

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА
МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАХОН ТИЛЛАРИ
УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ**

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ НАЗАРИЙ АСПЕКТЛАРИ №3 КАФЕДРАСИ

“ЎРГАНИЛАЁТГАН ТИЛ ТАРИХИ” ФАНИДАН

ЎҚУВ-УСЛУБИЙ МАЖМУА

ТОШКЕНТ – 2017

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури ўқув, ишчи ўқув режа ва ўқув дастурига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчилар:

Тухтаходжаева З.Т. – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий аспектлар 2” кафедраси, ф.ф.н., доцент

Саидова М. С - ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий аспектлар 3” кафедраси мудири, ф.ф.н., доцент

Базарбаева А.М.– ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий аспектлар 2” кафедраси катта ўқитувчиси

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури Инглиз тили 3-факультети кенгашида муҳокама этилган ва фойдаланишга тавсия этилган. (2017 йил 28 августдаги 1-сонли баённома)

Факультет кенгаши раиси: _____ Кулматов Б.

Кафедра мудири _____ Саидова М. С.

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ



ЎРГАНИЛАЁТГАН ТИЛ ТАРИХИ

ФАНИНИНГ ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

Таълим соҳаси:	110 000 – Педагогика 120 000 – Гуманитар фанлар
Таълим йўналишлари:	5111400 - Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (инглиз тили ва адабиёти)

Умумий ўқув соати – 98 соат
Шу жумладан:
Маъруза – 28 соат
Семинар – 28 соат
Мустақил таълим – 42 соат

Тошкент – 2017

Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи фанининг ишчи ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги 2014 йил “13” ноябрдаги 430- сонли буйруғи билан тасдиқланган “Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи” фани дастурига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети Кенгашининг 201__ йил “___” _____даги ___ - сонли баёни билан тасдиқланган.

Тузувчилар:

М. Саидова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий аспектлари №3” кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди

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ЎзДЖТУ Инглиз тили

III факультети декани:

2017 йил “___” _____

(имзо)

Б. Кулматов

“Инглиз тили назарий аспектлари №3”

кафедраси мудири:

2017 йил “___” _____

(имзо)

М. Саидова

1. Ўқув фани ўқитилиши бўйича услубий кўрсатмалар

“Ўрганилаётган тил тарихи” фани талабаларни назарий билимлар, амалий кўникмалар, грамматик ҳодисалар ва тушунчаларга услубий ёндашув ҳамда илмий дунёқарашини шакллантириш вазифаларини бажаради.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, кўникма ва малакаларига қуйидаги талаблар қўйилади. **Талаба:**

- инглиз тили тарихи ва унинг тараққиёт босқичлари тўғрисида **тасаввурга эга бўлиши;**
- инглиз тилининг тараққиёт босқичлари, назарий масалалари ўрганиш методларини **билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;**
- инглиз тили тарихига доир муайян назарий масалаларга оид фикрларни баён этиши, уларга нисбатан танқидий муносабатни шакллантириш **кўникмаларига эга бўлиши керак;**

2. Маъруза машғулоти

1-жадвал

№	Маъруза мавзулари	Дарс соатлар хажми
1	History of English as a linguistic discipline	2
2	General features of Germanic languages	2
3	Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages	2
4	Vocabulary of Germanic languages	2
5	Eastern Germanic languages	2
6	Northern Germanic languages	2
7	Western Germanic languages	2
8	The Periods in the History of English	2
9	Phonetic structure of Old English	2
10	Grammatical structure of Old English	2
11	Old English vocabulary	2
12	Phonetic and grammatical changes in Middle English Period	2
13	Phonetic changes of Early New English	2
14	Formation and development of national and territorial varieties of English	2

Жами

28 соат

Маъруза машғулоти мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда академ. гуруҳлар оқими учун ўтилади.

3. Семинар машғулоти

2-жадвал

№	Семинар машғулоти мавзулари	Дарс соатлар хажми
1	Theoretical backgrounds of learning the History of English	2
2	Phonetic and grammatical features of Germanic languages	2
3	Word stock of Germanic languages	2
4	Eastern, Northern and Western Germanic languages	2
5	The problem of periodization in the History of English	2
6	Written records and Alphabets of Old English period	2
7	Phonetic processes of Old English period	2
8	The vocabulary of Old English	2
9	Phonetic Peculiarities of Middle English	2
10	Middle English vocabulary	2
11	Middle English dialects and the development of literary norm	2
12	Early new English	2
13	The Great vowel shift	2
14	Features of the new English dialects	2

Жами 28

Семинар машғулоти мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда семинар гуруҳларда ўтилади. Машғулоти фаол ва интерфаол усуллар ёрдамида ўтилади, “Кейс-стади” технологияси ишлатилади, кейслар мазмуни ўқитувчи томонидан белгиланади. Машғулоти кўргазмали материаллар ва ахборотлар мультимедиа қурулмалари ёрдамида олиб борилади.

4. Мустақил таълим

3-жадвал

№	Мустақил таълим мавзулари	Дарс соатлар хажми
1	Genealogical classification of the languages of the world	3
2	Sub-groups of Germanic languages	3
3	Old Germanic Alphabets and texts	3
4	Writings in Old English	3
5	Old English Phrase structure	3
6	Phonetic structure of Old English	3
7	The French influence on English	3
8	Phonetic changes of Middle English	3
9	The grammatical structure of Middle English	3
10	The formation of English national language	3
11	The development of Modern English grammatical forms	3
12	Spread of London Dialect	3

13	Expansion of English	3
14	The Great Vowel Shift	3

Жами 42 соат

Мустақил ўзлаштириладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан рефератлар тайёрланади ва уни тақдимоти ташкил қилинади.

Фан бўйича курс иши. Ўқув режада фан бўйича курс иши соатлари ажратилмаган.

5. Фан бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолаш ва назорат қилиш меъзонлари

Баҳолаш усуллари	Тестлар, ёзма ишлар, оғзаки сўров, презентациялар.		
Баҳолаш мезонлари	<p>86-100 балл «аъло»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – фанга оид назарий тушунчаларни тўла ўзлаштира олиш; – инглиз тили тарихи масалаларига оид хулоса ва қарор қабул қилиш; – инглиз тили тарихини уни ўрганишда методларни қўллаш борасида ижодий фикрлай олиш; – инглиз тили тарихидан олган билимларни амалда қўллаш олиш; – инглиз тили тарихининг долзарб муаммолари хақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; <p>71-85 балл «яхши»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – инглиз тили тарихи масалаларига оид хулоса ва қарор қабул қилиш; – инглиз тили тарихини методларини қўллаш борасида ижодий фикрлай олиш; – инглиз тили тарихидан олган билимларни амалда қўллаш олиш; – инглиз тили тарихининг долзарб муаммолари хақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; <p>55-70 балл «қониқарли»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – инглиз тили тарихининг методлари моҳиятини тушуниш; – инглиз тили ривожланишидаги асосий факторлар, уларнинг асосийларини билиш, айтиб бериш; <p>0-54 балл «қониқарсиз»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – ўтилган фаннинг назарий асосларини билмаслик; – инглиз тили тарихи муаммолари хақида аниқ тасаввурга эга бўлмаслик; инглиз тили тарихи методларини билмаслик. 		
	Рейтинг баҳолаш турлари	Макс.балл	Ўтказиш вақти
	Жорий назорат:	40	
	маъруза машғулотларда фаоллиги, мунтазам равишда конспект юритиши учун	7	Семестр давомида
	Мустақил таълим топшириқларининг ўз вақтида ва сифатли бажарилиши	5	
	Семинар машғулотларда фаоллиги, саволларга тўғри жавоб берганлиги, топши-	28	

	рикларни бажарганлиги учун		
	Оралиқ назорат	30	
	Биринчи оралиқ назорат ёзма иш (маъруза машғулоти олиб борган ўқитувчи томонидан қабул қилинади).	15	
	Иккинчи оралиқ назорат ёзма иш (семинар машғулоти олиб борган ўқитувчи томонидан қабул қилинади). ташқил этилади	15	
	Яқуний назорат	30	
	Ёзма иш	30	
	ЖАМИ	100	

6. Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари

Асосий адабиётлар:

1. The Cambridge history of the English language. Vol. I. Cambridge University Press, 2005. 613 pp.
2. Don Ringe. From Proto- Indo-European to Proto-Germanic. Oxford University Press, 2006. 366 pp.
3. R. Hogg. Introduction to Old English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. 174 pp.
4. English: History. Diversity. Change. The Open University. Routledge, 2005. 394 pp.
5. Kuldashev A. “An Introduction to Germanic Philology”. Т., 2010.

Қўшимча адабиётлар:

1. В.А. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1995.
2. Rastorgueva Т.А. History of the English language, М, 2004.
3. Kuldashev A. A. History of the English language, Т, 2011.
4. 8. Kuldashev A., Khamzaev S. “A. History of the English language” (In Uzbek), Т, 2015.
5. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982

Интернат сайтлари

1. www.thehistoryofenglish.com
2. www.studyenglishtoday.net
3. www.anglik.net
4. www.linguistics.byu.edu
5. www.Ziyonet.uz
6. www.edu.uz

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 1: The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introductory notes 2. Linguistic map of the world 3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world 4. General principles of the development of languages 5. The Place of the Germanic languages among the languages of the world 6. General approaches and methods for language study
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Some events in the history of the Germanic tribes that are important to know; 2) How the nations that invaded the land could influence the language of the Europe; 3) The history of the tribes that later formed the Germanic speaking nations and their peculiarities.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the	The students make ready their notebooks, and other

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

Lecture I. The subject matter of the History of the English language

1. Indo-European family of Languages

2. Common Germanic languages

3. The ancient Germans

4. Classification of Germanic Languages

5. Modern Germanic Languages

The word Philology is used to denote two disciplines; or aspects of human activity.

1. The study of human records, the establishment of their authenticity and their original form and determination of their meaning.
2. Linguistics.

This word is from Greek and it means “love of learning and literature”.

Linguistics is the branch of Philology which deals with the study of the theoretical and practical problems of language functioning: system, structure and usage.

The discipline we are presenting you within the hours given for this subject – that is “**An Introduction to Germanic Philology**” – deals with the problem of working out common features of the Germanic group of languages related to each other by the links of common origin. We’ll speak about the modern status of each member of the Germanic group of languages in the modern world.

These are the following aspects: structural, functional, historical, typological, quantitative, geographical, genetical, sociolinguistic, psychological and others.

Let’s consider some notions denoted by the above mentioned terms.

Genetically languages can be: **a)** related languages: English, Russian, Persian etc.; **b)** non-related: English, Uzbek, and Dravidian etc.

Geographically languages can be: **1. Endemic** - Endemic languages function within the frontiers of one country; **2. Pandemic** - Pandemic languages function as a means of communication in two or more countries of the world.

Quantitative aspect - In this case we discuss the numerical volume of the speakers in this or that language.

Typological aspect - Here we determine synthetic and analytic languages, languages of the agglutinative and amorphous type and others.

Sociolinguistic aspect deals with the problems of functioning of certain in the society. The following problems are discussed here: language situation, language policy, language planning, register, marker, etc.

Language situation denotes the quantity and functional value of the languages used in certain country or region.

Language planning is a notion which denotes a certain set of measures undertaken by the state authorities in relation to the languages used in the country.

Language situation can be of three types:

1) Monolingual (unilingual) language situation is a situation in which one language is used as a means of communication within the borders of a country.

2) Bilingual language situation.

Bilingual language policy is such a policy in which two languages are used as a means of communication in a country.

There are two of BLS:

1. Diglossia (from Greek *di* (two) and *glossa* – language)

2. Bilingualism proper (from Latin *bi* – (two) and *lingua* (language)). In diglossia one of the two languages used in the country is more preferable than the second one and some privileges are given to that language.

In bilingualism the two languages used in the country have got the equal social states and no privilege is given to any of them.

3) Polylingual (multilingual) language situation

In polylingual language situation more than two languages are used as a means of communication.

Language Policy can be of two types:

- 1) Constructive language policy
- 2) Destructive language policy

An example of language policy we can name the following items: **Destructive Language Policy** is observed in the following is carried out in the state: closing the school where the language is taught and where it is the language of teaching; closing the papers; decreasing the Radio & TV programs; promoting the use of other language; banning the use of this language in science; banning the language as a language of Parliament debates and other political activities.

Constructive Language Policy is observed when the state authorities promote the Language usage, increase, support and extend the language functions.

There are three types of *language varieties*: functional variety, social variety and territorial variety.

Socio-functional variety has the following functional types of the languages of the world: **a)** Official working language of UNO; **b)** Regional language; **c)** Official language of a Country; **d)** Language of a Part of a Country; **e)** Language of science and Technologies; **h)** Language of Prose and Poetry; **i)** Language of Teaching (or Instruction); **j)** Language of Nearby Territories (Neighbourhood); **k)** Language of Intercourse in the family; **l)** Language of Religion.

2) Social variety is observed in the following antinomies: men – women; old – young; educated – uneducated; urban – rural; white – black; colonial – Metropolitan

3) Territorial variety is observed in the functioning of the language in different parts of the world: a) Britain (dialects: Northern, Kentish, Middlesex, Southern, Cockney etc.); b) USA; c) Australia; d) Canada; e) South Africa; f) Ireland; g) Scotland.

Territorial variety of the language is such a variety which has developed a certain over-dialectal norm used in its territory of functioning.

Forms of Existence of the language

Language functions in the following forms:

1) Literary language. This has two forms: a) Literary bookish and b) Literary colloquial

2) Vernacular speech

3) Dialect

Functional-pragmatic variety is a variety which serves the aims of this or that communicative act or has obtained corresponding structural features.

Linguistic changes

There are two tendencies in the process of *a language development*:

1) Integration. (Convergence) In integration dialects or languages develop towards obtaining common features in phonetic, grammatical structures and vocabulary.

2) Differentiation (or divergence). In differentiation dialects or languages develop towards obtaining different features in phonetic, grammatical structures and vocabulary to form new languages.

Causes of language changes

There are two types of factors of language change:

1) Extra linguistic factors: Extra linguistic factors of language change include: a) Geographical factors; b) Social factors; c) Temporal factors.

2) Intra linguistic factors:

Intra linguistic factors of language change include:

1) Phonetic changes Phonetic changes include all kinds of changes taking place in the phonetic structure of a language like consonant and vowel changes, qualitative and quantitative changes, positional and independent changes.

2) Spelling changes Spelling changes include all changes taking place in the writing of words in different varieties of the language, like honour – honor, colour – color etc.

3) Grammatical changes Grammatical changes include all changes taking place in the grammatical structure of the language; like using one form instead of another: have got – have, in the street – on the street.

4) Lexical changes Lexical changes include all changes taking place in the vocabulary of the language. They are: widening, narrowing, metaphorical use, connotative use, occasionalisms.

5) Stylistic changes Stylistic changes include all changes within the frames of stylistics that is the use of the word of one style can be used in the other style, thus becoming a stylistically marked form.

Rate of linguistic changes

Language changes are usually slow and gradual. They proceed in minor, imperceptible steps unnoticed by the speakers. The rate of the language change is restricted by the communicative function of language for a rapid change would have disturbed communication between speakers of different generations.

Unlike human society, language undergoes no revolutions or sudden breaks. The slow rate of linguistic change is seen in the gradual spread of new features in language space.

Different parts or levels of language develop at different rates.

Mechanism of language change

Any language change begins with the synchronic variation. Alongside with the existing language units – words, forms, affixes, pronunciation patterns, spelling norm, syntactic constructions – there spring up new units. They may be similar in meaning but slightly different in form, stylistic connotation, social values, distribution in language space, etc.

Variation may have the following stages:

Table 1

Stages	Form A	Form B
1.	An Element of the Norm.	It does not exist.
2.	An Element of the Norm.	An Element of the Substandard Speech.
3.	An Element of the Norm.	An Element of the Norm.
4.	An Element of the Substandard	An Element of the Norm.

	Speech.	
5.	The form dies out.	An Element of the Norm.

Causes of Language evolution

The scholars give different explanations of the causes of language evolution.

1. J.G. Herder and W. Grimm show the Romantic tendencies as the principal causes of the language development.

2. A. Schleicher proposed a naturalistic explanation of the language development saying that “As the language is a living organism, it has got its birth, maturity, old age and decay”.

3. W. Wundt and H. Paul explained the language development psychologically, saying: “A change in the individual psychology causes a change in the language”.

4. J. Vendryes and A. Meillet explained the process of language development from the point of view of the sociologic school in linguistics saying that Linguistic changes are caused by social conditions and events in external history.

5. F. de Saussure, L. Hjelmslev, R. Jakobson, L. Bloomfield explained the language development from the structuralist point of view, saying that the main internal cause of the language change is the pressure of language system. When the balance of symmetrical structural arrangement is disrupted, it tends to be restored again under the pressure of symmetry.

Intra linguistic causes of language change

A. Accommodation of the language structure to the physiological features of human body

1. Tendency to make the pronunciation easier (Indian English, Scottish English, Black English). (substratum theory, Celts ← Romans ← German, Negro English, Afro-American).

2. Tendency to explain different meanings with different forms (stylization, expansion of the poetic function of the language).

3. Tendency to express similar meanings with one form (the Principle of Language economy, development of polysemy).

4. Tendency to form concrete borderlines between morphemes (norm and normalization, development of the Norm).

5. Tendency to the economy of language means (s. item 3).

6. Tendency to delimitate the complexity of speech units.

7. Tendency to change the phonetic structure when the lexical meaning is lost.

8. Tendency to form the language with a plain morphological structure.

B. Necessity of improving the language structure.

1. Tendency to eliminate the abundance (redundancy) of the means of expression (using participial or Infinitive constructions instead of Complex Sentences).

2. Tendency to use more expressive forms (emotional vocabulary).

3. Tendency to get rid of the language elements containing insignificant semantic function (the principal of frequency of usage).

C. Necessity of keeping the language in the condition of communicative validity (generations should understand each other).

D. Internal language changes and processes having no relation to the impact of certain tendency (system-based changes).

1. Influence of the form of one word to the form of another word (Analogy).

2. Contamination.

3. Junction of different words of different origin on the principle of the unity of meanings.

4. The raising of the new means of expressing certain meanings, as a result of association. E.g. Jeans - джинсы, bucks - баксы (buck – male rabbit, doe – female rabbit), rails – рельсы.

5. Appearance and disappearance of phonological oppositions: [лə]> [л:] – more.

6. Spontaneous changes of phonemes.

7. Change of the meaning of the words.

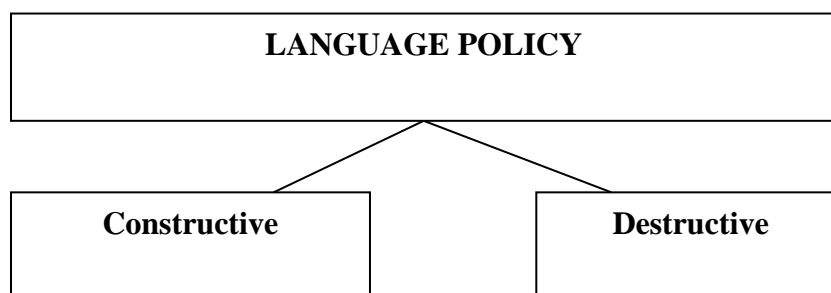
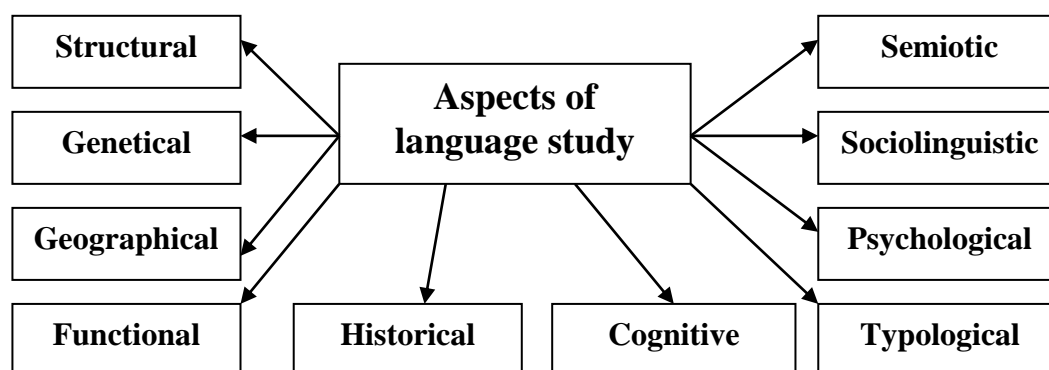
8. Notional words become suffixes in OE ere – meant – a man → now suffix - teacher.

