ko'rib chiqish

Matnni tanqidiy o'rganish, odatda ishning qisqacha mazmunini va qarama-qarshi fikrlarni o'z ichiga oladi.

bourgeoisie

The capitalist class that came to be known as the middle class, between the aristocracy and the working class. A new middle class of merchants and businessmen prospered throughout Europe from the 16th century, and especially in Britain, which Napoleon described as a "nation of shopkeepers". In modern times, the term *bourgeois* is often used derogatorily to describe anything considered humdrum, unimaginative and/or selfishly materialistic.

буржуазия

Класс капиталистов, который стал известен как средний класс, между аристократией и рабочим классом. Новый средний класс торговцев и бизнесменов процветал по всей Европе с 16-го века, и особенно в Великобритании, которую Наполеон назвал «нацией лавочников». В современные времена термин буржуазный часто используется уничижительно, чтобы описать что-то, считающееся смешным, невообразимым и / или эгоистично материалистическим.

burjuvazi

Aristokratlar va ishchilar sinfi o'rtasida o'rta sinf deb nom olgan kapitalistik sinf. Savdogarlar va ishbiarmonlarning yangi o'rta sinfi XVI asrdan boshlab butun Evropada, ayniqsa Napoleon "biznesmenlar xalqi" deb ta'riflangan Buyuk Britaniyada rivojlandi. Zamonaviy davrda, burjua atamasi odatda kamsitilgan, tasavvurga ega bo'lmagan va / yoki xudbinlik qiladigan moddiy narsalarni tasvirlash uchun derogatorily ishlatiladi.

teleology

A mode of historical interpretation that holds that events move towards a definite end state or goal.

телеология

Способ исторической интерпретации, согласно которому события движутся к определенному конечному состоянию или цели.

teleologiya Ushbu voqealarni aniq yakunlovchi davlat yoki maqsadga yo'naltirgan tarixiy talqinning shakli.

Tethys Ocean

A small ocean that existed from the Triassic to the Jurassic. As Pangaea was split into Gondwana and Laurasia in the Jurassic, an arm developed westward called the Tethys Seaway or Tethys Sea.

Тетис Океан

Небольшой океан, существовавший от триаса до юры. Поскольку Пангея была разделена на Гондвану и Лавразию в юрском периоде, рука, развитая на запад, называлась морским путем Тетис или морем Тетис.

Tetis okeani Triasdan Yurisga qadar bo'lgan kichik okean. Pangeya Gondvana va Laurasia'ya ajralib, Yura bo'lib, bir g'arbiy tomoni Tetis Seaway yoki Tethys dengiz deb atalgan.

time - время - vaqt

timeline - график - vaqt jadvali

toponymy

The study of placenames.

топонимика

Изучение топонимов.

toponimi Placenamlarni o'rganish.

transhistoricity

The quality of a concept or entity that persists throughout human history and is not governed or defined by the frame of reference of a particular time and place.

transhistoricity

Качество концепции или сущности, которая сохраняется на протяжении всей истории человечества и не определяется или не определяется системой отсчета определенного времени и места.

transtistoricity Insoniyat tarixi davomida davom etadigan va ma'lum bir vaqt va joyning yo'nalishi bo'yicha boshqarilmaydigan yoki aniqlanmagan konsepsiya yoki shaxsning sifati.

typology

In archaeology, the classification of artifacts, buildings and field monuments according to their physical characteristics; an important tool for managing large quantities of archaeological data.

типология

В археологии проводится классификация артефактов, зданий и полевых памятников по их физическим характеристикам; важный инструмент для управления большим количеством археологических данных.

tipologiya Arxeologiyada eksponatlarni, binolarni va maydonlarni yodgorliklarni ularning jismoniy xususiyatlariga ko'ra tasniflash; katta hajmdagi arxeologik ma'lumotlarni boshqarish uchun muhim vosita.

universal history - всемирная история - universal tarix

unwitting testimony

The unintentional evidence provided by historical sources.

невольные показания

Непреднамеренные доказательства, предоставленные историческими источниками.

tushunarsiz guvohlik Tarixiy manbalar tomonidan taqdim etilmaydigan tasodifiy dalillar.

urban history - городская история - shahar tarixi

warfare - военное дело - urush.

Whig history

A mode of historical interpretation which presents the past as an inevitable progression towards ever greater liberty and enlightenment; or, more broadly, any teleological or goal-directed narrative that assumes the inevitability of progress.

История вигов

Способ исторического истолкования, который представляет прошлое как неизбежное продвижение к все большей свободе и просветлению; или, в более широком смысле, любое телеологическое или целенаправленное повествование, предполагающее неизбежность прогресса.

Whig tarixi O'tmishni yanada keng erkinlik va ma'rifatga qarshi muqarrar taraqqiyot sifatida taqdim etadigan tarixiy talqin qilish tartibi; yoki umuman keng miqyosda taraqqiyotning muqarrarligini nazarda tutadigan teleologik yoki maqsadga yo'naltirilgan hikoya.


world history - Всемирная история - Dunyo tarixi

yuga - юги - yuga

4. Ноқар

4.1. Ған дастури

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ



Рўйхатга олинди:

№ БД – 5111400 – 4,01

2019 йил “20” 07

ЎРГАНИЛАЁТГАН ТИЛ НАЗАРИЙ АСПЕКТЛАРИ

ҒАН ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси:	100000	– Гуманитар
Таълим соҳалари:	110000	– Педагогика
	120000	– Гуманитар ғанлар
Таълим йўналишлари:	5111400	– Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (тиллар бўйича)
	5120100	– Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (роман-герман филологияси)
	5120200	– Таржима назарияси ва амалиёти (тиллар бўйича)

Тошкент – 2019

Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлигининг 2019 йил “20” июлдаги 654 -сонли буйруғининг 2-илоvasи билан фан дастури рўйхати тасдиқланган.

Фан дастури Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-хунар таълими йўналишлари бўйича Ўқув-услубий бирлашмалар фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи Кенгашнинг 2019 йил “5” июлдаги 3-сонли баённомаси билан маъқулланган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетида ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчилар:

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| Қ. Джаббаров | – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили аспектилари назарияси №1” кафедраси мудири. |
| С. Абдуллаева | – ЎзДЖТУ, “Немис тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси доценти, ф.ф.н. |
| З. Давронова | – ЎзДЖТУ, “Француз тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири |
| Т. Олтиев | - ЎзДЖТУ, “Испан тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири |
| У. Йўлдошев | -ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарияси ва амалиёти” кафедраси мудири |

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Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети Кенгашида кўриб чиқилган ва тасвир қилинган (2019 йил “22” майдаги “5”-сонли баённома).

I. Ўқув фанининг долзарблиги ва олий касбий таълимдаги ўрни

Ушбу фан тилининг фонетик жиҳатлари, грамматик структураси, тилининг луғат таркиби, тил бирликларининг семантик хусусиятлари, фразеологик бирикмалари, сўз ясаш усуллари, тил луғат таркибининг этимологияси, луғатшунослик, тил бирликларининг шаклланиши ва ривожланишининг умумий қонуниятлари, тил вариантлари, шеваларнинг функционал жиҳатлари, тиллар тарихи ҳамда тил тараққиётининг қонуниятлари каби масалаларни қамраб олади. Талабаларни назарий фонетика, назарий грамматика, лексикология, ўрганилаётган тил тарихи, стилистика каби аспектларнинг илмий асослари ва филологик фанлар ўртасидаги ўрни тўғрисидаги билимлар билан қуроллантиради.

“Ўрганилаётган тил назарий аспекти” фани ихтисослик фанлар блокига киритилган курс ҳисобланиб, босқичма босқич 2,3,4-курсларда ўқитилиши мақсадга мувофиқ. Ушбу фан хорижий тиллар бўйича мутахассислар тайёрлашга ихтисослашган таълим йўналишлари талабалари учун муҳим аҳамиятга эга бўлиб, бошқа умумкасбий ва ихтисослик фанларининг назарий ва услубий асоси бўлиб хизмат қилади.

II. Ўқув фанининг мақсади ва вазифаси

Фанни ўқитишдан мақсад – талабаларни тил тўғрисидаги асосий назарий тушунчалар, чет тилини ўрганишнинг услуб ва ёндашувлари, тилининг илмий билимлар тизимида тутган ўрни ва аҳамияти билан таништириш, уларга тил сатҳларининг нуткий мулоқот жараёнида кузатиладиган асосий қонуниятларини ўргатишдан иборат.

Ушбу мақсадга эришиш учун фан талабаларда тилининг ички тузилмаси, тил қатламлари ва бирликларини илмий асосда тадқиқ этиш қўниқмаларини шакллантириш ҳамда уларнинг бир-бири билан ўзаро муносабатлари тўғрисида илмий-назарий тушунчаларга эга бўлишларини таъминлаш вазифаларини бажаради.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, қўниқма ва малакаларига қуйидаги талаблар қўйилади. *Талаба:*

- ўрганилаётган хорижий тил фонетик структураси, грамматик қурилиши ва луғат таркибининг асосий тушунчалари ва категориялари тўғрисида *масаввурга эга бўлиши*;

- тилшунослик назариясининг асосларини, лингвистик қонунлар ва тушунчалар категорияларини, мулоқот жараёнларининг функционал дискурс хусусиятларини *билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши*;

- лисоний мулоқот жараёнларини таҳлил қилиш усулларини қўллаш, нуткий мулоқот муаммолари бўйича тўғри қарор қабул қилиш қўниқмаларига *эга бўлиши керак*.

III. Асосий назарий қисм (маъруза машғулотлари) **Лексикология**

1-мавзу. Лексикология фанига кىриш

Фаннинг мазмуни. Лексикология терминининг пайдо бўлиши ва ривожланиши. Лексикологиянинг бошқа фанлар билан боғлиқлиги. Фаннинг предмети ва объекти, фаннинг методи ва ишлатиш йўллари. Лексикология фанининг бўлимлари ва унинг бошқа қисмлари билан боғлиқлиги.

2-мавзу. Семаснология

Сўз тил луғат таркибининг асосий бирлиги сифатида. Сўзнинг морфема, сўз пакли, сўз бирикмасидан фарqli хусусиятлари. Мотивация тушунчаси. Идиоматика ва мотивация турлари: фонетик, морфологик, семантик. Маъно ва сўз маъносининг тузилиши. Ўрганилётган тил, она тили ва бошқа тиллардаги сўзларнинг семантик тузилиши. Сўз маъносининг тузилишини ўрганишда парадигматика ва синтагматиканинг роли. Контекст ва унинг турлари. Содда, туб, ясама ва қўшма сўзларнинг ўзига хос маънолари. Сўз маъноси ва унинг тузилиши. Фразеологик birlikлар маъноларининг хусусиятлари, маъно турлари таснифи. Сўзнинг лексик-семантик вариантлари. Маъно тузилишида синхроник ва диахроник қарашлар ва унинг ривожланиш қонуниятлари. Луғат birlikтини семантик гуруҳларга ажратиш. Семантик майдон. Моносемия, полисемия, гиперонимия ва гипонимия муаммолари. Синоним, антоним ва омонимлар масалалари, ва уларнинг манбалари, таснифи, тилни бойитиши ва тил ривожланишидаги аҳамияти.

3-мавзу. Сўзнинг морфологик тузилиши

Бир ва кўп морфемали сўзлар. Морфеманинг лексик birlik эканлиги. Морфемалар турлари ва синфлари. Сўз негизи ва унинг турлари. Ҳозирги замон инглиз тилида сўз тузилишининг турлари. Сўз тузилишига диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфемалар ясаш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар. Сўз тузилишини морфемик таҳлил қилиш асослари ва уларнинг сўз ясаш таҳлилидан фарқи.

4-мавзу. Сўз ясаш

Сўз ясаш усуллари. Сўзнинг асосий таркибий қисмлари. Сўз негизи. Ўзакнинг тузилиши ва семантикаси. Кенг ва кам тарқалган усуллар билан сўз ясаш. Лексик номлашда сўз ясашнинг роли ва ўрни. Сўз ясаш қаторлари занжари. Олд қўшимчалар ва уларнинг турлари. Ҳар хил мезонларга асосланиб олд қўшимчаларни тасниф этиш. Ўзак олд қўшимчаларнинг семантикаси. Ярим олд қўшимчалар ёрдамида сўз ясаш. Конверсия, унинг келиб чиқиши ва асослари. Сўз ясатиш йўлини аниқлашда конверсиядаги семантик алоқаларнинг асосий мезон эканлиги. Конверсиянинг кенг тарқалганлигини белгиловчи асосий омиллар.

