O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI

OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA`LIM VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

INGLIZ FILOLOGIYASI FAKULTETI

INGLIZ TILI AMALIY KURSI KAFEDRASI

5120100 – FILOLOGIYA VA TILLARNI O'QITISH (INGLIZ TILI) YO'NALISHI II - BOSQICH UCHUN

ROMAN GERMAN FILOLOGIYASIGA KIRISH

FANI BO'YICHA TAYYORLANGAN

MA'RUZALAR MATNI

Tuzuvchi: **A. Amanov**

NAMANGAN-2019

1-Mavzu Roman -German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan urni
Lesson 1. *The subject of the discipline An Introduction to the Roman-Germanic Philology*

1. Indo-European family of Languages
2. Common Germanc languages
3. The ancient Germans
4. Classification of Germanc Languages
5. Modern Germanc 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 **"Roman-German philology"** – deals with the problem of working out common features of the Germanc 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 Germanc group of languages in the modern world.

These are the following aspects: structural, functional, historical, typological, quantitative, geographical, genetically, 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 over-dialectal norm used in its territory of functioning.

Forms of Existence of the language

Language functions in the following forms:

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

2) Vernacular speech

3) Dialect

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

Linguistic changes

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

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

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

Causes of language changes

There are two types of factors of language change:

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

2) Intra linguistic factors:

Intra linguistic factors of language change include:

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

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

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

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

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

Rate of linguistic changes

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

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

Different parts or levels of language develop at different rates.

Mechanism of language change

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

Variation may have the following stages:

Table 1

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

Causes of Language evolution

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

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

2. A. Schleicher proposed a naturalistic explanation of the language development saying that "As the language is a living organism, 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.

Intra linguistic causes of language change

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

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

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

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

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

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

6. Tendency to delimitate the complexity of speech units.

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

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

B. Necessity of improving the language structure.

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

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

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

C. Necessity of keeping the language in the condition of communicative validity (generations should understand each other).
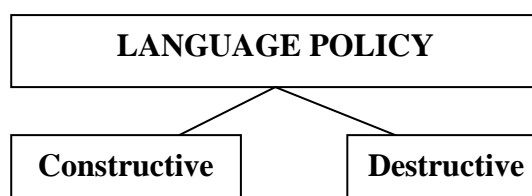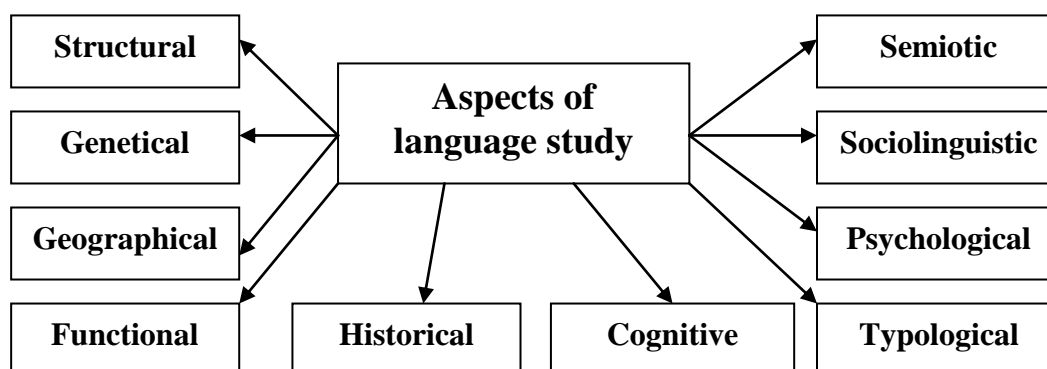
D. Internal language changes and processes having no relation to the impact of certain tendency (system-based changes).

