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INTRODUCTION TO GERMANIC PHILOLOGY

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INTRODUCTION TO GERMANIC PHILOLOGY

Roman-German filologiyasiga kirish fanidan

O'QUV QO'LLANMA

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Mazkur o'quv qo'llanma "Roman-German filologiyasiga kirish" fani bo'yicha 5120112 –Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish (ingliz tili) va 5111400 – Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo'nalishlarida o'qiydigan talabalar uchun mo'ljallangan bo'lib, u "Roman-German filologiyasiga kirish" fanidan O'zbekiston respublikasi OO'MTVning 2019-yil 20-iyulida 654-sonli buyru'gi bilan tasdiqlangan fan dasturi asosida tuzilgan.

O'quv qo'llanma talabalarni roman va german tillari kiruvchi tillarning umumiy va farqli belgilari va shu asosida ularning guruhlanishi, tarixiy taraqqiyotining umumiy qonuniyatlari, ushbu tillarning shakllanishi va rivojlanishi jarayonlari, ularning fonetik-grammatik xususiyatlari va lug'at tarkibida sodir bo'lgan asosiy voqealar va ularning tillar taraqqiyotiga ta'siri masalalari bilan tanishtiradi.

Taqrizchilar:

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Ushbu "Introduction to Germanic philology" nomli o'quv qo'llanmasi BuxDU Ingliz tilshunosligi kafedrasining 2021-yil 03 fevraldagii 23-yig'ilishida va Xorijiy tillar fakultetining 2021-yil 02 martdagi 8-yig'ilishida muhokama qilingan. BuxDU o'quv-metodik kengashining 2021-yil 10 apreldagi 13- yi'g'ilishida muhokama qilinib nashrga tavsiya etilgan.

Lecture 1: INTRODUCTION

1. Language Constantly Changing
2. Dialectal Differentiation
3. The Indo-European Family

Key words: gradual alteration, a general similarity in the speech, a close kinship between English and German, common form, identity of the 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 đi (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 prefferable 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 overdialectal 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 inn language space, etc.
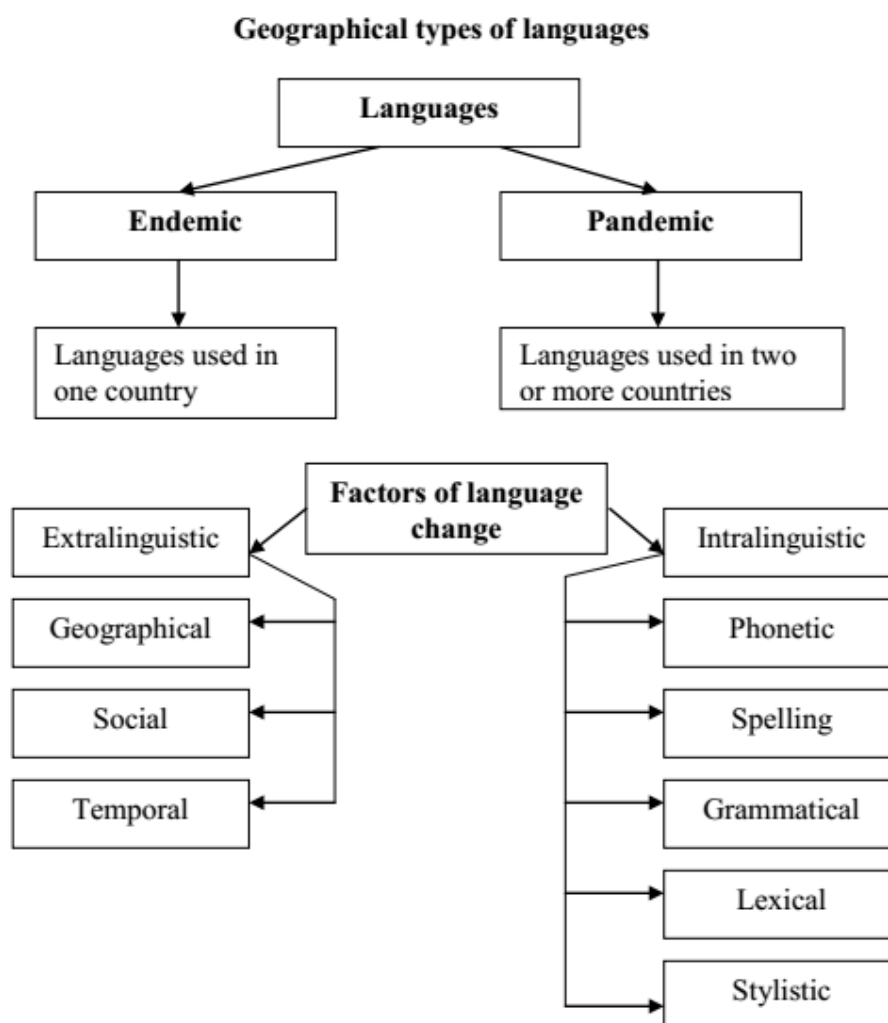
Causes of Language evolution

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, at 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. Jacobson, 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.

Geographical types of languages

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                        ┌─────────────┐
                        │  Languages  │
                        └─────────────┘
                       /               \
              ┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐
              │   Endemic   │      │   Pandemic  │
              └─────────────┘      └─────────────┘
                     │                    │
          ┌────────────────────┐  ┌────────────────────┐
          │ Languages used in  │  │ Languages used in two│
          │ one country        │  │ or more countries   │
          └────────────────────┘  └────────────────────┘
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                        ┌──────────────────┐
                        │ Factors of language
                        │      change      │
                        └──────────────────┘
       ┌──────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────┐
       │ Extralinguistic  │            │  Intralinguistic │
       └──────────────────┘            └──────────────────┘
       ┌──────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────┐
       │   Geographical   │            │     Phonetic     │
       └──────────────────┘            └──────────────────┘
       ┌──────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────┐
       │      Social      │            │     Spelling     │
       └──────────────────┘            └──────────────────┘
       ┌──────────────────┐            ┌──────────────────┐
       │     Temporal     │            │   Grammatical    │
       └──────────────────┘            └──────────────────┘
                                       ┌──────────────────┐
                                       │     Lexical      │
                                       └──────────────────┘
                                       ┌──────────────────┐
                                       │     Stylistic    │
                                       └──────────────────┘
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In the mind of the average person language is associated with writing and calls up a picture of the printed page. From Latin or French as we meet it in literature we get an impression of something uniform and relatively fixed. We are likely to forget that writing is only a conventional device for recording sounds and that language is primarily speech. Even more important, we tend to forget that the Latin of Cicero or the French of Voltaire is the product of centuries of

development and that language as long as it lives and is in actual use is in a constant state of change. Speech is the product of certain muscular movements. The sounds of language are produced by the passage of a current of air through cavities of the throat and face controlled by the muscles of these regions. Any voluntary muscular movement when constantly repeated is subject to gradual alteration. The fact that this alteration takes place largely without our being conscious of it does not change the fact or lessen its effects. Now any alteration in the position or action of the organs of speech results in a difference in the sound produced. Thus each individual is constantly and quite unconsciously introducing slight changes in his or her speech. There is no such thing as uniformity in language. Not only does the speech of one community differ from that of another, but the speech of different individuals of a single community, even different members of the same family, also is marked by individual peculiarities. Members of a group, however, are influenced by one another, and there is a general similarity in the speech of a given community at any particular time. The language of any district or even country is only the sum total of the individual speech habits of those composing it and is subject to such change as occur in the speech of its members, so far as the changes become general or at least common to a large part of it. Although the alteration that is constantly going on in language is for the most part gradual and of such nature as often to escape the notice of those in whose speech it is taking place, after a period of time the differences that grow up became appreciable.

The language family metaphor

- A parent language does not live on after a daughter language is born
- Birth metaphor is incorrect
- Contact is still there between sister languages
- Languages diverge as well as converge

As previously remarked where constant communication takes place among the people speaking a language, individual differences become merged in the general speech of the community, and a certain conformity prevails. But if any separation of one community from another takes and lasts for a considerable length of time, differences grow up between them. The differences may be slight if the separation is slight, and we have merely local dialects. On the other hand, they may become so considerable as to render the language of one district unintelligible to the speakers of another. In this case, we generally have the development of separate languages. Even where the differentiation has gone so far, however, it is usually possible to recognize a sufficient number of features, which the resulting languages still retain in common to indicate that at one time they were one. It is easy to perceive a close kinship between English and German. "Milch" and "milk", "brot" and "bread", "fleisch" and "flesh", "wasser" and "water" are obviously only words that have diverged from a common form. In the same way a connection between Latin and English is indicated by such correspondences as "pater" with English "father", or "frāter" with "brother", although the difference in the initial consonants tends somewhat to obscure the relationship. When we notice that "father" corresponds to Dutch "vader", Gothic "fadar", Old Norse "faðir", German "vater", Greek "patēr", Sanskrit "pitar"-, and Old Irish "athir", we are led to the

hypothesis that the languages of a large part of Europe and part of Asia were at one time identical.

Thus, the languages brought into relationship by descent or progressive differentiation from a parent speech are conveniently called a family of languages. Various names have been used to designate the family of languages to which the Germanic languages belong. In books written a century ago, the term **Aryan** was commonly employed. It has been generally abandoned and when found today is used in a more restricted sense to designate the languages of the family located in India and the plateau of Iran. A more common term is **Indo-Germanic,** which is the most usual designation among German philologists, but it is open to the objection of giving undue emphasis to the Germanic languages. The term now most widely employed is **Indo-European**, suggesting more clearly the geographical extent of the family. The parent tongue from which the Indo-European languages have sprung had already become divided and scattered before the dawn of the history. When we meet with the various peoples by whom these languages are spoken, they have lost all knowledge of their former association. Consequently, we have no written record of the common Indo-European language. By a comparison of its descendents, however, it is possible to form a fair idea of it and to make plausible reconstructions of its lexicon and inflections.

The surviving languages show various degrees of similarity to one another, the similarity being a more or less direct relationship to their geographical distribution. They accordingly fall into eleven principal groups: Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Hellenic, Italic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic, Celtic, Hittite, and Tocharian. These are the branches of the Indo-European family tree.

Self-control questions:
1. What is the relation between Sanskrit and Germanic languages?
2. What is the importance of the Discovery of Sanskrit in learning the development of Germanic languages?
3. What is the essence of Grimm's Law?

4. What hypothesis does Grimm's explanation for the correspondence of consonants prove?

5. Give more examples for the correspondence of consonants [p-f, t-th, k-h] in Germanic and non-Germanic languages.

6. What is the essence of Verner's Law? Search and find more examples for Verner's Law.

7. What were East Germanic languages?

8. What is the earliest record of a Germanic language came to our days?

9. What parts of the world are the North Germanic languages spoken?

10. To what branch of the Germanic languages does English belong?

11. What is the difference between Germanic and German?

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Lecture 2: THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES AND THEIR FORMATION

1. The Earliest and Modern Indian languages
2. Representatives of the modern Indian languages
3. The Relationships of the Indo-European Languages

Key words: gradual alteration, a general similarity in the speech, a close kinship between English and German, common form, identity of the languages.

It has been estimated that there are more than 5,700 distinct languages to be found in the world today, 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 socalled Pahlavi (the middle form) and Baluchi, Pushtu, Kurdish, Yagnobi, Ossetic, and some 58 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 ItaloCeltic, 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 0on 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, Iohannes Schmidt (1843-1901) argued in his book *Die Verwandtschaftsverhaltnisse der indo-germanischen Schprachen* ("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 Hrozny 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 sattem-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 IndoEuropean.

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 s in contact with the semi-vowels *i* and *u,* the vibrant *r* and 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". 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.