Конверсияни таржима қилиш муаммолари. Қўшма сўзларнинг сўз ясашнинг кенг тарқалган йўлларида бири эканлиги. Аъъанавий ва замонавий тилшуносликда қўшма сўзларни тасниф қилиш асослари. Қўшма сўз ясашнинг ҳар хил турлари, уларнинг кенг тарқалганлиги. Қўшма сўзларни она тилга таржима қилиш йўллари. Қисқартма сўзлар (аббревиация). Қисқартма сўзларнинг турлари. Клиппинглар. Қисқартма сўзларни таржима қилишдаги қийинчиликлар. Сўз ясашнинг бошқа усуллари: маъно кенгайтиши, товуш ва урғу кўчиши, товушга тақлид қилиш ва редупликация, грамматик шаклларнинг лексикализациялашуви ва сўз ясашда ҳар хил турларнинг бирикуви.

5-мавзу. Фразеология

Фразеологиянинг мақсад ва вазифалари. Турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси, уларни фарқловчи белгилар. Лексик бирикши. Турғун бирикмалар ва уларнинг ҳар хил мезонларга асосан таснифи. Фразеологик бирликларнинг юзага келиш йўллари. Сўз ва сўз бирикмасининг ўхшашлиги ва фарқи. Фразеологик бирликлар ва уларни таржима қилиш муаммолари.

6-мавзу. Этимология

Тил луғат таркибининг этимологик жиҳатдан таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тилда кейин пайдо бўлган ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар. Хорижий тиллардан кириб келган сўзларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляцияси, луғат таркиби ва сўз ясаш тизимига таъсири. Байналмингал сўзлар. Этимологик луғатлар.

7-мавзу. Лексикография

Лексикографиянинг фан сифатида ривожланиши. Луғатларнинг асосий турлари: энциклопедик, лингвистик, изохли ва таржима луғатлари. Луғат турлари муаммоси ва уларни яратиш услублари. Луғатлар учун сўз танлаш, луғат мақолаларининг тузилиши ва бошқалар. Инглиз, немис, француз ва испан тилларидаги луғатларнинг асосий турлари: изохли ва таржима луғатлари, синонимлар луғати, фразеологик бирликлар луғати, этимологик, идеографик, махсус луғатлар, неологизмлар луғатлари ва бошқалар.

Уқув луғатларининг тузилиши (сўзларнинг бирикши йўллари луғати, кўп қўлланиладиган сўзлар луғати). Турли луғатларда сўз маъноларини очиб бериш йўллари. Таржима жараёнида луғат билан ишлаш, Сўзнинг изохли таҳлилини ўрганиш, бошқа луғатлардаги изохлари билан қиёслаш. Тил луғат таркибининг ўзгариши социолингвистик ҳодиса эканлиги. Луғат таркибининг сифат ва сон жиҳатдан ўзгариши. Луғат таркибининг лексик ва стилистик таснифи. Сўзларни ишлатилиши жиҳатида тасниф этиш. Умумистеъмол сўзлари ва махсус лексика. Архаизмлар, историзмлар, неологизмлар, уларнинг тарихий боғлиқлиги ва ўзаро таъсири. Асосий ва

ёрдамчи сўз туркумларининг сон жиҳатидан ўзаро фарқи. Номлашнинг фаоллиги ва лугат таркибининг бойлиги йўллари. Сўзнинг маъно тараққиёти ривожини, бошқа тиллардан кирган сўзлар қатламини.

Назарий грамматика

1-мавзу. Назарий грамматика фанига кириш

Морфология ва синтаксис. Грамматиканинг таърифи. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно. Тил ва вутқ. Актуализация. Грамматик қурилишнинг бирликлари. Тилни грамматик жиҳатдан тасвирлашнинг турлари. Грамматикадаги метод ва назарий йўналишлар. Грамматикадаги асимметрия ҳолисаси. Функционал ёндашув. Грамматик категориялар. Грамматик категориянинг мазмун ва шакли. Грамматик категориянинг ифода ва шакли.

2-мавзу. Морфология

Ўрганилаётган тилнинг грамматик воситалари: сўз тартиби, ёрдамчи сўзлар, грамматик қўшимчалар, урғу ва интонация, ўзак таркибидаги товушлар ўзгариши. Морфема, морф, алломорф ва уларнинг структуравий турлари. Морфеманинг турлари. Аналитик шакл тушунчаси. Тил грамматик тизимининг хусусиятлари. Сўз туркуми. Асосий сўз туркумлари. Мустақил ва ёрдамчи сўзлар. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз туркумларининг умумий хусусиятлари. Сўз туркумларининг шакл ва маънолари. Транспозиция ҳолисаси.

3-мавзу. От сўз туркуми

Хорижий тилда отнинг дистрибутив белгилари. Уларнинг бошқа сўз туркумлари ёрдамида қўпилиши. Отнинг сўз туркуми сифатида морфологик ва семантик харақтеристикаси. Отларнинг асосий семантик гуруҳлари. Сон категорияси. Отларда қўпик категориясининг ишлатилиши. Жамловчи ва паритив отлар. Детерминативлар. Детерминативларнинг сўз туркуми сифатидаги умумий хоссалари. Детерминативларнинг семантикаси. Келишк категорияси, келишк категорияси ҳақида ҳар хил назариялар. Эгалик келишгининг шакли ва унинг қўлланиш хусусиятлари. Аниқлик-ноаниқлик категориясини ифодаловчи асосий восита. Артиклнинг умумназарий муаммолари, артиклнинг функциялари, Род категорияси

4-мавзу. Сифат ва равиш

Сифат сўз туркуми сифатида. Унинг асосий хусусиятлари. Сифатнинг семантик таснифи. Қиёслаш категориясига оид оломшларнинг семантикаси, синтактик хоссалари, грамматик категориялари ва шакллари. Равишнинг семантик - грамматик гуруҳлари. Адвербиализация.

5-мавзу. Феъл

Феъл - сўз туркуми сифатида. Унинг лексик, морфологик ва синтактик хусусиятлари, умумий ва фарқ қилувчи томонлари. Феълнинг морфологик вазифасига қўра таснифи: мустақил феъллар, ўтимли ва ўтимсиз феъллар,

маъно жиҳатидан тугалланган ва тугалланмаган феъллар. Феълнинг грамматик категориялари: аспект (тарз) категорияси, нисбат категорияси. Мажбул нисбатнинг кенг тарқалиш сабаблари. Мажбул конструкцияларнинг қўлланиш хусусиятлари. Феъл майллари. Улар тўғрисидаги замонавий концепциялар. Феълнинг семантик - грамматик гуруҳлари. Феъл тизимидаги грамматик маъноларни ифода қилиш воситалари. Феълнинг шахсий формалари. Инфинитив, герундий ва сифатдош.

6-мавзу. Сон, Олмош

Сон-сўз туркуми сифатида. Соннинг турлари. Соннинг гапдаги вазибалари. Олмош сўз туркуми сифатида. Олмошнинг келишик категорияси. Олмошнинг семантик ва структуравий турлари.

7-мавзу. Ёрдамчи сўз туркумлари

Артикль, қўмакчи, боғловчи, юклама ва модал сўзлар.

8-мавзу. Синтаксис

Гап тушунчасини аниқлаш хақидаги асосий фикрлар. Гапни аниқлашда классик ёндашув. Гап таснифи. Гапнинг максалга кўра турлари: бир бош бўлакли ва икки бош бўлакли гаплар. Гапда эллиipsis тушунчаси. Бир бош бўлакли ва икки бош бўлакли гапларнинг фарқи. Гап – коммуникация бирлиги сифатида, гапнинг вазифаси, тузилиши. Асосий ва иккинчи даражали бўлақлар. Эга. Эганинг ифода воситалари. Кесим - гапнинг асосий белгиси сифатида. Модаллик тушунчаси. Кесимнинг асосий хусусияти. Модаллик категориясининг ифода усуллари. Сўз бирикмаси. Бирикма ҳосил бўлиш омиллари. Сўз бирикмасининг структуравий - функционал типологияси. Сўз бирикмасининг компонентлари ўртасидаги семантик муносабатлар. Гап бўлақларининг структуравий типлари. Гап бўлақлари ва сўз туркумлари ўртасидаги муносабат. Предикативлик муносабатларининг ўзига хос шаклларига эга бўлган гаплар. Қисқартирилган синтактик структурага эга бўлган гаплар. Тўлиқсиз гаплар. Агов гаплар. Полипредикативлик ва мураккаблашган гаплар. Қўшма гаплар. Боғланган қўшма гаплар. Эргашган қўшма гаплар.

9-мавзу. Тил грамматик структурасини таҳлил қилишнинг замонавий методлари

Ўрганилаётган тил грамматик тузилишининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари. Грамматик маънони ифода этувчи воситалар. Грамматик категориялар. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно тушунчалари. Сўзнинг синтетик ва аналитик шакллари. Сўз туркумлари ва гап бўлақлари орасидаги муносабат. Сўзнинг морфологик структураси. Морфема ва унинг турлари. Комбинаторика тушунчаси. Морфология ва Синтаксис. Синтактик структуралар. Синтаксисда моделлаш тушунчаси. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари. Грамматиканинг турлари: анъанавий грамматика, мантикий

грамматика, структуравий грамматика, бевосита таъкил этувчиларга ажратиш грамматикаси, трансформацион грамматика, генератив грамматика, келишлик грамматикаси, когнитив грамматика. Ўрганилаётган тилда тил бирликлари орасида кузатиладиган синтактик алоқалар турлари; Координация, Субординация, Предикация, Бирламчи ва ихсилламчи предикация тушунчалари. Мураккаб таркибли структуралар. Полипредикатив курилмаларнинг структуравий-функционал таъкили.

Назарий фонетика

1-мавзу. Ўрганилаётган тилда сегмент фонемалар

Сегмент фонемаларнинг артикуляцион томони: товушлар ҳосил бўлишнинг тўрт механизми (куч, тебраниш, резонаторлик ва тўсиқли енгил), уларга алоқадор бўлган нутқ органлари. Нутқ органларининг тузилиши, фаолияти ва вазибалари. Унли товушларни тасниф қилишда ўзбек, рус, Европа ва Америка олимларининг фикрлари. Унлиларнинг талаффуз турғунлигига кўра (монофтонг, дифтонг, дифтонгоид), тилининг горизонтал ва вертикал ҳаракатига кўра, лабларнинг ҳолатига кўра, тариккий чўзиқлигига кўра, нутқ органларининг таранглашувига кўра таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тил унлиларини рус ва ўзбек тили унлилари билан қиёслаш. Ундош товушларни тасниф қилишда рус, ўзбек, инглиз, немис, француз, испан ва америка олимларининг фикрлари. Ундош товушларни товуш пайчаларининг иштирокига кўра ва талаффуз кучига кўра; фаол ва пассив нутқ органларига кўра; товуш ҳосил бўлишда тўсиқнинг турига кўра ва шовқиннинг ҳаракатига кўра; кичик тилининг фаолиятига кўра таснифи. Ўрганилаётган тилда аффрикат товушларининг сони ҳақида фикрлар. Ўрганилаётган тилдаги ундошларни рус ва ўзбек тили ундошлари билан қиёслаш. Унли ва ундош товушларнинг ҳосил бўлишда асосий фарқлар. Турли тилларда мавжуд бир хил товушларнинг сифат жиҳатидан фарқлиниши. Артикуляцион база тушунчаси. Сегмент фонемалар ҳосил бўлишнинг акустик томони: нутқ товушларининг, физик хусусиятлари (товуш тебраниши, чўзиқлиги, овоз тони), уларнинг артикуляцион шакли. Сегмент фонемаларнинг фонологик томони: фонемага таъриф бериш муаммоси.

2-мавзу. Фонема назарияси

Фонеманинг уч хусусияти жиҳатидан иборатлиги: унинг материал (талаффуз) томони, абстрактлиги, умумийлиги, функционал, яъни маъно фарқлай олиш хусусияти. Фонема ва унинг вариантлари (аллофонлар). Сегмент фонемаларнинг конститутив ва дистинктив вазибалари. Урғусиз унлилар ва уларнинг таснифи. Транскрипция ва унинг турлари. Нутқ товушларининг ўзгариши ва уларнинг турлари. Бу ҳақда Москва ва Санкт Петербург олимларининг қарашлари. Ассимиляция, аккомодация ва элизия каби товуш ўзгариши хусусиятлари.

3-мавзу. Тилларда бўғин қурилиши

Бўғин фонетиканинг талаффуз бирлиги сифатида. Бўғиннинг нутқдаги вазифалари. Бўғин ҳосил қилувчи товушлар. Бўғиннинг таркибий қисмлари ва турлари. Бўғин бошида ва охирида унли ва ундoshiларнинг бирика олиши. Ўрганилаётган хорижий тилда бўғин айлантириш қоидалари. Бўғин ҳақида мавжуд назариялар. Бўғиннинг вазифалари.

4-мавзу. Сўз урғуси

Сўз урғуси тушунчаси, уларнинг турлари (динамик, мусикий, сифат ва миқдор урғулари). Сўз урғусининг хусусиятлари. Урғунинг ўрни ва даражаси. Урғу ўрнини белгиловчи омиллар (репессив, ритмик, грамматик ва семантик), уларнинг ўзаро муносабати. Сўз урғусининг вазифалари.