9. Cases of interrelation of processes.

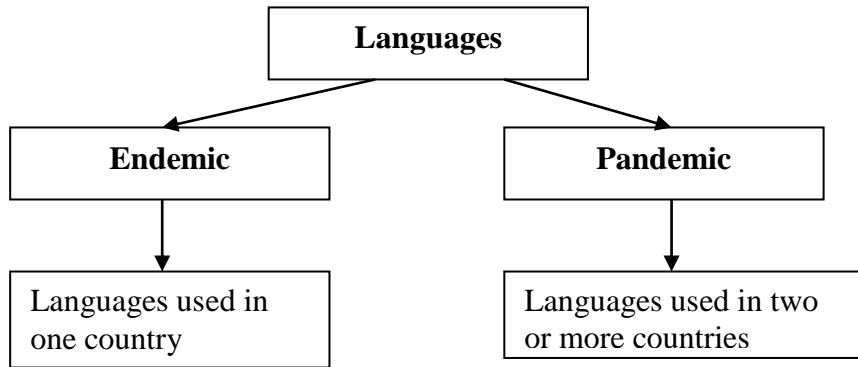
There are two main factors of language change:

Continuity (преемственность, изжиллик) IE → Germ. → En.

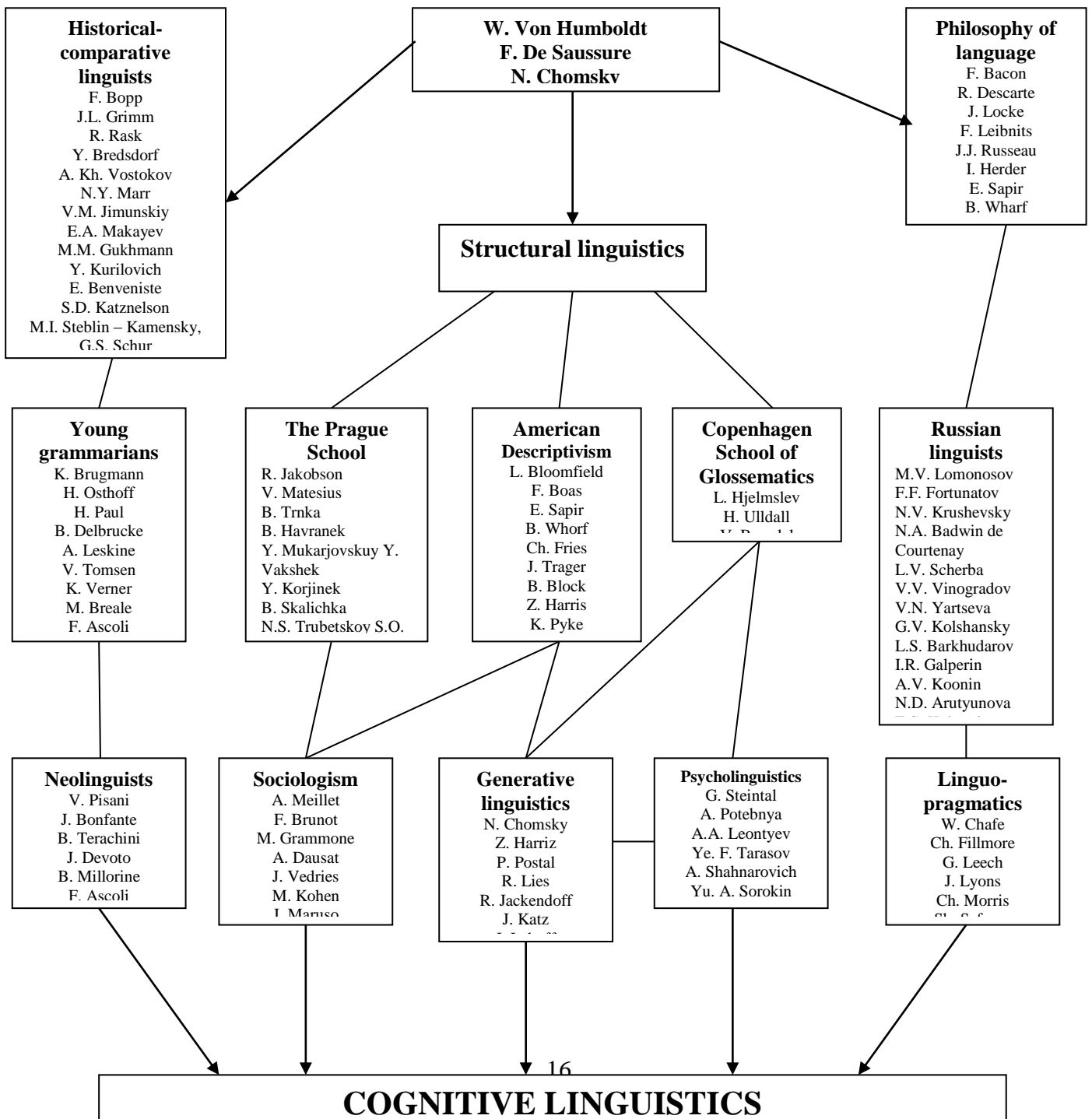
Causality (причинность, сабабийлик) French Influence on English, 1066, Norman Conquest.

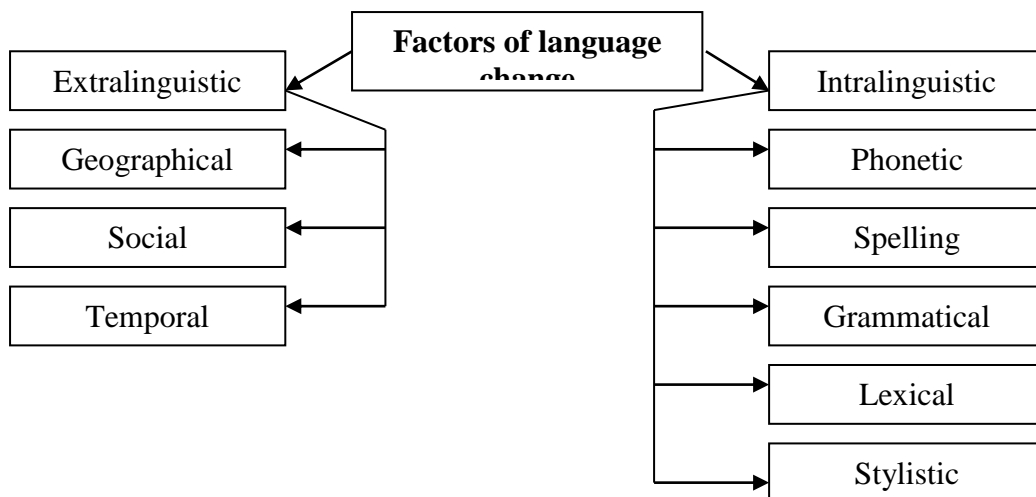


Geographical types of languages

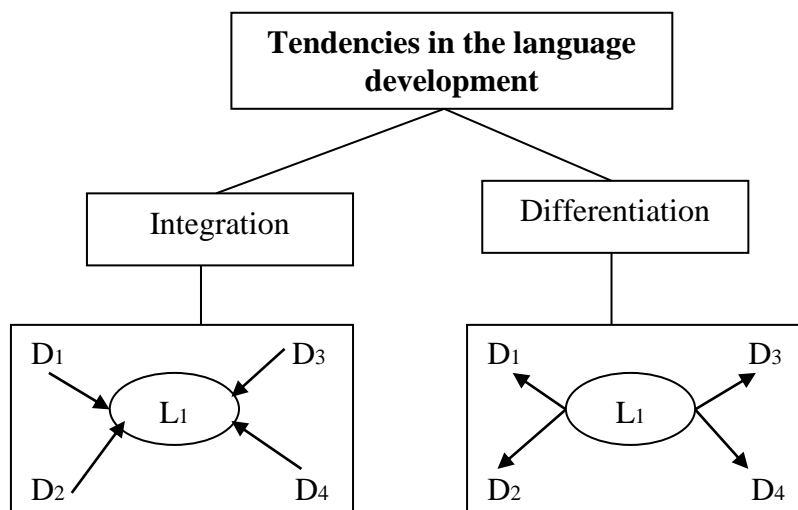
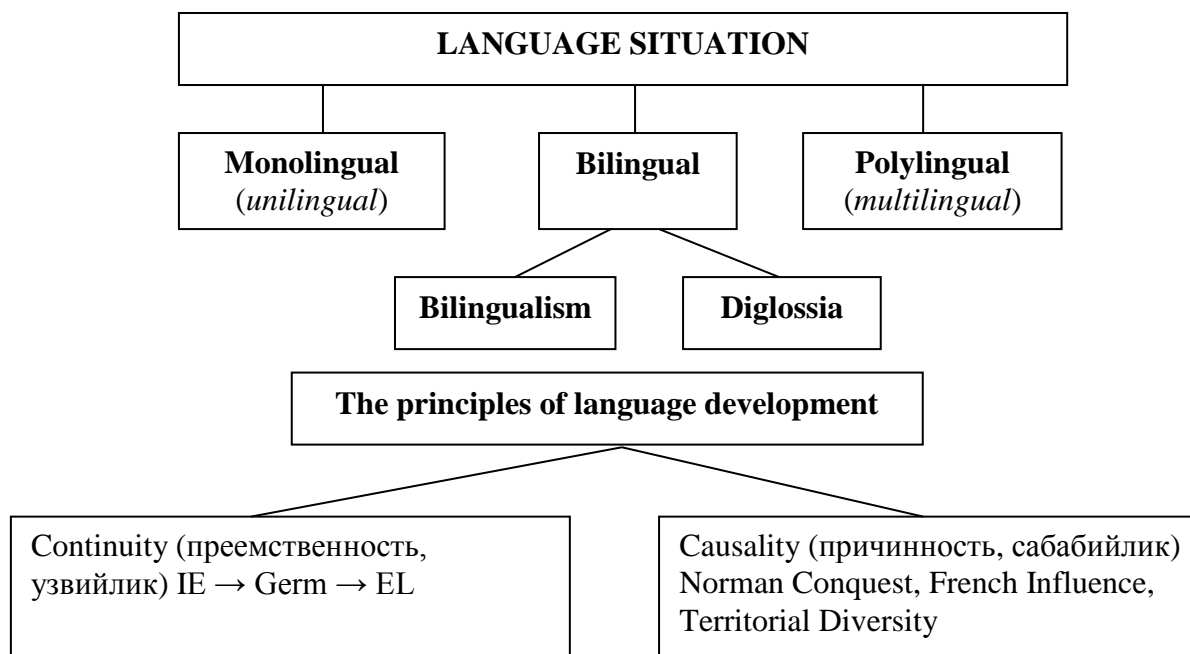


The Greatest Linguists of the World





Essential notions of sociolinguistics



Glossary

1. Broca's aphasia. An aphasia characterized by difficulty in articulation, fluency, grammar, and the comprehension of complex sentences.

2. Broca's area. A region in the lower part of the left frontal lobe that has been associated with speech production, the analysis of complex sentences, and verbal short-term memory

3. Canonical root. A root that has a standard sound pattern for simple words in the language, a part-of-speech category, and a meaning arbitrarily related to its sound.

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 2: General characteristics of the Germanic languages

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<p>A) Historical-comparative method in linguistics</p> <p>B) Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages</p> <p>C) The First Consonant Shift</p> <p>D) Verner's Law</p> <p>E) Rhotacism</p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p>

be able to explain others.	<p><i>A) The number of the languages existing in the world</i></p> <p><i>B) Indo-European languages in the world</i></p> <p><i>C) The number of Germanic languages in the world</i></p> <p><i>D) Groups of Germanic languages</i></p>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

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

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

	informs these students.	
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 2: THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGES

It has been estimated that there are more than 5,700 distinct languages to be found in the world to-day, and all these fall into linguistic groups which are part of linguistic families which may have appeared in different parts of the globe simultaneously.

It should be borne in mind that when people speak of linguistic families they do not use the term "family" in the genetic sense of the word. The fact that people speak the same, or related, languages does not mean that there is a link of race or blood. It is therefore completely unscientific to establish any connection between racial origin and language.

It is often possible to show that languages are historically or genetically related, i.e. they descend from a common source, but when it comes to races we have no such evidence. We cannot say, for instance, that the Mongolian race means the same as the Mongolian languages. Furthermore, it is quite probable that no such thing as an Indo-European race ever existed. In the course of the migrations of ancient peoples, numerous linguistic and racial mixtures took place. The linguistic map of the world shows that many non-Indo-European peoples of Europe and Asia abandoned their own languages and adopted the Indo-European. The Basque language, which is spoken in the north of Spain and the south of France, resisted the assimilation of Indo-European in the past and is not genetically related to the Indo-European languages. On the other hand there is no racial difference between the Estonians, for instance, who speak a Finno-Ugric language, and the Lets, who speak a language of Indo-European origin.

So all the attempts to draw a parallel between race and language which were put forward at the end of the 19th century by chauvinistically-minded linguists

were sharply criticized by progressive thinkers.

Indo- Iranian, which was later, subdivided into:

I. Indian (the oldest form is Sanskrit). The main representatives of the modern Indian languages include Bengali, Marathi, Hindi, Gipsy and some others).

II. Iranian, which is represented by such languages as Avestan or Zend (old form), the so-called Pahlavi (the middle form) and Baluchi, Pushtu, Kurdish, Yagnobi, Ossetic, and some other modern languages.

III. Baltic, which is divided into Lithuanian (the language spoken by some three million people in the Lithuania the old texts of which go back to the 16th century, and Latish, spoken by 2 million people).

IV. The Slavonic languages, which are divided into three large groups:

(1) Eastern Slavonic where we find three languages: (a) Russian, spoken by more than 122 million people, the basis of a common and a literary language; (b) Ukrainian, called Little Russian before the 1917 Revolution, spoken by some 40 million people; and (c) Byelorussian (white Russian), spoken by 9 million people.

(2) Southern Slavonic which include: (a) Bulgarian, current mostly in Bulgaria among more than seven million people; (b) Serbo-Croatian, the language of the Serbs and Croats, about 12 million people, chiefly in Yugoslavia, whose oldest texts date from the 11th century; (c) Slovenian, spoken by 2 million people, with its oldest texts dating from the 10th century.

(3) Western Slavonic, the main representatives of which are: (a) Czech, used by about 10 million people in Czechoslovakia, with texts going back to the 13th century; (b) Slovakian; (c) Polish, spoken by about 35 million people, chiefly in Poland. Polish has a rich literature, the texts of which reach back to the 14th century.

Baltic and Slavonic are very closely related, though not as closely as Indo-Aryan and Iranian. There are some ancient divergences between them which make it possible to reconstruct a primitive Baltic-Slavonic language. Nevertheless in view of their many close resemblances it is convenient to group them together under the common name of Baltic-Slavonic.

V. Germanic has three distinct groups:

(1) North Germanic or Scandinavian which includes: (a) Danish, (b) Swedish, (c) Norwegian, (d) Icelandic; the songs of Eddo written in Icelandic are important landmarks in world literature;

(2) West Germanic with (a) English, spoken to-day by about 270 million people in Great Britain and abroad (USA, Australia, Canada), (b) Frisian, spoken in the provinces of the Northern Netherlands, with their oldest literary sources dating from the 14th century, (c) German (spoken by about 83 million people) with two dialects-Low German occupying the lower or northern parts of Germany, and High German which is located in the mountainous regions of the South of Germany-which have many peculiarities of pronunciation, (d) Dutch, spoken by 12 million people, (e) Yiddish, now spoken by Jewish population in Poland, Germany, Rumania, Hungary. It is based upon some middle German dialects or a mixture of dialects blended with Hebrew, Slavonic and other elements;

(3) East Germanic which has Left no trace. The only representative of this group is Gothic, whose written records have been preserved in the fragmentary translation of the Bible by the bishop Ulfila. Some Gothic words spoken in the Crimea were collected there in the 16th century.

VI. Italo-Celtic with two large groups:

(1) Italic, the only language of which has survived is Latin; Latin has developed into the various Romance languages which may be listed as follows: (a) French, spoken by 60 million people in France and abroad (chiefly in Belgium, Switzerland, Canada), (b) Provencal, of various kinds, of which the oldest literary document dates from the 11th century, (c) Italian with numerous dialects, spoken by 51 million people in Italy itself and abroad, (d) Spanish, spoken by 156 million in Spain, the Filipina Islands, Central and Northern America (except Brazil), (e) Portuguese, (f) Rumanian, (g) Moldavian, (h) Rhaeto-Romanic, spoken in three dialects in the Swiss canton, in Tyrol and Italy.

(2) Celtic, with its Gaelic sub-group, including Irish, which possessed one of the richest literatures in the Middle Ages from the 7th century, Scottish and the

Briton subgroup with Breton, spoken by a million people in Brittany and Welsh, spoken in Wales.

VII. Greek, with numerous dialects, such as Ionic-Attic, Achaean, Aeolic, Doric, etc. The literature begins with Homer's poems the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, dating from the 8th century B. C. Modern Greek is spoken in continental Greece, on the islands of the Ionian and Aegean Seas and by Greek settlements.

VIII. Armenian, spoken by three and a half million people in Armenia and in many settlements of Armenians in Iran, Turkey, etc. Literary Armenian is supposed to go back to the 5th century. Old Armenian, or Grabar, differs greatly from Modern Armenian or Ashharabar.

IX. Albanian, spoken now by approximately two million people in Albania. The earliest records of Albanian date from the 17th century A. D. Its vocabulary consists of a large number of words borrowed from Latin, Greek, Turkish, Slavonic, and Italian.

Two main theories have been advanced concerning the break-up of the original language into those separate languages. One is the Stammbaumtheorie (the tree-stem theory), put forward by August Schleicher (1821-1868), a famous German Indo-Europeist of the last century, in his book *Compendium der Vergleichenden Grammatik der indo-germanischen Sprachen* ("Compendium of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European Languages") (1861). According to him, the original Proto-Indo-European splits into two branches: Slavo-Germanic and Aryo-Greco- Italo-Celtic. The former branch splits into Balto-Slavonic and Germanic, the latter into Arian and Greco-Italo-Celtic, which in its turn was divided into Greek and Italo-Celtic, etc.

The main fault of his theory was that he did not take into account other causes for linguistic divergence than geographical distance from the parent language, and it was not borne out by the linguistic facts. Later research has shown that the Slavonic languages bear a striking resemblance to Indo-Iranian, so much so that they were classified into the satem-languages group, while Italic and Celtic have more in common with Germanic than Slavonic.

Another weak point of Schleicher theory is that he assumed the Indo-European parent language to be monolithic, without any variety of dialect. At the same time, the process of the formation of language families is oversimplified in this theory because he left out of account the fact that side by side with the process of language differentiation, there was a process of language integration too.

Schleicher's faults are typical of many books on comparative linguistics in the second half of the 19th century.

Schleicher's theory was so unsatisfactory even to his contemporaries that they tried for a long time to correct his shortcomings and to put forward other theories, among which the "wave" theory should be mentioned. The founder of this theory, Johannes Schmidt (1843-1901) argued in his book *Die Verwandtschaftsverhältnisse der indo-germanischen Sprachen* ("The Relationships of the Indo-European Languages", 1872) that new languages and dialects started and spread like waves when you throw a stone into the water.

He suggested that dialect *A* has some features in common with dialects *B* and *C*, others with dialects *C* and *D* but not with *B*, that dialect *B*, on the other hand, shares some phenomena with dialects *C* and *D*, but not with dialect *A*, etc.

Schmidt was right to assume that the relationship between Indo-European languages could not be portrayed by means of a family tree. He clearly demonstrated the primitive and abstract nature of Schleicher's view of the process of formation of language families and the relations between them, but he himself failed to examine the systematic process of the changes in the original language.