Modern Germanic languages are classified into three subgroups:

West-Germanic Group	East- Germanic Group	North-Germanic Group
This group is dead	The groups have survived until nowadays	
Gothic	English	Norwegian
Burgubdian	German	Danish
Vandalic	Afrikaans	Swedish
	Netherlandish	Faroese
	Frisian	Icelandic
	Yiddish	
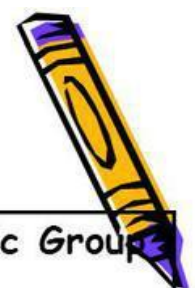
Self-control questions:

1. What is the number of the languages existing in the world?
2. How many Indo-European languages are there in the world?
3. How many Germanic languages are there in the world?
4. What groups of Germanic languages do you know?

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Lecture 3: PHONETIC PECULIERITIES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

1. The Discovery of Sanskrit

2. Grimm's Law. Verner`s Law

3. Germanic Group of the Family

Key words: hypothesis, a common origin, correspondence, regularity for the sound-changes, Common Germanic or Proto-Germanic, East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic.

The Indo-European Language Family: eminent early scholars

- Franz Bopp (1816)
- Rasmus Rask (1814): the first linguist to describe formally the regularity of sound changes
- Jakob Grimm
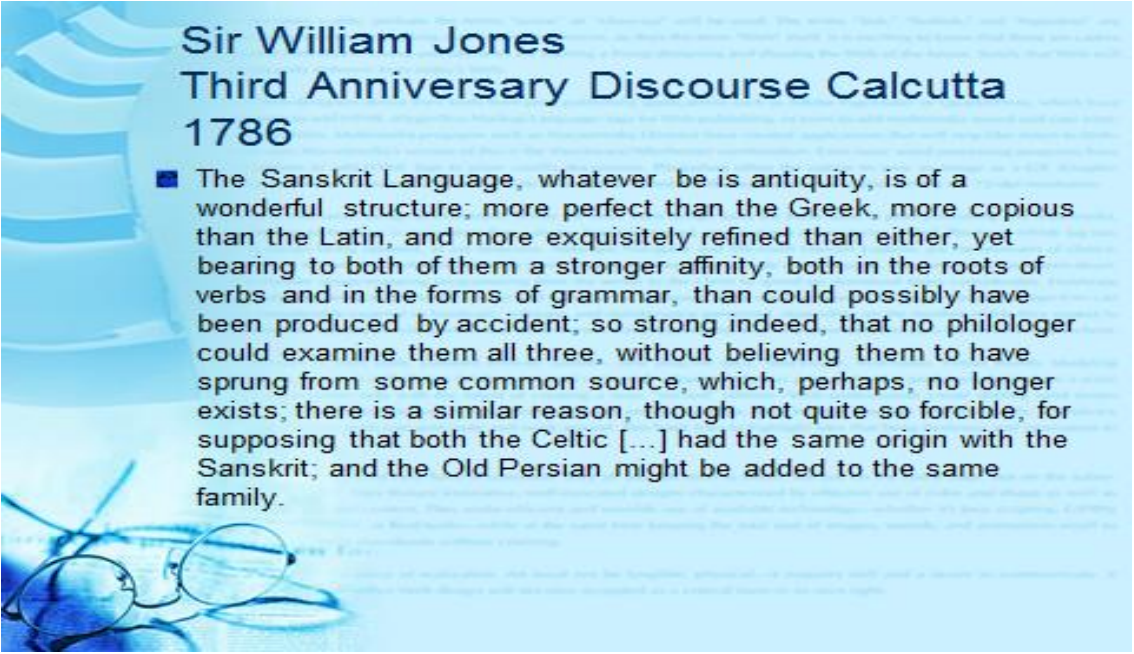
The most important discovery leading to the hypothesis that the languages of a large part of Europe and part of Asia were at one time identical, was the recognition that Sanskrit, a language of ancient India, was one of the languages of the group. This was suggested in the latter part of the 18th century and fully established by the beginning of the 19th. The extensive literature of India, reaching back further than that of any of the European languages, preserves features of the common language much older than most of those of Greek or Latin or German. It is easier, for example, to see the resemblance between the English word *brother* and the Sanskrit *bhrātar-* than between *brother* and *frāter*.

But what is even more important, Sanskrit preserves an unusually full system of declensions and conjugations by which it became clear that the inflections of these languages could likewise be traced to a common origin. Compare the following forms of the verb to be:

MnE	OE	Gothic	Latin	Greek	Sanskrit
am	*eom*	*im*	*sum*	*eimi*	*asmi*
are	*eart*	*is*	*es*	*ei*	*asi*
is	*is*	*ist*	*est*	*esti*	*asti*
are	*sindon*	*sijum*	*sumus*	*semen*	*smas*
are	*sindon*	*sijub*	*estis*	*este*	*stha*
are	*sindon*	*sind*	*sunt*	*eisi*	*santi*

The material offered by Sanskrit for comparison with the other languages of the group, both in matters of vocabulary and inflection, was thus of the great importance. When we add that Hindu grammarians had already gone far in the analysis of the language, had recognized the roots, classified the formative elements and worked out the rules according to which certain sound-changes occurred, we shall appreciate the extent to which the discovery of Sanskrit contributed to the recognition and determination of the relation that exists among the languages to which it was allied.

Sir William Jones
Third Anniversary Discourse Calcutta
1786

■ The Sanskrit Language, whatever be is antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists; there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Celtic […] had the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the Old Persian might be added to the same family.

A further important step after the Discovery of Sanskrit was taken in 1822. A German philologist, **Jacob Grimm**, following up a suggestion of a Danish contemporary, **Rasmus Rask**, formulated an explanation that systematically accounted for the correspondences between certain consonants in the Germanic language and those found, for example, in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin. His explanation, although subsequently modified and in some of the details of its operation still a subject of dispute, is easily illustrated. According to Grimm, a **p** in Indo-European, preserved as such in Latin and Greek, was changed to an **f** in the Germanic languages. Thus we should look for the English equivalent of Latin *piscis* or *pes* to begin with **f**, and this is what we actually find, in *fish* and *foot,* respectively. What is true of **p** is true also of **t** and **k**: in other words, the original voiceless stops (**p, t, k**) were changed to fricatives (**f, þ, h**). So Latin *tres* = English *three*, Latin *centum* = English *hundred*. A similar correspondence can be shown for certain other groups of consonants, and the formulation of these correspondences is known as Grimm's Law. The cause of the change is not known. It must have taken place sometime after the segregation of the Germanic from neighboring dialects of the parent language. There are words in Finnish borrowed from Germanic that do not show the change and that therefore must have resulted from a contact between Germanic and Finnish before the change occurred. There is also evidence that the

shifting was still occurring as late as about the fifth century B.C. It is often assumed that the change was due to contact with a non-Germanic population. The contact could have resulted from the migration of the Germanic tribes or from the penetration of a foreign population into Germanic territory. Whatever its cause, the Germanic sound-shift is the most distinctive feature marking off the Germanic languages from the languages to which they are related.

Certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law were subsequently explained by **Karl Verner** and others. It was noted that between such a pair of words as Latin *centum* and English *hundred* the correspondence between the **t** and **d** was not according to rule. The **d** in the English word should have been a voiceless fricative, that is, a **þ**. In 1875 Verner showed that when the Indo-European accent was not on the vowel immediately preceding, such voiceless fricatives became voiced in Germanic. In West Germanic the resulting **ð** became a **d**, and the word *hundred* is therefore quite regular in its correspondence with *centum.* The explanation was of importance in accounting for the forms of the preterite tense in many strong verbs. Thus in Old English the preterite singular of *cweþán* (to say) is *ic cwæþ* but the plural is *we cweædon.* In the latter word the accent was originally on the ending, as it was in the past participle (*cweden*), where we also have a **d**. The formulation of this explanation is known as Verner's Law, and it was of great significance in vindicating the claim of regularity for the sound-changes that Grimm's Law had attempted to define.

The common form that the languages of the Germanic branch had before they became differentiated is known as **Common Germanic** or **Proto-Germanic**. It antedates the earliest written records of the family and is reconstructed by philologists in the same way as is the parent Indo-European. The languages descended from it fall into three groups: East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic.

The principal language of *East Germanic* is Gothic. By the third century the Goths had spread from the Vistula to the shore of the Black Sea and in the following century they were Christianized by a missionary named **Ulfilas** (311-

383), whose father seems to have been a Goth and his mother a Greek (Cappadocian). Our knowledge of Gothic is almost wholly due to a translation of the Gospels and other parts of the New Testament made by Ulfilas. Except for some runic inscriptions in Scandinavia it is the earliest record of a Germanic language we possess. For a time the Gothic played a prominent part in European history, including in their extensive conquest both Italy, by the Ostrogoths, and Spain, by the Visigoths. In these districts, however, their language soon gave place to Latin, and even elsewhere, it seems not to have maintained a very tenacious existence. Gothic survived longest in the Crimea, where vestiges of it were noted down in the sixteenth century. To the East Germanic branch belonged also **Burgundian** and **Vandalic**, but our knowledge of these languages is confined to a small number of proper names.

North Germanic is found in Scandinavia, Denmark, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands. Runic inscriptions from the 3rd century preserve our earliest traces of the language. In its earlier form, the common Scandinavian language is conveniently spoken of as **Old Norse**. From about the 11th century on, dialectical differences become noticeable. The Scandinavian languages fall into two groups: an eastern group including **Swedish and Danish**, and a western group including **Norwegian and Icelandic**. Norwegian ceased to be a literary language in the 14th century, and Danish (with a Norwegian elements) is one written languages of Norway. Of the early Scandinavian languages Old Icelandic is by far the most literary. Iceland was colonized by settlers from Norway about A.D. 874 and early preserved a body of heroic literature unsurpassed among the Germanic peoples. Among the more important monuments are the Elder or Poetic Edda, a collection of poems that probably date from the 10th or 11th century, the *Younger or Prose Edda* compiled by Snorry Sturluson (1178-1241), and about forty sagas, or prose epics, in which the lives and exploits of various traditional figures are related.

West Germanic is of chief interest to us as the group to which English belongs. It is divided into two branches, High and Low German, by the operation of a Second (or High German) Sound-Shift analogous to that described above as Grimm`s Law.

This change, by which West Germanic **p, t, k, d**, etc. were changed into other sounds, occurred about A.D. 600 in the southern or mountainous part of the Germanic area but did not take in the lowlands to the north. Accordingly in early times we distinguish as Low German tongues: **Old Saxon, Old Low Franconian, Old Frisian, and Old English**. The last two are closely related and constitute a special or Anglo-Frisian subgroup. Old Saxon has become the essential constituent of modern Low German or Plattdeutsch; Old Low Franconian, with some mixture of Frisian and Saxon elements, is the basis of modern Dutch in the Netherlands and Flemish in the northern Belgium; and Frisian survives in the Netherland province of Friesland, in a small part of Schleswig, in the islands along the coast, and other places. **High German** comprises a number of dialects (Middle, Rhenish, and East Franconian, Bavarian, Alemannic, etc.). It is divided chronologically into Old High German (before 1100), Middle High German (1100-1500), and Modern High German (since 1500). High German, especially as spoken in the midlands and used in the imperial chancery, was popularized by Luther`s translation of the Bible (1522-1532) and since the sixteenth century has gradually established itself as the literary language of Germany.

Self-control questions:

1. In what way do the changes occur in the structure of a language?
2. Explain how the local dialects appear from the same language.
3. Is it possible to recognize common features of different languages? What does this recognition indicate? Give examples to prove that.
4. What languages of Europe and Asia show identity in their structure?
5. What is meant by "a family of languages"? Can English, German, Greek and Sanskrit be brought into relationship? Why?
6. Why does the Indo-European family of languages have different names before? Why were not they suitable to designate the family?
7. What are the branches of the Indo-European family of languages?

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Lecture 4: GRAMMATIC PECULIERITIES OF GERMANIC LANGUGES

1. Modern Germanic Languages
2. The Earliest Period of Germanic languages

Key words: genealogical classification, Teutonic, common origin, Proto-Germanic, methods of comparative linguistics, the River Elbe, the Vistula basin.