5-мавзу. Интонация

Интонация таърифи. Тор ва кент таъриф. Интонациянинг таъкилий қисмлари ва уларнинг вазифалари. Интонация ва просодия. Интонациянинг мелодик компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Текст ҳосил қилишда мелодик компонентнинг роли. Мелодик компонентнинг турлари. Интонациянинг гап урғуси компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Гап урғусининг турлари. Гап урғуси ва сўз урғуси муносабати. Гап урғусининг матн тузишда ритмик ва интонацион гуруҳлар ҳосил қилишдаги роли. Гап урғусининг мелодик компонент билан ўзаро муносабати ва гапнинг коммуникатив марказини ҳосил қилиш қobiliяти. Гап урғусининг вазифалари. Интонацияни ёзма ифодалаш турлари (Л.Армстронг ва И.Уорд системаси ва Р.Кингдон методи). Интонациянинг рақамли ва поғонали ифодаланиши. Интонацияда нутқ тезлиги (темп), овоз бўёғи (тебр), пауза (тўхтам) ва ритм (урғули ва урғусиз бўғинлар кетма-кетлиги) каби birlikларнинг вазифалари. Интонациянинг фонологик вазифаси. Интонама тушунчаси. Интонациянинг матн ҳосил қилиш вазифаси.

6-мавзу. Нутқнинг фоностилистик хусусиятлари

Фоностилистиканинг асосий ўрганиш объектлари. Талаффуз нормаси ва унинг стилистик фаркланиши масаласи. Фонетик услубларни ифодалашда экстралингвистик ва паралингвистик воситалар. Товуш ва интонация стилистикаси. Интонацион услуб турлари. Фонетик синонимия масаласи. Товушлар символизми тушунчаси.

Стилистика

1-мавзу. “Стилистика” фаннинг мазмуни, предмети ва методи

Стилистика курсининг долзарблиги ва вазифалари. Стилистика замонавий тилшунослик йўналишлари низоҳида. Стилистиканинг бошқа фанлар билан боғлиқлиги: стилистика ва коммуникатив лингвистика, стилистика ва прагматик лингвистика, стилистика ва лингвокультурология.

Стилистика турлари: киёсий стилистика, амалий стилистика, функционал стилистика, индивидуал услуб стилистикаси. Стилистик таҳлил методлари.

2-мавзу. Услубий лексика таркиби

Услубий лексика таркиби: Адабий сўзлар, нейтрал сўзлар, ва оғзаки сўзлар. Адабий сўзларнинг стилистик жиҳатлари ва турлари: атама, арканизм, неологизм, поэтик сўзлар тушунчалари ва уларнинг матндаги стилистик вазифалари. Оғзаки сўзларнинг стилистик хусусиятлари ва турлари: сленг, вульгаризм, эвфемизм, шева ва жаргон тушунчалари ва уларнинг матндаги стилистик вазифалари. Тилда меъёр тушунчаси. Шахсий ёндашув ва меъёр. Умумий, адабий, оғзаки ва адабий услублар хусусиятлари. Регистр тушунчаси.

3-мавзу. Функционал услуб тушунчаси

Функционал услуб ва унинг турлари. Бадий услуб хусусиятлари: шеърӣ, драма ва наср услубларининг асосий тил хусусиятлари. Илмий услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Публицистик услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Ахборот воситалари услуб хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Ахборот воситалари матнда жанр турлари ва хусусиятлари. Расмий услуб вазифалари, расмий услуб турлари ва уларнинг лисоний хусусиятлари.

4-мавзу. Лексик стилистик воситалар

Ифода ва стилистик восита тушунчаси. Стилистик вазифа тушунчаси ва турлари. Лексик мазно турлари. Стилистик воситаларнинг тил сатҳлараро турланиши: метафора, метонимия, ирония, эпитет, муболаға, оксиморон, антономасия, зевгма, сўз ўйини тушунчаси, лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

5-мавзу. Лексик-синтактик стилистик воситалар

Ўхшатиш, перефраз, литота, градация, антитеза, аллюзия, ўзлаштирма гап тушунчалари, уларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

6-мавзу. Синтактик стилистик воситалар

Синтактик стилистик воситаларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари. Гап қурилишидаги ўзгаришларга асосланган стилистик воситалар: бир бош бўлакчи гап, инверсия, параллел конструкция, хиазм, такрор, санащ, полисиндетон, асиндетон ва риторик сўроқ гап. Оғзаки нутқда гап таркиби ўзгаришларига асосланган стилистик воситалар: эллиipsis, туталланмаган гап, ажратилган конструкция.

7-мавзу. Фонетик стилистик воситалар

Юфония, аллитерация, ономотопия тушунчалари ва уларнинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.

8-мавзу. Матн таҳлиlining вазифаси.

Адабий матн тушунчаси. Матн мазмуни, образ структураси: муаллиф образи, табиат образи, асар қаҳрамони образи, бадий деталь тушунчаси ва унинг турлари. Матн бадий композицияси. Бадий деталь турлари ва вазифалари. Матн лингвистикаси асосий тушунчалари, Матн категорияси турлари: информативлик категорияси, модаллик категорияси, матн боғлиқлиги ва жамитлиги категорияси, матн сегментацияси, ўрин пайт категорияси, интертекстуаллик категорияси. Бадий асар номлари, турлари ва унинг информативлиги. Бадий асар номининг концептуал ахборотни очиб беришдаги ўрни. Матн таҳлили методлари. Матннинг концептуал аҳамияти. Матннинг миллий – маданий хусусиятлари. Матнни стилистик, прагматик, лингвокультурологик жиҳатдан таҳлил этиш.

Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи

1-мавзу. Роман - герман тиллари ҳақида умумий маълумот

Роман ва герман тилларининг хинд-европа тиллар оиласида тутган ўрни. Ҳозирги замон роман ва герман тиллари, уларнинг тарқалиши ва таснифи. Роман ва Герман қабилалари ҳақидаги маълумотлар: (Питезас, Юлий Цезар, Тацит) роман ва герман қабилаларининг таснифи ва “халқларнинг буёқ кўчиши” даврида уларнинг жойлашиши. Роман - герман ва роман тилларининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари: ундошларнинг биринчи кўчиши, Гримм қонуни, Вернер қонуни, унлиларнинг ўзгариши, отларнинг турланиш тизими, феълларнинг миқдор ўзгариши ва суффиксли феълларга ажралаш тизими, қадимги алифбо, роман ва герман тилларининг энг муҳим ёзма ёдгорликлари ва уларнинг таснифи.

2-мавзу . Тиллар тарихини даврлаштириш муаммоси

Европа қитъасида Кельт қабилалари. Рим кўпинларининг Британия ороллариини босиб олиши, Римликлар қурган тарихий обидалар. Минтақада ғарбий герман қабилалари ва уларнинг Рим билан алоқаси. Англо-саксон, фриз ва ют қабилаларининг Британия ороллариини истило қилиши ва англо – саксон давлатларининг юзага келиши. Лотин тили ва унинг роман тилларининг шаклланишидаги ўрни ва аҳамияти. Қадимги алфавитлар ва ёзма ёдгорликлар Немис тилининг пайдо бўлиш тарихи. Роман-герман тиллари товуш тизимининг тарихий қонуниятлари; палаталлашув. Сонор ундош бирикмалари олдида унлиларнинг тўзилиши, кейинги ундошнинг тушиб қолиши натижасида унлиларнинг тўзилиши. Ундошларнинг биринчи ва иккинчи кўчиши.

3-мавзу. Морфология

Роман-герман тиллари морфологияси. Отнинг грамматик категориялари: род, сон, келиш. Негиз асосида отларнинг қадимги таснифи. Отларда кўшлик шакллариининг ҳосил бўлиши ва уларнинг турлари.

Сўзнинг морфологик структураси. Ички флексия ёрдамида ўзакдаги унларнинг ўзгариши. Ташқи флексия. Флексиясиз товуш алмашиши.

4-мавзу. Қадимги герман ва роман тилларида сифат, олмош ва сон

Сифатнинг икки хил турланиши: кучли ва кучсиз турланиш, турланишларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Кипилик олмошлари, олмошларда грамматик категориялар: шахс, сон (иккилик сонининг мавжудлиги), Кўрсатиш олмошларининг пайдо бўлиши. Санок сонлар. Тартиб сонлар.

5-мавзу. Қадимги роман-герман даврида феъл.

Кучли ва кучсиз феъллар. Претерит – презент феъллар ва уларнинг морфологик хусусиятлари. Супплетив феъллар. Феълларнинг асосий грамматик категориялари: шахс, сон, замон, майл. Феълнинг аналитик шакли масаласи. Нисбат категорияси.

6-мавзу. Қадимги роман ва герман тилларида синтаксис

Синтаксис. Гап турлари. Сўроқ гапларда сўз тартиби. Гапда бош бўлақларнинг ифода этилиши. Содда гапда синтактик алоқаларнинг ифодаланиши. Келишикларнинг вазифалари.

7-мавзу. Қадимги роман- герман тиллари луғат бойлиги

Роман-герман тиллари луғат таркиби ва уларнинг тараққиёти. Луғат таркибининг хусусиятлари. Умум хинд – европа ва умум роман ва герман сўзлари, луғат таркибининг бойиб бориши ва унинг турли йўллари. Аффикслар ёрдамида сўзлар ясаш. Сўз ясалаш жараёнининг маҳсулдор ва кам маҳсуллик хусусиятларини аёс эттирувчи аффикслар. Қўшма сўзлар. қўшма сўзларни ҳосил қилиш йўллари. Товуш алмашиши (умлаут). Эски сўзларнинг янги маънога эга бўлиши. Улаштирма сўзларнинг ишлатилиши.

8-мавзу. Ўрганцлаётган тил тарихининг ўрта даври

Ўрта даврнинг асосий тарихий воқеалари. Унлилар тизимининг ўзгариши. Урғусиз унлиларнинг ҳосил бўлиши ва уларнинг кейинчалик тушиб қолиши. Ўрта даврда унлиларнинг чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларнинг чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларининг ўрта даврда чўзилиши ва қисқариши. Дифтонгларининг ўрта даврда монофтонглашуви. Янги дифтонгларнинг ҳосил бўлиши. Ундошлар тизимининг ўзгариши. Ўрта даврда графикасидаги ўзгаришлар. Морфология. 12-15 асрларда морфологияда содир бўлган ўзгаришлар. Отларнинг турланишида турланишида келишикларнинг соддалашиб бориши ва уларнинг предлоги бирикмалар билан алмаштирилиши. Сифат даражалари. Қиёсий даражаларда аналитик шаклнинг юзага келиши. Олмошларнинг турланишида икки келишикнинг тизимга ўтиши. Кўрсатиш олмошларида икки турнинг ҳосил бўлиши. Янги олмошларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Аниқ ва нозик артикъларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Кучли феъллар тизимидаги ўзгаришлар. Феъл бўйича ҳозирги

замон сифатдош шакллариинг ўзига хос хусусияти. Феълнинг аниқ, мажхул ва ўтган замон шакллариинг юзага келиши.

Равишдош ва инфинитивнинг пайдо бўлиши. Равишларнинг суффикслар ёрдамида ясалиши. Суффиксларнинг соддалашуви.

9-мавзу. Роман- герман тилларида синтаксис

Гапнинг бош бўлакларидаги катъий тартибнинг аста – секин қарор топиши. Қўшмача гапларнинг ривожланиши. Ўрта давр луғат таркибидинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари. Иятимоний тузимнинг ўзгариши, ҳунарманчилик, савдо-сотик ва кичик хўжалиги тараккиёти муносабати билан луғат таркибидинг бойиб бориш йўллари. Эскирган сўзларнинг янги маънода ишлатилиши, аффикслар ёрдамида янги сўзларнинг ишлатилиши. Икки тил, яъни скандинав ва француз тиллари ҳисобига инглиз ва немис тили луғати таркибидинг бойиб бориши.

10-мавзу.Тиллар тараккиётининг янги даври

Роман–герман тиллари тараккиёти тарихининг янги давридаги асосий тарихий воқеалари. Миллий тилнинг вужудга келишида пойтахт шевасининг аҳамияти. Маҳаллий шеваларнинг сақланиб қолиши ва уларнинг иятимоний кўринишлари. Касб – ҳунар жаргонларининг пайдо бўлиши. Китоб напир қилиниши муносабати билан миллий тил ёзма шаклининг кенг тарқалиб бориши. Янги даврда содир бўлган асосий фонетик ўзгаришлар. “Унлиларнинг бузук кўчиши”. Урғусиз бўғиндаги унлиларнинг тушиб қолиши. Янги унли товушларнинг пайдо бўлиши. Унлилар ва ундошлар тизимида содир бўлган бошқа ўзгаришлар. Тиллар грамматик тизимида содир бўлган ўзгаришлар. Феълларнинг нотўғри тусланиши тизимидан тўғри феъллар гуруҳига ўтиши. Мажхул нисбатнинг ривожланиши, иш – ҳаракат ва ҳолат пассиви маъноларнинг фаркланиши.