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

2. Contamination.

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

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

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

6. Spontaneous changes of phonemes.

7. Change of the meaning of the words.

8. Notional words become suffixes in OE ere – meant – a man → now suffix -teacher.
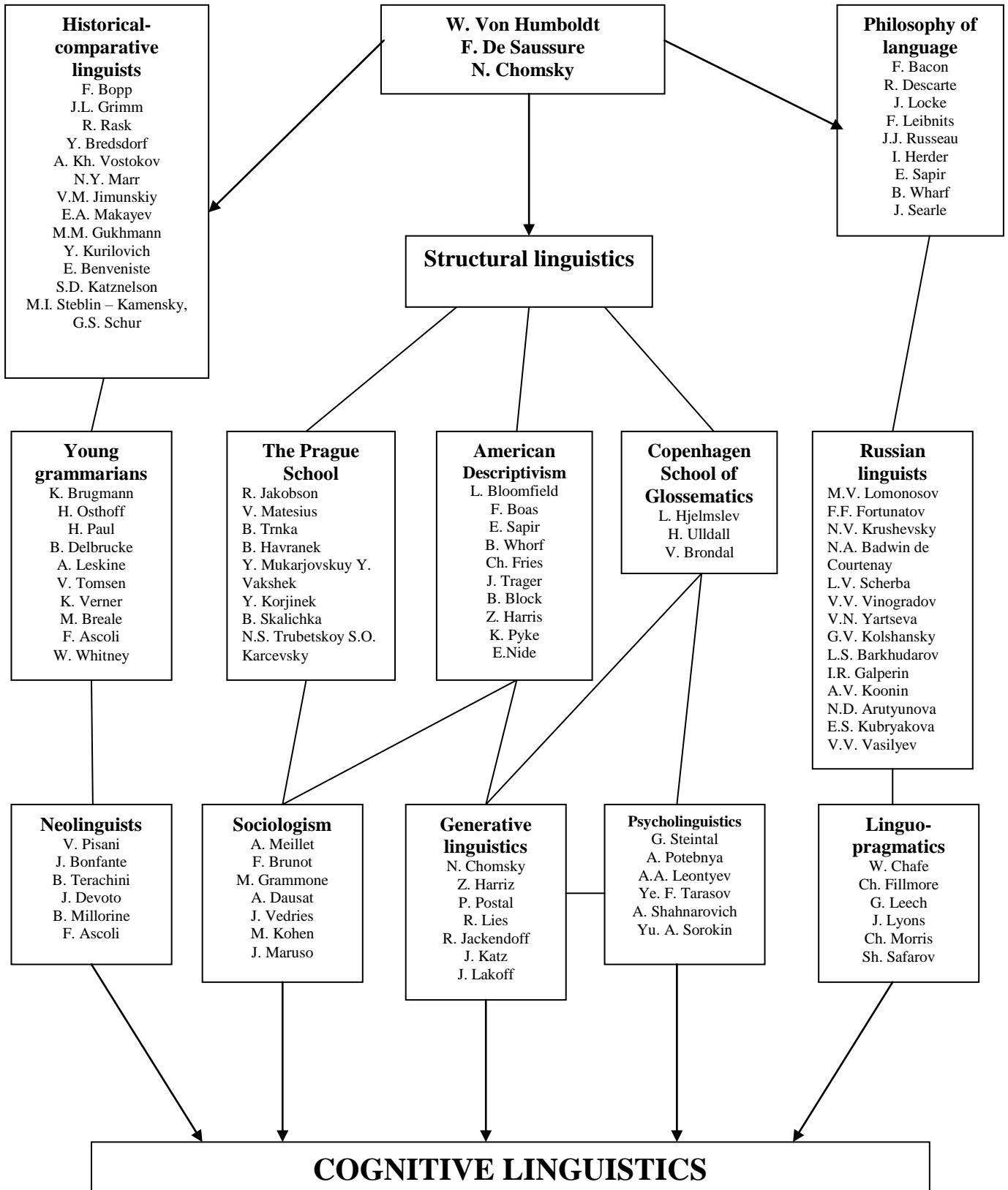
9. Cases of interrelation of processes.