Two major members of the family which were discovered in the present century are missing in these schemes. They are:

X. "Tocharian", as it is called, which is preserved in fragmentary manuscripts in Chinese Turkistan, dating from the 6th to the 10th centuries A.D. It is divided into two dialects, which for convenience are termed *A* and *B*.

XI. Hittite, which survives in cuneiform tablets recovered from Boghazkoy in Anatolia, the site of the capital of the ancient Hittite kingdom. Some think that the Hittites or Hethites of the Bible (the Khatti mentioned in Egyptian records)

may have been the Indo-Europeans. The interpretation of this language and its close relation to Indo-European was announced by Bedrich Hrozný in December, 1915. The time covered by these records is from the 19th to the 12th century B. C., the bulk of them dating from near the end of this period. It is the oldest recorded Indo-European language. Its discovery has raised many new and interesting problems.

In addition to the major languages listed above, there existed in antiquity a considerable number of other Indo-European languages, which are known only from scanty remains in the form of inscriptions, proper names and occasional glosses. They are:

XII. Thracian, a satem-language, which once extended over a very wide area, from Macedonia to southern Russia.

XIII. Phrygian, also a satem-language, introduced into Asia Minor about the 12th century B. C. and possibly closely related to Thracian.

XIV. Illyrian, with its South Italian offshoot Messapian.

XV. Osco-Umbrian, Italic dialects closely related to Latin, and commonly grouped with it under the common name Italic.

XVI. Venetic of North-East Italy, a centum language of the West Indo-European group.

XVII. To complete the list, we should mention certain ancient languages of Asia Minor which together with Hittite form a special group. The Hittite cuneiform texts mention two such languages, Luwian and Palaean, and a little text material, particularly of Luwian, is to be found in them. In addition there is the so-called Hieroglyphic Hittite, the decipherment of which is now fairly advanced, and which is considered to be of Indo-European origin, and Carian, the decipherment of which has been recently done by the young linguist V. Shevoroshkin.

Linguistic evidence shows that close contact existed between the dialects of Indo-European. From the point of view of vocabulary, for instance, Indo-Iranian shared with Baltic and Slavonic a considerable number of words which may be found only in these languages and they supply important clues of the connection

between these two linguistic families: the Sanskrit word *suit* "to be bright, white" has its cognate in the Old Slavonic language in the form of *suitlti* "to dawn".

Slavonic and Indo-Iranian coincide in changing *s* to *š* in contact with the semi-vowels *i* and *u*, the vibrant *rand* the velar occlusive *k*. Slavonic shows special affinities with Iranian in its use of the word *Bogii* both for "god" and for "grain" or "wealth". Some common grammatical elements may be found in Balto-Slavonic and in Germanic languages; they share the element *m* in the Dative and Ablative cases (Old Slavonic *uliikomu*, Gothic *wulfam* "with wolves") while in Sanskrit the element *bh* appears here (Sanskrit *urkebhyas* has the same meaning).

During this period the contacts between languages were so wide that it was not only languages in the same family that had common elements, but non-Indo-European languages borrowed words from Indo-European languages too: for example, the Finno-Ugric *mete* "honey" was borrowed from the Sanskrit *madhu*, Finno-Ugric *nime* "name" has its cognate form in the Sanskrit *niiman*.

The prominent Russian linguist A. A. Shakhmatov showed that the earliest Finno-Ugric borrowings from their neighbors in south Russia show common Aryan rather than Iranian traits.

The study of close linguistic relations between the dialects of the Indo-European parent language is well under way now and the decipherment of newly discovered languages will contribute to the solution of this problem.

Glossary

1. family resemblance category. A category whose members have no single trait in common, but in which subsets of members share traits, as in *a* family. Examples include tools, furniture, and game-..

2. FMRI. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging. A form of MRI that depicts the metabolic activity in different parts of the brain, not just the brain's anatomy

3. generative linguistics. The school of linguistics associated with Noam Chomsk) that attempts to discover the rules and principles that govern the form and

meaning of words and sentences in a particular language and in human languages in general

4. generative phonology. The branch of generative grammar that studies the sound pattern of languages

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 3: Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages (GL)

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic B) The first consonant shift of PG Period C) The Second Consonant Shift. D) High German Dialects and their features.
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <i>A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?</i> <i>B) How does a language change?</i> <i>C) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?</i>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

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

Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.
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Lecture 3: The Earliest Period of Germanic History. Proto-Germanic.

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

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family. PG is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. In the 19th c. it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages. Hypothetical reconstructed PG forms will sometimes be quoted below, to explain the origin of English forms.

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

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. RC., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. In the 1st c. B.C. in COMMENTARIES ON THE

GALLIC WAR (COM-MENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO) Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes - the Suevians - who bordered on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. The tribal names *Germans* and *Teutons*, at first applied to separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group. In the 1st c. A. D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in NATURAL HISTORY (NATURALIS HISTORIA) made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons DE SITU, MORIBUS ET POPULIS GERMANIAE; in this work he reproduced Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes. F. Engels made extensive use of these sources in the papers ON THE HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT GERMANS and THE ORIGIN OF THE FAMILY, PRIVATE PROPERTY AND THE STATE. Having made a linguistic analysis of several Germanic dialects of later ages F. Engels came to the conclusion that Pliny's classification of the Teutonic tribes accurately reflected the contemporary dialectal division. In his book on the ancient Teutons F. Engels described the evolution of the economic and social structure of the Teutons from Caesar's to Tacitus's time.

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

The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications. The development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally PG split

into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the lower valley of the Elbe consisted in their movement north, to the Scandinavian Peninsula, a few hundred years before our era. This geographical segregation must have led to linguistic differentiation and to the division of PG into the northern and southern branches. At the beginning of our era some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled closer to the Vistula basin, east of the other continental Germanic tribes. It is only from this stage of their history that the Germanic languages can be described under three headings: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

East Germanic

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 A. D. they moved south-east and sometime later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch, the *Visigotas*, invaded Roman territory, participated in the assaults on Rome under Alaric and moved on to southern Gaul, to found one of the first barbarian kingdoms of Medieval Europe, the Toulouse kingdom. The kingdom lasted until the 8th c. though linguistically the western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanised Celts.¹ The eastern Goths, *Ostrogotas* consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the lower basin of the Dniester, were subjugated by the Huns under Atilla, traversed the Balkans and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy, with Ravenna as its capital. The short-lived flourishing of Ostrogothic culture in the 5th-6th c. under Theodoric came to an end with the fall of the kingdom.

The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4th-6th c. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th c. Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into

Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Parts of Ulfilas' Gospels - a manuscript of about two hundred pages, probably made in the 5th or 6th c. have been preserved and are kept now in Uppsala, Sweden. It is written on red Parchment with silver and golden Letters and is known as the SILVER CODEX (CODEX ARGENTEUS). Ulfilas' Gospels were first published 'n the 17th c. and have been thoroughly studied by 19th and 20th c. Philologists. The SILVER CODEX is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English.

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have Left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in place-names, which reveal the directions of their migrations: *Bornholm* and *Burgundy* go back to the East Germanic tribe of *Burgundians*; *Andalusia* is derived from the tribal name *Vandals*; *Lombardy* got its name from the *Langobards*, who made part of the population of the Ostrogothic kingdom in North Italy.

North Germanic

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

The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began

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

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

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

Norwegian was the last to develop into an independent national language. During the period of Danish dominance Norwegian intermixed with Danish. As a result in the 19th c. there emerged two varieties of the Norwegian tongue: the state or bookish tongue *riksmal* (later called *bokmdl*) which is a blending of literary Danish with Norwegian town dialects and a rural variety, *landsmal*. Landsmal was sponsored by 19th c. writers and philologists as the real, pure Norwegian language. At the present time the two varieties tend to fuse into a single form of language *nynorsk* ("New Norwegian").

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

back to the Viking Age.

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

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

Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements (9th c.). Their West Scandinavian dialects, at first identical with those of Norway, eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic. It developed as a separate language in spite of the political dependence of Iceland upon Denmark and the dominance of Danish in official spheres. As compared with other North Germanic languages Icelandic has retained a more archaic vocabulary and grammatical system. Modern Icelandic is very much like Old Icelandic and Old Norse, for it has not participated in the linguistic changes which took place in the other Scandinavian languages, probably because of its geographical isolation. At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200000 people.

Old Icelandic written records date from the 12th and 13th c., an age of

literary flourishing. The most important records are: the ELDER EDDA (also called the POETIC EDDA) - a collection of heroic songs of the 12th c., the YOUNGER (PROSE) EDDA (a text-book for poets compiled by Snorri Sturluson in the early 13th c.) and the Old Icelandic sagas.

West Germanic

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

In the Early Middle Ages the Franks consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance. Towards the 8th c. their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. Under Charlemagne (768-814) the Holy Roman Empire of the Franks embraced France and half of Italy, and stretched northwards up to the North and Baltic Sea. The empire lacked ethnic and economic unity and in the 9th c. broke up into parts.' Its western part eventually became the basis of France.

Though the names *France*, *French* are derived from the tribal name of the Franks, the Franconian dialects were not spoken there. The population, the Romanised Celts of Gaul, spoke a local variety of Latin, which developed into one of the most extensive Romance languages, French.

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

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch - the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and Flemish ~ the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the 10th c.; 12th c. records represent the earliest Old Dutch. The formation of the Dutch language stretches over a long period; it is linked up with the growth of the Netherlands into an independent bourgeois state after its liberation from Spain in the 16th c.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called *Dutch*, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, *Netherlandish*. Netherlandish is spoken by almost 20 million people; its northern variety, used in the Netherlands, has a more standardized literary form.

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

The High German group of tribes did not go far in their migrations. Together with the Saxons the Alemannians, Bavarians, and Thuringians expanded east,

driving the Slavonic tribes from places of their early settlement.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written records in OHG date from the 8th and 9th c. (glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems). Towards the 12th c. High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighboring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. The Written Standard of New High German was established after the Reformation (16th c.), though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th c. as Germany remained politically divided into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms. To this day German is remarkable for great dialectal diversity of speech.

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

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

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

The territory of English was at first confined to what is now known as England proper. From the 13th to the 17th c. it extended to other parts of the British Isles. In the succeeding centuries English spread overseas to other continents. The first English written records have come down from the 7th c.,

which is the earliest date in the history of writing in the West Germanic subgroup (see relevant chapters below).

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

In the Early Middle Ages the continental Saxons formed a powerful tribe in the lower basin of the Elbe. They were subjugated by the Franks and after the breakup of the Empire entered its eastern subdivision. Together with High German tribes they took part in the eastward drive and the colonization of the former Slavonic territories. Old Saxon known in written form from the records of the 9th c. has survived as one of the Low German dialects.

Glossary

1. **consonant.** A phoneme produced with a blockage or constriction of the vocal tract.

2. **declension.** The process of inflecting a noun, or the set of the inflected forms of a noun: *duck, ducks*

3. **derivation.** The process of creating new words out of old ones, either by affixation (*break + -able* → *breakable*; *sing + -er* → *singer*), or by compounding [*super + woman* → *superwoman*).

4. **diphthong.** A vowel consisting of two vowels pronounced in quick succession, *bite: loved*.

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 4: Vocabulary of GL

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<p>A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic</p> <p>B) The first consonant shift of PG Period</p> <p>C) The Second Consonant Shift.</p> <p>D) High German Dialects and their features.</p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <p><i>A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?</i></p> <p><i>B) How does a language change?</i></p> <p><i>C) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?</i></p>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.

Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his	The students attentively

	lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

GERMANIC ALPHABETS

Germanic tribes used 3 (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 Rune. Runes have a very peculiar look for eyes accustomed to modern European alphabets.

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

text a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet is used.

The latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes is the Latin alphabet. It superseded both the Runic and Gothic alphabet when a new technique of writing was introduced. The material now used for writing was either parchment or papyrus. Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religious texts.

From ancient times mankind was appealed by unknown writings: half-forgotten antique languages, Egypt hieroglyphs, Indian inscriptions... The fate of runes was much happy - their sense wasn't lost in the course of time, even when Latin alphabet became dominating one in Europe. For instance, runes were used in calendars till the end of the 18-th c.

Modern linguists think that runes possess another kind of meaning, which we cannot find in ideograms, hieroglyphs or in modern exotic alphabets - this meaning exists in subconsciousness level. Runes were the personification of the surrounding world, essence of outlook. With the help of special links between runes a man could express nearly everything, compiling them (so called combined runes). In different times runes could change their meaning, so we can say this adjusting system created dozens of meanings of one and the same symbol. (Linguists find confirmation of this theory in the following example - every rune in different languages had separate and original meaning, which didn't fully coincide with another one in the second language.

Like all other components of language, runes endured numerous changes: in form, style of writing, system of sounds and Letters, which expressed them. We can say that these alphabets took wide spreading not only among Scandinavian and German tribes, but we can also trace its penetration in Celtic and Slavonic languages. Now runes keep their main original meaning - in the beginning they were the symbols of fortunetelling lore with sacred sense and mystic signs (The general matter why they didn't get wide diffusion before AD). Even the word "rune" corresponds as "secret" (compare old Celtic "run", middle Welsh "rown", modern German "raunen"). The last 1000 years in Iceland runes have been used for

divination. In Anglo-Saxon England the hours of king council were called "runes".

The most important sources about runic history are ancient texts of Scandinavian pagan religion - Old Edda by Brynolf Swesson and Lesser Edda by Snorri Sturlusson. They were two missionaries who discovered these manuscripts in the time of Christian expansion. Another documents containing the information about runes origin are Northern king sagas "Red Leather" and Icelandic kin chronicles. Tombstones, altars, pagan pillars called "runic stones" played quite catholic role in scientific researches - usually they are found dappled with miscellaneous writings (Gothland, Upland, Norway). The most famous is Cilwer stone, which dates from the 5-th c. So we can find a lot of writings on jewels and weapon, for barbarians believed things had to possess their own names (breakteats).

German and Slavonic runic writing was the Letter system of peculiar look, accounted by the writing technique on bone, wood and metal. Nowadays we have the main runic alphabet, consisting of 24 signs, may be more, but another ones are regarded as variants or combined runes. Letters of any language can have several sources of origin, for a taste Greek language, which gave the birth to North Italian writing, had a good many of meaning for every sign. This tradition was inherited by Etruscan alphabet and later by runic one. However, Christian chronicles of 9-12c, known as «songs», revealed information about rune names and their meanings. Every rune in it conforms to one strophe, which begins with this rune and its name. In its turn, the name begins with its sound. The whole system is divided into 2 parts - futarks (arises from the first symbols - F, U, Th, A, R, K: Old futark (runes of Old German origin - o.f.) and Late futark (modifications of o.f. in Northumbrian, Frisian and Anglo-Saxon alphabets). 24 signs traditionally graduate into 3 groups of 8 symbols called atts ("part of land" or "kin" compare Scot. "lairt", Ireland "aird").

The origin of futark remains the matter of severe debates between historians, linguists and philologists. There are two main theories: 1) Runic writing appeared on the basis of Latin alphabet; 2) cradles of these signs are in transalpine and North Italian scripts. Scientists have a lot of historical facts, approving that Etruscan

merchants used this system. Probably they brought it to the North (6th c. RC.). However some researchers think that runes cropped up in German tribes from ancient Rome Latin writing. Comparing 3 letter types we have: 10 runic Letters in Etruscan language, which absolutely coincide each other; 5 coinciding runic Letters and 8 resembling ones in Latin. Latin, Etruscan and some symbols from Greek originate from Akhiram alphabet (10c. RC). But the construction of runic alphabet (RA) different from others - for example, order of the first Letters. The main period of development is one, when occult signs, used in Alpine region and in the North, became combine sole system. Many runic symbols were used as icons, showing various things and animals. Some runologists suppose that even in the most developed variant they are close to pictures: rune "Fehu" f symbolizes cattle, Thurisaz q 1, - thorn, Wunjo w - weathercock, Algiz z - elk, Zin xxs-lightning, Y r u - bow, Edhwaz m - horse. The top of development and complete formation of RA system was in 1-2 c. AD.

The number of runes in alphabet varied in the course of time. 28 signs appeared in the middle of the 6-th c. In Britain where German runes penetrated in the 5-th c. with Anglo-Saxon invasion, Frisian futark was improved by the some additions and changes (mostly combined runes) and numbered 29 units. In Northumberland 33 rune system existed already, with the mixture of Celtic runes. Whilst on the Continent of went through the number of other changes. In the middle of the 7-th c. the tendency to simplification appeared - some runes changed in inscription, some were lost. To the middle of the 10-th c. the number of runes decreased to 16 units and late futark formed. It was purely writing system, which wasn't used for fortune telling. It got wide spreading not only on the territory of German Empire, but in the North too, for example in Denmark and Swiss. The difference between them was in writing technology - Swiss ones were simpler, with short branches. Apparently it can be explained that it gained everyday using. This system, if not take notice of its disadvantages, was in circulation till 12-th c.

The next step in development of RA took place in the middle of the 12-th c. by adding dots to 16 sign system (dotted alphabet). It was used along with Latin

one till the 16-th c. We can find its variants in Slavonic manuscripts. Ripped and branchy RA weren't alike to dotted one. Combined (constrained) runes. They attract attention by their unusual form - it is too difficult to regard it as ordinary symbol. Their use is quite miscellaneous: in amulets, braketeads, and everywhere when difficult magic formulas were necessary. Runes are bind on the strength of common line.

We cannot leave unnoticed such important stage of RA development as Ulfila's Gothic alphabet. It has got nothing in common with "gothic" variants of Romanticism period: The real Gothic writing system was used by the Goths on Gothland Island and later on the territory of Poland, Lithuania and even North Black Sea coast. In the 6-th c. gothic bishop Ulfila invented parallel variant of gothic alphabet. Creating it, Ulfila took the range of common Greek Letters and perfected some runic sings, which existed already, with the aim to paint them with brush. During 5 following centuries it was used by west Goths in Spain and in the South of France. But in 1018 Toledian counsel decreed to prohibit all runic alphabets as vane and pagan ones. It is clear from Letter names and their order that UA is younger than other RA. So we can trace Greek and Latin influence in the system. For example, futark structure was changed by adding 2 symbols to the first att. So UA contains 12 signs, which do not have analogs in Old Gothic: Q, D, A, B, G, and E, X, K, L, N, P, and T.

But, knowing all these peculiarities, we still can't answer to the question, from where runes came. So, a few scientists suppose that German and Slavonic RA had the same roots and originated from a same proto-language, for Etruscan theory is rather imperfect - Scandinavians couldn't borrow it, because Etruscan writings were used too far away from the North and in quite small territory. The following theory is closely connected with national migrations and mythology. One of the legendary Scandinavian tribes - vanes or veneds - came to the North from the East, where they set up Slavonic tribe - Vyatichi. We haven't got any historical confirmations, that Slavonic people didn't have writing systems before Cyril and Mefodius coming, so hypothetically we can believe that such system existed.

Moreover, archeological researches showed that there were some traces of RA on the territory of ancient Russia.

So we can say that when Slavonic tribes divided into nonrelative kins, RA went through changes of different kind. In the end of the 1st millennium BC runic alphabets were vanished by Germanic barbarian hordes and proto runic system spread rapidly on the territory from the Black sea to Gaul. As it is followed from archeological discoveries RA can be found on the Slavonic jewels dated from 10th c. AD, but it is difficult to say if they were originally Russian or Scandinavian ones - perhaps, runes on the jewelries were regarded as the part of design and in was copied blindly.

Glossary

1. recursion. A procedure that invokes an instance of itself, and thus can be applied, ad infinitum, to create or analyze entities of any size in vocabulary: "A *verb phrase* can consist of a verb followed by a noun phrase followed by a *verb phrase*."

2. rime. The part of a syllable consisting of the vowel and any following consonants; the part that rhymes in vocabulary: *MOON*; *JUNE*.