IV. Семинар машғулотлари бўйича кўрсатма ва тавсиялар

Семинар машғулотлари учун қуйидаги мавзулар тавсия этилади:

1. Лексикологиянинг мақсади ва вазифалари.
2. Семаснология: Сўзларнинг фонетик ва семантик аспекти. Контекст турлари, маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик-семантик вариантлари, семантик майдон. Моносемия, полисемия, гипер-гипонимия муаммолари. Синоним, антоним ва омонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.
3. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
4. Сўз ясаш: лексик ном беришда сўз ясашнинг роли ва ўрни. Конверсия, унинг келиб чиқиши ва асослари. Қўшма сўзларни она тилига таржима қилишнинг йўллари. Қисқартма сўзлар.

5. Фразеология: турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси. Уларни фарқловчи белгилар. Фразеологик бирликлар ва уларни таржима қилиш муаммолари.
6. Этимология: Ўрганилаётган тилда пайдо бўлган сўзлар ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар ва уларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляция, интернационал сўзлар ва этимологик дублетлар.
7. Лексикография: ўрганилаётган тил луғат таркибининг умумий таснифи.
8. Назарий грамматика фанининг мақсади ва предмети.
9. Тил ва нутқ. Грамматикада метод ва назарий йўналишлари. Грамматик таҳлил усуллари.
10. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
11. Морфология. Грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно. Грамматик маънони ифодалаш усуллари.
12. Ўрганилаётган тилдаги сўзларни туркумларга ажратишнинг асосий тамойиллари.
13. Ўрганилаётган тил морфологияси. Ўрганилаётган тилда от сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.
14. Ўрганилаётган тилда феъл сўз туркуми. Феълнинг структураси ва грамматик категориялари.
15. Ўрганилаётган тилда феълнинг семантик хусусиятлари.
16. Ўрганилаётган тилда Синтаксис. Сўз бирикмаси ва содда гап.
17. Синтаксис. Синтактик birlikлар. Синтактик алоқалар турлари. Сўз бирикмаларининг асосий белги ва хоссалари.
18. Гап назарияси. Гапнинг таърифи ва классификацияси. Микро ва макросинтаксис. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари.
19. Ўрганилаётган тилда гапнинг тузилиш жиҳатдан турлари.
20. Ўрганилаётган тилда қўшма гап турлари.
21. Назарий фонетиканинг мақсад ва вазифалари.
22. Фонологик назариялар.
23. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффузнинг асосий турлари.
24. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар тизими.
25. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар тизими.
26. Фонемаларнинг нутқдаги ўзгариши.
27. Ўрганилаётган тилда бўғин тузилиши.
28. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз урғуси.
29. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг тузилиши.
30. Фоностилистика ва унинг асосий хусусиятлари.
31. Услубиёт предмети, унинг асосий йўналишлари ва бошқа назарий фанлар билан алоқаси.

32. Функционал услуб турлари, уларнинг вазифалари ва лингвистик хусусиятлари (бадий, илмий, ва газета ва публицистик, расмий ҳужжатлар).
33. Ўрганилаётган тил лексикасининг услубий таркиби;
34. Лексик стилистик воситалар (метафора, метонимия, ирония, эпитет, оксюморон, гипербола, антономасия, зевгма ва сўз ўйини) нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.
35. Лексик-синтактик стилистик воситалар (ўхшатиш, перефраз, литота, антитеза, градация) нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.
36. Синтактик стилистик воситалар (инверсия, такрорлаш, риторик савол ва бошқалар)нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.
37. Фонетик стилистик воситалар (юфония, аллитерация, ономотопия)нинг лисоний аҳамияти ва вазифалари.
38. Матн таҳлили вазифаси. Бадий асар матн таҳлилининг объекти сифатида бадий матннинг ўзига хосликларини кўрсатиш, бадий детал, матн композицияси. Матн категориялари. Информативлик категориялари. Матнни идрок этиш ва унинг таҳлили.
39. Роман ва Герман тиллари ҳақида умумий маълумот.
40. Тиллар таракқиётининг янги даври.
41. Роман-герман тиллари таракқиёти тарихининг янги давридаги асосий тарихий воқеалари.
42. Миллий тилнинг вужудга келишида пойтахт шевасининг аҳамияти. Маҳаллий шеваларнинг сақланиб қолиши ва уларнинг икчимоний кўринишлари.
43. Касб – ҳунар жаргонларининг пайдо бўлиши. Китоб напир қилиниши муносабати билан миллий тил ёзма шаклининг кенг тарқалиб бориши.
44. Янги даврда содир бўлган асосий фонетик ўзгаришлар. Тиллар грамматик тизимида содир бўлган ўзгаришлар.
45. Феълларнинг ногўри тусланиши тизимидан тўғри феъллар гуруҳига ўтиши.
46. Мавжул нисбатнинг ривожланиши, иш – ҳаракат ва ҳолат пассиви маъноларнинг фарқланиши.

Семинар машғулоти мультимедиа воситалари билан жиқозланган аудиторияда ўтказилиши лозим. Машғулотлар фаол ва интерфаол усуллар ёрдамида ўтилиши, мос равишда муносиб педагогик ва ахборот технологиялар қўлланилиши мақсадга мувофиқ.

V. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар

Мустақил таълим учун тавсия этиладиган мавзулар:

1. Лексикология ва тил.
2. Сўзларнинг фонетик ва аналитик аспекти.
3. Сўз маъносининг тузилишини ўрганишда парадигматика ва синтагматиканинг роли.
4. Маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик - семантик маънолари.
5. Синоним, антоним ва омонимлар.

6. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши.
7. Турғун ва эркин бирикмалар.
8. Сўз бирикмасининг ўхшашлиги ва фарқи.
9. Луғат таркибининг сифат ва сон жиҳатлари.
10. Архаизмлар ва неологизмлар.
11. Лексик номланишнинг фаоллиги ва луғат таркибининг бойиш йўллари.
12. Тил луғат таркибининг этимологик жиҳатдан таснифи.
13. Сўзларнинг этимологияси.
14. Лексикографиянинг долзарб масалалари.
15. Гапда сўзларнинг маъноли бирикшиш усуллари.
16. От сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.
17. Феъл сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.
18. Сифат сўз туркуми ва унинг турлари.
19. Сон категорияси.
20. Гапнинг тузилишига кўра турлари.
21. Гапнинг ифода мақсадига кўра турлари.
22. Ўрганилаётган тилдада қўшма гаплар. (Боғланган қўшма гап ва эргашган гапли қўшма гап)
23. Гапда синтактик алоқалар турлари.
24. Бирламчи ва иккиламчи предикация тушунчалари.
25. Тилда фонологик назариялар.
26. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффуз турлари.
27. Ўрганилаётган тилда товушлар қисқариши (редукция турлари).
28. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар.
29. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар.
30. Ўрганилаётган тилда монофтонг, дифтонг ва трифтонлар.
31. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг ва унинг турлари.
32. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўз урғуси ва маъно урғуси.
33. Синтагма ва унинг қўлланилиши.
34. Фоностилистика ва унинг асосий хусусиятлари.
35. Адабий –китобий тилда сўзларнинг хусусиятлари ва вазифалари.
36. Оғзаки услубга хос сўзларнинг тил хусусиятлари ва вазифалари.
37. Метафора ва метонимия.
38. Эпитет, оксюморон, гипербола.
39. Антономазия, ўхшатиш ва унинг ўрганилаётган тилдаги турлари.
40. Литота ва перифразанинг лингво-культурологик хусусиятлари.
41. Ўрганилаётган тилда такрор ва уни киёсий ўрганиш.
42. Риторик сўрок.
43. Фонетик стилистик услублар.
44. Стилистик синонимлар ва уларнинг бадиий нутқда қўлланилиши.
45. Идиомаларнинг стилистик хусусиятлари.
46. Мақол ва маталларнинг стилистик вазифалари.
47. Чет тилидан ўзлаштирилган сўзлар ва уларнинг стилистик аҳамияти.
48. Стилистик услубларнинг бадиий матнда ишлатилиши.

49. Шеърний услубнинг ўзига хос стилистик жиҳатлари.
50. Бадий матнда поэтик деталлар.
51. Текст категориялари.
52. Ўрганилаётган тил тарихини давларга бўлиб ўрганиш.
53. Ўрганилаётган тил кадимги даврининг фонетик хусусиятлари.
54. Ўрта давр фонетик структураси.
55. Ўрганилаётган тил кадимги давридаги ёзма ёдгорликлар.
56. Ўрганилаётган тил тарихий даври луғат бойлиги.
57. Ўрганилаётган тил ўрта даври луғат бойлиги.
58. Ўрганилаётган тил ўрта даври ва хусусиятлари.
59. Ўрганилаётган тил янги давр грамматикасининг ўзига хос тил хусусиятлари.
60. Ўрганилаётган тил Янги давр шеваларининг ўзига хос тил хусусиятлари.

Мустақил ўзлаштириладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан рефератлар тайёрлаш ва уни тақдирот қилиш тавсия этилади.

Фан бўйича курс иши. Курс иши фан мавзуларига тааллуқли масалалар юзасидан талабаларга яқка тартибда тегишли топшириқ шаклида берилади. Курс ишининг ҳажми, расмийлаштириш шакли, баҳолаш мезонлари ишчи фан дастурида ва тегишли кафедра томонидан белгиланади. Курс ишини бажариш талабаларда фанга оид билим, кўниёма ва малакаларни шакллантиришга хизмат қилиши керак.

Курс иши учун таъминий мавзулар:

1. Семасиология: Сўзларнинг фонетик ва семантик аспекти.
2. Контекст турлари, маънонинг турлари ва сўзнинг лексик-семантик вариантлари, семантик майдон. Моносемия, полисемия, гиперонимия - гипонимия муаммолари.
3. Синонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.
4. Антонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.
5. Омонимлар ва уларнинг таснифи.
6. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари. Сўз тузилиши, диахроник ва синхроник қарашлар.
7. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
8. Сўз ясаш: лексик ном беришда сўз яшашнинг роли ва ўрни.
9. Конверсия, унинг келиб чиқиши ва асослари.
10. Қўшма сўзларни она тилига таржима қилишнинг йўллари.
11. Қисқартма сўзлар.
12. Фразеология: турғун ва эркин бирикмаларни фарқлаш муаммоси. Уларни фарқловчи белгилар. Фразеологик бирликлар ва уларнинг шаклланиш этимологияси.
13. Этимология: Ўрганилаётган тилда пайдо бўлган сўзлар ва бошқа тиллардан кириб келган сўзлар ва уларнинг турлари, ўзлаштирилиши, ассимиляция.
14. Интернационал сўзлар ва этимологик дублетлар.

15. Лексикография: ўрганилаётган тил лугат таркибининг умумий таснифи.
16. Сўзларнинг фонетик ва фонологик аспекти.
17. Ўрганилаётган тилда талаффузнинг стилистик хусусиятлари.
18. Мулоқот жараёнида талаффузнинг коммуникатив хусусиятлари.
19. Ўрганилаётган тилда товушни ўрганишда асосий йўналишлар.
20. Ўрганилаётган тилда вариантларида ўзига хос фонетик хусусиятлар.
21. Ўрганилаётган тилда унли товушлар.
22. Ўрганилаётган тилда ундош товушлар.
23. Ўрганилаётган тилда оҳанг турлари.
24. Ўрганилаётган тилда урғунинг турлари.
25. Сўзнинг морфологик қурилиши: морфемалар типлари ва синфлари.
26. Сўз тузилишидаги диахроник ва синхроник қараш. Морфема ва алломорфемалар.
27. Грамматик категориялар, грамматик шакл ва грамматик маъно.
28. Ўрганилаётган тилда сўзларнинг туркумларга ажратишнинг асосий тамойиллари.
29. Ўрганилаётган тилда морфологияси. От сўз туркуми ва унинг грамматик категориялари.
30. Ўрганилаётган тилда феъл сўз туркуми. Феълнинг структураси ва грамматик категориялари.
31. Ўрганилаётган тилда феълнинг семантик хусусиятлари.
32. Ўрганилаётган тилда Синтаксис. Сўз бирикмаси ва содда гап.
33. Синтаксис. Синтактик бирликлар. Синтактик алоқалар турлари.
34. Сўз бирикмаларининг асосий белги ва хоссалари.
35. Гап назарияси. Гапнинг таърифи ва классификацияси. Микро ва макросинтаксис. Гапни таҳлил қилиш методлари.
36. Ўрганилаётган тилда гапнинг тузилиш жиҳатдан турлари.
37. Стилистика фанидаги янги йўналишлар (коммуникатив, когнитив, этностилистика).
38. Проза жанрининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
39. Ўғезиянинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
40. Драманинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
41. Нотивлик услубининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
42. Илмий услубнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
43. Расмий услуб ва унинг тил хусусиятлари.
44. Эмоционаллик стилистик категория сифатида.
45. Поэтик сўзларнинг роли.
46. Чет тилидан ўзлаштирилган сўзлар.
47. Слэнглар ва уларнинг тил хусусиятлари.
48. Ўзма нутқнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари.
49. Стилистик маъно ва вазифа.
50. Метафора ва метонимияни когнитив тадқиқ қилиш.
51. Матннинг бадий хусусиятлари.
52. Бадий матнда рамзлар.