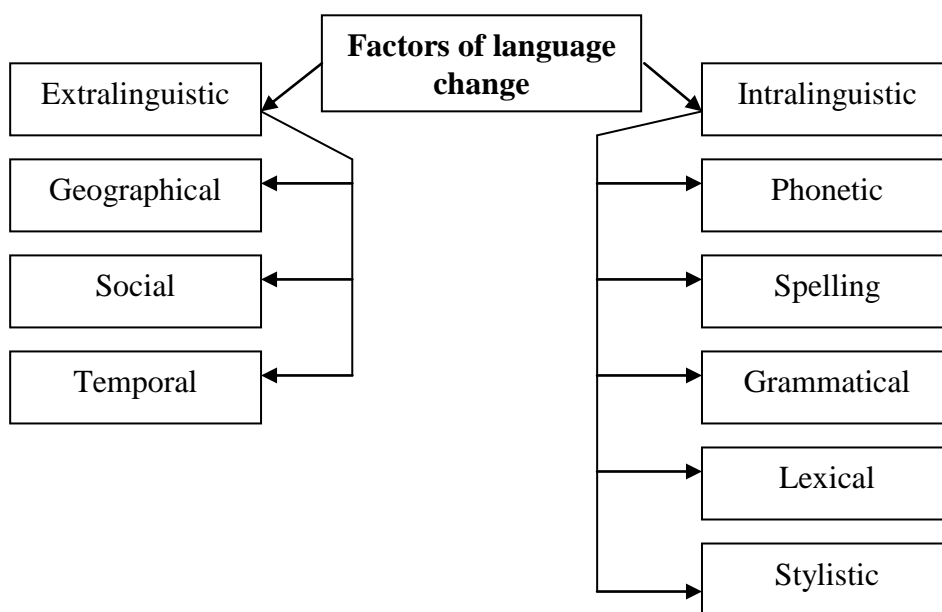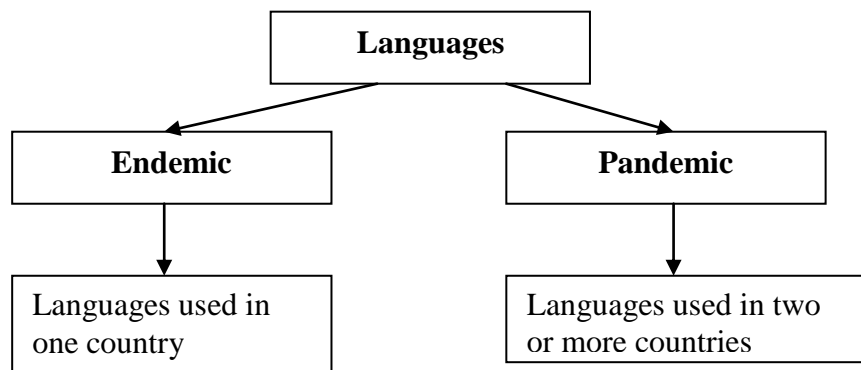There are two main factors of language change:

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

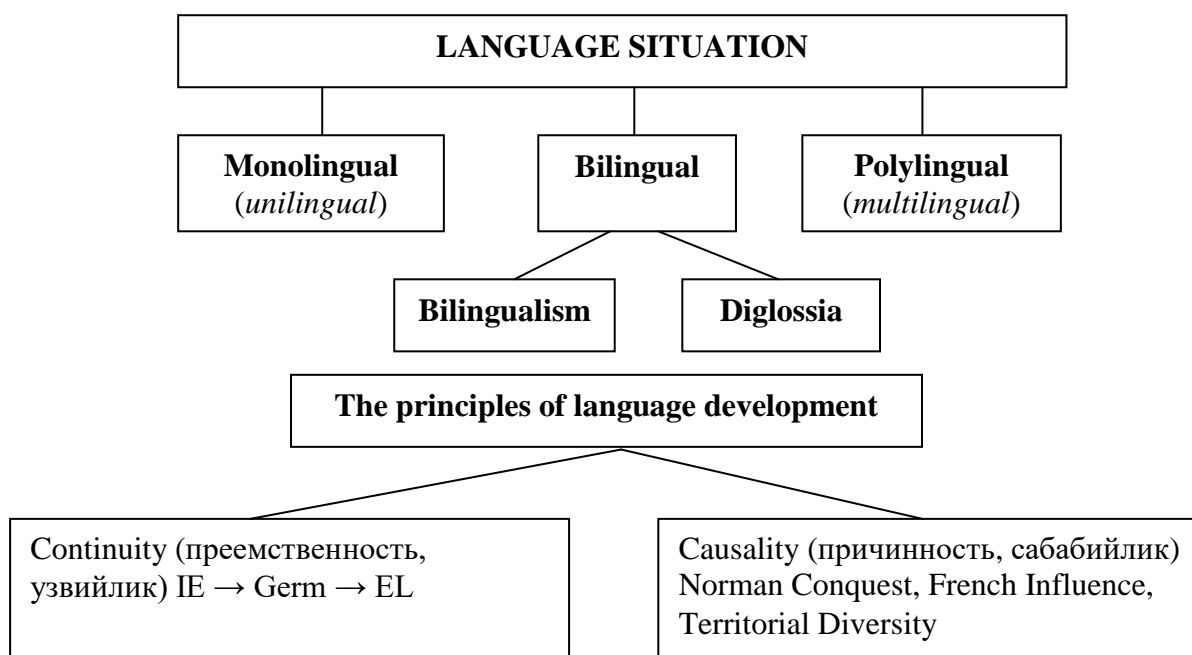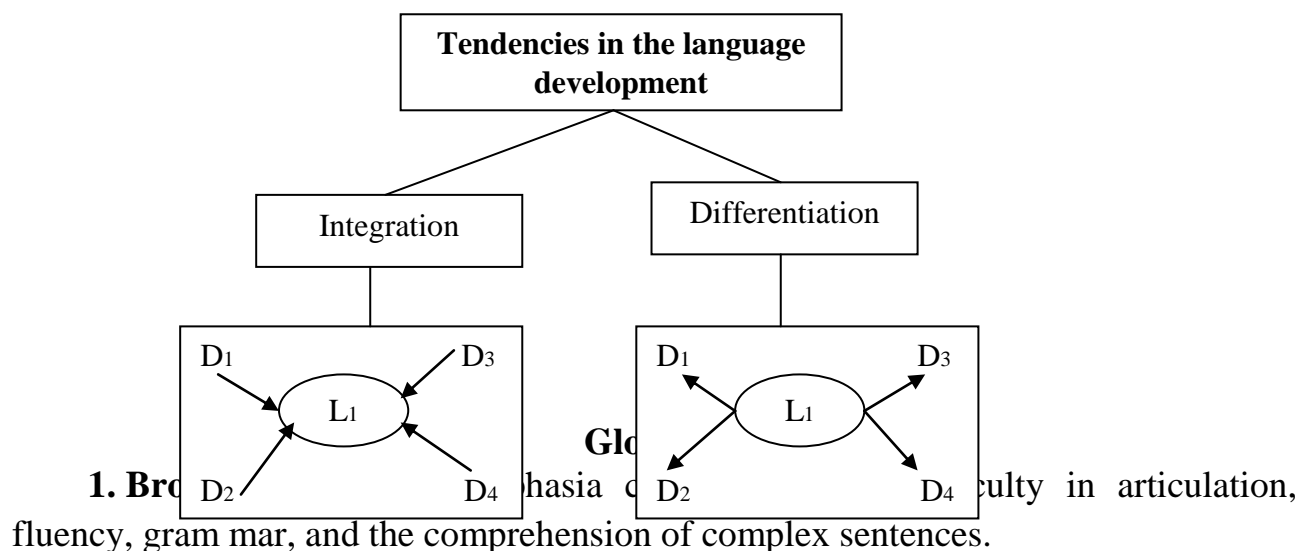**Causality** (причинность, сабабийлик) French Influence on English, 1066, Norman Conquest.

The Greatest Linguists of the World

Historical-comparative linguists
F. Bopp
J.L. Grimm
R. Rask
Y. Bredsdorf
A. Kh. Vostokov
N.Y. Marr
V.M. Jimunskiy
E.A. Makayev
M.M. Gukhmann
Y. Kurilovich
E. Benveniste
S.D. Katznelson
M.I. Steblin – Kamensky,
G.S. Schur

W. Von Humboldt
F. De Saussure
N. Chomsky

Philosophy of language
F. Bacon
R. Descarte
J. Locke
F. Leibnits
J.J. Russeau
I. Herder
E. Sapir
B. Wharf
J. Searle

Structural linguistics

Young grammarians
K. Brugmann
H. Osthoff
H. Paul
B. Delbrucke
A. Leskine
V. Tomsen
K. Verner
M. Breale
F. Ascoli
W. Whitney

The Prague School
R. Jakobson
V. Matesius
B. Trnka
B. Havranek
Y. Mukarjovskuy Y. Vakshek
Y. Korjinek
B. Skalichka
N.S. Trubetskoy S.O. Karcevsky

American Descriptivism
L. Bloomfield
F. Boas
E. Sapir
B. Whorf
Ch. Fries
J. Trager
B. Block
Z. Harris
K. Pyke
E.Nide