Most of the languages spoken in Europe belong to the Indo-European family of languages. It consists of several branches, of which the Germanic languages are one. Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historical, or genealogical classification, groups languages in accordance with their origin from a common linguistic ancestor. Most of the area of Europe and large parts of other continents are occupied today by the Indo-European languages, Germanic or Teutonic group being one of their major groups. The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows:

English – in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic and many other countries of British Commonwealth;

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

Netherlandish – in the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium);

Africaans – in the South African Republic;

Danish – in Denmark;

Swedish – in Sweden and Finland;

Norwegian – in Norway;

Icelandic – in Iceland;

Frisian – in some regions of the Netherlands and the northern coasts of Germany;

Faroese – in the Faroe islands;

Yiddish – in different countries.

Afrikaans

Afrikaans is a contemporary West Germanic language developed from seventeenth century Dutch. It is one of the eleven official languages of the Republic of South

Africa. "Although Afrikaans derives from Dutch, it was also influenced by Malay (spoken by the slaves in the 17th century) and the indigenous African languages. The first recognizable form of Afrikaans was apparently spoken by the Malay people of the Cape in the 17th/18th century." - Johan Viljoen.

Dutch- Flemish

Dutch or Flemish is the contemporary descendent of Middle Dutch. With slight differences, the same language is called Dutch in the Netherlands and Flemish in Belgium. It is one of the two official languages of the Netherlands and one of the three official languages of Belgium. Number of Speakers (1988): 21 million.

Faroese

Faroese is a contemporary Western North Germanic language spoken in the Faroe Islands. It is a descendant of Old Norse. Number of Speakers (1988): 41,000.

Frisian

Frisian is a contemporary West Germanic language spoken in the Netherlands and Germany. It is one of the two official languages of the Netherlands. Of all Germanic languages, Frisian is most closely related to English. Frisian from the earliest records of about 1300 until about 1575 is called Old Frisian. Subsequently Frisian is known as New Frisian. Some Frisian scholars also identify a Middle Frisian period from about 1600 to about 1800. Frisian exists in three major divisions, each of which is subdivided into dialects. The two dialects of East Frisian have been largely replaced by dialects of New Low German which are called East Frisian. North Frisian is divided into about ten dialects. Nearly all modem Frisian literature is in West Frisian which has about six dialects. About 80 percent of Germanic roots are non-Indo-European.

Gutnish

Gutnish is a contemporary Eastern North Germanic language spoken on the island of Gotland. It is first attested in Legal documents of the fourteenth century C. E. Some authorities consider Gutnish to be merely a dialect of Swedish.

Icelandic

Icelandic is the contemporary language of Iceland. It is a very conservative descendent of Old Norse. It is said that many Icelandic readers are able to read the Norse Sagas, written in Old Norse, without much difficulty. Number of Speakers (1988): 250,000

New Danish

New (or Modern Danish) is the contemporary descendent of Old Danish. It is the official language of Denmark. Number of Speakers (1988): 5 million

New English

New (or Modem) English is the contemporary descendent of Middle English. It is the official language of Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom; it is the standard language of the United States. It is one of the official languages of Canada, India, the United Nations, and many other nations. New English is characterized by a very large vocabulary, nonphonetic spelling, an almost total lack of inflection (most plurals of nouns are indicated), a syntax almost totally dependent on word order, and a very complicated periphrastic verb system. Number of speakers (1988): 431 million

New High German

New (or Modem) High German is the contemporary descendent of Middle High German. It is the official language of Austria, Germany, and Switzerland. There are multiple extant dialects of High German. High German partakes of the so-called *second* sound shift. Number of Speakers (1988): 118 million

New Low German (Plattdeutsch)

New (or Modem) Low German (Plattdeutsch) is the contemporary descendent of Middle Low German. It is spoken on the North German plain in Germany and the Netherlands. The name Low Saxon is preferred in the Netherlands. There are multiple extant dialects of Low German. Number of Speakers: 1.5 *to 2.0 million*

New Swedish

New Swedish is a contemporary Eastern North Germanic language, a descendent of Old Swedish. It is the official language of Sweden and is spoken in Finland.

Number of Speakers (1988): 9 million

North Germanic

The North Germanic branch of the Germanic languages is spoken by the Germanic speaking people who stayed in northern part of the Germanic homeland. Between about *800* c. E. and *1000* C. E., the dialects of North Germanic diverged into West and East North Germanic. Old West Germanic is known as Old Norse; Old East Germanic is known as Old Danish or Old Swedish. A characteristic of the North Germanic languages is the use of a post posed definite article.

Norwegian

Norwegian, a contemporary Western North Germanic language, is the official language of Norway. It has two major dialects: Nynorsk and Bokmal. Nynorsk is the contemporary descendent of Old Norwegian. Bokmal, also called Dano-Norwegian or Riksmal, is really a form of Danish. Nynorsk is more prevalent in rural areas; Bokmal in the cities. Since 1951 there has been a concerted effort to effect a merger of the two dialects. Number of Speakers (1988): 5 million

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

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English which in many countries is one of two languages in a bilingual community, e.g. Canada. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 million.

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

common features and also how they have developed into modern independent tongues.

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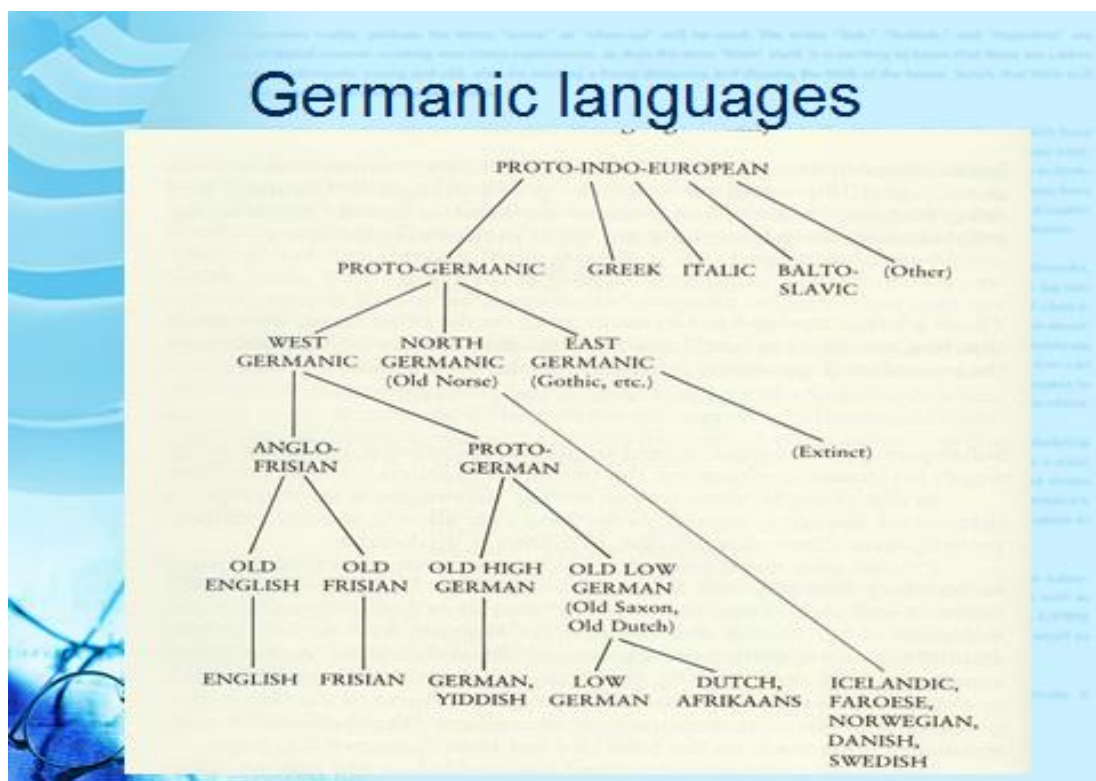
As the Indo-Europeans extended over a large territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the **southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe**. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of Teutons. It is here that they developed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

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 GALL ICO) 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.

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the **Proto-Germanic** language. It is the linguistic ancestor of the Germanic group. Proto-Germanic is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history Proto-Germanic 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 migration and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

Toward the beginning of our era, the common period the Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the Proto-Germanic language broke into parts. The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the lower valley of the Elbe consisted in the movement to the 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 Proto-Germanic into northern and southern branches. At the beginnings of our era, some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled closer to the Vistula basin, east of the 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, which will be the main points in the next lecture.

Self-control questions:

1. Explain why the following proper names are important in studying the Germanic languages:

   the Baltic Sea

   the Elbe

   the Tuetons

   Proto-Germanic

   the Vistula basin

2. According to what principle are the languages united under certain groups?

3. What are modern Germanic languages?

4. Are all the Germanic languages spoken in Europe?

5. Approximately how many people speak Germanic languages?

6. What is the earliest name for ancient Germans?

7. What is Proto-Germanic?

8. When must the dialectal differences have begun to appear in Proto-Germanic?

9. What kind of geographical picture did the Germanic tribes have at the beginning of our era?

10. What are the three branches of the Germanic languages?

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Lecture 5: THE VOCABULARY SYSTEM OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

1. The Origin and Diffusion of Indo-European
2. Language Groups of Germanic Branch

Key words: colonization, dispersion, establish, foundation, postulating, branch, diffusion, subsequent

Indo-European is a family of languages that first spread throughout Europe and many parts of South Asia, and later to every corner of the globe as a result of colonization. The term Indo-European is essentially geographical since it refers to the easternmost extension of the family from the Indian subcontinent to its westernmost reach in Europe. The family includes most of the languages of Europe, as well as many languages of Southwest, Central and South Asia. |The Indo-European language family has the largest number of speakers of all language families as well as the widest dispersion around the world.

It would not have been possible to establish the existence of the Indo-European language family if scholars had not compared the systematically recurring resemblances among European languages and Sanskrit, the oldest language of the Indian subcontinent that left many written documents. The common origin of European languages and Sanskrit was first proposed by Sir William Jones. Systematic comparisons between these languages by Franz Bopp supported this theory and laid the foundation for postulating that all Indo-European languages descended from a common ancestor, Proto-Indo-European (PIE), thought to have been spoken before 3,000 B.C. It then split into different branches which, in turn, split into different languages in the subsequent millennia.

Since PIE left no written records, historical linguists construct family trees, an idea pioneered by August Schleicher, on the basis of the comparative method. The comparative method takes shared features among languages and uses procedures to

establish their common ancestry. It is not the only method available but is one that has been most widely used. The examples below show how this method actually works with some Indo-European languages.

PIE *dekm>Proto-Germanic *texun > Old English teon > Modern English ten

Proto-Italic *dekem > Latin decem > Modern Italian dieci

Old Church Slavonic desenti > Modern Bulgarian deset

Sanskrit dáça > Hindi/Urdu das

Greek deka

From the middle of the 1st millennium BC, there is evidence of Germanic populations in southern Scandinavia and northern Germany. Their migrations from the 2nd century BC onwards are recorded in history. The linguistic and archaeological data seem to indicate that the last linguistic changes affecting all of the Germanic languages took place in an area which has been located approximately in Southern Sweden, Southern Norway, Denmark, and the lower Elbe. The Proto-Germanic language had split into three daughter languages:

- ➢ North Germanic, ancestor of today's Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish and Danish;
- ➢ West Germanic, ancestor of today's English, Dutch, Africans and German
- ➢ East Germanic, ancestor of several extinct languages, such as Gothic.

Although no written documents in Proto-Germanic have survived, the language has been substantially reconstructed by using the oldest existing records. Compared to Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Germanic had a relatively simpler nominal morphology. For instance, it dropped the dual number, and reduced the number of cases from eight to four. On the other hand, the verbal morphology of Proto-Indo-European survived relatively intact in all modern Germanic languages, although there are fewer strong (irregular) verbs today.

Self-control questions:

1. According to what principle are the languages united under certain groups?
2. What are modern Germanic languages?
3. Are all the Germanic languages spoken in Europe?
4. Approximately how many people speak Germanic languages?
5. Where and when did the Germanic languages arise and acquire their common features?
6. What is the earliest name for ancient Germans?
7. What is Proto-Germanic?
8. When must the dialectal differences have begun to appear in Proto-Germanic?
9. What kind of geographical picture did the Germanic tribes have at the beginning of our era?
10. What are the three branches of the Germanic languages?