53. Бадиий матнда поэтик деталлар.
54. Матнда информативлик категорияси.
55. Матнда модаллик категорияси.
56. Бадиий матннинг қисмларга бўлиниши.
57. Бадиий матн қисмларининг бир бирига мантиқий боғланиши.
58. Бадиий матнда сарлавҳанинг роли.
59. Бадиий матнда фразеологик бирликларнинг стилистик функциялари.
60. Бадиий матнда сарлавҳанинг мазмунни очиқ бериш вазифаси.

VI. Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари

Асосий адабиётлар

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**O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI
ANDIJON DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI**



**O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI
(O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL TARIXI)
FANINING ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI**

Bilim sohasi: 100 000 - Gumanitar soha
Ta'lim sohasi: 110 000 - Pedagogika
Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 5111400 - Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

Umumiy o'quv soati – 126 soat
Shu jumladan:
Ma'ruza – 34 soat (6-semestr)
Amaliy mashg'ulotlar –
Seminar mashg'ulotlari – 34 soat (6-semestr)
Mustaqil ta'lim – 58 soat (6-semestr)

Andijon – 2021 y.

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligi tomonidan 2019 yil "20" iyuldagi 654-sonli buyrug'i 2-ilovasi bilan tasdiqlangan "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" fani dasturi asosida tayyorlangan.

Fanning ishchi dasturi Andijon davlat universiteti kengashining 2021 yil "30" avgustdagi "1" sonli bayoni bilan tasdiqlangan.

Tuzuvchilar:

D.Sh.Egamnazarova – ADU, "Ingliz tili grammatikasi" kafedrası dotsenti v.b.;
A.I.Matkarimova – ADU, "Ingliz tili grammatikasi" kafedrası katta o'qituvchisi;
N.R.Mahmudova – ADU, "Ingliz tili grammatikasi" kafedrası katta o'qituvchisi;

Taqrizchilar:

L.S.Xudoyberdiyeva - ADTI, "Tillar, pedagogika va psixologiya" kafedrası dotsenti, filologiya fanlari nomzodi
S.A.Solijonov - ADU, "Ingliz tili fonetikasi" kafedrası dotsenti, filologiya fanlari nomzodi

ADU Chet tillar fakulteti dekani: dotsent, D.A.Rustamov
2021 yil, "28" avgust

"Ingliz tili grammatikasi" kafedrası mudiri: professor v.b, G'.M.Hoshimov
2021 yil, "26" avgust

1. O'quv fani o'qitilishi bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar

Ushbu fan tilning fonetik jihatlari, grammatik strukturasi, tilning lug'at tarkibi, til birliklarining semantik xususiyatlari, frazeologik birikmalari, so'z yasash usullari, til lug'at tarkibining etimologiyasi, lug'atshunoslik, til birliklarining shakllanishi va rivojlanishining umumiy qonuniyatlari, til variantlari, shevalarning funksional jihatlari, tillar tarixi hamda til taraqqiyotining qonuniyatlari kabi masalalarni qamrab oladi. Talabalarni nazariy fonetika, nazariy grammatika, leksikologiya, o'rganilayotgan til tarixi, stilistika kabi aspektlarining ilmiy asoslari va filologik fanlar o'rtasidagi o'zni to'g'risidagi bilimlar bilan qurollantiradi.

“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari” fani ixtisoslik fanlar blokiga kiritilgan kurs hisoblanib, bosqichma bosqich 2, 3, 4-kurslarda o'qitilishi maqsadga muvofiq. Ushbu fan xorijiy tillar bo'yicha mutaxassislar tayyorlashga ixtisoslashgan ta'lim yo'nalishlari talabalari uchun muhim ahamiyatga ega bo'lib, boshqa umumkasbiy va ixtisoslik fanlarining nazariy va uslubiy asosi bo'lib xizmat qiladi.

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad – talabalarni til to'g'risidagi asosiy nazariy tushunchalar, chet tilini o'rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, tilning ilmiy bilimlar tizimida tutgan o'zni va ahamiyati bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sathlarining nutqiy muloqot jarayonida kuzatiladigan asosiy qonuniyatlarini o'rgatishdan iborat.

Ushbu maqsadga erishish uchun fan talabalarda tilning ichki tuzilmasi, til qatlamlari va birliklarini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish hamda ularning bir-biri bilan o'zaro munosabatlari to'g'risida ilmiy-nazariy tushunchalarga ega bo'lishlarini ta'minlash vazifalarini bajaradi.

Fan bo'yicha talabalarining bilim, ko'nikma va malakalariga quyidagi talablar qo'yiladi. **Talaba:**

- o'rganilayotgan xorijiy til fonetik strukturasi, grammatik qurilishi va lug'at tarkibining asosiy tushunchalari va kategoriyalari to'g'risida **tasavvurga ega bo'lishi**;
- tilshunoslik nazariyasi asoslarini lingvistik qonunlar, tushunchalar kategoriyalarini, muloqot jarayonlarining funksional diskurs xususiyatlarini **bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi**;
- lisoniy muloqot jarayonlarini tahlil qilish usullarini qo'llash, nutqiy muloqot muammolari bo'yicha to'g'ri qaror qabul qilish **ko'nikmalariga ega bo'lishi kerak**.

“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanidan mashg'ulotlarning mavzular va soatlar bo'yicha taqsimlanishi

№	Mavzular nomi	Ajratilgan soat					
		jami	ma'ruza	amaliy	laboratoriya	seminar	mustaqil ta'lim
6-semestr							
1	General information about Roman-German languages	6	2	-	-	2	2
2	Problem of periodization of the history of the languages	8	2	-	-	2	4
3	Morphology	16	4	-	-	4	8
4	Old Roman-German Adjective, Pronoun and Numeral	14	4	-		4	6
5	Old Roman-German Verb	14	4	-	-	4	6
6	Old Roman-German Syntax	16	4	-	-	4	8
7	Old Roman-German Vocabulary	14	4	-	-	4	6
8	Middle period of Roman-German Languages	16	4	-	-	4	8

9	Roman-German Syntax	14	4	-	-	4	6
10	Development of New period	8	2	-		2	4
	Jami:	126	34	-	-	34	58

2. Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari

Ma'ruza mashg'ulotlari multimedia qurilmalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada akademik guruhlar oqimi uchun o'tiladi.

“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo'yicha ma'ruza mashg'ulotlarining kalendar-tematik rejasi

№	Ma'ruza mavzulari	Soat
6-semestr		
1	General information about Roman-German languages. Grimm's Law. Verner's Law	2
2	Problem of periodization of the history of the languages. Celtic tribes. History of German languages	2
3	Morphology	2
4	Grammatical categories of Nouns. Morphological structure of words	2
5	Old Roman-German Adjective, Pronoun and Numeral	2
6	Declension of the Adjectives. Grammatical categories of pronouns. Cardinal and ordinal numerals	2
7	Old Roman-German Verb	2
8	Strong and weak verbs in Old Roman-German. Grammatical categories of Old Roman-German Verbs	2
9	Old Roman-German Syntax	2
10	Types of sentences in Old Roman-German. Syntactical relations in simple sentences	2
11	Old Roman-German Vocabulary	2
12	Word formation. Affixation in Old Roman-German. Borrowings in Old Roman-German	2
13	Middle period of Roman-German Languages	2
14	Phonetic peculiarities of Middle period of Roman-German Languages. Morphology of Middle period of Roman-German Languages	2
15	Roman-German Syntax	2
16	Specific features of vocabulary in the middle period	2
17	Development of New period	2
	Jami:	34

Nazariy mashg'ulotlar mazmuni

6-semestr

1-mavzu. Roman-german tillari haqida umumiy ma'lumot.

Roman va german tillarining xind-evropa tillar oilasida tutgan o'rni. Hozirgi zamon roman va german tillari, ularning tarqalishi va tasnifi. Roman va German qabilalari haqidagi ma'lumotlar: (Piteas, Yuliy Sezar, Tatsit) roman va german qabilalarining tasnifi va “xalqlarning buyuk ko'chishi” davrida ularning joylashishi. Roman-german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari: undoshlarning birinchi ko'chishi, Grimm qonuni, Verner qonuni, unlilarning o'zgarishi, otlarning turlanish tizimi, fe'llarning miqdor o'zgarishi va suffiksli fe'llarga ajralish tizimi, qadimgi alifbo, roman va german tillarining eng muhim yozma yodgorliklari va ularning tasnifi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

2-mavzu. Tillar tarixini davrlashtirish muammosi.

Yevropa qit'asida Kelt qabilalari. Rim qo'shinlarining Britaniya orollarini bosib olishi, Rimliklar qurgan tarixiy obidalar. Mintaqada g'arbiy german qabilalari va ularning Rim bilan aloqasi. Anglo-sakson, friz va yut qabilalarining Britaniya orollarini istilo qilishi va anglo-sakson davlatlarining yuzaga kelishi. Lotin tili va uning roman tillarining shakllanishidaagi o'rni va ahamiyati. Qadimgi alfavitlar va yozma yodgorliklar. Nemis tilining paydo bo'lish tarixi. Roman-german tillari tovush tizimining tarixiy qonuniyatlari; palatallashuv. Sonor undosh birikmalari oldida unlilarning cho'zilishi, keyingi undoshning tushib qolishi natijasida unlilarning cho'zilishi. Undoshlarning birinchi va ikkinchi ko'chishi

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

3-mavzu. Morfologiya

Roman-german tillari morfologiyasi. Otning grammatik kategoriyalari: rod, son, kelishik. Negiz asosida otlarning qadimgi tasnifi. Otlarda ko'plik shakllarining hosil bo'lishi va ularning turlari. So'zning morfologik strukturasi. Ichki fleksiya yordamida o'zakdagi unlining o'zgarishi. Tashqi fleksiya. Fleksiyasiz tovush almashinishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

4-mavzu. Qadimgi german va roman tillarida sifat, olmosh va son

Sifatning ikki xil turlanishi: kuchli va kuchsiz turlanish, turlanishlarning paydo bo'lishi. Kishilik olmoshlari, olmoshlarda grammatik kategoriyalar: shaxs, son (ikkilik sonining mavjudligi), Ko'rsatish olmoshlarning paydo bo'lishi. Sanoq sonlar. Tartib sonlar.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

5-mavzu. Qadimgi roman-german davrida fe'l

Kuchli va kuchsiz fe'llar. Preterit-prezent fe'llar va ularning morfologik xususiyatlari. Suppletiv fe'llar. Fe'llarning asosiy grammatik kategoriyalari: shaxs, son, zamon, mayl. Fe'ning analitik shakli masalasi: Nisbat kategoriyasi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12

6-mavzu. Qadimgi roman va german tillarida sintaksis

Sintaksis. Gap turlari. So'roq gaplarda so'z tartibi. Gapda bosh bo'laklarning ifoda etilishi. Sodda gapda sintaktik aloqalarning ifodalanishi. Kelishiklarning vazifalari.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12

7-mavzu. Qadimgi roman - german tillari lug'at boyligi

Roman-german tillari lug'at tarkibi va ularning taraqqiyoti. Lug'at tarkibining xususiyatlari. Umum xind-yevropa va umum roman va german so'zlari, lug'at tarkibining boyib borishi va uning turli yo'llari: Affikslar yordamida so'zlar yasash. So'z yasalishi jarayonining mahsuldor va kam mahsullik xususiyatlarini aks ettiruvchi affikslar. Qo'shma so'zlar. Qo'shma so'zlarni hosil qilish yo'llari. Tovush almashishi (umlaut); Eski so'zlarning yangi ma'noga ega bo'lishi. O'zlashtirma so'zlarning ishlatilishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12

8-mavzu. O'rganilayotgan til tarixining o'rta davri

O'rta davrning asosiy tarixiy voqealari. Unlilar tizimining o'zgarishi. Urg'usiz unlilarning hosil bo'lishi va ularning keyinchalik tushib qolishi. O'rta davrda unlilarning cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarning cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarining o'rta davrda cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarining o'rta davrda monoftonglashuvi. Yangi diftonglarning hosil bo'lishi. Undoshlar tizimining o'zgarishi. O'rta davrda grafikasidagi o'zgarishlar. Morfologiya. 12-15 asrlarda morfologiyada sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar. Otlarning turlanishida kelishiklarning soddalashib borishi

va ularning predlogli birikmalar bilan almashtirilishi. Sifat darajalari. Qiyosiy darajalarda analitik shaklning yuzaga kelishi. Olmoshlarning turlanishida ikki kelishikning tizimga o'tishi. Ko'rsatish olmoshlarida ikki turning hosil bo'lishi. Yangi olmoshlarning paydo bo'lishi. Aniq va noaniq artikllarning paydo bo'lishi. Kuchli fe'llar tizimidagi o'zgarishlar. Fe'l bo'yicha hozirgi zamon sifatdash shakllarning o'ziga xos xususiyati. Fe'lning aniq, majhul va o'tgan zamon shakllarining yuzaga kelishi.