Copenhagen School of Glossematics
L. Hjelmslev
H. Ulldall
V. Brondal

Russian linguists
M.V. Lomonosov
F.F. Fortunatov
N.V. Krushevsky
N.A. Badwin de Courtenay
L.V. Scherba
V.V. Vinogradov
V.N. Yartseva
G.V. Kolshansky
L.S. Barkhudarov
I.R. Galperin
A.V. Koonin
N.D. Arutyunova
E.S. Kubryakova
V.V. Vasilyev

Neolinguists
V. Pisani
J. Bonfante
B. Terachini
J. Devoto
B. Millorine
F. Ascoli

Sociologism
A. Meillet
F. Brunot
M. Grammone
A. Dausat
J. Vedries
M. Kohen
J. Maruso

Generative linguistics
N. Chomsky
Z. Harriz
P. Postal
R. Lies
R. Jackendoff
J. Katz
J. Lakoff

Psycholinguistics
G. Steintal
A. Potebnya
A.A. Leontyev
Ye. F. Tarasov
A. Shahnarovich
Yu. A. Sorokin

Linguo-pragmatics
W. Chafe
Ch. Fillmore
G. Leech
J. Lyons
Ch. Morris
Sh. Safarov

COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS

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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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Essential notions of sociolinguistics

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          ┌────────────────────────────────────────────┐
          │            LANGUAGE SITUATION               │
          └────────────────────────────────────────────┘
     ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐
     │ Monolingual  │    │  Bilingual   │    │ Polylingual  │
     │ (unilingual) │    │              │    │ (multilingual)│
     └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────┘   └─────────────┐
              ┌──────────────┐            ┌──────────────┐
              │ Bilingualism │            │  Diglossia   │
              └──────────────┘            └──────────────┘
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          ┌────────────────────────────────────────────┐
          │ The principles of language development      │
          └────────────────────────────────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────┘          └──────────────────┐
┌────────────────────────────┐    ┌────────────────────────────────┐
│ Continuity (преемственность,│    │ Causality (причинность, сабабийлик)│
│ узвийлик) IE → Germ → EL   │    │ Norman Conquest, French Influence,│
│                            │    │ Territorial Diversity          │
└────────────────────────────┘    └────────────────────────────────┘
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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │  Tendencies in the      │
                    │  language development   │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
                        /              \
            ┌──────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
            │   Integration    │   │  Differentiation │
            └──────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
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1. Bro~~ca's ap~~hasia ~~diffi~~culty in articulation, fluency, gram mar, and the comprehension of complex sentences.

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

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

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 2-3

Lesson 2-3: *Language families*

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	1. Introductory notes 2. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world 3. Introduction to language families 4. General principles of the language families 5. General approaches and methods for language study
The objective of the lesson	The objective of the lesson is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the formation of the English language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students

about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Some events in the history of the Germanc tribes that are important to know; 2) How the nations that invaded the land could influence the language of the Europe; 3) The history of the tribes that later formed the Germanc speaking nations and their peculiarities.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lesson
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Classroom
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lesson is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Practical work

1. Introductory notes

2. General principles of the language families

3. General approaches and methods for language study

Literature recommended

1. Арсеньева В.С. и др. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. Изд. ВШ., 1982

2. Чемоданов Н.С. «Введение в германскую филологию» М. ВШ., 1981

3. Хлебникова О.С. «Введение в английскую филологию» М.В., 1983

4. Мейе А. «Введение в сравнительное изучение индоевропейских языков» М., 1933

5. Прокош Дж. «Сравнительная грамматика германских языков» М., 1958

6. Kuldashev A. «Roman-Germanic Philology". T., 2010.

2 Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari

Lesson 2-: Language families

1. Introduction to the more important language families including Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic, Afro-Asiatic, Sino-Tibetan, Malayo-Polynesian and others.
2. What are Language Families?

It appears that the use of language came about independently in a number of places.

All languages change with time. A comparison of Chaucer's English, Shakespeare's English and Modern English shows how a language can change over several hundred years. Modern English spoken in Britain, North America and Australia use different words and grammar.