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Lecture 6: CLASSIFICATION OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

1. Ancient Germanic Tribes

2. East Germanic. Gothic language

3. North Germanic

4. West Germanic

Key words: testimonies, Ulfilas' translation of the Gospels, the pre-written stages, Old Norse, independent national language, High German, Low German.

The external history of the ancient Germans or Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. Our knowledge of the ancient Teutons is based on testimonies by Greek and Roman writers, who for some reason or other were interested in them. The earliest of these was made by **Pytheas**, a Greek geographer of the 4th century B.C., in an account of a sea voyage through the straits of Gibraltar, along the West of Gaul (France), along the Channel till the Baltic sea. Next comes the Roman general, statesman, and writer **Julius Caesar**. In the 1st century B.C. in his "Commentaries on the Gallic war" Caesar

gives several chapters to Germans, whom he combated and dealt with on Rhine. Caesar's statement that the Germans lived in tribes and tribal unions is of particularly great value for the historians. In the 1st century A.D. **Pliny the Elder**, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in "Natural History" 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 in his short work "Germania".

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

1. the VINDILI (among them were the Goths and the Burgundians). They inhabited the eastern part of Germanic territory.
2. the INGAEONES. These inhabited the north-western part of the Germanic territory – the shores of the Northern sea, including what is now the Netherlands.
3. the ISCAEVONES. These inhabited the western part of Germanic territory, on the Rhine. Among them were the Franks, who eventually conquered Gaul.
4. the HERMIONES. These inhabited the southern part of Germanic territory, i.e. what is now southern Germany.
5. the PEUCINI and BASTARNAE. They lived close to the Dacians, close to what is now Rumania.
6. the HILLEVIONES, who inhabited Scandinavia.

The mutual relation between classification of Germanic tribes based on Pliny's work and that of Germanic languages based on analyses made by 19th century linguists appears in the following shape:

Tribes:	Languages:
Vindili	Eastern Germanic
Ingaevones	
Istaevones	Western Germanic
Herminones	

Hilleviones   Northern Germanic

Thus, Germanic languages are classified into 3 group: East Germanic, North Germanic, West 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. Their western branch, the Visigotæ, invaded Roman territory and found one of the first barbarian kingdoms lasted until the 8th century though linguistically the western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanised Celts. The **Gothic** language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4th – 6th centuries. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th century Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels (Bible) from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Ulfilas' Gospels were first published in the 17th century and have been thoroughly studied by the 19th and 20th century philologists. It is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to Proto-Germanic and therefore throws lights 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.

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-havebeens" 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 written. After his death in 526 the generals of the Eastern Empires 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:

1. 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 or 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 Gospal.

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 on1y 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 eyen 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. I n other cases Gothic suffice with the verb on its own. 55

- 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 f'p/ (as in English thin). Weak verbs are an innovation of the Germanic languages.

c) by reduplication, eg sleep: *slEpan - salsle*p *- salsle***pum***).* 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 WestGermanic 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.

The North Germanic subgroup of the languages was spoken by the Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th century and is

regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. After the 9th century, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages, the disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began: Old **Danish**, Old **Norwegian** and Old **Swedish**. In the later Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway), Danish and 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, intermixed with Danish.

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: **Icelandic and Faroese**. Faroese is developed from the West Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians, spoken in the Faroe Islands. Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlement. Their West Scandinavian dialects eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic. At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200000 people and Faroese is spoken by about 30000 people.

West Germanic tribes who lived in the beginning of our era 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. On the eve of their "great migrations" of the 4th and 5th centuries, West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine. The Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, the western part of Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous south-western part of Germany. Accordingly, Low Germans lived in the low-lying northern areas.

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

Flanders. The modern language of the Netherlands is now treated as a single language – **Netherlandish**.

Towards the 12th century High German had intermixed with neighboring tongues and eventually developed into the literary **German** language. 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 centuries.

At the later stage of the great migration period – in the 5th century, a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasions of the British Isles. They were: the Angles, part of the Saxons and Frisians and probably, the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the **English** language.

Self-control questions:

1. What is meant by specifically Germanic linguistic features?
2. What innovations in the word-accent were introduced in Common Germanic?

3. Analyse the changes in the place of stress in form-building and word-building, and point out the words which have retained the original Germanic stress system:

    a) read, reads, reader, readable, reread;

    b) bear, bearing, unbearable, bearer;

    c) satisfy, satisfaction, dissatisfy, satisfactory

    d) circumstance, circumstantial, circumstantiality.

4. In what senses did the historical changes of Germanic vowels depend on position?

5. Explain the sound correspondences in the following parallels form Germanic and non-Germanic languages (the sounds are italicized).

R.	*бол*ь	OE.	*balu* 'mischief'
R.	*сол*ь	G.	*Salz* 'salt'

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Lecture 7:   PECULIARITIES OF EAST GERMANIC AND ROMAN LANGUAGES: VOWEL SYSTEM AND STRESS

1. Stress in Germanic Languages

2. Vowels. Tendencies of Vowel Development

3. Gradation

Key words: word accentuation, movable word stress, fixed word stress, accented and unaccented syllables, vowel changes: qualitative and quantitative; dependent and independent, alter(n)ation

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the Indo-European family, others are specifically Germanic. The Germanic group acquired their specific distinctive features after the separation of the ancient Germanic tribes from other Indo-European tribes and prior to their further expansion and disintegration.

The peculiar Germanic system of word accentuation is one of the most important distinguishing features of the group and served as one of the major causes for many linguistic changes. In Early Proto-Germanic word stress was still as movable as in ancient Indo-European, but in Late Proto-Germanic its position in the word was stabilized. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable of root

morpheme. These features of word accent were inherited by the Germanic languages and despite later alterations are observable today. In Modern English these is a sharp contrast between accented and unaccented syllables due to the force of the stress. The main accent commonly falls on the root-morpheme and is never shifted in building grammatical forms.

English: `come, be`come, be`coming, over`come

German: `liebe, `lieben, `liebte, ge`liebt

The heavy fixed word stress inherited from Proto-Germanic has played an important role in the development of the Germanic languages, and especially in phonetic and morphologic changes.

It has been found, however, that the Germanic stress was of even greater consequence as a factor of historical development than as a trait of modern Germanic languages or Old Germanic dialects considered synchronically. The two properties of Germanic stress can be regarded as the initial cause for many other specifically Germanic features and tendencies of evolution, both in the phonological and other linguistic levels.

As mentioned before, the dynamic stress employed in Germanic was a very heavy stress. Gradually it led to a marked contrast between the two kinds of syllables and between the sounds in stressed and unstressed position. The historical changes of those sounds proceed in basically different directions and thus the evolution of the sound system as a whole was affected by the stress.

Since it was the first syllable or the root-morpheme that bore the heaviest stress, the suffixes and endings were gradually weakened; in the process the morphological structure of the word was simplified and the grammatical endings weakened or lost.

The main characteristic feature of Germanic languages in the vowel system is the treatment of the Indo-European short vowel **o** and **a** and the long vowel **ō** and **ā**.Indo-European short **o** and **a** appear as short **a** in Germanic languages, e.g.:

Indo-European	**Germanic**
Lat.*noctem,* Russ. *ночь*	Goth. *nahts,* Germ. *Nacht*, Swedish *natt*

Russ. *могу*   Gt. *magan*, OHG *magan*

Indo European long **ō** and **ā** appear as long **ō** in Germanic languages, e.g.:

Indo-European   **Germanic**

Lat. *mater*, Russ.*мать*   OE *mōdor,* Swedish *moder*

O.Ind. *bhrāta*, Russ. *брат*   Goth. *brōþar,* O.E. *brōðor*

The development of Germanic languages from the Common Germanic period to the present day has shown that the vowels in Germanic languages were on the whole very unstable. In all periods they underwent different changes: qualitative and quantitative; dependent and independent. Sometimes only a few isolated vowels were altered, at other times groups of vowels were modified. This can be easily from comparing the same word in different periods of history:

IE	Common Germanic	Germanic languages in later periods		
-oi-	*stainaz* [ai]	OE *stān* [ɑ:] OHG *stein* [eɪ]	ME *stone* [o:]	NE *stone* [ou] German *Stein* [ai]

The most important feature of Germanic vowel development at all times was its dependence on the Germanic word-stress. As stated, the stressed syllables in Germanic presented a striking contrast to the unstressed ones: they were emphasized and pronounced more distinctly, while the unstressed syllables tended to become less distinct. The difference in the development of the two kinds of syllables is first of all seen in the treatment of vowels.

In the stressed position the differences between vowels were strictly preserved and emphasized: the contrast of long and short vowels (opposition through quantity) was maintained; as to quality, new qualitative differences developed and thus the total number of vowels occurring in stressed syllables gradually increased.

In unstressed position the original contrasts between vowels were weakened and many of the former distinctions lost: the opposition of long vowels to short

ones was neutralized as both long and short vowels appeared as short. In final unstressed syllables some short vowels were altogether dropped. The qualitative differences between vowels were reduced as most vowels developed in the neutral sound.

These developments began in the Common Germanic period and continued in the separate Germanic languages. The difference between the treatment of vowels in stressed and unstressed position in relation to quality and quantity can be shown in the following scheme:

Stressed position	**Unstressed position**
Long ↔ Short	Long → Short
	Short → zero
New qualitative differences arising or in each set.	Qualitative distinctions reduced lost.

To put it differently, we may also say that in Germanic languages there gradually developed two distinct subsystems of vowels: one functioning in stressed syllables, the other – in unstressed ones, each characterized by its own distinctive features and tendencies of evolution.

In Indo-European languages there is a special kind of vowel alternation, usually called gradation or ablaut. This is found, for example, in Russian in such pairs as *вез-у/воз, грем-ит/гром, вы-бер-у/вы-бор*. The system of gradation in Germanic languages is best seen in the so-called strong verbs of the Gothic language. In the Bible of the 4th century, the system of gradation appears in a very clear shape. F.e., *reisan* (infinive), *rais* (past singular), *risum* (past plural), *risans* (second participle).

Self-control questions:
1. Which subsystems of consonants were affected by the Common Germanic consonant shift?
2. Try to determine the origin of some Modern English words (Germanic or not) on the basis of consonant correspondences (each pair of words descends

from the same root): pedestrian – foot; cordial – hearty, labial – lip, twofold – double.

3. Analyze the consonant correspondences in the following groups of words and classify the words into Germanic and non-Germanic: brotherly, fraternal; tooth, dental, dentist; three, trinity; decade, decimals, ten; agriculture, acre; tame, domestic.

4. Explain the sound correspondences in the following parallels form Germanic and non-Germanic languages (the sounds are italicized).