Ravishdosh va infinitivning paydo bo'lishi. Ravishlarning suffikslar yordamida yasaliishi. Suffikslarning soddalashuvi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

9-mavzu. Roman-german tillarida Sintaksis.

Gapning bosh bo'laklaridagi qat'iy tartibning asta-sekin qaror topishi. Qo'shimcha gaplarning rivojlanishi. O'rta davr lug'at tarkibining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari. Ijtimoiy tuzimning o'zgarishi, hunarmandchilik, savdo-sotiq va qishloq xo'jaligi taraqqiyoti munosabati bilan lug'at tarkibining boyib borish yo'llari. Eskirgan so'zlarning yangi ma'noda ishlatilishi, affikslar yordamida yangi so'zlarning ishlatilishi. Ikki til, ya'ni skandinav va fransuz tillari hisobiga ingliz va nemis tili lug'ati tarkibining boyib borishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12

10-mavzu. Tillar taraqqiyotining yangi davri

Roman-german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari. Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining ahamiyati. Mahalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari. Kasb-hunar jargonlarining paydo bo'lishi. Kitob nashr qilinishi munosabati bilan milliy til yozma shaklining keng tarqalib borishi. Yangi davrda sodir bo'lgan asosiy fonetik o'zgarishlar. "Unlilarning buyuk ko'chishi". Urg'usiz bo'g'indagi unlilarning tushib qolishi. Yangi unli tovushlarning paydo bo'lishi. Unlilar va undoshlar tizimida sodir bo'lgan boshqa o'zgarishlar. Tillar grammatik tizimida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar. Fe'llarning noto'g'ri tuslanishi tizimidan to'g'ri fe'llar guruhiga o'tishi. Majhul nisbatning rivojlanishi, ish- harakat va holat passivi ma'nolarning farqlanishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

3. Seminar mashg'ulotlari

Seminar mashg'ulotlari multimedia vositalari bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada o'tkazilishi lozim. Mashg'ulotlar faol va interfaol usullar yordamida o'tilishi, mos ravishda munosib pedagogik va axborot texnologiyalar qo'llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq.

Seminar mashg'ulotlarni tashkil etish bo'yicha kafedra professor-o'qituvchilari tomonidan ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar ishlab chiqiladi. Unda talabalar ma'ruza mavzulari bo'yicha olgan bilim va ko'nikmalarini seminar mashg'ulotlar olib borish jarayonida yanada boyitiladi. Talabalar seminar mashg'ulotlarida o'tiladigan mavzu bo'yicha tayyorlagan prezentatsiyalari usulida egallagan bilimlarini namoyon qiladilar.

“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo'yicha seminar mashg'ulotlarining kalendar-tematik rejasi

№	Seminar mashg'ulot mavzulari	Soat
6-semestr		
1	General information about Roman and German languages	2
2	New period of development of languages	2
2.1	New period of development of languages	2
3	The main events in the history of development of Roman-German languages in New period	2
4	The importance of capital dialect in the essence of National language	2

4.1	The importance of capital dialect in the essence of National language.	2
4.2	Preservation of local dialects and their social forms	2
5	Appearing professional jargons	2
5.1	Appearing professional jargons.	2
5.2	Spread of written documents of the national language with the relation of printing books	2
6	Main phonetic changes in new period	2
6.1	Main phonetic changes in new period.	2
6.2	Grammatical changes of the languages	2
7	Passing of the system of conjugation of irregular verbs into the regular ones	2
7.1	Passing of the system of conjugation of irregular verbs into the regular ones	2
8	Development of the passive voice, differences between the passive meanings of the action and state	2
8.1	Development of the passive voice, differences between the passive meanings of the action and state	2
	Jami:	34

Seminar mashg'ulotlari mazmuni 6-semester

1-mavzu. Roman va German tillari haqida umumiy ma'lumot. Roman va German tillarining o'ziga xos hususiyatlari. Fonetik va Grammatik hususiyatlar.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

2-mavzu. Tillar taraqqiyotining yangi davri. Yangi davrda tildagi o'ziga xos o'zgarishlar. Roman-German tillarida fonetik va grammatik o'zgarishlarning kuzatilishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

3-mavzu. Roman-german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari. Roman-German tillari taraqqiyotidagi asosiy o'zgarishlar.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

4-mavzu. Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining ahamiyati. Mahalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

5-mavzu. Kasb - hunar jargonlarining paydo bo'lishi. Kitob nashr qilinishi munosabati bilan milliy til yozma shaklining keng tarqalib borishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

6-mavzu. Yangi davrda sodir bo'lgan asosiy fonetik o'zgarishlar. Tillar grammatik tizimida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12, Q14.

7-mavzu. Fe'llarning noto'g'ri tuslanishi tizimidan to'g'ri fe'llar guruhiga o'tishi. Qadimgi ingliz tili fe'l tizimida o'ziga xos o'zgarishlarning kuzatilishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

8-mavzu. Majhul nisbatning rivojlanishi, ish-harakat va holat passivi ma'nolarning farqlanishi.

Adabiyotlar: A7, A12, A15, Q11, Q12.

Xorijiy til (ingliz tili) va adabiyoti ta'lim yo'nalishi o'quv rejasiga ko'ra "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha **laboratoriya mashg'ulotlari** o'tkazilishi rejalashtirilgan.

4. "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fanidan mustaqil ta'limni tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni
Talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmuni va hajmi

№	Mustaqil ta'lim mavzulari	Hajmi (soatda)
6 semestr		
1	O'rganilayotgan til tarixini davrlarga bo'lib o'rganish	2
2	O'rganilayotgan til qadimgi davrining fonetik xususiyatlari	8
3	O'rta davr fonetik strukturasi	8
4	O'rganilayotgan til qadimgi davridagi yozma yodgorliklar	8
5	O'rganilayotgan til tarixiy davri lug'at boyligi	8
6	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri lug'at boyligi	8
7	O'rganilayotgan til o'rta davri va xususiyatlari	8
8	O'rganilayotgan til yangi davr grammatikasining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	6
9	O'rganilayotgan til Yangi davr shevalarining o'ziga xos til xususiyatlari	2
	Jami:	58

Mustaqil o'zlashtiriladigan mavzular bo'yicha talabalar tomonidan referatlar tayyorlash va uni taqdimot qilish tavsiya etiladi.

Xorijiy til (ingliz tili) va adabiyoti ta'lim yo'nalishi o'quv rejasiga ko'ra "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha kurs ishini bajarish ko'zda tutilmagan.

5. Fan bo'yicha talabalar bilimni baholash va nazorat qilish mezonlari
Fanning o'quv yuklamasi

№	Mashg'ulot turi	Ajratilgan soat	
		6-semestr	Jami
1	Ma'ruza	34	34
2	Amaliy	-	-
3	Laboratoriya	-	-
4	Seminar	34	34
5	Mustaqil ta'lim	58	58
	Jami	126	126

NAZORAT TURLARINI O'TKAZISH TARTIBI

1. Oraliq nazoratni o'tkazish tartibi:

Ushbu nazorat turi auditoriyada akademik guruhdagi barcha talabalar ishtirokida quyidagi shakllarda o'tkaziladi:

- Mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlarini bajarilishi;
- Test sinovi.

2. Yakuniy nazoratni o'tkazish tartibi:

Ushbu nazorat turi auditoriyada akademik guruhning barcha talabalari ishtirokida "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha semestr yakunida "Yozma ish" tartibida o'tkaziladi.

“O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanidan talabalar bilimini 5 baholik tizimda baholash mezonlari.

“O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha nazorat turi, shakli, soni hamda har bir nazoratga ajratilgan maksimal baho, shuningdek oraliq nazoratlarining saralash ballari haqidagi ma’lumotlar fan bo’yicha birinchi mashg’ulotda talabalarga e’lon qilinadi.

Talabalarining bilim saviyasi, ko’nikma va malakalarini nazorat qilishning 5 baholik tizim asosida talabaning fan bo’yicha o’zlashtirish darajasi baholar orqali ifodalanadi.

“O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha talabalarining semestr davomida o’zlashtirish ko’rsatkichi har bir nazorat uchun maksimal 5 baholik tizimda baholanadi.

Talabaning “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha talabalar bilimi quyidagi mezonlar asosida baholanadi

Baholash usullari	Yozma ishlar, og’zaki so’rovlar, ekspres testlar, prezentatsiyalar
Baholash mezonlari	5 baho “a’lo” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talaba mustaqil xulosa va qaror qabul qila oladi; • ijodiy fikrlay oladi; • mustaqil mushohada yuritadi; • olgan bilimni amalda qo’llay oladi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.
	4 baho “yaxshi” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talaba mustaqil mushohada yuritadi; • olgan bilimni amalda qo’llay oladi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.
	3 baho “qoniqarli” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talaba olgan bilimni amalda qo’llay oladi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.
	2 baho “qoniqarsiz” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talaba fan dasturini o’zlashtirmagan; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanining mohiyatini tushunmaydi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha tasavvurga ega emas deb topilganda.

Oraliq nazorat bo’yicha talabalar bilimini baholash mezonlari

№	Ko’rsatkichlar	ON baholari	
		maks	O’zgarish oraligi
1.	Test natijalari bo’yicha	5	2-5

2.	Mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlari	5	2-5
Jami ON ballari		5	2-5

Izoh:

1. Talabani oraliq nazorat turi bo'yicha baholashda, uning oraliq nazorat topshirig'i va mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlari bo'yicha olgan baholari umumlashtiriladi va o'rtacha baho oraliq nazorat bahosi hisoblanadi.

2. Ta'lim jarayoni masofaviy ta'lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda ON va YaN sinovlari test shaklida o'tkaziladi.

Yakuniy nazoratlar 6 semestrda "Yozma ish" (Test) shaklida o'tkazilishi belgilanadi va maksimal 5 baholik tizimda baholanadi.

Yakuniy nazoratda:

1. Yozma ish shaklida o'tkazish bo'yicha baholash mezon

Sinov 30 variantli usulda o'tkaziladi. Har bir variant 3 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo'ladi. Talaba tomonidan topshiriqlarga berilgan javoblar 2-5 baho oralig'ida baholanadi. Talaba maksimal 5 baho bilan baholanishi mumkin.

Talabani topshiriqlarga bergan javoblari quyidagi tartibda baholanadi:

- 1) Bitta topshiriqqa to'g'ri va to'liq javob berilganda - "qoniqarli" 3 baho;
- 2) Ikki topshiriqqa to'g'ri va to'liq javob berilganda - "yaxshi" 4 baho;
- 3) Uchta topshiriqqa to'g'ri va to'liq javob berilganda - "a'lo" 5 baho;
- 4) Bironta topshiriqqa ham to'g'ri va to'liq javob berilmaganda - "qoniqarsiz" 2 baho.

IZOH: O'quv jarayoni masofaviy ta'lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda Yakuniy nazorat "Test" sinovi tartibida o'tkaziladi. Testlar 30 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo'ladi.

2. Test shaklida o'tkazish bo'yicha baholash mezon

O'quv jarayoni masofaviy ta'lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda Yakuniy nazorat "Test" sinovi tartibida o'tkaziladi. Testlar 30 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo'ladi. Talaba tomonidan topshiriqlarga berilgan javoblar 2-5 baho oralig'ida baholanadi. Talaba maksimal 5 baho bilan baholanishi mumkin.

Talabani topshiriqlarga bergan javoblari quyidagi tartibda baholanadi:

1. 30 ta test sinovidan 28 tasiga to'g'ri javob berganda- "a'lo" 5 baho;
2. 30 ta test sinovidan 22 tasiga to'g'ri javob berganda- "yaxshi" 4 baho;
3. 30 ta test sinovidan 16 tasiga to'g'ri javob berganda- "qoniqarli" 3 baho;
4. 30 ta test sinovidan 15 yoki 15 tadan kam to'g'ri javob berganda- "qoniqarsiz" 2 baho.