If two groups of people speaking the same language are separated, in time their languages will change along different paths. First they develop different accents; next some of the vocabulary will change (either due to influences of other languages or by natural processes). When this happens a different dialect is created; the two groups can still understand each other. If the dialects continue to diverge there will come a time when they are mutually unintelligible. At this stage the people are speaking different languages. One of the best examples in Western history occurred after the Roman Empire collapsed in the 4th Century AD. **Latin** was the language of that empire. All the Latin speakers in different parts of Europe (**Italian Peninsula, Gaul, Iberian Peninsula,** and **Carpathian**) became isolated from each other. Their languages evolved along independent paths to give us the modern languages of **Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese** and **Romanian.**

The **Sanskrit** spoken in North India changed into the modern languages of the region: **Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, Bengal**i and others.

Ancient Persian has evolved into **Farsi, Kurdish** and **Pashto.**

In time, with enough migrations, a single language can evolve into an entire **family** of languages.

Each language family described below is a group of related languages with a common ancestor. Languages in the same **branch** are **sister** languages that diverged within the last 1000 to 2000 years **(Latin,** for example, gave rise to the Latin Branch languages in the **Indo-European Family).**

Languages in different branches of the same family can be referred to as **cousin** languages. For most families these languages would have diverged more than 20UO years ago. The exact times scales vary for each family.

Languages in the same family share many common grammatical features and many of the key words, especially older words, show their common origin.

The difference between **a language** and **a dialect** can be political rather than linguistic. For example, linguistically, **Croatian** and **Serbian** are closely related dialects of the same language. However, they are written in different scripts and are spoken by people of different religions living in Catholic **Croatia** and Orthodox **Serbia** respectively. As such they are called different languages for political reasons.

Macedonian is considered by **Bulgarians** as a dialect of their language while **Macedonians** themselves consider it a separate language. Since Bulgaria has long claimed Macedonia as part of its territory, the reasons for each view are obvious!

Low German (spoken in **Northern Germany)** and **Dutch (Netherlands)** are linguistically dialects but politically separate languages. **Low German** and **Swiss German** are mutually unintelligible but are both considered to be German. There are more differences between **Italian** spoken in different cities in **Italy** than between **Danish, Norwegian** and **Swedish.**

The language of **Iraq** and **Morocco** are both called **Arabic** but they differ greatly. The **Mandarain** speaking government of **China** considers China's other languages (like **Cantonese** and **Wu)** to be dialects whereas they are often very different.

These political elements will be generally ignored in this outline. The study of languages and their relationships gives us information about how people have migrated during historical times. It also helps with the dating of developments like plant domestication and the development of tools.

For the sections on specific language families below, an Atlas would be handy.

Ten Language Families in Detail

The Indo-European Family

The most widely studied family of languages and the family with the largest number of speakers. Languages include **English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian,**

Russian, Greek, Hindi, Bengali; and the classical languages of **Latin, Sanskrit,** and **Persian.**

The Uralic Family

A family found in Europe **(Hungarian, Finnish)** and Siberia **(Mordvin)** with complex noun structures.

The Altaic Family

A family spread from Europe **(Turkish)** through Central Asia **(Uzbek),** Mongolia **(Mongolian),** to the Far East **(Korean, Japanese).** These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony.

The Sino-Tibetan Family

An important Asian family of languages that includes the world's most spoken language, **Mandarin.** These languages are monosyllabic and tonal.

The Malayo-Polynesian Family

A family consisting of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well South East Asia. Languages include **Malay, Indonesian, Maori** and **Hawaiian.**

The Afro-Asiatic Family

This family contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are **Arabic** and **Hebrew.**

The Caucasian Family

A family based around the Caucasus Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. **Georgian** and **Chechen** are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants.

The Dravidian Family

The languages of southern India (in contrast to the Indo-European languages of northern India). **Tamil** is the best known of these languages. **Austro-Asiatic Family** This family is a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include **Vietnamese** and **Khmer. Niger-Congo Family** This family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large numbers of languages include **Swahili, Shone, Xhosa** and **Zulu.**

The Uralic Family of Languages

Not all European languages are

There are three European languages that are members of the **Uralic Family.** The family is named from the Ural Mountains. The people speaking these languages originated from the Siberian side of the Urals. Over 1500 years ago they migrated to Europe and have become entirely Europeanized. Their languages tell the story of their migrations.

In the Finnic Branch, Finnish and **Estonian** are closely related. There are also a group of closely related dialects called **Karelian** (spoken in the **Karelia** region of **Finland** and **Russia).**

Languages in the **Ugric Branch** (like **Hungarian)** are very different having separated from the Finnic ones around 3000 years ago. Hungarian's closest relatives **(Ostyak, Vogul)** are found in central Siberia. The majority of the languages in this family are spoken in Siberia **(Mordvin, Komi, Nenets)** apart from **Sami** which is spoken in Lapland (northern Scandinavia).