3. root. The most basic morpheme in a word or family of related words, consisting of an irreducible, arbitrary pairing between a sound and a meaning in vocabulary.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: "The History of the English language"

Lecture 5: East Germanic Languages

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	A) Mutation of vowels in Gothic

	<p>B) The first consonant shift and its results in Gothic</p> <p>C) Grammatical structure of Gothic</p> <p>D) Phonetic changes of Gothic</p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <p>A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence in Gothic?</p> <p>B) How does a Gothic language change in vocabulary?</p> <p>C) What is the essence of Wulfila’s creating a new alphabet?</p>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “East Germanic Languages”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

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

Lecture 5: East Germanic Languages. The Gothic language.

The Gothic language, now dead, was spoken by a group of Old Germanic tribes, known in history as Gothic tribes. Where the Goths first came from is not definitely known. There were stories told by their old men of a time when their people had dwelt far to the north, on the shores and islands of what is now Sweden. Then had come long, slow wanderings through the forests of western Russia, until they reached the shores of the Black Sea. In time they overran the once mighty Roman Empire to the south. The first of these northern barbarians to conquer Rome were the Visi-goths, or West Goths. Another tribal union of the Goths, the Ost-rogoths, or East Goths, inhabited the Black Sea shores.

For a time the Goths ruled a great kingdom north of the Danube river and the Black Sea. Then, in A.D. 315, the Huns, a savage people, swept into Europe from Asia. They conquered the Ostrogoths and forced the Visigoths to seek refuge across the Danube within the boundaries of the Roman Empire. In a battle fought near the city of Adrianople, in 378, the Visigoths defeated and slew Emperor

Valens. For a time they lived peaceably on Roman territory. In 395 they rose in rebellion under their ambitious young king Alaric and overran a large part of the Eastern Empire. In 410 Rome fell into the hands of the Visigoths. Alaric led the attack.

Alaric's successors led their people out of Italy and set up a powerful kingdom in Spain and southern Gaul. In the year 507 the Visigoths in Gaul were defeated by the Franks and were forced beyond the Pyrenees. For 200 years their kingdom in Spain flourished. It did not come to an end until 711, when the Moors crossed over from Africa and in a terrible eight-day battle destroyed the Visigothic kingdom. And that was the end of the Visigoths as an independent people.

The Ostrogoths for a time formed part of the vast horde which followed the king of the Huns, Attila. They settled in the lands south of Vienna when the Hunnish kingdom fell apart. Their national hero was Theodoric the Great, a powerful and romantic figure who became king in 474. In 488 he invaded Italy.

Theodore's reign was one of the best but his kingdom was one of the great "might-have-beens" of history. He failed largely because no permanent union was affected between the barbarians and the Christian-Roman population. It was during his reign that many manuscripts of Gothic which have come down to us were written.

After his death in 526 the generals of the Eastern Empire reconquered Italy. After fighting a last battle near Mount Vesuvius in 553), the Ostrogoths marched out of Italy. They merged with other barbarian hordes north of the Alps and disappeared as a people from history.

THE GOTHIC WRITTEN LANGUAGE AND MONUMENTS

These earliest monuments of the Old Germanic written language, which give us the possibility of speaking on the structure and the vocabulary of the languages, were written in Gothic. The written records of other Old Germanic languages appeared much later, several centuries after. The monuments of the Gothic language reflect the stage in its development when it is still possible to reveal to a certain extent the main peculiarities which characterize Old Germanic languages as a whole. Later on, when written monuments of other Old Germanic languages

appeared, these peculiarities had become obliterated or changed considerably, so that only a comparison with Gothic makes it possible to reconstruct the earliest stage in their development or at least to understand the origin of the phenomenon under review.

The early appearance of monuments in Gothic is due to the activities of Ulfilas (in Gothic Wulfila), a Gothic bishop and scholar (311-383). For more than 40 years he labored, first making a Gothic alphabet so that he could translate the Bible and then teaching his people the new faith. This Bible translated by Ulfilas is centuries older than the earliest writing which we have in any other Old Germanic languages, so its historical value is very great.

The manuscripts containing the fragments of the biblical translation which have come down to us, are not contemporary with Ulfilas, they were written in the West Gothic dialect in Italy about the year 500. The monuments are the following:

I. Codex Argenteus, in the University library of Uppsala (Sweden). This codex contained originally on 330- Leaves the four Gospels in the order Matthew, John, Luke and Mark. At present only 187 Leaves are still preserved. The manuscript was written on a purple parchment, the letters were silver and golden. It was first published in 1665.

II. Codex Carolinus. It consists of 4 leaves containing a fragment of the Epistle to the Romans. The manuscript is bilingual; the same text is given in Gothic and in Latin. It was first published in 1762.

III. Codices Ambrosiani, 5 fragments in the Ambrosian library in Milan.

Codex A contains on 95 leaves some fragments of St. Paul's Epistles; and a small fragment of a Gothic Calendar.

Codex B contains on 77 leaves fragments of some other Epistles.

Codex C consisting of 2 leaves only, and containing fragments of St. Matthew Gospel.

Codex D consists of 3 leaves containing fragments of the books of Old Testament.

Codex E consisting of 8 leaves (3 of them are in the Vatican at Roma), and containing a fragment of commentary on St. John.

IV. Codex Turinensis, in Turin, consisting of 4 damaged leaves, and containing fragments of two Epistles.

All these manuscripts were first published in 1819-1839.

All the manuscripts but *Codex Argenteua* are palimpsests (i.e. manuscripts the original text on which has been effaced to make room for a second).

There are some other, smaller monuments of the Gothic language; they are short inscriptions on a ring and a spear, a few Gothic glosses and words in Latin texts, and others.

At the same time there appeared some innovations characteristic of the Gothic language only, such as Class IV of weak verbs in -non, the optative and imperative forms in -au. On the other hand, the Gothic language has lost some forms retained by other Old Germanic languages, among them the Instrumental case, the declension in considerable changes appeared in different word-former under the influence of reduction of unstressed syllables; the beginning of this process goes back to the period of Common Germanic. This accounts for the absence of the personal index-p in the 3 person singular optative (nimai), of the personal index -e in the 3 person singular preterit indicative (nam), of the Dative case ending -i (gumin* guminii) .which were lost in Common Germanic or probably when Old Germanic languages only began to separate from one another. The reduction of unstressed syllables caused the three-part structure of the word (root + stem-forming suffix +ending) to be brought to two parts (root + ending) or even to one part only (cf. the Dat. sing. of degs. "day" :dag: * a3-a-a).

Dead language belonging to the now extinct East Germanic group of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages. Gothic has special value for the linguist because it was recorded several hundred years before the oldest surviving texts of all the other Germanic languages (except for a handful of earlier runic inscriptions in Old Norse). Thus it sheds light on an older stage of a Germanic language and on the development of Germanic languages in general.

The earliest extant document in Gothic preserves part of a translation of the Bible made in the 4th cent. A.D. by Ulfilas, a Gothic bishop. This translation is written in an adaptation of the Greek alphabet, supposedly devised by the bishop himself, which was later discarded.

The **Gothic** language is known to us by a translation of the Bible known as *Codex Argenteus* ("The Silver Bible") dating from the 4th century AD, of which some books survive. The translation was apparently done in the Balkans region by people in close contact with Greek Christian culture. The language used is Germanic but has major differences from other known Germanic languages.

It all appears that the Gothic Bible was used by the Visigoths in Spain until 700 AD, and perhaps for a time in Italy, the Balkans and what is now the Ukraine.

Apart from the Bible, the only other Gothic document is a few pages of Commentary on the Gospel of John. This document is usually called the "Skeireins".

In addition, there are numerous short fragments and runic inscriptions that are known to be or suspected to be Gothic. Some scholars believe that these inscriptions are not at all Gothic.

The Gothic Bible and Skeireins were written using a special alphabet.

The Gothic alphabet was probably created by bishop Ulfilas who also translated the Bible into the "razda" (language). Some scholars (e.g. Braune) claim that it was derived from the Greek alphabet only, while others maintain that there are some Gothic Letters of runic or Latin origin.

There are very few references to the Gothic language in secondary sources after about 800 AD, so perhaps it was rarely used by that date. In evaluating medieval texts that mention the Goths, it must be noted that many writers used "Goths" to mean any Germanic people in eastern Europe, many of whom certainly did not use the Gothic language as known from the Gothic Bible. Some writers even referred to Slavicspeaking people as Goths.

There is also the case of the "Crimean Goths". A few fragments of their language dating to the 16th century exist today. Assuming those fragments are

genuine, it appears to be a different language from the one used in the Gothic Bible.

Principal features of Gothic

As all the **Germanic languages** Gothic also has the stress on the first syllable.

Noun and Adjectives: Gothic has five cases:

- Nominative: for nouns acting as the subject of the sentence
- Genitive: expresses possessive relationships
- Dative: for nouns acting as the indirect object
- Accusative: for nouns acting as the direct object
- Vocative: for the person addressed (it is usually the same form as the Nominative).

Nouns: The inflectional ending depends on:

▪the stem of the word: The stems include a-, ia-, 0-, i-, u- and n-stems. These terms refer to the reconstructed Primitive Germanic (eg bird: "*fug/s*" is an a-stem, cf the Primitive Germanic word: **fuglaz*).

▪the gender of the word: Gothic has masculine, feminine and neuter nouns.

▪whether the word is singular or plural.

Adjectives: The adjective takes the same gender, number and case as the noun. The endings also vary according to:

- **The stem** to which the adjective belongs (as for the nouns above).

- **Inflection:** weak inflection (for the vocative and after a definite article) and strong inflection (in all other situations).

Articles and demonstrative pronouns

The definite article is an important new development in Germanic.

It arose from the demonstrative pronoun and still has the same form in Gothic (*sa* = 'the' or 'that' masculine, *pata* neuter, *so* feminine). It is only the context which enables its use as an article to be recognized.

The indefinite article does not yet exist.

The possessive pronouns are inflected according to the strong inflection of the adjective.

Gothic uses the 1st, 2nd and 3rd person and a three-fold number division. Alongside singular and plural there is also a dual which indicates two people (eg *wit* = 'the two of us').

The familiar and polite forms of "you" use the same form of the second person, as in English, but unlike most other modern Germanic languages. (see also The Middle Dutch case system)

Verbs

The form of the verb indicates:

- The **person** (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and the **number** (singular, dual, plural) A personal pronoun is used when needed for emphasis or contrast. In other cases Gothic suffice with the verb on its own.

- The **mood**: Gothic uses the indicative, imperative and subjunctive.

- The **tense**: There are only two forms, the present tense for the present and future, and the preterite for the past tenses (there are as yet no analytical compound verb forms such as "have done"). The preterite can be formed in various ways:

a) by a vowel change (strong verbs) - this method goes as far back as Indo-European.

b) by adding a dental suffix (weak verbs) with the sounds /d/ (as in English then) or /p/ (as in English thin). Weak verbs are an innovation of the Germanic languages.

c) by reduplication, eg sleep: *slEpan* - *salslep* - *salslepum*). Strong and weak verbs are a typical feature of all modern Germanic languages. (See also characterization of the Germanic language family)

- **active** and **passive**: there are active and passive verb forms except for the passive preterite which is expressed by means of a different verb (*wisan* = 'to be' or *wairpan* = 'become') and a perfect participle (eg *daupips was* = 'he was baptised'). Here we can see the beginnings of the development from a synthetic to an

analytical language, which is typical of all West-Germanic languages. (see also Middle Dutch verbs).

The principal developments from a language state with these features to the modern West-Germanic languages are the erosion of the differences between the stems of the nouns as a result of the heavy initial stress (see also loss of inflection in Middle Dutch), and the development towards an increasingly analytical language, the early stages of which we see in the formation of the passive preterite.

Glossary

1. gerund. A noun formed out of a verb by adding *-ing*.

2. pluperfect. A construction used for an action that had already been completed at some time in the past. *When I arrived, John had EATEN.* See also **perfect.**

3. preterite. The simple past-tense form of a verb: *He walked; We sang.* It is usually contrasted with a verb form that indicates a past event using a participle, such as *He has walked* or *We have sung.*

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 6: North Germanic Languages

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	A) Features of Icelandic language B) Features of Faroese language C) Features of minor languages of North Germanic sub-group
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the West GL.

<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <p>A) How can you explain the facts of the influence of the Reformation to North GL?</p> <p>B) How did North GL change in the X-XIII centuries?</p> <p>C) What is the essence of grammatical changes in Icelandic language?</p>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

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

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

		to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 6: North Germanic languages. The Norwegian Language

The Norwegian alphabet has 29 Letters, 3 more than the English.

These three characters are Æ(æ), Ø (ø) and Å(å) and they come in that order right after Z in the alphabet. They are pronounced as the vowels in "sad", "bird" and "four". Computer keyboards sold in Norway have three more keys than Standard English keyboards, one extra key for each extra Letter.

The alphabet used in Norway today is the Latin alphabet which came to Norway approximately 1000 years ago, brought by Catholic missionaries.

Some 500 years before that, in the pre-Nordic times, the Scandinavian people used the alphabet of runes.

Dano-Norwegian and New-Norwegian

Dano-Norwegian and New-Norwegian were both developed throughout the 19th century after the nation had gained its independence from Denmark. However, they did not get their current names, "Bokmal" and "nynorsk" until 1929.

New-Norwegian has always been the lesser used written form. It had its all time high in 1944 when 34% of the school districts used it as their main written language.

To ensure that New-Norwegian is not undermined, the government has come up with a list of regulations:

- All school books printed in Norway must be published in both languages. .
- At least 25% of the programs shown on the broadcasting channel NRK must

be in New Norwegian. This includes subtitling of movies, narrators, radio reporters etc.

- At Least 25% of all the official documents must be written in New-Norwegian.
- All persons working in official positions must have command of both languages. A person who sends a Letter to say, the municipality, is entitled to get a reply in the same language that his Letter was written in.

There are specified interest organizations for New-Norwegian and Dano-Norwegian that make sure these regulations are being with-held.

One single man created New-Norwegian. His name was Ivar Aasen and he was a farmer's son with a genius mind for languages. He traveled around in most of the southern parts of Norway and listened to people speak. Through his thorough research he found grammatical patterns in the dialects which he used when he created New-Norwegian.

Dano-Norwegian came from, as the name suggests, Danish. The Danish language was the written language of Norway for centuries.

The upper class, which was used to writing Danish, gave their support to the Dano-Norwegian language, looked down at New-Norwegian claiming it was a peasant's language making a mockery of "fine Norwegian".

Those pro New- Norwegian and against Dano-Norwegian augmented that the language wasn't "Norwegian enough".

In 1885 the two languages were made equal; both would be official written forms of Norwegian.

During the beginning of the 20th century spelling reforms made the two languages more alike, and many words were accepted in both languages. A special arrangement was made: Some words could be spelt in several different ways (sola or solen). One way of spelling was made compulsory for schools to teach and school book writers to use, and the other, a so-called bracket form, was allowed for everyone else to use as they wised. The students could freely choose the way of spelling that was closer to their dialect. Though the spelling and the words have

changed a bit, this is still the reality in Norwegian schools today.

All reforms must be 'approved of by the parliament. From two days in 1917, when the debate in the parliament was particularly heated, there is a 125 pages report.

A radical reform was put forward in 1938. In 1940, when the Second World War reached Norway, the debate naturally stopped. The Nazi government launched their own spelling reform which all the newspapers had to use. The schools partially sabotaged the reform.

Icelandic Language

1. Relationship to other languages. Icelandic is one of the Nordic languages, which are a subgroup of the Germanic languages. Germanic languages are traditionally divided into North Germanic, i.e. the Nordic languages, West Germanic, i.e. High and Low German including Dutch-Flemish, English and Frisian, and East Germanic, i.e. Gothic, which is now dead. The Germanic languages are in the family of Indo- European languages together with the Celtic, Slavonic, Baltic, Romance, Greek, Albanian, Armenian and Indo-Iranian languages, in addition to several language groups, which are now dead. Accordingly, Icelandic is more or Less related to all these languages. Linguistically it is most closely related to Faeroese and Norwegian.

2. The origin of the Icelandic language. Iceland was settled in the period A.D. 870-930. Most of the settlers came from Norway, especially Western Norway, a few of them from Sweden and some from the British Isles, including Ireland. The language, which came to prevail in Iceland, was that of the people of Western Norway. It is commonly agreed that a considerable part of the immigrants was of Celtic stock (estimates, based partly on physical-anthropological studies, vary from 10 to 30 percent). However, the Icelandic language shows only insignificant traces of Celtic influence. The only evidence is a few Celtic loan words and a few personal names and place-names. Icelandic and Norwegian did not become markedly different until the fourteenth century. From then onwards the two languages became increasingly different. This was for the most part due to

changes in the Norwegian language, which had in some cases begun earlier in Danish and Swedish, while Icelandic resisted change, no doubt thanks in part to the rich Icelandic literature of the 12th and following centuries. Resistance to change is one of the characteristics of the Icelandic language, which explains the fact that a twelfth century text is still easy to read for a modern Icelander. However, Icelandic has undergone considerable change in its phonetics. Another characteristic of the language is its uniformity, i.e. absence of dialects.

3. Grammar. Like the old Indo-European languages, Icelandic has a complicated grammar: Nouns are inflected in four cases (nominative, accusative, dative and genitive) and in two numbers (singular, plural). The same is true of most pronouns and adjectives, including the definite article and the ordinal and the first four of the cardinal numerals: these are also inflected in three genders, while each noun is intrinsically masculine, feminine or neuter. Most adjectives and some adverbs have three degrees of comparison and most adjectives have two types of inflection, called strong and weak, in the positive and superlative. Verbs are inflected in three persons (1st, 2nd, 3rd), two numbers (singular, plural), two simple (non-compound) tenses, three moods (indicative, subjunctive, imperative) and two voices (active, medio-passive); in addition, by means of auxiliary verbs, the verbs enter into several constructions (including the so-called compound tenses) to represent the perfect, the future, the conditional, the progressive, the passive etc. The verbs also have three nominal forms, i.e. the infinitive (uninflected) and two participles, present and past (including supine).

4. Vocabulary innovations. In the late eighteenth century, language purism started to gain noticeable ground in Iceland and since the early nineteenth century, language purism has been the linguistic policy in the country. Instead of adopting foreign words for new concepts, new words (neologisms) are coined or old words revived and given a new meaning. As examples may be mentioned *simi* for telephone, *tolva* for computer, *thota* for jet, *hlj odfrar* for supersonic and *geimfar* for spacecraft. The Icelandic language committee is an advisory institution which is to "guide government agencies and the general public in matters of language on

a scholarly basis."

Faroese language

Faroese is a West Nordic or West Scandinavian language spoken by about 40,000 people in the Faroe Islands. It is one of insular Scandinavian languages (the other is Icelandic), which have their origins in the Old Norse language spoken in Scandinavia in the Viking Age.

Until the 15th Century, Faroese had a similar orthography to Icelandic and Norwegian, but after the Reformation it outlawed its use in schools, churches and official documents, i.e. the main places where written languages survive essentially illiterate society. The Islanders continued using the language in ballads, folktale, and everyday life. This main a rich spoken tradition, but for 300 years, this was not reflected in text.

Hammershaimb's grammar was met with some opposition, for being so complicated, and a rival orthography was devised by Henrik Jakobsen. Jakobsen's grammar was closer to the spoken language, but was never taken up by the masses.

In 1937, Faroese replaced Danish as the official language of the Faroe Islands.

Glossary

1. article. The part-of-speech category comprising words that modify a noun phrase, such as *a*, *the*, and *some*. Often subsumed in the **determiner** category.

2. associationism. The theory that intelligence consists in associating ideas that have been experienced in close succession or that resemble one another. The theory is usually linked to the British empiricist philosophers John Locke, David Hume, David Hartley, and John Stuart Mill, and it underlies behaviorism and much of connectionism

3. auxiliary. A special kind of verb used to express concepts related to the truth of the sentence, such as tense, negation, question/statement, necessary/possible: *He WIGHT complain. He HAS complained; He t< complaining; He DOESN'T complain, DOES he complain?*

4. diphthong. A vowel consisting of two vowels pronounced in quick succession, *bite: lovd; mlke.*

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “The History of the English language”

Lecture 7: West Germanic Languages

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	A) Mutation of vowels in West GL B) The first consonant shift and its results in West GL C) Grammatical structure of West GL D) Phonetic changes of West GL
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the West GL.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence in West GL? B) How did West GL change in vocabulary? C) What is the essence of grammatical changes in West GL?
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching

Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The subject of the discipline “The History of the English language”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the	The students make notes

	recommended literature for the topic	of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 7: West Germanic Languages

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the South. They must have retreated further west under the pressure of the Goths, who had come from Scandinavia, but after their

departure expanded in the eastern and southern directions. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names. On the eve of their "great migrations" of the 4th and 5th the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians (known as the Anglo-Frisian group), the lutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Federal Republic of Germany (hence the name *High Germans* as contrasted to *Low Germans*- a name applied to the West Germanic tribes in the low-lying northern areas. The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are known since the early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, the Thuringians and others.