L. *gena*	OE. *cin* 'chin'
L. *pecus*	Gt. *faihu*, OE. *feoh* 'fee'
R. *нагой*	MnE. *naked*, G. *nackt*
R. *приятель*	MnE *friend*
R. *дерево*	Gt. *triu*, MnE *tree*
L. *domare*	MnE *tame*

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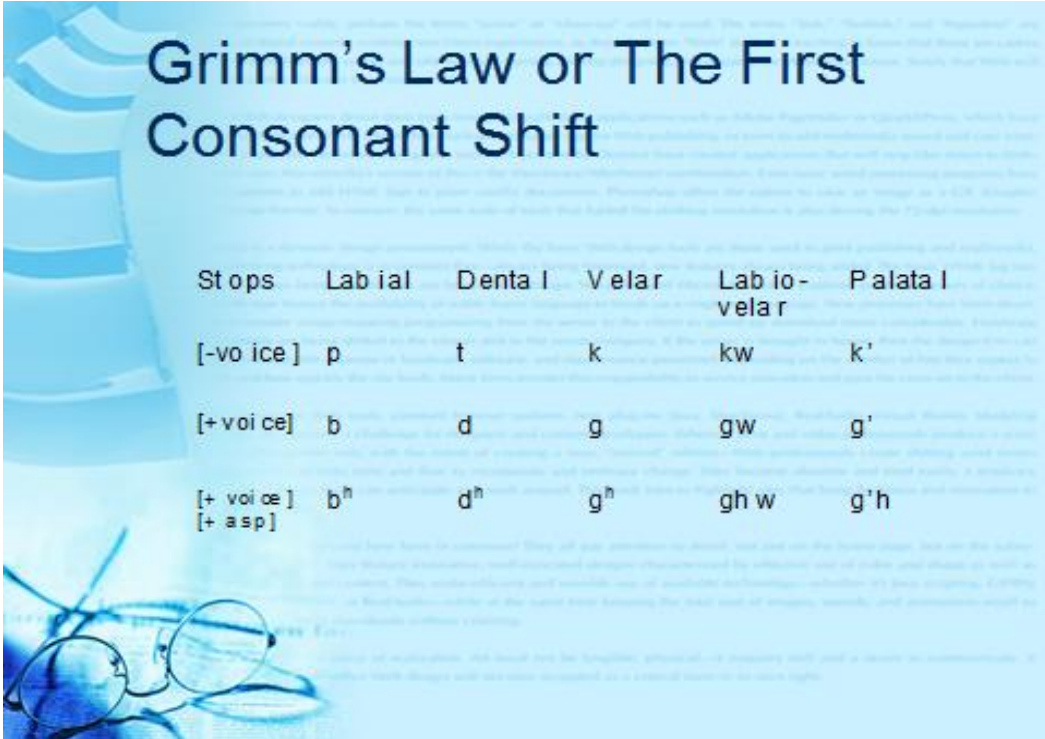
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Lecture 8: PECULIARITIES OF NORTH GERMANIC AND ROMAN LANGUAGES: CONSONANT SYSTEM, SOUND LAWS

1. Consonants. The First Consonant Shift.

2. West Germanic Lengthening of Consonants.

3. The Second Consonant Shift

Key words: Grimm's law, Verner's law, consonant shift, lengthening of consonants

The specific peculiarities of consonants constitute the most remarkable distinctive feature of the Germanic linguistic group. Comparison with other languages within the IE family reveals regular correspondences between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. The changes of consonants in PROTO-GERMANIC were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm and are often called Grimm's Law.

Grimm's Law or The First Consonant Shift

Stops	Labial	Dental	Velar	Labio-velar	Palatal
[-voice]	p	t	k	kw	k'
[+voice]	b	d	g	gw	g'
[+voice] [+asp]	b^h	d^h	g^h	gh w	g'h

Sound Laws: 'Grimm's Law'

- Voiceless stops > voiceless fricatives
- Voiced stops > voiceless stops
- Voiced aspirated stops > voiced stops
- Exceptions dependent on phonetic environment

Another important series of consonant changes in PROTO-GERMANIC was discovered in the late 19th century by a Danish scholar Carl Verner. They are known as Verner's Law.

Verner's Law (1875)

- *centum, hundred, patér, fæder, wearD, worden, freas, froren, was, were*
- The new sound correspondences were in force when (1) the stress was not on the vowel immediately preceding, and (2) the sound in question was bounded by elements that had the feature [+ voice] (either vowels or voiced consonants)

West Germanic languages show a peculiar phenomenon in the sphere of consonants, which has been called "West Germanic lengthening of consonants". Its essence is this. Every consonant (with the single exception of "**r**") is lengthened if it is preceded by a short vowel and followed by the consonant **[j],** for example, in OE **sætian → settan "set"**. The phonetic essence of lengthening appears to be assimilation: the consonant **[j]** is assimilated to the preceding consonant.

Examples of Consonant lengthening in OE:

sætian> settan (set)

stæpian>steppan (step)

sæ3ian>sec3an (say)

framian>fremman (fulfil)

The first consonant Shift is called the first, to distinguish it from a second consonant shift, which occurred in High German dialects (that is, dialects of Southern Germany).

The Common Germanic voiced stop **d** corresponds to High German voiceless stop **t** : Goth. **Badi**> H.G. **bett** (bed).

The common Germanic voiceless stop **p** corresponds to the voiceless fricative **f** after a vowel: O.E. **hopian**>H.G. **hoffen** (hope).

The voiceless stop **k** corresponds to the voiceless fricative **ch** [x] after a vowel: O.E. **macian**>H.G. **machen**.

However, the second consonant shift is not fully reflected in Mn. literary German. The Second consonant shift occurred between the 5th and 7th centuries A.D., gradually spreading from South to North. A few hundred years later, between the 8th and 12th centuries, one more change took place, which gave the German consonant system its present shape.

As we have seen, the common Germanic **d** developed into **t** in H.G.; as a result the German consonant system had no **d**-sound. Now a new **d** appeared, coming from the common Germanic **þ**. Examples:

Common Germanic   High German

Gothic: **þreis**, O.E. **þriedrei** (three)

Gothic: **brōþar**, O.E. **broþorbruder** (brother)

In this way the gap left in the H.G. consonant system by the change of **d** into **t** in the second consonant shift was filled. Modern literary German again has a complete system: **p/b, t/d, k/g**.

Self-control questions:

1. Speak about the grammatical structure of Proto-Germanic and Old Germanic languages.
2. What are the principal means of form buildings?
3. What is sound interchange?
4. The original structure of a substantive in Germanic languages.
5. The verb system of Old Germanic languages.
6. Give some examples illustrating Germanic words.

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Lecture 9: BASIC GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF WEST GERMANIC AND ROMAN LANGUAGES

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronons

Key words: synthetic grammatical structure, inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion, the root, a stem-building suffix, a case inflexion, preterit-present verbs

Like other old IE languages both PROTO-GERMANIC and the OG languages had a synthetic grammatical structure, which means that the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position or by auxiliary words. In later period of their development all the Germanic languages were characterized by analytical forms and ways of word connection. In the early periods the grammatical forms were built in the synthetic way: by means of inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion. The suppletive way of form building was inherited from ancient IE, it was restricted to a few personal pronouns, adjectives and verbs. The following forms of pronoun in Germanic and non-Germanic languages show us the fact stated above.

Latin	French	Russian	Gothic	Old English	Modern English
ego	*je*	*я*	*ik*	*ic*	*I*
mei	*mon*	*меня*	*meina*	*min*	*my, mine*
mihi	*me,moi*	*мне*	*mis*	*mē*	*me*

The principal means of form buildings were **inflections**. The inflections found in O.G. written records correspond to the inflection used in non-Germanic languages, having descended from the same original IE prototypes. The wide use of **sound interchanges** has always been characteristic feature of the Germanic group. This form IE and became very productive in Germanic. In various forms of the word and in words derived from one and the same root, the root morpheme appeared as a set of variant. The consonants were relatively stable, the vowels were variable.

German nouns inflect into: *- one of four declension classes - one of three genders*: *masculine, feminine*, or *neutral*. Word endings indicate some grammatical genders; others are arbitrary and must be memorised. - *two numbers*: *singular* and plural - *four cases*: *nominative, genitive, dative*, and *accusative* case. Although German is usually cited as an outstanding example of a highly inflected language, it should be noted that the degree of inflection is considerably less than in Old German, or in Icelandic today. The three genders have collapsed in the plural, which now behaves, grammatically, somewhat as a fourth gender. With four cases and three genders plus plural there are 16 distinct possible combinations of case and gender/number, but presently there are only six forms of the definite article used for the 16 possibilities. Inflection for case on the noun itself is required in the singular for strong masculine and neuter nouns in the genitive and sometimes in the dative. This dative ending is considered somewhat old-fashioned in many contexts and often dropped, but it is still used in sayings and in formal speech or written language. Weak masculine nouns share a common case ending for genitive, dative and accusative in the singular. Feminines are not declined in the singular. The plural does have an inflection for the dative. In total, six inflectional endings (not

counting plural markers) exist in German: -s, -es, -n, -en, -ns, -e In the German orthography, nouns and most words with the syntactical function of nouns are capitalized, which makes it quite easy for readers to find out what function a word has within the sentence. On the other hand, things get more difficult for the writer. This spelling convention is almost unique to German today (shared perhaps only by the closely related Luxembourgish language), although it was historically common in other languages (e.g., Danish), too. Like most Germanic languages, German forms left-branching noun compounds, where the first noun modifies the category given by the second, for example: Hundehutte (eng. doghouse). Unlike English, where newer compounds or combinations of longer nouns are often written in open form with separating spaces, German (like the other German languages) always uses the closed form without spaces, for example: Baumhaus (eng. tree house). Like English. German allows arbitrarily long compounds, but these are rare. {See also English compounds.) The longest official German word is Rindflcischetikettichrungsuberwacluingsaufgahcnubertragungsgcsetz. There is even a child's game played in kindergartens and primary schools where a child begins the spelling of a word (which is not told) by naming the first letter. The next one tells the next letter, the third one tells the third and so on. The game is over when the a child can not think of another letter to be added to the word (see Ghost).

The original structure of a substantive in Germanic, as well as in other Indo-European languages, presents itself as follows. A substantive consists of 3 elements: the root, a stem-building suffix, a case inflexion. The meaning of **the root** is clear: it is the lexical meaning of the substantive. **A case inflexion** expresses the relation between the thing denoted by the substantive and other thing, or actions and also the category of number. The meaning of **the stem-building suffix** is much more difficult to define. It would appear that originally stem-building suffixes were a means of classifying substantives according to their meanings. There is only one type of substantive in Gothic which is characterized by a distinct semantic feature. These are substantives denoting relationship and derived by means of the stem-forming suffix **-r**, e.g.: **fadar**(father), **brōþar**

(brother), **swistar** (sister). For all other types it has not proved possible to discover a common feature of meaning.

The verb system of Old Germanic languages consist of different elements. The main masses of verbs are **strong verbs**, which derive their past tense and second participle by means of gradation; and **weak verbs**, which derive these forms by means of a suffix **-d-** (**-t-**). Besides these two large group, there are also **preterite-present verbs**, with a peculiar system of forms, and **a few irregular verbs**, which do not belong to any of the preceding groups. The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, for the device used in building their principal forms is not fount outside the Germanic group. They built the Past tense and Principle II by inserting a special suffix between the root and the ending. The suffix- PROTO-GERMANIC **-ð-** is referred to as the dental suffix, as [ð] is an interdental fricative consonant. The use of the dental suffix is seen in the following forms of weak verbs in O.G. languages:

Infinitive	Past tense	Part II	MnE
domjan	*domida[ð]*	*domiþs*	deem, deemed
kalla	*kallaða*	*kallaðr*	call, called
macian	*macode*	*macod*	make, made

As it is shown in the examples, the dental suffix [ð,Ɵ,d] is marker of the Past and Participle II.

Verb inflection

Standard German verbs inflect into: - *one of two conjugation classes*, *weak* and *strong* (like English). (Note: in fact there is a third class, called "gemischte Verben", which can be either weak ("active meaning") or strong ("passive meaning"). There are about 200 strong or irregular verbs.)

- *three persons: 1st, 2nd, 3rd.*

- *two numbers: singular and plural*

- *three moods: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative*

*- **two general verb**: active and passive; the passive being composed and dividable into static and dynamic.*

*- **two non-composed tenses** (Present, Preterite) and **four composed tenses** (Perfect.Plusquamperfect, Future I, Future II)*

*- **no distinction between grammatical aspects** (in English, perfect and progressive; in Polish between completed and incompleted form; in Turkish between first-hand and second-hand information) There are also many ways to expand, and sometimes radically change, the meaning of a base verb through several prefixes. Examples: haften=to stick, verhaften=to imprison; kaufen=to buy, verkaufen-to sell; horen=to hear, aufhoren=to cease. The word order is much more flexible than in English. The word order can be changed for subtle changes of a sentence's meaning. In normal positive sentences the verb always has position 2, in questions it has position 1. Most German vocabulary is derived from the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family, although there are significant minorities of words derived from Latin. French, and most recently English (which is known as Germish).*

Self-control questions:

1. Explain why the names of following people are important in studies of the Germanic languages: Pytheas, Julius Caesar, Pliny the Elder, Ulfilas
2. How does the mutual relation between classification of Germanic tribes appear made by the 19th century linguists?
3. What centuries do the written records of the Gothic language antedate?
4. Is there any East Germanic language spoken nowadays?
5. What are the North Germanic languages?
6. What is the earliest name of the North Germanic languages and when did its disintegration begin?
7. Where were the West Germanic languages spoken on the eve of the "great migrations" of the West Germanic tribes?
8. Which group of tribes spoke English according to Pliny's classification?
9. What is the origin of modern German?
10. Where and by whom is Yiddish spoken?