Yukaghir (spoken in eastern Siberia) uses a pre-literate form of pictograms similar to those of some Native Americans.

The Uralic Languages have many suffixes. Finnish, for example, behaves as if it had 15 noun cases, Hungarian has 17. Country names in Finnish are difficult to recognize. **Finland,** for example, is **Suomi.** Mordvin has complex verbs varying for subject and object over four tenses and 7 moods.

The Altaic Family of Languages

The **Altaic Family** is named after the Altai Mountains, in Central Asia. These people were nomadic horsemen living in the plains. One group migrated towards Europe; the other group migrated towards the Korean Peninsula and the islands of Japan.

Turkish is the most westerly member of this family as well as the most spoken. Many of the others are spoken in former USSR republics **Azeri** (in Azerbaijan), **Turkmen** (in Turkmenia), **Kazakh** (in Kazakhstan), **Kirghiz** (in Kyrgyzstan), **Uzbek** (in Uzbekistan), **Uigur** (in Western China east of the Pamir Mountains).

Mongolian is found in Mongolia (where it is written in the Cyrillic script) and Northern China (with a script that goes down rather than horizontal). **Korean** and **Japanese** are the most easterly Altaic languages.

The scripts used by these languages depend on historical or political factors. Turkish uses a Latin-based script, the ex-Soviet languages and Mongolian ones use the Cyrillic alphabet. Korean has its own distinctive script. Korean writing evolved separately from all the other scripts in the world, having been invented six hundred years ago. The language used to be written in Chinese characters.

Japanese is still written with Chinese characters (called **Kanji)** but there are two other alphabetic scripts. Hiragana is used to indicate prefixes and suffixes while Katakana is used for foreign words.

The Altaic languages have lots of suffixes and a property called **vowel harmony.** This means that the vowels are divided into two groups. Words will either

have one type of vowel or the other. All the suffixes have two forms one for each type of vowel. In Turkish, the plural is formed by the addition of **LER** or **LAR.** The suffixes themselves can be glued on one after the other. For example, **EV** is **house, EV-LER** is **houses, EVLER-IMIZ** is **our houses, EVLERIMIZ -E** is **to our houses,** etc. Languages that behave in this manner are called agglutinating. Turkish is one of the most regular languages in the world. It has one irregular noun **(water)** and one irregular verb **(to be).**

Japanese and Korean have highly complex honorific forms for verbs depending on the social Level of the speaker and the one spoken to. Japanese also has some differences in vocabulary depending on whether the speaker is male or female. For example, **stomach** is **HARA** if spoken by a male, and **ONAKA** if spoken by a female.

All languages are influenced by languages they are in contact with. At the two extremes of the Altaic family, Turkish has many Arabic words while Korean and Japanese have many from Chinese.

Some linguists do not include Korean and Japanese in this family. Others link the Uralic and Altaic families together.

The Sino-Tibetan Family of Languages

The **Sino-Tibetan Family** is an important Asian family language, Mandarin, the official language of China.

The languages in this family are **monosyllabic tonal languages.** Words are made up of single syllables: Mandarin has over 1600. **GUO - country, MEN -gate, WO - I, REN - person, AN - peace.** The syllables themselves have **tones.** This means that the voice can be high, low, rising, falling, etc, just like singing. It is like the way many people raise the voice at the end of a question. As an example the syllable, **MEN** can mean **gate** or **we** depending on tone. Mandarin has four tones, **Thai** has five (**MAI** can mean **not, burn, wood** or **no** depending on tone), **Cantonese** has nine and **Kam-Sui** has 15.

The languages in **the Sinitic Branch** are the various languages of China **(Mandarin, Cantonese, Wu, Gan, Min, Hakka, Xiang, Vue).** They are all written in Chinese characters. Each syllable has a different character so that the writing is not alphabetic. There are over 50,000 characters, 6000 of which are needed to read a newspaper. Even though the different languages have different pronunciations, the meanings of characters are the same.