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

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

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch - the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and Flemish ~~ the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the 10th c.; 12th c. records represent the earliest Old Dutch. The formation of the Dutch language stretches over a long period; it is linked up with the growth of the Netherlands into an independent bourgeois state after its liberation from Spain in the 16th c.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called *Dutch*, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, *Netherlandish*. Netherlandish is spoken by almost 20 million people; its northern variety, used in the Netherlands, has a more standardized literary form.

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

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

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written records in OHG date from the 8th and 9th c. (glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems). Towards the 12th c. High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighboring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. The Written Standard of New High German was established after the Reformation (16th c.), though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th c. as Germany remained politically divided

into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms. To this day German is remarkable for great dialectal diversity of speech.

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

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

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

The territory of English was at first confined to what is now known as England proper. From the 13th to the 17th c. it extended to other parts of the British Isles. In the succeeding centuries English spread overseas to other continents. The first English written records have come down from the 7th c., which is the earliest date in the history of writing in the West Germanic subgroup (see relevant chapters below).

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

In the Early Middle Ages the continental Saxons formed a powerful tribe in the lower basin of the Elbe. They were subjugated by the Franks and after the breakup of the Empire entered its eastern subdivision. Together with High German tribes they took part in the eastward drive and the colonization of the former Slavonic territories. Old Saxon known in written form from the records of the 9th c. has survived as one of the Low German dialects.

Glossary

1. empiricism. The approach to studying the mind that emphasizes learning and environmental influence over innate structure. A second sense, not used in this book, is the approach to science that emphasizes experimentation and observation of the theory.

2. family resemblance category. A category whose members have no single trait in common, but in which subsets of members share traits, as in a family. Examples include tools, furniture, and game-..

3. generative phonology. The branch of generative grammar that studies the sound pattern of languages

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “A History of the English language”

Lecture 8: The periods in the History of the English language

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<i>1. Pre Roman Britain</i> <i>2. The Roman period</i> <i>3. The Dark ages</i> <i>4. The Anglo-Saxon period</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form

	the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Some events in the history of the Briatrain thar are important to know; 2) How the nations that invaded the land could influence the language of the Britain; 3) The history of the tribes that later formed the English nation and their peculiarities.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

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

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students

Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

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

Lecture 8. THE PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

PROBLEMS TO BE DISCUSSED

1. *Introductory notes*
2. *Pre Roman Britain*
3. *The Roman period*
4. *The Dark ages*
5. *The Anglo-Saxon period*

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

Pre-Roman Britain

Man lived in what we now call the British Isles long before it broke away from the continent of Europe, long before the great seas covered the land bridge that is now known as the English Channel, that body of water that protected this island for so long, and that by its very nature, was to keep it out of the maelstrom

that became medieval Europe. Thus England's peculiar character as an island nation came about through its very isolation. Early man came, settled, farmed and built. His remains tell us much about his lifestyle and his habits. Of course, the land was not then known as England, nor would it be until long after the Romans had departed.

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

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

The Celts in Britain used a language derived from a branch of Celtic known as either Brythonic, which gave rise to Welsh, Cornish and Breton; or Goidelic, giving rise to Irish, Scots Gaelic and Manx. Along with their languages, the Celts brought their religion to Britain, particularly that of the Druids, the guardians of traditions and learning. The Druids glorified the pursuits of war, feasting and

horsemanship. They controlled the calendar and the planting of crops and presided over the religious festivals and rituals that honored local deities.

Many of Britain's Celts came from Gaul, driven from their homelands by the Roman armies and Germanic tribes. These were the Belgae, who arrived in great numbers and settled in the southeast around 75 BC. They brought with them a sophisticated plough that revolutionized agriculture in the rich, heavy soils of their new lands. Their society was well-organized in urban settlements, the capitals of the tribal chiefs. Their crafts were highly developed; bronze urns, bowls and torques illustrate their metalworking skills. They also introduced coinage to Britain and conducted a lively export trade with Rome and Gaul, including corn, livestock, metals and slaves.

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

The Roman Period

The first Roman invasion of the lands we now call the British Isles took place in 55 B.C. under war leader Julius Caesar, who returned one year later, but these probings did not lead to any significant or permanent occupation. He had some interesting, if biased comments concerning the natives: "All the Britons," he wrote, "paint themselves with woad, which gives their skin a bluish color and makes them look very dreadful in battle." It was not until a hundred years later that permanent settlement of the grain-rich eastern territories began in earnest.

In the year 43 A.D. an expedition was ordered against Britain by the Emperor Claudius, who showed he meant business by sending his general, Aulus

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

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

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

For Imperial Rome, the island of Britain was a western breadbasket. Caesar had taken armies there to punish those who were aiding the Gauls on the Continent in their fight to stay free of Roman influence. Claudius invaded to give himself prestige, and his subjugation of eleven British tribes gave him a splendid triumph. Vespasian was a legion commander in Britain before he became Emperor, but it was Agricola who gave us most notice of the heroic struggle of the native Britons through his biographer Tacitus. From him, we get the unforgettable picture of the

druids, "ranged in order, with their hands uplifted, invoking the gods and pouring forth horrible imprecations." Agricola also won the decisive victory of Mons Graupius in present-day Scotland in 84 A.D. over Calgacus "the swordsman," that carried Roman arms farther west and north than they had ever before ventured. They called their newly-conquered northern territory Caledonia.

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

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

Chartered towns were governed to a large extent on that of Rome. They were ruled by an *ordo* of 100 councillors (*decurion*). who had to be local residents and own a certain amount of property. The *ordo* was run by two magistrates, rotated annually; they were responsible for collecting taxes, administering justice and undertaking public works. Outside the chartered town, the inhabitants were referred to as *peregrini*, or non-citizens. they were organized into local government

areas known as civitates, largely based on pre-existing chiefdom boundaries. Canterbury and Chelmsford were two of the civitas capitals.

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

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

One of the greatest achievements of the Roman Empire was its system of roads, in Britain no less than elsewhere. When the legions arrived in a country with virtually no roads at all, as Britain was in the first century A.D., their first task was to build a system to link not only their military headquarters but also their isolated forts. Vital for trade, the roads were also of paramount importance in the speedy

movement of troops, munitions and supplies from one strategic center to another. They also allowed the movement of agricultural products from farm to market. London was the chief administrative centre, and from it, roads spread out to all parts of the province. They included Ermine Street, to Lincoln; Watling Street, to Wroxeter and then to Chester, all the way in the northwest on the Welsh frontier; and the Fosse Way, from Exeter to Lincoln, the first frontier of the province of Britain.

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

The Roman armies did not have it all their own way in their battles with the native tribesmen, some of whom, in their inter-tribal squabbles, saw them as deliverers, not conquerors. Heroic and often prolonged resistance came from such leaders as Caratacus of the Ordovices, betrayed to the Romans by the Queen of the Brigantes. And there was Queen Boudicca (Boadicea) of the Iceni, whose revolt nearly succeeded in driving the Romans out of Britain. Her people, incensed by their brutal treatment at the hands of Roman officials, burned Colchester, London, and St. Albans, destroying many armies ranged against them. It took a determined effort and thousands of fresh troops sent from Italy to reinforce governor Suetonius Paulinus in A.D. 61 to defeat the British Queen, who took poison rather than submit.

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

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

The Roman legions began to withdraw from Britain at the end of the fourth century. Those who stayed behind were to become the Romanized Britons who organized local defences against the onslaught of the Saxon hordes. The famous letter of A.D. 410 from the Emperor Honorius told the cities of Britain to look to their own defences from that time on. As part of the east coast defences, a command had been established under the Count of the Saxon Shore, and a fleet had been organized to control the Channel and the North Sea. All this showed a tremendous effort to hold the outlying province of Britain, but eventually, it was

decided to abandon the whole project. In any case, the communication from Honorius was a little late: the Saxon influence had already begun in earnest.

The Dark Ages

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

By 410, Britain had become self-governing in three parts, the North (which already included people of mixed British and Angle stock); the West (including Britons, Irish, and Angles); and the South East (mainly Angles). With the departure of the Roman legions, the old enemies began their onslaughts upon the native Britons once more. The Picts and Scots to the north and west (the Scots coming in from Ireland had not yet made their homes in what was to become later known as Scotland), and the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes to the south and east.

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

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

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

In the account given by Procopius in the middle of the 6th Century (the Gothic War, Book IV, cap 20), he writes of the island of Britain being possessed by three very populous nations: the Angili, the Frisians, and the Britons. "And so numerous are these nations that every year, great numbers migrate to the Franks." There is no suggestion here that these peoples existed in a state of warfare or enmity, nor that the British people had been vanquished or made to flee westwards. We have to assume, therefore, that the Gallic Chronicle of 452 refers only to a small part of Britain, and that it does not signify conquest by the Saxons.

The Anglo Saxon Period

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

Another reason cited by Davies is the emergence in Britain of the great plague of the sixth century from Egypt that was particularly devastating to the Britons who had been in close contact with peoples of the Mediterranean. Be that

as it may, the emergence of England as a nation did not begin as a result of a quick, decisive victory over the native Britons, but a result of hundreds of years of settlement and growth, more settlement and growth, sometimes peaceful, sometimes not. If it is pointed out that the native Celts were constantly warring among themselves, it should also be noted that so were the tribes we now collectively term the English, for different kingdoms developed in England that constantly sought domination through conquest. Even Bede could pick out half a dozen rulers able to impose some kind of authority upon their contemporaries.

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

During the centuries of inter-tribal warfare, the Saxons had not thought of defending their coasts. The Norsemen, attracted by the wealth of the religious settlements, often placed near the sea, were free to embark upon their voyages of plunder.

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

By the year 878 there was every possibility that before the end of the year Wessex would have been divided among the Danish army. That this turn of events did not come to pass was due to Alfred. Leaving aside the political events of the period, we can praise his laws as the first selective code of Anglo-Saxon England, though

the fundamentals remained unchanged, those who didn't please him, were amended or discarded. They remain comments on the law, mere statements of established custom.

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

Around 890 the Vikings (also known as Norsemen or Danes) came as hostile raiders to the shores of Britain. Their invasions were thus different from those of the earlier Saxons who had originally come to defend the British people and then to settle. Though they did settle eventually in their newly conquered lands, the Vikings were more intent on looting and pillaging; their armies marched inland destroying and burning until half of England had been taken. However, just as an earlier British leader, perhaps the one known in legend as Arthur had stopped the Saxon advance into the Western regions at Mount Badon in 496, so a later leader stopped the advance of the Norsemen at Edington in 878.

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

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

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

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

There are over 1040 place names in England of Scandinavian origin, most occurring in the north and east, the area of settlement known as the Danelaw. The evidence shows extensive peaceable settlement by farmers who intermarried their English cousins, adopted many of their customs and entered into the everyday life of the community. Though the Danes who came to England preserved many of their own customs, they readily adapted to the ways of the English whose language they could understand without too much difficulty. There are more than 600 place names that end with the Scandinavian -by, (farm or town); some three hundred contain the Scandinavian word thorp (village), and the same number with thwaite (an isolated piece of land). Thousands of words of Scandinavian origin remain in the everyday speech of people in the north and east of England.

There was another very important feature of the Scandinavian settlement which cannot be overlooked. The Saxon people had not maintained contact with their original homelands; in England they had become an island race. The Scandinavians, however, kept their contacts with their kinsman on the continent.

Under Cnut, England was part of a Scandinavian empire; its people began to extend their outlook and become less insular. The process was hastened by the coming of another host of Norsemen: the Norman Conquest was about to begin.

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

William's victory also linked England with France and not Scandinavia from now on. Within six months of his coronation, William felt secure enough to visit Normandy. The sporadic outbreaks at rebellion against his rule had one important repercussion, however: it meant that threats to his security prevented him from undertaking any attempt to cooperate with the native aristocracy in the administration of England.

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

The majority of Old English manuscripts are scattered throughout the libraries of England. The two largest collections belong to the British Library and the Bodleian Library of Oxford University. While these documents are national treasures and should be accessible to anyone, they obviously need to be protected; hence, heightened powers of persuasion notwithstanding, it is unlikely that an

individual without an academic position or recommendation will be allowed access. Fortunately, many of these documents are on public display.

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

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

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

The dominant script of the Old English manuscripts is Anglo-Saxon (also called Insular, a Latin word meaning "island"; in this context, the term means

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

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

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

to make deductions about the dialectical, calligraphic or interlinear aspects of a particular manuscript (sometimes the most interesting aspects).

Answer the following questions

- 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?*

Literature

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

Glossary

1. **ablaut.** The process of inflecting a verb by changing its vowel *singsang-iung*.
2. **Early Modern English.** The English of Shakespeare and the King James Bible, spoken from around 1430 to 1700.
3. **Middle English.** The language spoken in England from shortly after the Norman invasion in 1066 around the time of the Great Vowel Shift in the 1400s.
4. **Modern English.** The variety of English spoken since the eighteenth century. See also **Early Modern English**.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “A History of the English language”

Lecture 9: Phonetic peculiarities of Old English

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Word stress in OE</i> 2. <i>Changes of stressed vowels in early OE</i> 3. <i>Development of monophthongs in OE</i> 4. <i>Development of diphthongs in OE</i>

	<p>5. <i>Palatal mutation in OE</i></p> <p>6. <i>Consonant changes in pre-written periods.</i></p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The phonetic changes in the sphere of vowels and consonants of Old English 2) Written records of Old English 3) The peculiarities of Old English word stress
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

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

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

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

Lecture 9. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS

Problems to be discussed

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

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

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

The survey of OE phonetics deals with word accentuation, the systems of vowels and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the PG

system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE. The diachronic description of phonetics in those early periods will show the specifically English tendencies of development and the immediate sources of the sounds in the age of writing.

Word Stress

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE. In OE a syllable was made prominent by an increase in the force of articulation; in other words, a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable. Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either. The forms of the Dat. case of the nouns *hlaforde* ['xla:vorde], *cyninge* ['kyninge] used in the text and the Nom. case of the same nouns: *hlaford* ['xla:vord], *cyning* ['kyning]. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, e.g. the compound noun *Norðmonna* from the same extract, received the chief stress upon its first component and the secondary stress on the second component; the grammatical ending *-a* (Gen. pl) was unaccented. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix.

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

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

Changes of Stressed Vowels in Early Old English

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

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

Independent Changes. Development of Monophthongs

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

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

Table 1

Splitting of [a] and [a:] in Early Old English

Change illustrated Examples

PG OE	other OG languages	OE	NE
a			

a

æ

Gt ðata

O Icel dagr ðæt

dæg that

day

a o Gt mann(a) mon man

O Icel land land land

a Gt magan magan may

Gt dagos dagas days

æ:

a:

o: OHGdâr

OHG slâfen

OHG mâno ðær

slæpan

mōna there

sleep

moon

OI cel mánaðr mōnað month

Development of Diphthongs

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

If the sounds in PG were not diphthongs but sequences of two separate phonemes, the changes should be defined as phonologisation of vowel sequences. This will mean that these changes increased the number of vowel phonemes in the language. Moreover, they introduced new distinctive features into the vowel system by setting up vowels with diphthongal glides; henceforth, monophthongs

were opposed to diphthongs. All the changes described above were interconnected. Their independence has been interpreted in different ways.

The changes may have started with the fronting of [a] (that is the change of [a] to [æ]), which caused a similar development in the long vowels: [a:]>[æ:], and could also bring about the fronting of [a] in the biphonemic vowel sequence [a + u], which became [æa:], or more precisely [æ: :], with the second element weakened. This weakening as well as the monophthongisation of the sequences in [-i] may have been favoured by the heavy stress on the first sound.

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

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

Assimilative Vowel Changes: Breaking and Diphthongisation

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

The front vowels [i], [e] and the newly developed [æ], changed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before [h], before long (doubled) [ll] or [l] plus another consonant, and before [r] plus other consonants, e.g.: [e]>[eo] in

OE *deorc*, NE *dark*. The change is known as *breaking* or *fracture*. Breaking is dated in Early OE, for in OE texts we find the process already completed: yet it must have taken place later than the vowel changes described above as the new vowel [æ], which appeared some time during the 5th c., could be subjected to breaking under the conditions described.

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

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

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

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

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

The status of short diphthongs in the OE vowel system has aroused much discussion and controversy. On the one hand, short diphthongs are always phonetically conditioned as the)' are found only in certain phonetic environments and appear as positional allophones of respective monophthongs (namely, of those

vowels from which they have originated). On the other hand, however, they are similar in quality to the long diphthongs, and their phonemic status is supported by the symmetrical arrangement of the vowel system. Their very growth can be accounted for by the urge of the system to have all its empty positions filled. However, their phonemic status cannot be confirmed by the contrast of minimal pairs: [ea], [æ], [a] as well as [eo] and [e] occur only in complementary distribution, never in identical phonetic conditions to distinguish morphemes; they also occur as variants in different dialects. On these grounds it seems likely that short diphthongs, together with other vowels, make up sets of allophones representing certain phonemes: [a, æ, ea] and [e, eo]. Perhaps the rise of short diphthongs merely reveals a tendency to a symmetrical arrangement of diphthongs in the vowel system, which was never fully realised at the phonemic level.

Palatal Mutation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Palatal mutation led to the growth of new vowel interchanges and to the increased variability of the root-morphemes: "owing to palatal mutation many related words and grammatical forms acquired new root-vowel interchanges. Cf., e.g. two related words: OE *gemot* n 'meeting' and OE *metan* (NE *meet*), a verb derived from the noun-stem with the help of the suffix -j- (its earlier form was **motjan*; -j- was then lost but the root acquired two variants: *mot*/'*met*-). Likewise we find variants of morphemes with an interchange of root-vowels in the grammatical forms *mus*, *mys* (NE *mouse*, *mice*), *boc*, *bec* (NE *book*, *books*), since the plural was originally built by adding -iz. (Traces of palatal mutation are

preserved in many modern words and forms, e.g. mouse — mice, foot—feet, tale — tell, blood— bleed; despite later phonetic changes, the original cause of the inner change is t-umlaut or palatal mutation.)

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

Palatal mutation in OE had already been completed by the time of the earliest written records; it must have taken place during the 7th c., though later than all the Early OE changes described above. This relative dating is confirmed by the fact that vowels resulting from other changes could be subjected to palatal mutation, e. g. OE *ieldra* (NE *elder*) had developed from **ealdira* by palatal mutation which occurred when the diphthong [ea] had already been formed from [æ] by breaking (in its turn [æ] was the result of the fronting of Germanic [a]). The successive stages of the change can be shown as follows: fronting - breaking - palatal mutation [a] > [æ] > [ea] > [ie] The generally accepted phonetic explanation of palatal mutation is that the sounds [i] or [j] palatalised the preceding consonant, and that this consonant, in its turn, fronted and raised the root-vowel. This "mechanistic" theory is based on the assumed workings of the speech organs.. An alternative explanation, sometimes called "psychological" or "mentalistic", is that the speaker unconsciously anticipates the [i] and [j] in pronouncing the root-syllable – and through anticipation adds an. i-glide to the root-vowel. The process is thus subdivided into several stages, e.g. **domjan* > **doimjan* > **doemjan* > **deman* (NE *deem*). It has been found that some OE spellings appear to support both these theories, e.g. OE *secgan* has a palatalised consonant [ggʷ] shown by the digraph *cg*; *Coinwulf*, a name in *BEOWULF*, occurring beside another spelling *Cenwulf*, shows the stage [oi:] in the transition from PG [o:] to OE [oe:], and [e:]: OE *cen* 'bold'. The diphthongoids resulting from palatal mutation developed in conformity with the general tendency of the vowel system: in Early OE diphthongal glides were used as relevant phonemic distinctive features. In later OE the diphthongs showed the first signs of contraction (or monophthongisation) as other distinctive features began to predominate: labialisation and vowel length.