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1. Alphabets Germanic tribes
2. Vocabulary

Key words:gradual alteration, a general similarity in the speech, a close kinship between English and German, common form, identity of the languages.

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 posses another kind of meaning, which we cannot find in ideograms, hieroglyphs or in modem 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 others 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", modem 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 posses 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 gradate 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 (lOc. 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 sings 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, braketeats, 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 veneds were vanished by Germanic barbarian hordes and proto runic system spread rapidly on the territory from the Black sea to Gaul. As it is follow from archeological discoveries RA can be found on the Slavonic jewels dated from 10-th 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.

VOCABULARY

Until recently it was believed that the Germanic languages had a large proportion of words, which have no parallels in other groups of the IE family. Recent research, however, has revealed numerous non-Germanic parallels for words formerly regarded as specifically Germanic. It appears that Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words (or, more precisely, roots) shared by most IE languages. They refer to a number of

semantic spheres: natural phenomena, plants and animals, terms of kinship, verbs denoting basic activities of man, some pronouns and numerals; in addition to roots, the common IE element includes other components of words: word-building affixes and grammatical inflections. Numerous examples of parallels belonging to this layer were quoted above, to show the sound correspondences in Germanic and non-Germanic languages. Words which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages; they appeared in PG or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically, they also belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home life. Like the IE layer the specifically Germanic layer includes not only roots but also affixes and word-building patterns. The examples in illustrate Germanic words, whose roots have not been found outside the group, and some word-building patterns which arose in Late PG.

Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words roots shared by most IE languages, in addition to roots, the common IE elements includes other components of words: word – building, affixes and grammatical inflections. Word, which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages. They appeared in PROTO-GERMANIC or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically, they also belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home, life. Like the I.E. layer the specifically Germanic layer includes not only roots but also affixes and word-building patterns.

Following examples illustrate Germanic words, whose roots have not been found outside the group, and some word-building pattern which arose in Late PROTO-GERMANIC. Those are instances of transitions from compound words into derived word; they show the development of new suffixes – from root-morphemes – at the time when many old derivational stem-suffixes had lost their productivity and ceased to be distinguished in the word structure. The new suffixes made up for the loss of stem-suffixes.

OHG	OE	G	MnE
hūs	*hūs*	*haus*	*house*
trinkan	*drincan*	*trinken*	*drink*
fiandscaft	*feondscipe*	*fiendschaft*	*hostility* (c.f friend)

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TESTS

1. Who was the first to recognize the relationship between the language now called Germanic?

A) R. Rask

B) J. Grimm

C) K. Verner

D) A. Scaliger

2. Who proclaimed the principle that phonetic laws admit of no exceptions.

A) Traditionalist

B) Structuralism

C) Young grammarians

D) Rationalists

3. The work (Essay) which was supported to be the beginning of comparative grammar belonged to :

A) J. Grimm

B) F. Bopp

C) H. Paul

D)B. Delbrucke

4. Who established close lies between Baltic and Slavic languages?

A) M.V. Lomonosov

B) A.K. Vostokov

C) V. Buslaev

D)F.F. Fortunatov

5. Who translated the Hititte cuneiforms found in Boghazkoy in Asia Minor?

A) F. De Saussure

B) A. Meillet

C) E. Benvenist

D) B. Hrozny

6. Who is the founder of glottochronology in linguistics?

A) M. Swadesh

B) F. De Saussure

C) A.V. Baudoin de Courtenay

D) N.Y. Marr

7. When did the occupation of France and the British Isles by Celts from Central Europe take place?

A) about 1st century

B) about 500 c. BC

C) the 5th century BC

D) the 10th century BC

8. Who was the author of the book "Commentaries on the Gallic war"?

A) Pliny the Elder

B) J. Caesar

C) Strabo

D) Platon

9. Who was the author of the book "De situ moribus et populis Germania"?

A) Tacitus

B) Pliny the Elder

C) Strabo

 D) Julius Caesar

10. Who was the author of the Gothic Translation of the Bible?

A) King Arthur

B) King Alfred

C) Ulfilas

D) Pliny the Elder

QUESTIONS AND TASKS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Gothic language?

2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Gothic language was used?

3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Gothic language?

4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Gothic language?

5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Gothic language can you name?

6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Gothic language?

7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Gothic language reconstructed?

8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Gothic language?

9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?

10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?

11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Gothic language?

12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Gothic language?

13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Gothic language?

14. What can you say about the future of the Gothic language?

TESTS

This is a general quiz on Indo-European language families. I hope you find it fun and informative!

Average score for this quiz is <u>6 / 10</u>.

1. Two languages, A and B, are said to be mutually intelligible if a native speaker of A can understand most of what a native speaker of B says, and vice versa, with no special training outside of their native language. For instance, Spanish and Portuguese are considered to be mutually intelligible, but Italian and German are not. Which of these languages is mutually intelligible with English?

    a) Frisian

    b) Dutch

    c) German

    d) None of the above; there is no language that is mutually intelligible with English

2. English is a member of the language family known as Germanic languages. What is the closest linguistic relative to modern English?

    a) German

    b) Frisian

    c) Danish

    d) Dutch

3.   Which of the Indo-European languages below is still being learned as a native language in the 21st century? (That is, it is used for daily conversation, not just studied and used on certain occasions.)

    a) Gothic

    b) Welsh

    c) Old Slavonic

    d) Latin

4. Romany, the language of the Rom people or Gypsies, is most closely related to which of these modern languages?

    a) Panjabi

b) Romanian

c) Yiddish

d) Russian

5. Finnish is not an Indo-European language. True or False?

a) true

b) false

6. Hungarian is related most closely to which of the following languages?

a) Serbo-Coratian

b) Romanian

c) Yiddish

d) Russian

7. Of the following Indo-European language families, which of the following has NO modern living descendant?

a) Hellenic

b) Anatolian

c) Albanian

d) Germanic

8. For the last three questions, I will give the name of a language group. Of the choices given, pick the language that does NOT belong in the group.

Which of the following does NOT belong to the Germanic language group?

a) Czech

b) English

c) Icelandic

d) Norwegian

9. Which of the following does NOT belong to the Slavic language group?

a) Polish

b) Kurdish

c) Ukranian

d) Russian

10. Which of the following languages does NOT belong to the Celtic language group?

    a) Manx

    b) Irish Gaelic

    c) Catalan

    d) Welsh

ANSWER KEYS:

1. Two languages, A and B, are said to be mutually intelligible if a native speaker of A can understand most of what a native speaker of B says, and vice versa, with no special training outside of their native language. For instance, Spanish and Portuguese are considered to be mutually intelligible, but Italian and German are not. Which of these languages is mutually intelligible with English?

Your Answer: None of the above; there is no language that is mutually intelligible with English

Although all of these languages are related to English by virtue of being members of the Germanic language family, none are mutually intelligible. Because of all the influences on English from other languages, there is no language which is mutually intelligible with English (much to the dismay of the English-speaking student of modern languages.) Some linguists do consider that Scots English is a distinct language, rather than a dialect of English; these people would consider Scots and English to be mutually intelligible.

2. English is a member of the language family known as Germanic languages. What is theclosest linguistic relative to modern English?

Your Answer: Frisian

Frisian, spoken in the Frisian Islands (between the UK and the Netherlands), parts of the Netherlands and Germany, is the closest linguistic relative to English. If you

want to test whether or not it is mutually intelligible with English, do a web search for Frisian radio... as of this writing it is available on the web and is worth a listen if you are curious about what our closest linguistic relative sounds like. (Those linguists who consider Scots to be a separate language rather than a dialect of English would consider Scots to be the closest linguistic relative of modern English.)

3. Which of the Indo-European languages below is still being learned as a native language in the 21st century? (That is, it is used for daily conversation, not just studied and used on certain occasions.)

✓ **Your Answer:** Welsh

Gothic is of the East Germanic branch of Germanic languages, none of which have survived to modern times. Old Church Slavonic continues in use in some forms of the Eastern Orthodox Liturgy, but has no native speakers. Latin, formerly the international language of European communication, is not the spoken language of any contemporary region. Welsh, like Irish Gaelic, has undergone a renaissance and currently is a vibrant living language in its native land.

4. Romany, the language of the Rom people or Gypsies, is most closely related to which of these modern languages?

✓ **Your Answer:** Punjabi

Romany is of the Indic language group and, like Punjabi, is descended from Sanskrit. I am told that it is mutually intelligible with Punjabi and possibly Urdu as well, although scholarship on the subject is scarce. Many Rom people speak Russian, Romanian, or other languages of the lands where they live, but their own language is not closely related to these.

5. Finnish is not an Indo-European language. True or False?

✓ **Your Answer:** True

Finnish is one of a handful (about 16) languages that make up the Finno-Ugric language group, which are not Indo-European although the areas where they are spoken are primarily surrounded by Indo-European languages. See the explanation for the next question for further details.

6. Hungarian is related most closely to which of the following languages?

✓ **Your Answer:** Anatolian

Modern Greek is of the Hellenic family, modern Albanian (Tosk and Gheg) are in the Albanian family, many languages including German, English, Danish and Dutch (and Frisian, remember?) are in the Germanic family. Only the Anatolian branch, which historically contained such languages as Hittite, Luvian and Lydian, has no modern descendants.

7. Of the following Indo-European language families, which of the following has NO modern living descendant?

✓ **Your Answer:** Anatolian

Modern Greek is of the Hellenic family, modern Albanian (Tosk and Gheg) are in the Albanian family, many languages including German, English, Danish and Dutch (and Frisian, remember?) are in the Germanic family. Only the Anatolian branch, which historically contained such languages as Hittite, Luvian and Lydian, has no modern descendants.

8. For the last three questions, I will give the name of a language group. Of the choices given, pick the language that does NOT belong in the group. Which of the following does NOT belong to the Germanic language group?

✓ **Your Answer:** Czech

Czech is a Slavic language; the others are Germanic.

9. Which of the following does NOT belong to the Slavic language group?

✅ **Your Answer:** Kurdish

Kurdish is a member of the Iranian language group; the others are Slavic.

10. Which of the following languages does NOT belong to the Celtic language group?

✅ **Your Answer:** Catalan

Catalan is a member of the Italic language group; the others are Celtic

MARK THE ODD LANGUAGE

In the following three language series, there is an odd language, a language that doesn't have anything to do with the other two according to the classification of the European languages we have studied. For example: in the series German, French, Finnish, the odd language is Finnish, because it is not an I. E. language and the other two are.