6. Asosiy va qo'shimcha o'quv adabiyotlar hamda axborot manbalari

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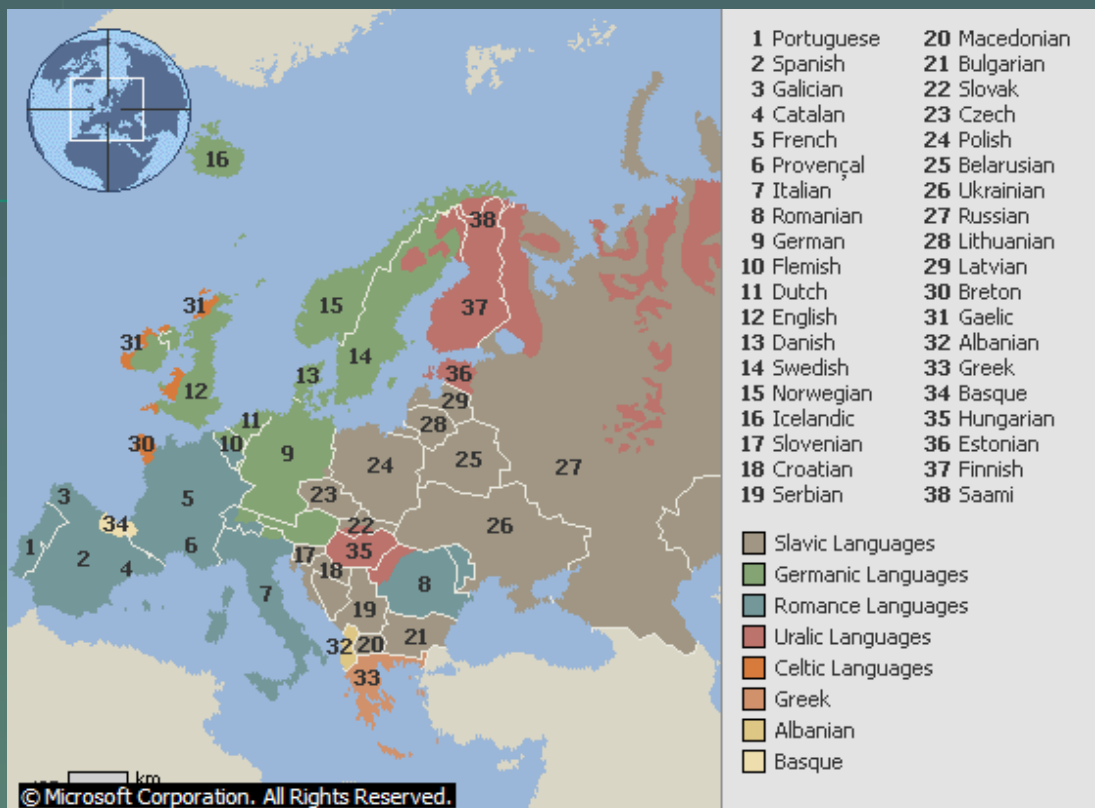
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4.3 TARQATMA MATERIALLAR

Germanic

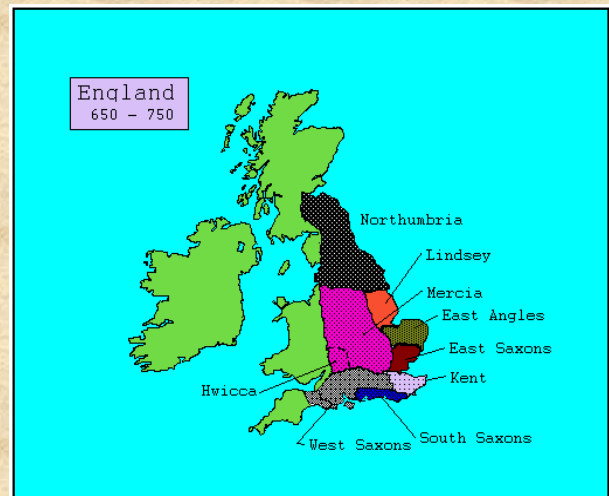




ƒ Fehu (f)	h Hagalaz (h)	↑ Teiwaz (t)
u Uruz (u)	x Nauthiz (n)	ʁ Berkana (b)
Þ Thurisaz (th)	Isa (i)	ƿ Ehwaz (e)
ʀ Ansuz (a)	ƿ Jera (j, y)	ƿ Mannaz (m)
ʀ Raido (r)	ʀ Eihwaz (e)	ʀ Laguz (l)
< Kenaz (k)	ʀ Perthro (p)	◊ Inguz (ng)
X Gebo (g)	ʀ Algiz (z)	◊ Othila (o)
ʀ Wunjo (w,v)	ʀ Sowulo (s)	◊ Dagaz (d)

Old English (500-1066 AD)

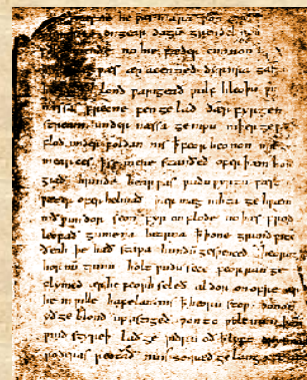
West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark—the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—began to settle in the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.



4

Beowulf

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem *Beowulf*, lasted until about 1100, just after the most important event in the development and history of the English language—the Norman Conquest in 1066.



7

Three main stages are usually recognized in the history of the development of the English language

(Linguists disagree on when English began).

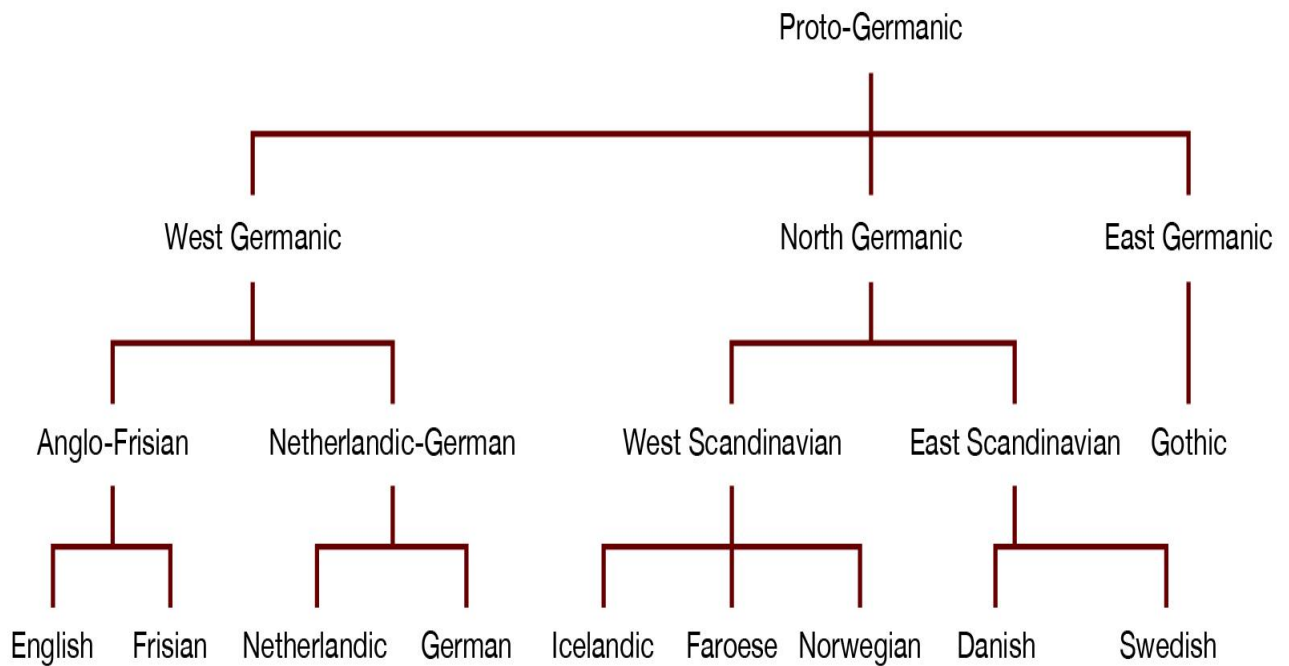
- **Old English**, known formerly as Anglo-Saxon, is dated from **AD 449 to 1066 or 1100**.
- **Middle English** dates from **1066 or 1100 to 1450 or 1500**.
- Modern English dates from about 1450 or 1500 and can be subdivided into **Early Modern English**, from about **1500 to 1660**, and **Late Modern English**, from about **1660 to the present**.

MIDDLE ENGLISH

- In 1066, William II, the 6th duke of Normandy, led the Norman Conquest of England.
- Anglo-Norman culture soon dominated the social structure, language, literature, and architecture of England.



Encarta Encyclopedia, Leo de Wys, Inc./Steve Vidler



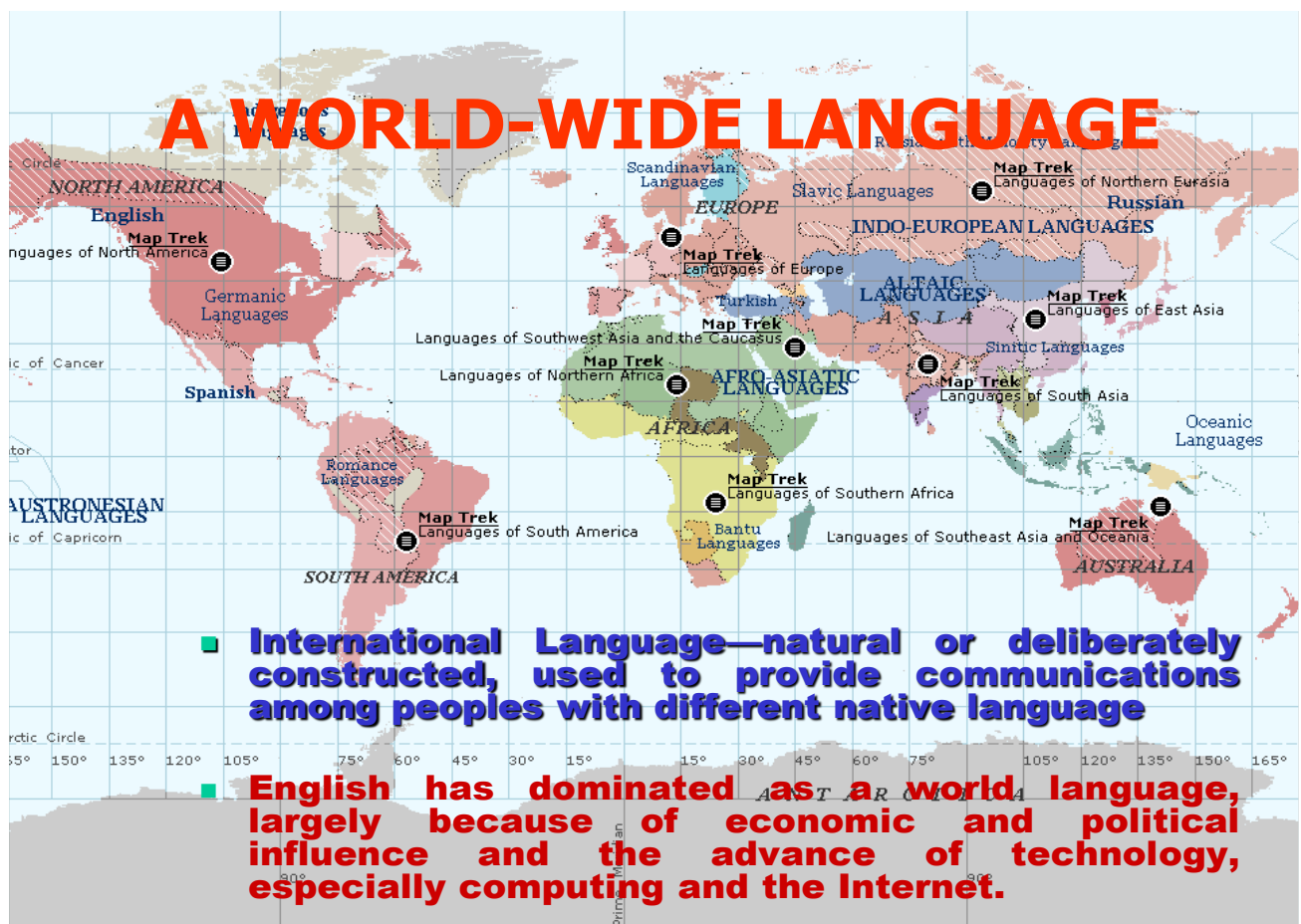
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THE EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

- The vocabulary was enlarged by the widespread use of one part of speech for another.
- Other words were introduced by English travelers and merchants.
- The revival of interest in Latin and Greek brought new words into English from those languages.
- Modern English borrowed words from more than 50 different languages.