(The merging of [ie, ie:] and [y, y:] mentioned above, can also be regarded as an instance of monophthongisation of diphthongs.)

Changes of Unstressed Vowels in Early Old English

All the changes described above affected accented vowels. The development of vowels in unstressed syllables, final syllables in particular, was basically different. Whereas in stressed position the number of vowels had grown (as compared with the PG system), due to the appearance of new qualitative differences, the number of vowels distinguished in unstressed position had been reduced. In unaccented syllables, especially final, long vowels were shortened, and thus the opposition of vowels – long to short – was neutralised. Cf. OE *nama* (NE *name*) to the earlier **namon*. It must also be mentioned that some short vowels in final unaccented syllables were dropped. After long syllables, that is syllables containing a long vowel, or a short vowel followed by more than one consonant, the vowels [i] and [u] were lost. Cf. the following pairs, which illustrate the retention of [u] and [i] after a short syllable, and their loss after a long one: OE *scipu* and *sceap* (NE *ships*, *sheep*, pl from **skeapu*); OE *werian*—*demon* (NE *wear*, *deem*; cf. Gt *domjan*).

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

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

The vowels are arranged in two lines in accordance with the chief phonemic opposition: they were contrasted through quantity as long to short and were further distinguished within these sets through qualitative differences as monophthongs and diphthongs, open and close, front and back, labialised and non-labialised. Cf. some minimal pairs showing the phonemic opposition of short and long vowels: OE *dæl* — *dæl* (NE *dale*, 'part') is — *īs* (NE *is*, *ice*) *col* — *cōl* (NE *coal*, *cool*).

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

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

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

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

i – *ænig* (NE any)

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

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

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

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

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

Consonant Changes in Pre-Written Periods

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

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

Some of the consonant changes dated in pre-written periods are referred to as "West Germanic" (WG) as they are shared by all the languages of the WG

subgroup; WG changes may have taken place at the transitional stage from PG to Early OE prior to the Germanic settlement of Britain.

Treatment of Fricatives. Hardening. Rhotacism. Voicing and Devoicing

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

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

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

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

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

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

West Germanic Gemination of Consonants

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

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

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

Velar Consonants in Early Old English. Growth of New Phonemes

In Early OE velar consonants split into two distinct sets of sounds, which eventually led to the growth of new phonemes. The velar consonants [k, g, x, y] were palatalised before a front vowel, and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. Thus in OE cild (NE child) the velar consonant [k] was softened to [k'] as it stood before the front vowel [i]: [*kild]>[k'ild]; similarly [k] became [k'] in OE spræc (NE speech) after a front vowel but not in OE spreca ("NE speak) where [k] was followed by the back vowel [a]. In the absence of these phonetic conditions the consonants did not change, with the result that lingual consonants split into two sets, palatal and velar. The difference

between them became phonemic when, a short time later, velar and palatal consonants began to occur in similar phonetic conditions; cf. OE *cild* [k'ild], *ciest* [k'iest] (NE *child*, *chest*) with palatal [k'] and *ceald*, *cepan* (NE *cold*, *keep*) with hard, velar [k] — both before front vowels.

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

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

Loss of Consonants in Some Positions

Comparison with other OG languages, especially Gothic and O Icel, has revealed certain instances of the loss of consonants in WG and Early OE.

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was probably nasalised and lengthened. Cf.:

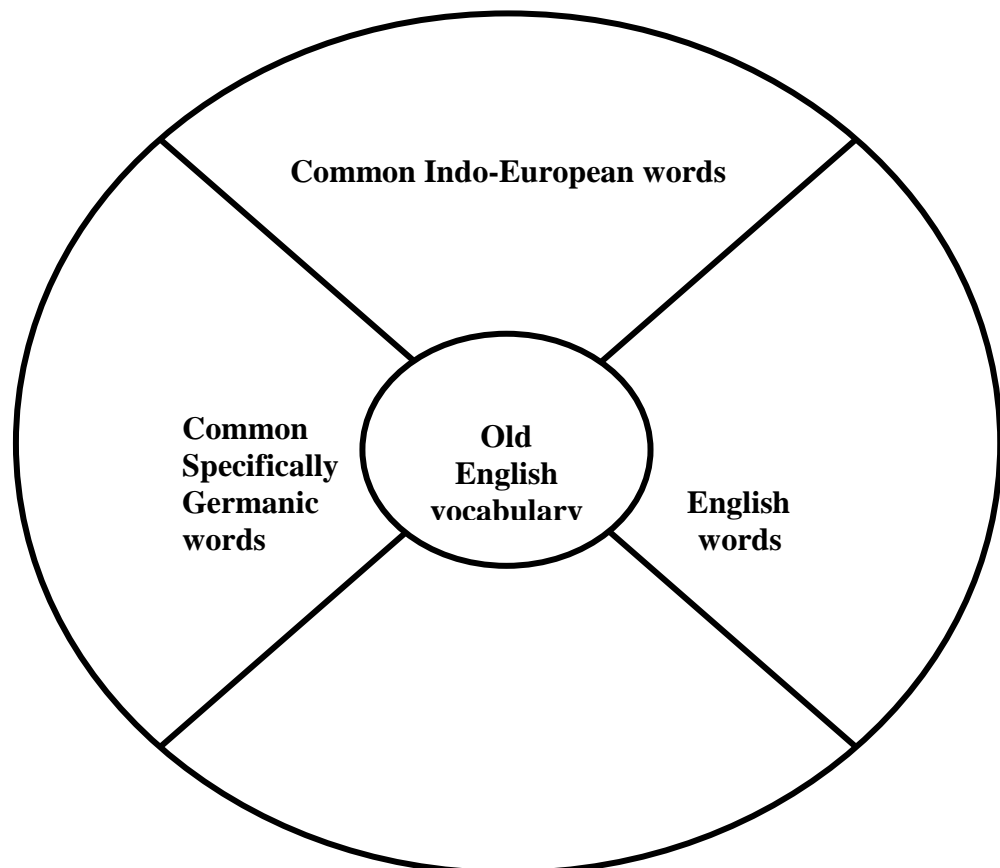
Gt *fimf*, O Icel *fim*, OHG *fimf* — OE *fif* (NE *five*)

Gt *uns*, OHG *uns* — OE *ūs* (NE *us*)

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

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

Old English Vocabulary



Answer the following questions

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

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Glossary

1. **adjective.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a prfjperty or state: *the BIG BAD itvlf; too HOT.*
2. **adverb.** The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically **refer lo the** manner or lime of an action: *tread SOFTLY; BOLDLY go; He will leave SOON.*
3. **affix.** П prei^ix or suffix.
4. **consonant.** A phoneme produced with a bliKkage or consiriction of **the** vocal tract. conversion. The process of deriving a new word by changing the part-of-speech category' of an old word: *an impacj (noun) —» to impact (verb); to read (verb) —»(* good*

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “A History of the English language”

Lecture 10: The grammatical structure of Old English

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Noun in OE and its grammatical categories</i> 2. <i>Pronouns in OE and its grammatical features</i>

	<p><i>3. Adjective in OE and its grammatical categories</i></p> <p><i>4. Verbs in OE and its grammatical categories</i></p> <p><i>5. The features of OE syntax</i></p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <p>1) Grammatical features of OE;</p> <p>2) The morphology of OE.</p>
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

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

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students

Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

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

Lecture 10. THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF OLD ENGLISH

Problems to be discussed

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

Key words: *Grammatical categories of the noun stem building element, noun declension, strong declension, weak declension.*

Preliminary Remarks

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.

Grammatical endings, or inflections, were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all the parts of speech that could change their form; they were usually used alone but could also occur in combination with other means.

Sound interchanges were employed on a more limited scale and were often combined with other form-building means, especially endings. Vowel interchanges were more common than interchanges of consonants.

The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs. Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives and a couple of verbs.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral (all referred to as nominal parts of speech or nominal, 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. Each part of speech had its own peculiarities in the inventory of categories and the number of members within the category (categorial forms). The noun had only two grammatical categories proper: number and case. The adjective had the maximum number of categories — five. The number of members in the same grammatical categories in different parts of speech did not necessarily coincide: thus the noun had four cases. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative, whereas the adjective had five (the same four cases plus the Instrumental case). The personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p., unlike other parts of speech, distinguished three numbers — Singular, Plural and Dual. Cf.

sg OE *ic* (NE I), dual *wit* 'we two', pl *we* (NE we)

OE *stān* (NE stone) — *stānas* (NE stones).

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: tense and mood — verbal categories proper — and number and person, showing agreement between the verb-predicate and the 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: declensions and conjugations.

In OE there were with the following parts of speech: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, and the verb.

The OE grammatical system is described synchronically as appearing in the texts of the 9th and 10th c. (mainly WS); facts of earlier, prewritten, history will sometimes be mentioned to account for the features of written OE and to explain their origin.

The noun. Grammatical Categories. The Use of Cases

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 declensions two, or even three, forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinction of cases was less consistent than that of numbers.

Before considering the declension of nouns, we shall briefly touch upon the meaning and use of cases. The functions of cases in OE require little explanation for the Russian student, since they are those, which ought to be expected in a language with a well-developed case system.

The Nom. can be loosely defined as the case of the active agent, for it was the case of the subject mainly used with verbs denoting activity; the Nom. could

also indicate the subject characterised by a certain quality or state; could serve as a predicative and as the case of address, there being no special Vocative case, e. g.:

ðæt flod weox ðā and ābær upp ðone arc — subject, active agent ('that flood increased then and bore up the arc')

wearð ðā ælc ðing cwices ādrenct — subject, recipient of an action or state ('was then everything alive drowned')

Hē wæs swiðe spēdig man — predicative ('He was a very rich man')

Sunu mīn, hlyste minre lāre — address ('My son, listen to my teaching').

The Gen. case was primarily the case of nouns and pronouns serving as attributes to other nouns. The meanings of the Gen. were very complex and can only roughly be grouped under the headings "Subjective" and "Objective" Gen. Subjective Gen. is associated with the possessive meaning and the meaning of origin, e. g.:

Beowulf gēata 'Beowulf of the Geats'. hiora scipu "their ships"

Objective Gen. is seen in such instances as ðæs landes sceawung 'surveying of the land'; and is associated with what is termed "partitive meaning" as in sum hund scipa 'a hundred of ships', hūsa sēlest 'best of the houses'. The use of the Gen. as an object to verbs and adjectives was not infrequent, though the verbs which regularly took a Gen. object often interchanged it with other cases, cf.: hē bād ... westanwindes 'he waited for the west wind'

frige menn ne mōtan wealdan heora sylfra - 'free men could not control themselves' (also with the Acc. wealdan hie.).

Dat. was the chief case used with prepositions, e. g.: on morgenne 'in the morning' from ðæm here 'from the army', ða sende sē cyning tōðæm here and him cyðan hēt 'then sent the king to the army and ordered (him) to inform them'.

The last example illustrates another frequent use of the Dat.: an indirect personal object. The OE Dat. case could convey an instrumental meaning, indicating the means or manner of an action: hit hagolade stānum 'it hailed (with) stones', worhte AElfred cyning lytle werede geweorc 'King Alfred built defense works with a small troop'.

Alongside the Acc., Dat. could indicate the passive subject of a state expressed by impersonal verbs and some verbs of emotion:

him gelicode heora ðēawas 'he liked their customs' (lit. 'him pleased their customs').

The Acc. case was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. Being a direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action and other meanings:

se wulf nimð and tōdælð ðā scēap 'the wolf takes and scatters the sheep'. (Its use as an object of impersonal verbs, similar to the use of Dat., is illustrated by hine nānes ðinges ne lyste 'nothing pleased him').

It is important to note that there was considerable fluctuation in the use of cases in OE. One and the same verb could be construed with different cases without any noticeable change of meaning. The semantic functions of the Gen., Dat. and Acc. as objects commonly overlapped and required further specification by means of prepositions. The vague meaning of cases was of great consequence for the subsequent changes of the case system.

Morphological Classification of Nouns. Declensions

The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The total number of declensions, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five. All in all there were only ten distinct endings (plus some phonetic variants of these endings) and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms; yet every morphological class had either its own specific endings or a specific succession of markers. Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables.

In the first place, the morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient (IE) grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. Stem-suffixes could consist of vowels (vocalic stems, e. g. a-stems, i-stems), of consonants (consonantal stems, e. g. n-stems), of sound sequences, e. g. -ja-stems, -nd-stems. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a "zero-suffix"; they are usually termed "root-stems" and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e. g. OE *man*, *bōc* (NE *man*, *book*).

The loss of stem-suffixes as distinct component parts had led to the formation of different sets of grammatical endings. The merging of the stem-suffix with the original grammatical ending and their phonetic weakening could result in the survival of the former stem-suffix in a new function, as a grammatical ending; thus n-stems had many forms ending in -an (from the earlier -*eni, -*enaz, etc.); u-stems had the inflection -u in some forms.

Sometimes both elements — the stem-suffix and the original ending — were shortened or even dropped (e. g. the ending of the Dat. sg -e from the earlier -*ai, Nom. and Acc. pl -as from the earlier -os; the zero-ending in the Nom. and Acc. sg) in a-stems.

Another reason, which accounts for the division of nouns into numerous declensions is their grouping according to gender. OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masc., Fem. and Neut. Though originally a semantic division, gender in OE was not always associated with the meaning of nouns. Sometimes a derivational suffix referred a noun to a certain gender and placed it into a certain semantic group, e. g. abstract nouns built with the help of the suffix -ðu were Fern. — OE *lenðu*, *hyhðu* (NE *length*, *height*), nomina agentis with the suffix -ere were Masc. — OE *fiscere*, *bōcere* (NE *fisher*, '*learned man*'). The following nouns denoting human beings show, however, that grammatical gender did not necessarily correspond to sex: alongside Masc. and Fem. nouns denoting males and females there were nouns with "unjustified" gender, cf:

OE *widuwa*, Masc. ('*widower*') — OE *widow*, Fem. (NE *widow*);

OE *spinnere*, Masc. (NE spinner) — OE *spinnestre*. Fem. ('female spinner'; note NE *spinster* with a shift of meaning) and nouns like OE *wīf*, Neut. (NE wife). OE *mægden*, Neut. (NE maiden, maid), OE *wīfman*, Masc. (NE woman, originally a compound word whose second component *-man* was Masc.).

In OE gender was primarily a grammatical distinction; Masc., Fem. and Neut. nouns could have different forms, even if they belonged to the same stem (type of declension).

The division into genders was in a certain way connected with the division into stems, though there was no direct correspondence between them: some stems were represented by nouns of one particular gender, e. g. *o*-stems were always Fem., others embraced nouns of two or three genders.

Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic;

monosyllables with a long root-syllable (that is, containing a long vowel plus a consonant or a short vowel plus two consonants — also called "long-stemmed" nouns) differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable (short-stemmed nouns).

The majority of OE nouns belonged to the *a*-stems, *o*-stems and *n*-stems. Special attention should also be paid to the root-stems which displayed specific peculiarities in their forms and have left noticeable traces in Mod E.

a-stems included Masc. and Neut. nouns. About one third of OE nouns were Masc. *a*-stems, e. g. *cniht* (NE knight), *hām* (NE home), *mūð* (NE mouth); examples of Neut. nouns are:

lim (NE limb), *hūs* (NE house), *ðing* (NE thing). (Disyllabic nouns, e. g. *finger*, differed from monosyllables in that they could drop their second vowel in the oblique cases: Nom, sg *finger*, Gen. *fingres*, Dat. *fingre*, NE *finger*).

The forms in the *a*-stem declension were distinguished through grammatical endings (including the zero-ending). In some words inflections were accompanied by sound interchanges: nouns with the vowel [æ] in the root had an interchange

[æ>a], since in some forms the ending contained a back vowel, e. g. Nom. sg *dæge* Gen. *dæges* — Nom. and Gen. pl *dagas*, *daga*. If a noun ended in a fricative consonant, it became voiced in the intervocal position, cf. Nom. sg *muð*, *wulf* — [0], [f] — and Nom. pl *muðas*, *wulfas* — [o], [v]. (Note that their modern descendants have retained the interchange: NE *mouth* — *mouths* [0>ð], *wolf* — *wolves*, also *house* — *houses* and others.) These interchanges were not peculiar of a-stems alone and are of no significance as grammatical markers; they are easily accountable by phonetic reasons.

Neut. a-stems differed from Masc. in the pl of the Nom. and Acc. cases. Instead of -as they took -u for short stems (that is nouns with a short root-syllable) and did not add any inflection in the long-stemmed variant — see Nom. and Acc. pl of *scip* and *dēor* in the table. Consequently, long-stemmed Neuters had homonymous sg and pl forms: *dēor* — *dēor*, likewise *sceap* — *sceap*, *ðing* - *ðing*, *hus* — *hus*. This peculiarity of Neut. a-stems goes back to some phonetic changes in final unaccented syllables which have given rise to an important grammatical feature: an instance of regular homonymy or neutralisation of number distinctions in the noun paradigm. (Traces of this group of a-stems have survived as irregular pl forms in Mod E: *sheep*, *deer*, *swine*.)

wa- and ja-stems differed from pure a-stems in some forms, as their endings contained traces of the elements -j- and -w-. Nom. and Acc. sg could end in -e which had developed from the weakened -j-, though in some nouns with a doubled final consonant it was lost — cf. OE *bridd* (NE *bird*); in some forms -j- is reflected as -i- or -ig- e.g. Nom. *here*, Dat. *herie*, *herige* or *herge* ('*army*'). Short-stemmed wa-stems had -u in the Nom. and Acc. sg which had developed from the element -w- but was lost after a long syllable (in the same way as the plural ending of neuter a-stems described above); cf. OE *bearu* (NE *bear*) and *cnēo*; -w- is optional but appears regularly before the endings of the oblique cases o-stems were all Fem., so there was no further subdivision according to gender. The variants with -j- and -w- decline like pure o-stems except that -w- appears before some endings, e.g. Nom. *sceadu*, the other cases — *sceadwe* (NE *shadow*). The difference between short-

and long-stemmed o-stems is similar to that between respective a-stems: after a short syllable the ending -u is retained, after a long syllable it is dropped: *wund*, *talū*. Disyllabic o-stems, like a-stems, lost their second vowel in some case forms: Nom. *ceaster*, the other cases *ceastre* ('camp'), NE *-caster*, *-Chester*—a component of place-names). Like other nouns, o-stems could have an interchange of voiced and voiceless fricative consonants as allophones in intervocal and final position: *glof*—*glofe* [f>v] (NE *glove*). Among the forms of o-stems there occurred some variant forms with weakened endings or with endings borrowed from the weak declension — with the element -n- *wundenā* alongside *wundā*. Variation increased towards the end of the OE period.

The other vocalic stems, i-stems and u-stems, include nouns of different genders. Division into genders breaks up i-stems into three declensions, but is irrelevant for u-stems: Masc. and Fem. u-stems decline alike, e.g. Fem. *duru* (NE *door*) had the same forms as Masc. *sunu* shown in the table. The length of the root-syllable is important for both stems; it accounts for the endings in the Nom. and Acc. in the same way as in other classes: the endings -e, -u are usually preserved in short-stemmed nouns and lost in long-stemmed.

Comparison of the i-stems with a-stems reveals many similarities. Neut. i-stems are declined like Neut. ja-stems; the inflection of the Gen. for Masc. and Neut. i-stems is the same as in a-stems -es; alongside pl forms in -e we find new variant forms of Masc. nouns in -as, e. g. Nom., Acc. pl —*winas* 'friends' (among Masc. i-stems only names of peoples regularly formed their pl in the old way: *Dene*, *Engle*, NE *Danes*, *Angles*). It appears that Masc. i-stems adopted some forms from Masc. a-stems, while Neut. i-stems were more likely to follow the pattern of Neut. a-stems; as for Fem. i-stems, they resembled o-stems, except that the Acc. and Nom. were not distinguished as with other i-stems.