- o Greek
- o Russian
- o Turkish

- o English
- o Welsh
- o Irish

- o Finnish
- o German
- o Basque

- o Basque
- o Galician

- Catalan

- Polish

- Latvian

- Czech

- Bulgarian

- Slovenian

- Romanian

TRUE OR FALSE

1. The Indo-European migrations took place from 1500 BC until 500 AD.

- True

- False

2. At that time they spread from Italy to India.

- True

- False

3. Their posited homeland was in Siberia.

- True

- False

4. The Indo-European language was spoken 5,000 years ago.

- True

- False

5. Sanskrit is one of the main branches of the Indo-European tree.

- True

- False

6. Balto-Slavic is one of the main branches of the Indo-European tree.

- True

- False

7. Indo-European is the biggest family of languages in the world.

- True

  o FalsE

TESTS

1. We're at about 4,000 BC, looking for the original speakers of Indo-European. Now, we don't actually know where they were living, but what area would be the best place to look? I know, I'm your tour guide, I ought to know, but we just don't. Sorry!

  a) Iberian Peninsula

  b) Anatolian plateau

  c) Eurasian steppes

  d) Northern India

2. Do we, um, actually have any written record of Proto Indo-European?

  a) yes

  b) no

3. Are you wondering why all these Indo-Europeans sound like they're speaking, well, Klingon? It's because the Indo-European language had a set of sounds that were lost in some later languages. What is the name for this set of sounds?

  a) Palatal stops

  b) Sibilants

  c) Labial stops

  d) Laryngeals

4. Those Indo-Europeans sure had one swell language, but high culture they were not. So, we're hitching up our chariot and riding south to Hattusa, the capital of the Land of Hatti. In the 21st century, we would call it Turkey, but this is the 17th century BC. King Hattusili shows us around his newly-built city and introduces us to a number of professional scribes under his employment, all skilled at writing cuneiform on clay tablets. Which language would this be?

  a) Akkadian

  b) Hittite

  c) Sumerian

d) Babylonian

5. Having had our fill of rituals, chants, and mythology, we head east through Mesopotamia and across the Hindu Kush mountains. This necessitated ditching the chariot, unfortunately. But the pack animals aren't so bad, right? We encounter, well, more rituals, chants, and mythology. Here in northern India in the 13th century BC, most of the people speak Vedic, an earlier form of what famous Indian literary language?

    a) Tamil

    b) Hindi

    c) Sanskrit

    d) Urdu

6. Rather than repeat that rather arduous overland journey, we've taken a boat through the Gulf of Aden, into the Red Sea, and across the Aegean. This is better than climbing mountains, right? Oh. And why are you looking so, er, green all of a sudden?

Well, now in the 13th century BC, we can admire the red-columned palaces of the Mycenaean civilization. A short hop forward in time to the 5th century BC, we can view the Parthenon, debate philosophy with Socrates, and listen to the plays of Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. What language would this be?

Your answer: _____

(One word, five letters, starts with a G)

7. Well, we've arrived in Italy, but a tad too early for mainstream Latin and the good ol' Forum Romanum. Italy was actually home to a number of Indo-European languages closely related to Latin, at least until the Romans decided to conquer the world. Which of these is NOT generally considered to be an Indo-European language?

    a) Oscan

    b) South Picene

    c) Umbrian

    d) Etruscan

8. I'm really sorry the "navus" lost your "vestimenta," but you really should go buy yourself a new "toga" in the "forum." I know, "scio," as your guide, I'm fully... Look! Over there! It's the "imperator"! What language?

Your answer: _____

(One word, five letters, starts with an L)

9. One Indo-European language was discovered relatively recently, and that's Tocharian. It's now recognized to be two languages, which we uncreatively deem Tocharian A and Tocharian B. Geographically, its location is something of a surprise. In modern-day terms, where are we located now?

      a) Vietnam

      b) China

      c) Greenland

      d) West Africa

10. Listening to lays about Odin, Thor and his faithful hammer Mjolnir, and the rest of those wonderful Norse gods and goddesses, you wonder: Is Old Norse a Celtic language?

      a) yes

      b) no

11. We are making a stop, in India again, to honor the founder of our field. Sir William Jones, a British lawyer working in India, discovered that Sanskrit bore a strong resemblance to Greek and Latin. He made this discovery at about the same time as what other major event in world history?

      a) The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand

      b) The American Declaration of Independence

      c) Gandhi's Salt March

      d) Columbus' discovery of America

12. Now, even though a Grand Tour of Europe is really out of the scope of this travel experience (We were going for a grand tour of the WORLD, right?), I

should note that three language families widely spoken in Europe are really part of the Indo-European family of languages. Which of these is NOT one?

    a) Slavic

    b) Finno-Ugric

    d) Romance

    c) Germanic

13. Before we proceed to our next stop, I should note that there are some languages that you would probably never, ever, ever, ever, ever, EVER think of as being related to English in any way at all. Yet, these are Indo-European languages indeed. As an exercise to twist your mind, which of the following languages is NOT an Indo-European language?

    a) Tajik

    b) Tibetan

    c) Farsi

    d) Armenian

14. Now back in the 21st century, we travel to the country with what's considered to be the most conservative Indo-European language. It still has seven noun cases, and words are accented by pitch, not stress. Lounging in a "restoranas" in Vilnius, in what language would we be struggling to order "pietus"?

    a) Latvian

    b) Estonian

    c) Belorussian

    d) Lithuanian

15. From Vilnius we jet over to the United States, or maybe Great Britain, for a conference about Indo-European linguistics. All the world's best Indo-Europeanists are here, and we can look forward to a lovely few days of talks and conversation. But I should point out that the language spoken here is an Indo-European language. What language would this be, spoken by over 300 million people worldwide?

Your answer: _____

(One word, starts with an E...The obvious one.)

ANSWER KEYS:

1. We're at about 4,000 BC, looking for the original speakers of Indo-European. Now, we don't actually know where they were living, but what area would be the best place to look? I know, I'm your tour guide, I ought to know, but we just don't. Sorry!

✅ **Your Answer:** Eurasian steppes

For a while, it seemed that maybe archaeology had found the Indo-Europeans! The culture of the Kurgan peoples of the Russian steppes seemed to bear some striking resemblances to what we reconstruct as Indo-European. Calvert Watkins describes it as, "small tribal units (teuta-) ruled by powerful chieftains (reg-), a predominantly pastoral (pa-) economy including horse (ekwo-) breeding (deme-[last letter really a shwa]) and plant cultivation (yewo-)..." Thus spake the great Calvert Watkins. We shall be hearing more about him later on!

Well, anyway, for a while, things looked great, but it turns out that the timing is wrong. Bummer. But it does seem, from the roots that show up in all Indo-European languages, that it was the Eurasian steppes somewhere around the Black Sea. So, uh, have you seen any yet?

2. Do we, um, actually have any written record of Proto Indo-European?

✅ **Your Answer:** no

Don't we wish! Everything we know comes from comparing roots and grammar across different languages. It seems there were actually different stages of Proto Indo-European. Everybody used to think that the original Proto Indo-European was something with lots and lots of cases and tenses and word endings, like Greek or Sanskrit. Then somebody deciphered Hittite, and it only had, say, two tenses. Oops!

3. Are you wondering why all these Indo-Europeans sound like they're speaking, well, Klingon? It's because the Indo-European language had a set of sounds that were lost in some later languages. What is the name for this set of sounds?

✅ **Your Answer:** Laryngeals

Laryngeals were pronounced in the back of the throat. I would have to make some grunting and choking sounds to get it across. There were three of these, conveniently named h1, h2, and h3. In Greek, h1 > e (> stands for "turned into"), h2 > a, and h3 > o. Indo-European also had two types of "k"s. Ever notice that you pronounce "ki" more on your palate, while you pronounce "ko" more in the back of your throat? Give it a try. Those were the two types of Indo-European "k"s, except each one could occur with any vowel. What happened to each of the two "k"s in different languages is an exciting story...

4. Those Indo-Europeans sure had one swell language, but high culture they were not. So, we're hitching up our chariot and riding south to Hattusa, the capital of the Land of Hatti. In the 21st century, we would call it Turkey, but this is the 17th century BC. King Hattusili shows us around his newly-built city and introduces us to a number of professional scribes under his employment, all skilled at writing cuneiform on clay tablets. Which language would this be?

✅ **Your Answer:** Hittite

We LOVE the Hittites. Not only did they pass down to us ample records, pre-fired (AHEM, all you Linear B scribes), they also passed down written records in other languages spoken in the region. Why? You don't just have to placate YOUR gods-- you have to placate everyone else's, and in their own language! And even in adapting cuneiform they adopted the logograms of several other languages, including Akkadian and Sumerian. James Joyce should have written in Hittite!

Hittite is also a very interesting language linguistically. It doesn't have all the complicated case inflections of, say, Sanskrit and Greek. Nope, it has two verb tenses (present and not-quite-present), two voices (active and middle), first, second, and third persons in singular and plural, and a nice compliment of noun cases. Hittite is actually easier to learn than Latin or Greek. Less complicated grammar. The only catch? You have to learn German first!

5. Having had our fill of rituals, chants, and mythology, we head east through Mesopotamia and across the Hindu Kush mountains. This necessitated ditching the chariot, unfortunately. But the pack animals aren't so bad, right? We encounter, well, more rituals, chants, and mythology. Here in northern India in the 13th century BC, most of the people speak Vedic, an earlier form of what famous Indian literary language?

✅ **Your Answer:** Sanskrit

Sanskrit is the uber-inflected language. Eight cases, three genders, three numbers (singular, plural, and dual!), five declensions, and that's just for nouns! Good grief! Verbs, I don't even want to think about verbs. Vedic is the language of the Vedas. Trying to read Vedic if you know Sanskrit is like trying to read Chaucer if you know modern English. Yes, you can puzzle it out, but it reads really strange.

Sanskrit is to India what Latin was to western Europe. It is the language of a lot of important literature and religious scriptures, but also the language used by intellectuals, and the ancestor of the Indo-European languages spoken in India, like Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Sindhi, Punjabi...

By the way, the best grammar of any language is generally agreed to be Panini's grammar of Sanskrit. He lived sometime between the second and fourth centuries BC. On the other hand, the best Sanskrit grammar in English was written by William Dwight Whitney. Happy reading!

6. Rather than repeat that rather arduous overland journey, we've taken a boat through the Gulf of Aden, into the Red Sea, and across the Aegean. This is better than climbing mountains, right? Oh. And why are you looking so, er, green all of a sudden? Well, now in the 13th century BC, we can admire the red-columned palaces of the Mycenaean civilization. A short hop forward in time to the 5th century BC, we can view the Parthenon, debate philosophy with Socrates, and listen to the plays of Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes. What language would this be?

✔️ **Your Answer:** GREEK

Greek is the oldest continuously spoken language. The earliest records we have come from the 14th century BC, and are written in Linear B, a writing system totally different from Egyptian Hieroglyphs, cuneiform, and the alphabet. Modern Greek, a direct descendant of ancient Greek, is still spoken today. It is interesting to note how the language has changed over time. Mycenaean Greek from the 14th century had the sounds q, w, and y, which had dropped out by the time of Classical Greek. In Modern Greek, what were "b" and "u" in ancient Greek became "v" and "i."

7. Well, we've arrived in Italy, but a tad too early for mainstream Latin and the good ol' Forum Romanum. Italy was actually home to a number of Indo-European languages closely related to Latin, at least until the Romans decided to conquer the world. Which of these is NOT generally considered to be an Indo-European language?

✔️ **Your Answer:** Etruscan

Etruscan, actually, isn't related to anything we know of - it is referred to as a language isolate. Oscan, Umbrian, and South Picene are closely related to Latin, although you probably won't be able to read them even if you know Latin. On the other hand, it's fun to try. See C. D. Buck's "A Grammar of Oscan and Umbrian"

for a little bit of light reading. You know, Umbrian is only known from a few tablets, the Iguvian tablets!

There has been some debate as to whether Etruscan is part of the Satem (Eastern) group of the Indo-European languages, but most scholars do not consider it to be so.

8. I'm really sorry the "navus" lost your "vestimenta," but you really should go buy yourself a new "toga" in the "forum." I know, "scio," as your guide, I'm fully... Look! Over there! It's the "imperator"! What language?

✅ **Your Answer:** LATIN

The development of Latin is really quite interesting. In any text you would read in school, the language is quite standardized. On the other hand, if you go to read any of the early Latin, like Ennius, you start to note slight differences in spelling, and the language becomes grammatically interesting again. A lot of Latin graffiti is really, really funny, but sadly, I couldn't find any in time to include it in this quiz.

9. One Indo-European language was discovered relatively recently, and that's Tocharian. It's now recognized to be two languages, which we uncreatively deem Tocharian A and Tocharian B. Geographically, its location is something of a surprise. In modern-day terms, where are we located now?