THE LATE MODERN ENGLISH

- In the 17th --18th centuries, grammatical changes occurred:
- -The formal rules of English grammar were established during that period.
- -The pronoun *its* came into use.
- -The progressive tenses developed.
- -The simple *ing* form of the verb remained in use, for example, "The baby is *crying*."
- As a result of colonial expansion in different areas of the world, hundreds of new words came into the language.
- Etc.



4.4. Testlar

Фан бўйича оралиқ ва якуний назорат саволномалари.

1- Оралиқ назорат саволлари – 15 балл

- 1) What languages do we call Germanic languages?
- 2) What languages does the North Germanic group include?
- 3) What languages do we include into East Germanic languages?
- 4) What languages are called West Germanic languages?
- 5) What can you say about the French words used in English?
- 6) How many groups of Germanic tribes can you name?
- 7) What are the phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages?
- 8) What is the essence of Grimm's law?
- 9) What is the essence of Varner's law?
- 10) When did the Anglo – Saxon invasion begun?
- 11) When did the Scandinavian invasion take place?
- 12) What can you say about the features of the Noun in old English and Germanic?
- 13) What types of stems in nouns do you know?
- 14) What types of adjectives in Germanic languages do you know?
- 15) What semantic types of adjectives and adverbs do you know?

2- Оралиқ назорат саволлари – 15 балл

- 1) What can you say about the strong verbs?
- 2) How Many basic forms did the strong verb?
- 3) What can you say about weak verbs?
- 4) How many classes did the strong verb have?
- 5) How many classes did the weak verb have?
- 6) What can you say about the pretrial present verbs?
- 7) What irregular verbs do you know?
- 8) What can you say about the word order in old English?
- 9) What can you say about the vocabulary of old English?
- 10) What can you say about the etymological layers of OE vocabulary?
- 11) What types of word formation were there in OE?
- 12) When did the Scandinavian invasion take place?
- 13) What are the political social and sociolinguistic results of Norman Conquest?
- 14) What can you say about the influence of English vocabulary after the Norman Conquest?
- 15) What can you say about the Middle English dialects?

Инглиз тили тарихи фанидан якуний назорат топшириқлари – 30 балл.

- 1) What can you say about the phonetic changes of Old English period?
- 2) What changes took place in the category of Nouns in Old English?
- 3) What are the features of pronouns in English?
- 4) How did the English forms develop?
- 5) How did the continuous aspect forms develop?
- 6) How did the English future tense forms develop?
- 7) What can you say about the phonetic changes of Middle English period?
- 8) What changes took place in the category of Nouns in Middle English?
- 9) What are the influences of the French on English?
- 10) What do you know about the Scandinavian Invasion?
- 11) What do you know about the Middle English Dialects?
- 12) How did the English variants develop?
- 13) The features of Australian English.
- 14) The features of American English.

15) The features of New English Dialects.

I-Variant

1. When did the occupation of France and the British Isles by Celts from Central Europe take place?
 - a. the 5th century
 - b. about 1st Century
 - c. BC about 500 c. BC
 - d. The 10th century BC
2. Who was the author of the Gothic Translation of the Bible?
 - a. Pliny the Elder.
 - b. King Alfred
 - c. King Arthur
 - d. Ulfilas
3. How many alphabets were used by ancient Germans?
 - a. 4
 - b. 3
 - c. 2
 - d. 1
4. How was the Latin alphabet used in the British Isles called?
 - a. Insular Latin
 - b. New Latin
 - c. Continental Latin
 - d. Innovated Latin
5. What languages in its written form is closest to the ancient Germanic Language?
 - a. Swedish.
 - b. Germanic
 - c. Dutch
 - d. Icelandic
6. When did the first consonant shift take place?
 - a) Before the 10th century BC
 - b) Before the 4th century BC
 - c) Before the 4th century AD
 - d) Before the 10th century AD
7. When did the great migration of nations take place?
 - a) 2-7 c. AD
 - b) 1-5c. BC
 - c) 8-11c. AD
 - d) 10-5c. BC
8. What languages belong to the West Germanic group?
 - a) English, Swedish, Faroese, Icelandic
 - b) English, German, Dutch, Frisian
 - c) English, Norwegian, Danish, Icelandic
 - d) English, Dutch, Finnish, Icelandic
9. Endemic language is a language spoken in:
 - a) one – country.
 - b) two countries
 - c) Three or more countries
 - d) many countries
10. While long vowels generally tended to become closed and to diphthongize, short vowels on the contrary, often changed into _____
 - a) back vowels
 - b) diphthongs
 - c) more open sounds
 - d) long vowels
11. Is a result of voicing by Verner's Law there arose _____?
 - a) additional endings
 - b) ablaut
 - c) variability of endings
 - d) an interchange of consonants
12. Find the tribes who gave rise to the English language
 - a) Germans, Low Saxons, Bavarians, Heruls
 - b) Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, Franks
 - c) Angles, Celts, Jutes, Notuegans, Franks
 - d) Latin, Grek, Normans, Britts, Wallens
13. Find the group that does not exist in the Germanic languages.
 - a. South Germanic
 - b. East Germanic
 - c. West Germanic
 - d. North Germanic
14. In the 4th century the bishop Ulfilas translated the Bible from the Greek into..
 - a. English

- b. Gothic
 - c. German
 - d. Latin
15. The Greek traveler and astronomer Pytheas was from....
- a. Rome
 - b. Paris
 - c. Athens
 - d. Massilia
16. The book "Commentaries on the War in the "Gaul" was written by...
- a. Strabo
 - b. Pliny the Elder
 - c. Julius Caesar
 - d. Pytheas
17. The earliest statement of the First consonant shift was given by...
- a. J. Grimm
 - b. R. Rask
 - c. H. Paul
 - d. F. de Saussure
18. The system of strong verbs is based on ...
- a. inflection
 - b. vowel gradation
 - c. agglutination
 - d. affixation
19. To which Modern English word does the OE word *waron* correspond?
- a. wear
 - b. were
 - c. wore
 - d. worn
20. The process as a result of which long vowels were narrowed and the narrowed ones become diphthongized is named as:
- a. phonologization
 - b. diphthongization
 - c. great vowel shift
 - d. narrowing
21. The first document written in London dialect was ...
- a. "Canterbury Tales" by Chaucer
 - b. Brune
 - c. The Petersborough Chronicle
 - d. The Proclamation of Henry III
22. The Norman Conquest began in ...
- a. 1258 b. 1055 c. 1066 d. 1363
23. The oldest English written scriptures were in
- a. Gothic alphabet
 - b. Latin
 - c. Hieroglyphs
 - d. Runes
24. Complete occupation of Britain was accomplished by the Emperor:
- a. Augustine
 - b. Julius Caesar
 - c. Claudius
 - d. Antonio
25. The chronological limits of the OE period are
- a. VII -XI b. I-VI c. XI-XV d. XVI-XVIII

26. The chronological limits of the Middle English period are...
- a. I-V b. I-VI c. XI-XV d. XVI-XVIII
27. Define the type of the stem in the word "sunu"
- a. root stem
b. o-stem
c. i-stem
d. u-stem
28. Addition of an extra syllable consisting of the initial consonant and the vowel e (spelled as ai) in the past tense is called:
- a. conjugation
b. reduplication
c. doubling
d. agglutination
29. Weak verbs derive their past tense and second participle by means of a ...
- a. dental suffix
b. ablaut
c. suppletion
d. prefixation

**Ishchi fan dasturiga muvofiq baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha
uslubiy ko'rsatmalar**

NAZORAT TURLARINI O'TKAZISH TARTIBI

1. Oraliq nazoratni o'tkazish tartibi:

Ushbu nazorat turi auditoriyada akademik guruhdagi barcha talabalar ishtirokida quyidagi shakllarda o'tkaziladi:

- Mustaqil ta'lim topshiriqlarini bajarilishi;
- Test sinovi.

2. Yakuniy nazoratni o'tkazish tartibi:

Ushbu nazorat turi auditoriyada akademik guruhning barcha talabalari ishtirokida "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha semestr yakunida "Yozma ish" tartibida o'tkaziladi.

**"O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fanidan talabalar bilimini
5 baholik tizimda baholash mezonlari.**

"O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha nazorat turi, shakli, soni hamda har bir nazoratga ajratilgan maksimal baho, shuningdek oraliq nazoratlarining saralash ballari haqidagi ma'lumotlar fan bo'yicha birinchi mashg'ulotda talabalarga e'lon qilinadi.

Talabalarining bilim saviyasi, ko'nikma va malakalarini nazorat qilishning 5 baholik tizim asosida talabaning fan bo'yicha o'zlashtirish darajasi baholar orqali ifodalanadi.

"O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha talabalarining semestr davomida o'zlashtirish ko'rsatkichi har bir nazorat uchun maksimal 5 baholik tizimda baholanadi.

**Talabaning "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha
talabalar bilimi quyidagi mezonlar asosida baholanadi**

Baholash usullari	Yozma ishlar, og'zaki so'rovlar, ekspres testlar, prezentatsiyalar
Baholash mezonlari	5 baho "a'lo" <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Talaba mustaqil xulosa va qaror qabul qila oladi;• ijodiy fikrlay oladi;• mustaqil mushohada yuritadi;• olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.
	4 baho "yaxshi" <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Talaba mustaqil mushohada yuritadi;• olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.
	3 baho "qoniqarli" <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Talaba olgan bilimini amalda qo'llay oladi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fanining mohiyatini tushunadi, biladi, ifodalay oladi va aytib beradi;• "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O'rganilayotgan til tarixi)" fani bo'yicha tasavvurga ega deb topilganda.

	2 baho “qoniqarsiz” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talaba fan dasturini o’zlashtirmagan; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fanining mohiyatini tushunmaydi; • “O’rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari (O’rganilayotgan til tarixi)” fani bo’yicha tasavvurga ega emas deb topilganda.
--	---

Oraliq nazorat bo’yicha talabalar bilimni baholash mezonlari

№	Ko’rsatkichlar	ON baholari	
		maks	O’zgarish oraligi
1.	Test natijalari bo’yicha	5	2-5
2.	Mustaqil ta’lim topshiriqlari	5	2-5
Jami ON ballari		5	2-5

Izoh:

1. Talabani oraliq nazorat turi bo’yicha baholashda, uning oraliq nazorat topshirig’i va mustaqil ta’lim topshiriqlari bo’yicha olgan baholari umumlashtiriladi va o’rtacha baho oraliq nazorat bahosi hisoblanadi.

2. Ta’lim jarayoni masofaviy ta’lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda ON va YaN sinovlari test shaklida o’tkaziladi.

Yakuniy nazoratlar 6 semestrda “Yozma ish” (Test) shaklida o’tkazilishi belgilanadi va maksimal 5 baholik tizimda baholanadi.

Yakuniy nazoratda:

3. Yozma ish shaklida o’tkazish bo’yicha baholash mezonlari

Sinov 30 variantli usulda o’tkaziladi. Har bir variant 3 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo’ladi. Talaba tomonidan topshiriqlarga berilgan javoblar 2-5 baho oralig’ida baholanadi. Talaba maksimal 5 baho bilan baholanishi mumkin.

Talabani topshiriqlarga bergan javoblari quyidagi tartibda baholanadi:

- 5) Bitta topshiriqqa to’g’ri va to’liq javob berilganda - “qoniqarli” 3 baho;
- 6) Ikki topshiriqqa to’g’ri va to’liq javob berilganda - “yaxshi” 4 baho;
- 7) Uchta topshiriqqa to’g’ri va to’liq javob berilganda - “a’lo” 5 baho;
- 8) Bironi topshiriqqa ham to’g’ri va to’liq javob berilmaganda - “qoniqarsiz” 2 baho.

IZOH: O’quv jarayoni masofaviy ta’lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda Yakuniy nazorat “Test” sinovi tartibida o’tkaziladi. Testlar 30 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo’ladi.

4. Test shaklida o’tkazish bo’yicha baholash mezonlari

O’quv jarayoni masofaviy ta’lim tizimi orqali tashkil etilganda Yakuniy nazorat “Test” sinovi tartibida o’tkaziladi. Testlar 30 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo’ladi. Talaba tomonidan topshiriqlarga berilgan javoblar 2-5 baho oralig’ida baholanadi. Talaba maksimal 5 baho bilan baholanishi mumkin.

Talabani topshiriqlarga bergan javoblari quyidagi tartibda baholanadi:

5. 30 ta test sinovidan 28 tasiga to’g’ri javob berganda- “a’lo” 5 baho;
6. 30 ta test sinovidan 22 tasiga to’g’ri javob berganda- “yaxshi” 4 baho;
7. 30 ta test sinovidan 16 tasiga to’g’ri javob berganda- “qoniqarli” 3 baho;
8. 30 ta test sinovidan 15 yoki 15 tadan kam to’g’ri javob berganda- “qoniqarsiz” 2 baho.