The most numerous group of the consonantal stems were n-stems or the weak declension, n-stems had only two distinct forms in the sg: one form for the Nom. case and the other for the three oblique cases; the element -n- in the inflections of the weak declension was a direct descendant of the old stem suffix -n, which had

acquired a new, grammatical function, n-stems included many Masc. nouns, such as *boga*, *cnotta*, *steorra* (NE bow, knot, star), many Fem. nouns, e. g. *cirice*, *eorðe*, *heorte*, *hlæfdige* (NE church, earth, heart, lady) and only a few Neut. nouns: *ēaga* (NE eye).

The pronoun

OE pronouns fell roughly under the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups — relative, possessive and reflexive — they were as yet not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to those of nouns (in "noun-pronouns") or corresponded to those of adjectives (in "adjective pronouns"). Some features of pronouns were peculiar to them alone.

Personal Pronouns*

OE personal pronouns had three persons, three numbers in the 1st and 2nd p. (two numbers—in the 3rd) and three genders in the 3rd p. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. had suppletive forms like their parallels in other IE languages. The pronouns of the 3rd p., having originated from demonstrative pronouns, had many affinities with the latter.

In OE, while nouns consistently distinguished between four cases, personal pronouns began to lose some of their case distinctions: the forms of the Dat. case of the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. were frequently used instead of the Acc.; in fact the fusion of these two cases in the pi was completed in the WS dialect already in Early OE: Acc. *eowic* and *usic* were replaced by Dat. *eow*, *us*; in the sg usage was variable, but variant forms revealed the same tendency to generalise the form of the Dat. for both cases. This is seen in the following quotation:

Se ðe me gehælde, se cwæð tō me 'He who healed me, he said to me' — the first me, though Dat. in form, serves as an Acc. (direct object); the second me is a real Dat.

*See a table of personal pronouns declension at p.103 in "History of English" by Rastorguyeva.

Demonstrative Pronouns

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE that, which distinguished three genders in the sg and had one form for all the genders in the pi. and the prototype of this with the same subdivisions: *ðes* Masc., *ðeos* Fem., *ðis* Neut. and *ðas* pl. They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system:

Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and Instr. (the latter having a special form only in the Masc., Neut.sg).

Declension of *sē*, *sēo*, *ðæt*

Case Singular Plural

M N F All genders

Nom. *sē*, *se* *ðæt* *sēo* *ða*

Gen. *ðæs* *ðæs* *ðære* *ðāra*, *ðæra*

Dat. *ðæm*, *ðām* *ðæm*, *ðām* *ðære* *ðām*, *ðæm*

Acc. *ðone* *ðæt* *ðā* *ðā*

Instr. *ðy*, *ðon* *ðy*, *ðon* *ðære* *ðæm*, *ðām*

The paradigm of the demonstrative pronoun *se* contained many homonymous forms. Some case endings resembled those of personal pronouns, e.g. *-m* – Dat. Masc. and Neut. and Dat. pl; the element *-r-* in the Dat. and Gen. sg Fem. and in the Gen. pl. These case endings, which do not occur in the noun paradigms, are often referred to as "pronominal" endings (*-m*, *-r-*, *-t*).

The adjective. Grammatical Categories

As stated before, the adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence — if the adjective was a predicative. Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in

addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instr. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dat. case expressing an instrumental meaning — e.g.: *lytle werede* 'with (the help of) a small troop'.

Weak and Strong Declension

As in other OG languages, most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The formal differences between the declensions, as well as their origin, were similar to those of the noun declensions. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG: vocalic a-, o-, u- and i- and consonantal n-. Accordingly, there developed sets of endings of the strong declension mainly coinciding with the endings of a-stems of nouns for adjectives in the Masc. and Neut. and of o-stems — in the Fem., with some differences between long- and short-stemmed adjectives, variants with j- and w-, monosyllabic and polysyllabic adjectives and some remnants of other stems. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives have no parallels in the noun paradigms; they are similar to the endings of pronouns: -um for Dat. sg, -ne for Acc. Masc., [r] in some Fem. and pl endings. Therefore the strong declension of adjectives is sometimes called the "pronominal" declension. As for the weak declension, it uses the same markers as (n-stems of nouns except that in the Gen. pl the pronominal ending -ra is often used instead of the weak -ena. The difference between the strong and the weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners, e.g.:

ða menn sindon gode 'the men are good'

The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns.

Singular

Strong (pure a- and o-stems)

M N F **Weak**

M N F

Nom. blind blind blind

Gen. blindes blindes blindre

Dat. blindum blindum blindre

Acc. blindne blind blinde

Instr. blinde blinde blindre blinda blinde blinde

blindan blindan blindan

blindan blindan blindan

blindan blinde blindan

blindan blindan blindan

Plural

Nom. blinde blind blinda, -e

Gen. blindra blindra blindra

Dat. blindum blindum blindum

Acc. blinde blind blinda, -e

Instr. blindum blindum blindum

(NE blind) All genders

blindan

blindra, -ena

blindum

blindan

blindum

Some adjectives, however, did not conform with these rules.

Degrees of Comparison

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive

were the suffixes -ra and -est/ost. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

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

god – bettra – bet(e)st,

lytel – læssa – læst.

Answer the following questions

- 1) *What can you say about the features of the Noun in old English and Germanic?*
- 2) *What types of stems in nouns do you know?*
- 3) *What types of adjectives in Germanic languages do you know?*
- 4) *What semantic types of adjectives and adverbs do you know?*

Literature

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

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2

Total:		1	2	2
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Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
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0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Lecture 11: The grammatical structure of Middle English

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The formation of Middle English grammatical categories and their peculiarities 2. Grammatical changes of Middle English

	3. The rise of new grammatical categories
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Grammatical features of ME; 2) The morphology of ME.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

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

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

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

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

Lecture 11. The grammatical structure of Middle English

Problems to be discussed

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

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

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

Grammatical Categories of the Finite Verb

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Thus in OE *he bindeð* 'he binds' the verb is in the 3rd p. Pres.

Tense Ind. Mood; in the sentence *Bringað me hider þa* 'Bring me those (loaves)' *bringað* is in the Imper. Mood pl.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conjugation of Verbs in Middle English

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

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

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

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

Grammatical Categories of the Verbals

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

The forms of the two participles were strictly differentiated. P I was formed from the Present tense stem (the Infinitive without the endings -an, -ian) with the

help of the suffix -ende. P II had a stem of its own — in strong verbs it was marked by a certain grade of the root-vowel interchange and by the suffix -en; with weak verbs it ended in -d/-t. P II was commonly marked by the prefix ge-, though it could also occur without it, especially if the verb had other word-building prefixes.
Infinitive Participle I Participle II (NE bindan bindende gebunden bind)

Morphological Classification of Verbs

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

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

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation (ablaut) and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs vowel gradation was accompanied by consonant interchanges. The strong verbs had four stems, as they distinguished

two stems in the Past Tense – one for the 1st and 3rd p. Ind. Mood, the other — for the other Past tense forms, Ind. and Subj.

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

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

Both the strong and the weak verbs are further subdivided into a number of morphological classes with some modifications in the main form-building devices. Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs but were not homogeneous either. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way ("preterite-present" verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous. The following chart gives a general idea of the morphological classification of OE verbs.

Strong Verbs

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

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

The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: -an for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past sg stem, -on in the

form of Past pl, -en for Participle II. Two of these markers – the zero-ending in the second stem and -en in Participle II – are found only in strong verbs and should be noted as their specific characteristics. The classes differ in the series of root-vowels used to distinguish the four stems. Only several classes and subclasses make a distinction between four vowels as marker of the four stems – see Class 2, 3b and c, 4 and 5b; some classes distinguish only three grades of ablaut and consequently have the same root vowel in two stems out of four (Class 1, 3a, 5a); two classes, 6 and 7, use only two vowels in their gradation series.

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

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

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

The gradation series used in Class 1 through 5 go back to the PIE qualitative ablaut [e–o] and some instances of quantitative ablaut. The grades [e–o] reflected in Germanic as [e/i–a] were used in the first and second stems; they

represented the normal grade (a short vowel) and were contrasted to the zero-grade (loss of the gradation vowel) or to the prolonged grade (a long vowel) in the third and fourth stem. The original gradation series split into several series because the gradation vowel was inserted in the root and was combined there with the sounds of the root. Together with them, it was then subjected to regular phonetic changes. Each class of verbs offered a peculiar phonetic environment for the gradation vowels and accordingly transformed the original series into a new gradation series.

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

In the verbs of Class 6 the original IE gradation was purely quantitative; in PG it was transformed into a quantitative-qualitative series.

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

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

To account for the interchanges of consonants in the strong verbs one should recall the voicing by Verner's Law and some subsequent changes of voiced and voiceless fricatives. The interchange [s–z] which arose under Verner's Law was transformed into [s–r] due to rhotacism and acquired another interchange [s–z] after the Early OE voicing of fricatives. Consequently, the verbs whose root ended in [s] or [z] could have the following interchange:

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

Verbs with an interdental fricative have similar variant with voiced and voiceless [θ, ð] and the consonant [d], which had developed from [ð] in the process of hardening:

snīpan [ð] snaþ [θ] snidon sniden (NE cut) Class 1

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

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

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

Weak Verbs

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

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

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

The verbs of Class III had an Infinitive in -an and no vowel before the dental suffix; it included only four verbs with a full conjugation and a few isolated forms of other verbs. Genetically, the division into classes goes back to the differences between the derivational stem-suffixes used to build the verbs or the nominal stems from which they were derived, and all the persons of the sg Subj. (cf. *restan—reste*, *wendan—wende*, (NE *rest*, *wend*).

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

Minor Groups of Verbs

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

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

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

þe him aht sceoldon 'what they owed him'.)

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

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

Willan had a Past tense form *wolde*, built like *sceolde*, the Past tense of the preterite-present *sculan*, *sceal*. Eventually *willan* became a modal verb, like the

surviving preterite-presents, and, together with *sculan* developed into an auxiliary (NE shall, will, should, would).

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

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

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

OE syntax

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

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

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases (also: word groups or patterns). OE noun patterns, adjective patterns and

verb patterns had certain specific features, which are important to note in view of their later changes.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

from Latin in imitation of the Latin *Dativus Absolutus*. The objective predicative construction "Accusative with the Infinitive" occurred in original OE texts:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Attributive clauses were joined to the principal clauses by means of various connectives, there being no special class of relative pronouns. The main connective was the indeclinable particle *Re* employed, either alone or together with demonstrative and personal pronouns: *and him cypdon'paet hiera maezas him mid*

waeron, þa þe him from noldon 'and told him that their kinsmen were with him, those that did not want (to go) from him'.

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

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

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

Morphological structure of the word in old English



Types of the

Stems: -a-

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

- n -, - r -, - s -

Morphological structure of the word in Modern English

Rood

**Word building
Affix**

**Form building
Affix**

Answer the following questions

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

Literature

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

Glossary

1. **mood.** Whether a sentence is a statement, an imperative, or a subjunctive.
2. **morphemes.** The smallest meaningful pieces into which words can be cut.
3. **morphology.** The component of grammar that builds words out of pieces (morpheme) Morpholog is often divided into inflection and derivation.
4. **participle-** A form of the verb that cannot stand by itself, but needs to appear with an auxiliary or other verb: *He has eaten* (perfect participle); *He was eaten* (passive participle); *He is eating.* [progressive participle).
5. **part of speech.** The syntactic category of a word: noun, verb, adjective, preposition, iidverb, conjunction

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Lecture 12: Middle English Phonetics

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

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic Middle English Phonetics

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

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

Lecture 12. MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONETICS

Problems to be discussed

1. *The Norman conquest of Britain*
2. *The influence of French to ME phonetic structure*
3. *Changes of monophthongs in ME*
4. *Changes of diphthongs in ME*
5. *The formation of ME dialects*
6. *The London dialect as the basis of English national language*

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

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

Grammatical Categories of the Finite Verb

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

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

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

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

The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorial forms, Pres. and Past. The tenses were formally distinguished by all the verbs in the Ind. and Subj.

Moods, there being practically no instances of neutralisation of the tense opposition.

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

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

Conjugation of Verbs in Old English

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

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

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

Ond þæs ofer Eastron gefor Æpered cyning; ond he ricsode fíf gear 'and then after Easter died King Aethered, and he had reigned five years' (the Past Tense ricsode

indicates a completed action which preceded another past action — in the modern translation it is rendered by had reigned).

Grammatical Categories of the Verbals

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

The forms of the two participles were strictly differentiated. P I was formed from the Present tense stem (the Infinitive without the endings -an, -ian) with the help of the suffix -ende. P II had a stem of its own — in strong verbs it was marked by a certain grade of the root-vowel interchange and by the suffix -en; with weak verbs it ended in -d/-t. P II was commonly marked by the prefix ge-, though it could also occur without it, especially if the verb had other word-building prefixes.

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

Morphological Classification of Verbs

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

means of forming the principal parts, or the "stems" of the verb. There were also a few other differences in the conjugations.

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

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

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

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

Both the strong and the weak verbs are further subdivided into a number of morphological classes with some modifications in the main form-building devices. Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs but were not homogeneous either. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way ("preterite-present" verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous. The following chart gives a general idea of the morphological classification of OE verbs.

Strong Verbs

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

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

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

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

The classes of strong verbs – like the morphological classes of nouns – differed in the number of verbs and, consequently, in their role and weight in the language. Classes 1 and 3 were the most numerous of all: about 60 and 80 verbs, respectively; within Class 3 the first group – with a nasal or nasal plus a plosive in

the root (findan, rinnan – NE find, run) included almost 40 verbs, which was about as much as the number of verbs in Class 2; the rest of the classes had from 10 to 15 verbs each. In view of the subsequent interinfluence and mixture of classes it is also noteworthy that some classes in OE had similar forms; thus Classes 4 and 5 differed in one form only – the stems of P II; Classes 2, 3b and c and Class 4 had identical vowels in the stem of P II.

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

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

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

In the verbs of Class 6 the original IE gradation was purely quantitative; in PG it was transformed into a quantitative-qualitative series.

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

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

To account for the interchanges of consonants in the strong verbs one should recall the voicing by Verner's Law and some subsequent changes of voiced and voiceless fricatives. The interchange [s–z] which arose under Verner's Law was transformed into [s–r] due to rhotacism and acquired another interchange [s–z] after the Early OE voicing of fricatives. Consequently, the verbs whose root ended in [s] or [z] could have the following interchange:

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

Verbs with an interdental fricative have similar variant with voiced and voiceless [θ, ð] and the consonant [d], which had developed from [ð] in the process of hardening:

snīpan [ð] *snap* [θ] *snidon* *sniden* (NE *cut*) Class 1

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

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

Verbs with consonant interchanges could belong to any class, provided that they contained a fricative consonant. That does not mean, however, that every verb with a fricative used consonant interchange, for instance *risan*, a strong verb of

Class 1, alternated [s] with [z] but not with [r]: *risan – ras – rison – risen* (NE *rise*). Towards the end of the OE period the consonant interchanges disappeared.

Weak Verbs

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

talun – tellan v (NE *tale, tell*) *full* adj – *fyllan* v (NE *full, fill*)

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

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

The verbs of Class III had an Infinitive in -an and no vowel before the dental suffix; it included only four verbs with a full conjugation and a few isolated forms of other verbs. Genetically, the division into classes goes back to the differences between the derivational stem-suffixes used to build the verbs or the nominal stems from which they were derived, and all the persons of the sg Subj. (cf. *restan—reste, wendan—wende*, (NE *rest, wend*)).

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

Minor Groups of Verbs

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

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

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in Mod E: OE *ag*; *cunnan*, *cann*; *dear(r)*, *sculan*, *sceal*; *magan*, *mæg*, *mot* (NE *owe*, *ought*; *can*; *dare*; *shall*; *may*; *must*). Most of the preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive, which followed the preterite-present. In other words, they were used like

modal verbs, and eventually developed into modern modal verbs. (In OE some of them could also be used as notional verbs:

þe him aht sceoldon 'what they owed him'.)

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

þa ðe willað mines forsiðes fægñian 'those who wish to rejoice in my death'

hyt moten habban eall 'all could have it'.

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

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

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

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

OE syntax

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

... ða liðende land gesawon, brimclifu blican, beorgas steape (BEOWULF)
'the travellers saw land, the cliffs shine, steep mountains'. Predicative constructions after habban (NE have) contained a Past Participle.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

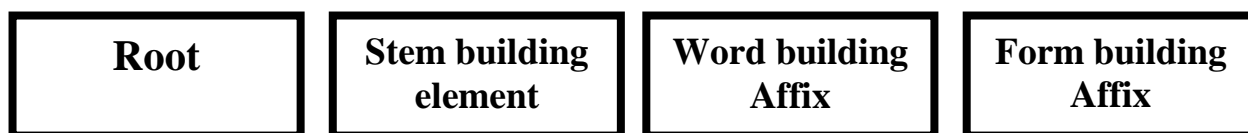
Hit gelamp gio þætte an hearpere wæs on þære ðiode þe Dracia hatte, sio wæs on Creca rice; se hearpere wæs swiðe ungefræglice god, ðæs nama wæs Orfeus; he hæfde an swiðe ænlic wif, sio wæs haten Eurydice 'It happened once that there was a harper among the people on the land that was called Thrace, that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

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

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

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

Morphological structure of the word in old English



Types of the

Stems: -a-

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

- n -, - r -, - s -

Morphological structure of the word in Modern English



Answer the following questions

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

Literature

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

Glossary

1. **auxiliary.** A special kind of verb used to express concepts related to the truth of the sentence, such as tense, negation, question/statement, necessary/possible: *He might complain; He H.-*S complained; He IS complaining; He doesn't complain; Does he complain.*
2. **classical category.** A category with well-specified conditions to membership, such as "odd number or "President of the United States.'
3. **compound.** A word formed by joining two words together; babysitter.
4. **gerund.** A noun formed out of a verb by adding *-ing*: *He is fond of writing.*

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject "A history of the English language"

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic

0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology for the discipline: “A History of the English language”

Lecture 13: Phonetic and grammatical features of Early New English

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Changes in ENE nouns and its grammatical categories</i> 2. <i>Pronouns in ENE and its grammatical features</i> 3. <i>Adjective in ENE and its grammatical categories</i>

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

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic Phonetic and grammatical features of Early New English

Stages and time of the	Activity
------------------------	----------

activities	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

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

Lecture 13. Phonetic and grammatical features of Early New English

Problems to be discussed

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

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

Evolution of the grammatical system

In the course of ME, Early NE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a

language of the "analytical type", with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. This does not mean, however, that the grammatical changes were rapid or sudden; nor does it imply that all grammatical features were in a state of perpetual change. Like the development of other linguistic levels, the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable constituents. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

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

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

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

in some ups of weak verbs. Nevertheless, their application in the language, and their weight among other means was generally reduced.

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

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

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

of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle. The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

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

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

Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. These changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle, having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It is noteworthy that, unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verb system were not limited to a short span of two or three hundred years. They extended over a long period: from Late OE till Late NE. Even in the age of Shakespeare the verb system was in some respects different from that of ME and many changes were still underway.

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

The noun. Decay of Noun Declensions in Early Middle English

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

Increased variation of the noun forms in the late 10th c. and especially in the 11th and 12th c. testifies to impending changes and to a strong tendency toward a re-arrangement and simplification of the declensions. The number of variants of grammatical forms in the 11th and 12th c. was twice as high as in the preceding centuries. Among the variant forms there were direct descendants of OE forms

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

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

The dialects differed not only in the chronology but also in the nature of changes. The Southern dialects rearranged and simplified the noun declensions on the basis of stem and gender distinctions. In Early ME they employed only four markers -es, -en, -e, and the root-vowel interchange plus the bare stem (the "zero"-inflection) but distinguished, with the help of these devices, several paradigms.