✅ **Your Answer:** China

I thought Tocharian was pretty cool. One of my friends went to Germany to study Indo-European linguistics, and they actually let him look at some Tocharian inscriptions. What did he tell me? "Yeah, Tocharian doesn't really do it for me, man." I was indignant. Now, I have taken Tocharian, and... OK, the interesting info. Tocharian A was only used as a written language, but Tocharian B was widely spoken as the lingua franca of eastern Turkistan and the Xinjiang province of China.

10. Listening to lays about Odin, Thor and his faithful hammer Mjolnir, and the rest of those wonderful Norse gods and goddesses, you wonder: Is Old Norse a Celtic language?

✓ **Your Answer:** no

It's a Germanic language. Sorry. It's pretty closely related to Icelandic and Old English, and was the ancestor of the Scandinavian languages. The Celtic languages used to be spoken over most of Western Europe, but most are now preserved only as fragmentary inscriptions. As far as Celtic languages go, you've probably heard of Welsh. Other Celtic languages did not have so happy a fate. The last Cornish speaker was a certain Dolly Pentreath, who died in 1777, a very lonely lady. After all, she had no-one to talk to!

[Author's note: Yes, there are some people who still speak Cornish today. But Cornish is considered dead because there are no speakers who have acquired competency as native speakers, as children.]

11. We are making a stop, in India again, to honor the founder of our field. Sir William Jones, a British lawyer working in India, discovered that Sanskrit bore a strong resemblance to Greek and Latin. He made this discovery at about the same time as what other major event in world history?

✓ **Your Answer:** The American Declaration of Independence

Sir William Jones began his work in the 1780s. His book, "The Sanskrit Language," suggested that Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit shared a common root, and might be related to Gothic, the Celtic languages, and Persian as well. In a later book, he wrote:

"The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by

accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists ..."

12. Now, even though a Grand Tour of Europe is really out of the scope of this travel experience (We were going for a grand tour of the WORLD, right?), I should note that three language families widely spoken in Europe are really part of the Indo-European family of languages. Which of these is NOT one?

✓ **Your Answer:** Finno-Ugric

Finno-Ugric consists of Finnish and Estonian (which are mutually intelligible), Hungarian, and a host of other languages on the verge of dying out. They are totally unrelated to all the Slavic (Russian, Ukrainian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Croatian, Bulgarian, etc.) Romance (Spanish, French, Portuguese, Romanian, Catalan, etc.) and Germanic (German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, etc.) languages. I do expect you to memorize that whole list, by the way. I'm sorry; this is possibly the most boring and predictable question in the entire quiz!

13. Before we proceed to our next stop, I should note that there are some languages that you would probably never, ever, ever, ever, ever, EVER think of as being related to English in any way at all. Yet, these are Indo-European languages indeed. As an exercise to twist your mind, which of the following languages is NOT an Indo-European language?

✓ **Your Answer:** Tibetan

Farsi and Tajik are both Iranian languages, and are related to Avestan (the language of the Avestas, the sacred texts of Zoroastrianism), and Old Persian (what Darius and Xerxes would have been speaking while trying to demolish Greece). One linguist remarked that reading Old Persian is very boring and repetitive; it's all about the Great Deeds of the Great King Muck-A-Muck. They'd rather be reading Mycenaean accounting records or Hittite legal disputes, I gather. These linguists constitute a flock of rather odd birds, indeed. Anyway, Armenian seems to be a

branch of its own. Have you ever looked at the Armenian alphabet? Quite lovely, and very different looking from the Roman Alphabet, the Greek Alphabet, or Cyrillic.

14. Now back in the 21st century, we travel to the country with what's considered to be the most conservative Indo-European language. It still has seven noun cases, and words are accented by pitch, not stress. Lounging in a "restoranas" in Vilnius, in what language would we be struggling to order "pietus"?

✓ **Your Answer:** Lithuanian

Um, "as nekalbu lietuviskai"! Actually, Old Prussian was even more conservative, but it died out in the 16th century AD. Lithuanian (and to a much lesser extent, Latvian) preserve a lot of features of Indo-European, although, as someone (I can't figure out who, sorry) once said, "In the verb, Baltic abandons its usual conservatism and has a wild fling."

15. From Vilnius we jet over to the United States, or maybe Great Britain, for a conference about Indo-European linguistics. All the world's best Indo-Europeanists are here, and we can look forward to a lovely few days of talks and conversation. But I should point out that the language spoken here is an Indo-European language. What language would this be, spoken by over 300 million peopleworldwide?

✓ **Your Answer:** ENGLISH

Let's see, we have Calvert Watkins, currently THE eminent Indo-Europeanist, so be sure not to miss his talk, and, um, lots of other people I don't recognize. Jose Luis Garcia Ramon is really awesome (and what a snazzy name, too!). Actually, I've never been to any of these conferences before, but it sure *sounded* fun! Well, in any case, I hope you enjoyed my Indo-European world tour!

BRAIN STORM

Why?
Causes and Factors

➢ **Intercultural (language contact)**

What happens when different languages come into contact?

➢ **System –based**

How is present day word –order related to changes of pronunciation and subsequent changes of inflection?

➢ **Social (class and language)**

What was the influence of social changes on English?

➢ **Political**

What political decisions have influenced the shape of present day English?

➢ **Geographical**

How do geographical factors influence the development of language?

➢ **Cognitive**

To what extent did English change due to people interpreted certain words and constructions?

➢ **Emotional/ Attitudinal**

How was English influenced by views of proper English?

ANSWER THE QUESTIONS:

1.What is the oldest Germanic language?

2.What language did the Germanic tribes speak?

3.Why is it called Germanic language?

4.How similar are Germanic languages?

GLOSSARY

1. Gradual – moving or changing in small amounts; happening in a slow way over a long period of time

2. Alteration – the act, process, or result of changing or altering something

3. Kinship – a feeling of being close or connected to other people

4. Identity – the qualities, beliefs, etc., that make a particular person or group different from others

5. Dialect – a form of a language that is spoken in a particular area and that uses some of its own words, grammar and pronunciation

6. Designate – to be used as a name for (someone or something)

7. Passage – a long, narrow space that connects one place to another

8. Restricted – having definite rules about what or who is allowed and not allowed

9. Merely – used to say that something small is important or has a big effect or influence

10. Sufficient – having or proving as much as is needed

11. Hypothesis – an idea or theory that is not proven but that leads to further study or discussion

12. Correspondence – the activity of writing letters or e-mails to someone

13. Regularity – the quality or state of being regular

14. Runic – any of the characters in the alphabets that were used in ancient times by people of Northern Europe

15. Inscription – words that are written on or cut into a surface

16. Tenacious – not easily stopped or pulled apart: firm or strong

17. Conquest – the act of taking control of a country, city, etc., through the use of force

18. Preserve – to keep (something) in its original state or in good condition

19. Distinctive – having a quality or characteristic that makes a person or thing different from others: different in a way that is easy to notice

20. Fricative – the sound made by forcing air out of your mouth through a narrow opening that is made using the lips, teeth, or tongue

21. Genealogy – the history of a particular family showing how the different members of the family are related to each other

22. Classification – the act or process of putting people or things into groups based on ways that they are alike

23. Teutonic – Germanic; relating to ancient people who lived in northern Europe relating to Germany, Germans, or the German language

24. Comparative - seeming to be something when compared with others

25. Branch – to divide into smaller parts: to separate into branches

26. Basin – the amount contained in a basin

27. Mainland – a large area of land that forms a country or a continent and that does not include islands

28. Colonization – an act or instance of colonizing

29. Dispersion –the act of dispersing (to spread apart)

30. Establish – to cause to be widely known and accepted

31. Foundation – something that provides support for something

32. Postulate – to suggest (something, such as an idea or theory) especially in order to start a discussion

33. Diffusion – the state of being spread out

34. Subsequent – happening or coming after something else

35. Accentuation – to make (something) more noticeable

36. Movable – able to be moved; happening on a different date each year

37. Stress – to pronounce (a syllable or word) in a louder or more forceful way than other syllables or words

38. Accent – to say (part of a word) with greater stress or force

39. Qualitative – of or relating to how good something is

40. Quantitative – of or relating to how much there is of something

41. Dependent – decided or controlled by something else

42. alter(n)ation – the act, process, or result of changing or altering something

43. Testimony – something that someone says especially in a court of law while formally promising to tell the truth; proof of evidence that something exists or is true

44. Capitalist – a person who has a lot of money, property, etc., and who uses those things to produce more money

45. Unification – the act, process, or result of unifying

46. Statesman – a usually wise, skilled, and respected government leader

47. Extreme – very great in degree

48. Departure – the act or an instance of departing

49. Barbarian – of or relating to a land, culture, or people alien and usually believed to be inferior to another land, culture, or people

50. Constitute – to make up or form something

51. Remarkable – unusual or surprising: likely to be noticed

52. Distinctive – having a quality or characteristic that makes a person or thing different from others: different in a way that is easy to notice

53. Brotherly – shoving or suggesting the love and closeness of a brother

54. Fraternal – of or relating to brothers

55. Decimals – *mathematics:* based on the number 10

56. Acre – a measure of land area in the US and Britain that equals 4,840 square yards (about 4,047 square meters)

57. Cordial – politely pleasant and friendly

58. Synthetic – made by combining different substances: not natural

59. Structure – the way that something is built, arranged, or organized

60. Inflection - a change in the form of a word that occurs when it has a particular use

61. Interchange – the act of sharing or exchanging things

62. Suppletion – the occurrence of phonemically unrelated allomorphs of the same morpheme (as *went* as the past tense of *go* or *better* as the comparative form of *good*)

63. Root – something that is an origin or source (as of condition or quality)

64. Stem – a line of ancestry: stock; especially: fundamental line from which others have arisen

65. Gradual – moving or changing in small amounts; happening in a slow way over a long period of time

66. Alteration – the act, process, or result of changing or altering something

67. Kinship – a feeling of being close or connected to other people

68. Identity – the qualities, beliefs, etc., that make a particular person or group different from others

69. Dialect – a form of a language that is spoken in a particular area and that uses some of its own words, grammar and pronunciation

70. Designate – to be used as a name for (someone or something)

71. Passage – a long, narrow space that connects one place to another

72. Restricted – having definite rules about what or who is allowed and not allowed

73. Merely – used to say that something small is important or has a big effect or influence

74. Sufficient – having or proving as much as is needed

75. Hypothesis – an idea or theory that is not proven but that leads to further study or discussion

76. Correspondence – the activity of writing letters or e-mails to someone

77. Regularity – the quality or state of being regular

78. Runic – any of the characters in the alphabets that were used in ancient times by people of Northern Europe

79. Inscription – words that are written on or cut into a surface

80. Tenacious – not easily stopped or pulled apart: firm or strong

81. Conquest – the act of taking control of a country, city, etc., through the use of force

82. Preserve – to keep (something) in its original state or in good condition

83. Distinctive – having a quality or characteristic that makes a person or thing different from others: different in a way that is easy to notice

84. Fricative – the sound made by forcing air out of your mouth through a narrow opening that is made using the lips, teeth, or tongue

85. Genealogy – the history of a particular family showing how the different members of the family are related to each other

86. Classification – the act or process of putting people or things into groups based on ways that they are alike

87. Teutonic – Germanic; relating to ancient people who lived in northern Europe relating to Germany, Germans, or the German language

88. Comparative - seeming to be something when compared with others

89. Branch – to divide into smaller parts: to separate into branches

90. Basin – the amount contained in a basin

91. Mainland – a large area of land that forms a country or a continent and that does not include islands

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99. Capitalist – a person who has a lot of money, property, etc., and who uses those things to produce more money

100. Unification – the act, process, or result of unifying

101. Statesman – a usually wise, skilled, and respected government leader

102. Extreme – very great in degree

103. Departure – the act or an instance of departing

104. Barbarian – of or relating to a land, culture, or people alien and usually believed to be inferior to another land, culture, or people

105. Synthetic – made by combining different substances: not natural

106. Structure – the way that something is built, arranged, or organized

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