Masc. and Neut. nouns had two declensions, weak and strong, with certain differences between the genders in the latter: Masc. nouns took the ending -es in the Nom., Acc. pl, while Neut. nouns had variant forms: Masc. fishes Neut. land/lande/landes. Most Fem. nouns belonged to the weak declension and were declined like weak Masc. and Neut. nouns. The root-stem declension, as before, had mutated vowels in some forms' and many variant forms which showed that the vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the pi. In the 14th c. the ending -

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The pronoun. Personal and Possessive Pronouns

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

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

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

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

obvious derivatives of one pronominal root with the initial [h]: he, heo, hit, hie. The Late ME (as well as the NE) pronouns of the 3rd p. are separate words with no genetic ties whatever: he, she, it, they (it is a direct descendant of OE hit with [h] lost).

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

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

It is believed that the growth of articles in Early ME was caused, or favored, by several internal linguistic factors. The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. These forms were commonly used together with the demonstrative pronouns se, seo, ðæt. In contrast to weak forms, the strong forms of adjectives conveyed the meaning of "indefiniteness" which was later transferred to an, a numeral and indefinite pronoun. In case the nouns were used without adjectives or the weak and strong forms coincided, the form-words an and ðæt

turned out to be the only means of expressing these meanings. The decay of adjective declensions speeded up their transition into articles. Another factor which may account for the more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word order for communicative purposes, e. g. to present a new thing or to refer to a familiar thing already known to the listener. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function, it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence, e. g. the subject or the objects, had their own fixed places. The communicative functions passed to the articles and their use became more regular. The growth of the articles is thus connected both with the changes in syntax and in morphology.

The adjective. Decay of Declensions and Grammatical Categories

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

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

The decay of the grammatical categories of the adjective proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. The number of cases shown in the

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Self control questions

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

Literature

1. Ilyish, B.A. "A. History of the English language". M., 1975.
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Glossary

1. **progressive**, A verb form that indicates an ongoing event: *He is WAVING his hands*.
2. **productivity**. The ability to speak and understand new word forms or sentences, ones not previously heard or used.
3. **preterite**. The simple past-tense form of a verb. *He walked; We sang*. It is usually contrasted with a verb form that indicates a past event using a participle, such as *He has walked* or *We have sung*.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject "A history of the English language"

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
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0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “A History of the English language”

Lecture 14: The development of official variants of the English language

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>The features of British English;</i> 2. <i>The rise of American English;</i> 3. <i>The development of Australian English;</i> 4. <i>Other national and territorial varieties of the English language.</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas

	about the formation of the English language varieties.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Some events in the history of the Briatrain thar are important to know; 2) How many nations invaded the lands in different contienents that could influence the formation of national varieties; 3) The history of the dialects that later developed into national varieties.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The development of official variants of the English language”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students	The students make ready their notebooks, and other

	and prepares the class to the lecture.	objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, factors of language change, tribes, heritage, invaders etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the	The students ask

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

Lecture 14. "The development of official variants of the English language"

Problems to be discussed

1. *Changes in the nouns in territorial varieties of the English language;*
2. *Changes in the pronouns in territorial varieties of the English language;*
3. *Changes in the adjective in territorial varieties of the English language;*
4. *Changes in the verbs in territorial varieties of the English language;*
5. *Changes in the system of syntax in territorial varieties of the English language.*

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

In the course of Early NE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the "analytical type", with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones. This does not mean, however, that the grammatical changes were rapid or sudden; nor does it imply that all grammatical

features were in a state of perpetual change. Like the development of other linguistic levels, the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable constituents. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

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

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

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

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

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

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

belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

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

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

having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It is noteworthy that, unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verb system were not limited to a short span of two or three hundred years. They extended over a long period: from Late OE till Late NE. Even in the age of Shakespeare the verb system was in some respects different from that of ME and many changes were still underway.

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

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

Increased variation of the noun forms in the late 10th c. and especially in the 11th and 12th c. testifies to impending changes and to a strong tendency toward a re-arrangement and simplification of the declensions. The number of variants of grammatical forms in the 11th and 12th c. was twice as high as in the preceding centuries. Among the variant forms there were direct descendants of OE forms with phonetically weakened endings (the so-called "historical forms") and also numerous analogical forms taken over from other parts of the same paradigms and from more influential morphological classes. The new variants of grammatical forms obliterated the distinction between the forms within the paradigms and the

differences between the declensions, e.g.. Early ME *fisshes* and *bootes*, direct descendants of the OE Nom. and Acc. pl of Masc. a-stems *fiscas*, *batas* were used, as before, in the position of these cases and could also be used as variant forms of other cases Gen. and Dat. pl alongside the historical forms *fisshe*, *hoofs*. (OE Gen. pl. *fisca*, *bāta*) and *fischen*, *booten* or *fisshe*, *boots* (OE Dat. pl *fiscum*, *batum*); (NE *fish*, *boat*). As long as all these variants co-existed, it was possible to mark a form more precisely by using a variant with a fuller ending, but when some of the variants went out of use and the non-distinctive, levelled variants prevailed, many forms fell together. Thus after passing through the "variation stage" many formal oppositions were lost. The most numerous OE morphological classes of nouns were a-stems, o-stems and n-stems. Even in Late OE the endings used in these types were added by analogy to other kinds of nouns, especially if they belonged to the same gender. That is how the noun declensions tended to be re-arranged on the basis of gender.

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

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

declined like weak Masc. and Neut. nouns. The root-stem declension, as before, had mutated vowels in some forms' and many variant forms which showed that the vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

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

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

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

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree. The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders

played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems.

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

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

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

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

Only the Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the pi. In the 14th c. the ending -es of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions nouns which were preferably used in the uninflected form (names of relationships terminating in -r, some proper names, and some nouns in stereotyped phrases). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker it was not distinguished from the

Comm. case as the ending *-(e)s* through analogy, had extended to the Gen. either from the Comm. case *pi* or, perhaps, from the Gen. *sg.* This ending was generalised in the Northern dialects and in the Midlands (a survival of the OE Gen. *pl* form in *-ena*, ME *-en(e)*, was used in Early ME only in the Southern districts). The formal distinction between cases in the *pi* was lost, except in the nouns which did not take *-(e)s* in the *pl.* Several nouns with a weak plural form in *-en* or with a vowel interchange, such as *oxen* and *men*, added the marker of the Gen. case *-es* to these forms: *oxenes*, *mennes*. In the 17th and 18th c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe e. g. *man's*, *children's*: this device could be employed only in writing; in oral speech the forms remained homonymous.

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

The replacement of the *Dat.* by prepositional phrases had been well prepared by its wide use in OE as a case commonly governed by prepositions. The main function of the *Ace.* case to present the direct object was fulfilled in ME by the Comm. case; the noun was placed next to the verb, or else its relations with the predicate were apparent from the meaning of the transitive verb and the noun, e. g. *He knew the tavernes well in every town. For catel hadde they ynogh and*

rente (Chaucer) ('He knew well the taverns in every town for they had enough wealth and income'.)

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

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

Various theories have been advanced to account for the restricted use of the Gen. case, particularly for the preference of the inflectional Gen. with "personal" nouns. It has been suggested that the tendency to use the inflectional Gen. with names of persons is a continuation of an old tradition pertaining to word order. It has been noticed that the original distinction between the use of the Gen. with different kind of nouns was not in form but in position. The Gen. of "personal" nouns was placed before the governing noun, while the Gen. of other nouns was placed after it. The post-positive Gen. was later replaced by the *of*-phrase with the result that the *of*-phrase came to be preferred with inanimate nouns and the inflectional Gen. with personal (animate) ones. Another theory attributes the wider use of the inflectional Gen. with animate nouns to the influence of a specific

possessive construction containing a possessive pronoun: the painter's name, where 's is regarded as a shortened form of his "the painter his name". It is assumed that the frequent use of these phrases may have reinforced the inflectional Gen., which could take the ending -is, -ys alongside -es and thus resembled the phrase with the pronoun his, in which the initial [h] could be dropped.

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

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

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

The ME pl ending -en, used as a variant marker with some nouns (and as the main marker in the weak declension in the Southern dialects) lost its former productivity, so that in Standard ME it is found only in oxen, brethern, and children. (The two latter words originally did not belong to the weak declension:

OE *broðor*, a-stem, built its plural by means of a root-vowel interchange; OE *cild*, took the ending *-ru*: *cild—cildru*; *-en* was added to the old forms of the pl in ME; both words have two markers of the pl.). The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME *deer*, *hors*, *thing*;) has been further reduced to three "exceptions" in ME: *deer*, *sheep* and *swine*. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: *man*, *tooth* and the like. Not all irregular forms in ME are traces of OE declensions; forms like *data*, *nuclei*, *antennae* have come from other languages together with the borrowed words.

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

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

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

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

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

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

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the pi forms of the 2nd p. *ye*,

you, your were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of thou, thee, thine. Later thou became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays thou is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of you and thou in Shakespeare's sonnets. But if thou live, remember'd not to be. Die single, and thine image dies with thee. Or I shall live your epitaph to make. Or you survive when I in earth am rotten.

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

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

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

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

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

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

In the 13th c. case could be shown only by some variable adjective endings in the strong declension (but not by the weak forms); towards the end of the

century all case distinctions were lost. The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. The use of a strong form after a demonstrative pronoun was not uncommon, though according to the existing rules, this position belonged to the weak form, e. g.: in þere wildere sæ 'in that wild sea' instead of wilden see. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg. with the help of the ending -e.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Answer the following questions

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

Literature

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

Glossary

1. **psycholinguist.** A scientist, usually a psychologist by training, who studies how people understand, produces, or learns language.
2. **cognate.** A word that resembles a word in another language because the two words descended from a single word in an ancestral language, or because one language originally borrowed the word from the other.
3. **canonical root.** A root that has a standard sound pattern for simple words in the language, a part-of-speech category, and a meaning arbitrarily related to its sound,

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “The History of the English language”

Seminar 1

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Subject of History of “An introduction to Germanic Philology” 2. Sources of language History 3. Old Germanic Dialects and written Records 4. Old Germanic Alphabets and pronunciation 5. Old Germanic vowel system 6. Old Germanic consonant system
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the seminar 1

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
Stage 3. The final stage	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 1

1. Introductory notes
2. Linguistic map of the world
3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world
4. General principles of the development of languages
5. The Place of the Germanic languages among the languages of the world
6. General approaches and methods for language study

Literature recommended

1. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982
2. Чемоданов Н.С. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. ВШ., 1981
3. Хлебникова О.С. «Введение в английскую филологию» М.В., 1983
4. Мейе А. «Введение в сравнительное изучение индоевропейских языков» М., 1933
5. Прокош Дж. «Сравнительная грамматика германских языков» М., 1958
6. Kuldashev A. “An Introduction to Germanic Philology”. Т., 2010.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “The History of the English language”

Seminar 2

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Subject of the discipline “An introduction to Germanic Philology” 2. Sources of language History for investigating Germanic languages 3. Old Germanic Dialects and written Records 4. Old Germanic Alphabets and pronunciation 5. Old Germanic vowel system 6. Old Germanic consonant system
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together,

	brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the seminar 2

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>

Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 2

1. The Noun in GL
2. The Pronoun in GL
3. The adjective in GL
4. The Numeral in GL
5. The Verb in GL

Literature recommended

1. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982
2. Чемоданов Н.С. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. ВШ., 1981
3. Хлебникова О.С. «Введение в английскую филологию» М.В., 1983
4. Мейе А. «Введение в сравнительное изучение индоевропейских языков» М., 1933
5. Прокош Дж. «Сравнительная грамматика германских языков» М., 1958
6. Kuldashev A. “An Introduction to Germanic Philology”. Т., 2010.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “The History of the English language”

Seminar 3

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	1. Word stock of GL 2. Etymological layers of GL vocabulary

	3. Word-Building in GL 4. Affixation in GL
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 3

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the

	brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar	questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
Stage 3. The final stage	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 3

1. Word stock of GL
2. Etymological layers of GL vocabulary
3. Word-Building in GL
4. Affixation in GL

Literature recommended

1. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982

2. Чемоданов Н.С. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. ВШ., 1981
3. Хлебникова О.С. «Введение в английскую филологию» М.В., 1983
4. Мейе А. «Введение в сравнительное изучение индоевропейских языков» М., 1933
5. Прокош Дж. «Сравнительная грамматика германских языков» М., 1958
6. Kuldashev A. “An Introduction to Germanic Philology”. Т., 2010.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “The History of the English language”

Seminar 4

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	A) The number of the languages existing in the world B) Indo-European languages in the world C) Germanic languages in the world D) The groups of Germanic languages
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.

Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 4

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>

Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 4

1. Word stock of GL
2. Etymological layers of GL vocabulary
3. Word-Building in GL
4. Affixation in GL
5. The number of the languages existing in the world
6. Indo-European languages in the world
7. Germanic languages in the world
8. The groups of Germanic languages

Literature recommended

1. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982
2. Чемоданов Н.С. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. ВШ., 1981
3. Хлебникова О.С. «Введение в английскую филологию» М.В., 1983
4. Мейе А. «Введение в сравнительное изучение индоевропейских языков» М., 1933
5. Прокош Дж. «Сравнительная грамматика германских языков» М., 1958
6. Kuldashev A. “An Introduction to Germanic Philology”. Т., 2010.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language” Seminar 5

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students

Plan of the seminar	1. The Subject of History of English 2. Sources of language History 3. Old English Dialects and written Records 4. Old English Alphabets and pronunciation 5. Old English vowel system 6. Old English consonant system
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the seminar 5

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction	1.1.The instructor introduces the students with the topic,	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented

10 minutes	<p>plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
Stage 3. The final stage	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 5

1. The Subject of History of English
2. Sources of language History
3. Old English Dialects and written Records
4. Old English Alphabets and pronunciation

5. Old English vowel system
6. Old English consonant system

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language” Seminar 6

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Noun in Old English 2. The Pronoun in Old English 3. The adjective in Old English 4. The Numeral in Old English 5. The Verb in Old English
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD

	player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 6

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of</p>

	then makes conclusions.	their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 6

1. The Noun in Old English
2. The Pronoun in Old English
3. The adjective in Old English
4. The Numeral in Old English
5. The Verb in Old English

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Namzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”

Seminar 7

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	1. Word stock of Old English 2. Etymological layers of Old English 3. Word-Building in Old English

	4. Affixation in Old English 5. Compound words in Old English
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 7

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented

	1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar	1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 7

1. Word stock of Old English
2. Etymological layers of Old English
3. Word-Building in Old English
4. Affixation in Old English
5. Compound words in Old English

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.

2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Namzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”
Seminar 8

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Scandinavian invasion 2. The Norman Conquest 3. Struggle between English and French 4. Rise of London dialect 5. Middle English dialects and written documents
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work

Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes
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Technological mapping of the Seminar 8

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>

Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 8

1. The Scandinavian invasion
2. The Norman Conquest
3. Struggle between English and French
4. Rise of London dialect
5. Middle English dialects and written documents

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”

Seminar 9

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	1. Middle English vowel changes 2. Middle English consonant changes 3. Middle English morphology 4. Middle English syntax 5. Middle English vocabulary
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits

	and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 9

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.

<p>Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)</p>	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
<p>Stage 3. The final stage</p>	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 9

1. Middle English vowel changes
2. Middle English consonant changes
3. Middle English morphology
4. Middle English syntax
5. Middle English vocabulary

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashv A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.

6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

**Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”
Seminar 10**

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	1. Middle English vowel changes 2. Middle English consonant changes 3. Middle English morphology 4. Middle English syntax 5. Middle English vocabulary
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 10

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student

<p>Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes</p>	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
<p>Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)</p>	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
<p>Stage 3. The final stage</p>	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 10

1. Early New English vowel changes
2. The Great Vowel Shift
3. Early New English consonant changes
4. Early New English Vocabulary
5. Modern English dialects

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.

2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

**Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”
Seminar 11**

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Development of Analytical forms of the verb in English 2. Development of Non-Finite forms of the verb in English 3. Development Of Category of Voice in English 4. Development of the category of Aspect in English 5. Development of the auxiliary verbs in English 6. Development of the phrase-structure in English 7. Development of the syntactic structure in English 8. Development of the parts of speech in English 9. Development of tense forms in English
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information

students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 11

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>

	the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 11

1. Development of Analytical forms of the verb in English
2. Development of Non-Finite forms of the verb in English
3. Development Of Category of Voice in English
4. Development of the category of Aspect in English
5. Development of the auxiliary verbs in English
6. Development of the phrase-structure in English
7. Development of the syntactic structure in English
8. Development of the parts of speech in English
9. Development of tense forms in English

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Namzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language” Seminar 12

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	1. Linguistic features of G. Chaucer’s works 2. Linguistic features of W. Shakespeare's works 3. Loan words in Old English

	4. Rise of new diphthongs and related phenomena 5. French sounds in Middle English 6. The Development of articles 7. Middle English word formation
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed.	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 12

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.

	seminar	
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
Stage 3. The final stage	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 12

1. Linguistic features of G. Chaucer's works
2. Linguistic features of W. Shakespeare's works
3. Loan words in Old English
4. Rise of new diphthongs and related phenomena
5. French sounds in Middle English
6. The Development of articles
7. Middle English word formation

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

**Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language”
Seminar 13**

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. French Derivational affixes in English 2. Spread of London dialect 3. Development of the literary language 4. The Restoration and the Renaissance and their role in the History of the English language 5. Expansion of the English language 6. The development of the English verbal grammatical categories
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic; - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 13

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p> <p>2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.</p>
Stage 3. The final stage	<p>3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.</p> <p>3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work</p>	<p>3.1. The students listen attentively.</p> <p>3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.</p>

Seminar 13

1. French Derivational affixes in English
2. Spread of London dialect
3. Development of the literary language
4. The Restoration and the Renaissance and their role in the History of the English language
5. Expansion of the English language
6. The development of the English verbal grammatical categories

Literature recommended

1. В.А. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Namzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

Teaching technology of the seminars on the discipline “A History of the English language” Seminar 14

Time: 2 hours	Number of the students 25
Form of the class	The seminar is aimed at deepening and enlarging the knowledge of the students
Plan of the seminar	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The formation and development of the American variant of the English language. 2. The formation and development of the Australian variant of the English language. 3. The formation and development of the Canadian variant of the English language. 4. The formation and development of the South African variant of the English language. 5. The formation and development of the modern English dialects in Britain
The aim of the seminar	The aim of the seminar is to improve the knowledge of the students obtained during the lecture and to form the habits and skills of applying the theoretical knowledge to solve practical problems related to the topic
Pedagogical aims: - to systematize the knowledge of the students on the topic;	Results of the seminar. The seminar will develop the linguistic and linguocultural competences to analyze the problems

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to develop the skills of the students to work with course books; - to develop the habits of analyzing the notions related to the topics discussed. 	discussed to enlighten the information about the subject.
Teaching methods and technologies	Blitz-interrogation, reading together, brainstorming.
Means of instruction	The text of the lecture, manual, DVD player, marker, flipchart, handouts, whiteboard.
Form of the Instruction	Deepening and enriching the knowledge, individual and group work
Conditions for teaching	Computer technologies, DVD projector, the room for practical classes

Technological mapping of the Seminar 14

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	<p>1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.</p> <p>1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the seminar</p>	<p>1.1. The students make notes on the items presented</p> <p>1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.</p>
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	<p>2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.</p> <p>2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lecture, manuals, dictionaries etc).</p> <p>2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.</p>	<p>2.1. The students present the results of their activity.</p> <p>2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.</p> <p>2.3. The students work on the tables</p> <p>2.4. The students will be informed about the results of</p>

	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the seminar, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Seminar 14

1. The formation and development of the American variant of the English language.
2. The formation and development of the Australian variant of the English language.
3. The formation and development of the Canadian variant of the English language.
4. The formation and development of the South African variant of the English language.
5. The formation and development of the modern English dialects in Britain

Literature recommended

1. B.A. Ilyish, A. History of the English language, 1975.
2. Rastorgueva. T.A. History of the English language, M, 2004.
3. Baugh A. History of English, language, 1966.
4. Brook G.L. A. History of the English language, New – York, 1958.
5. Kuldashev A. A History of the English language. T, 2011.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М 1956.
6. Смирницкий А.И. Хрестоматия по Истории английского языка М. 1940.
7. Иванова И.П. История английского языка, М.ВШ, 2005.
8. Kuldashev A., Hamzaev S. Ingliz tili tarixi. T., 2015.