The languages in the **Tibeto-Burman Branch** are spoken in Burma (**Burmese, Karen)** Thailand and Laos (**Lisu, Lahu),** Southern China (**Chin, Vi),** Tibet

(Tibetan), Bhutan **(Jonkha),** Nepal **(Sherpa, Newari),** and eastern India **(Mizo, Manipuri).**

When written, the scripts are derived either from the curly scripts of south India or the angular scripts of north India.

The **Tai** and **Southern Branches** are spoken in Thailand and Laos **(Thai** and **Lao** written in curly south Indian scripts, and the unwritten **Shan)** and amongst the tribal people of Southern China **(Chuang, Vao, She).**

Thai has **noun classifiers.** These are groups of words that go with certain types of nouns. **KHON** goes with people nouns (except royalty or sacred people), **TUA** goes with animals, **IEM** goes with sharp or pointed objects, and **KHAN** goes with objects with handles.

The language family is thought to have originated in northern China around the Yangse River valley. Some linguists consider the Tai Languages to be a separate family.

The Malayo-Polynesian Family of Languages

Also known as **Austronesian,** the **Malayo-Polynesian Family** is made up of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well South-East Asia. Although covering a large geographical area, the languages are remarkably uniform in structure.

The most common are **Malay** and **Indonesian** (which are actually dialects of a single language). Malay was written in the Arabic script until the 20th Century when the Latin alphabet was adopted.

This family includes the languages of Indonesia: **Javanese, Sundanese, Madurese** (all from Java), **Batak** (Sumatra), **Balinese** (Bali), **Tetun** (Timor). The languages of the Philippines **(Tagalog, Ilocano, Visayan).** The many non-Chinese languages of Taiwan (like **Amis, Atayal, Paiwan, Tsou).** These languages are found in Indo-China: **Cham** is spoken in Vietnam. It was the language of a pre-Vietnamese Hindu Chamba Empire. The present speakers are Muslim. In the Pacific, languages like **Maori** (New Zealand), **Fijian, Tahitian, Rapa Nui** (Easter Island), **Chamorro** (Cham), and **Hawaiian.**

An interesting exception is **Malagasy,** which is spoken in Madagascar, a large island off the coast of southern Africa. Its nearest linguistic relative is spoken in Borneo. Over 1500 years ago, people from the islands of Indonesia migrated in boats across the Indian Ocean to Madagascar. Here, they picked up African culture, but their language gives away their origins.

These languages have fairly simple noun and verb forms. Malay has no inflections for tense or case. Plurals are made by doubling the word **(ANAK -child, ANAK ANAK - children).** This is called **Reduplication** and is commonly used to

enhance grammatical meanings. Passive forms of verbs are commonly used **(let the guide be followed** rather than **follow the guide).**

Javanese has a special vocabulary used to and by chiefs. Some peoples have secret languages used only by certain trades, like fishermen and miners. Balinese has three formal registers. The word **eat** is **NAAR** in the lowest formality, **NEDA** in the middle formality, **NGADJENGANG** in the most formal. In Cham, men and women's speech differs.

The possessive pronouns **(my / our)** are more complex than, the noun forms and have differing forms depending on the item possessed. In some of the Pacific languages, the possessive pronouns have a form for **alienable possession** (something that is possessed temporarily like a car or book), and a form for **inalienable possession** (something that is always possessed like body parts).

Ilocano has three words for **this:** one for visible objects, one for things not in view and another for things that no longer exist.

Some languages have two forms of the personal pronoun, **we.** One form is used if it includes the person or people addressed **(inclusive)** and another form if the person addressed is not included **(exclusive).**

The Pacific languages are characterized by few consonants and vowels. Hawaiian has only 8 consonants **(H, K, L, M, N, P, W** and the glottal stop) and 5 vowels **(A, E, I, 0, U).** There is a preference for open syllables (like in the names of the islands **FI JI** and **TA HI TI).**

Tagalog and Maori have a **Verb-Subject-Object** word order. Malagasay has the word order **Verb-Object-Subject.**

The speakers of this language family are thought to have originated in southern China (the Yellow River valleys) and migrated via Taiwan into the islands of the Philippines (about 2500BC), Indonesia and out into the Pacific
(about 1000BC).

The Afro-Asiatic Family of Languages The **Afro-Asiatic Family** is dominated by **Arabic,** an important modern and classical language. It is the language of the Quran and of Islam.

The other languages in the **Semitic Branch** of this family are **Maltese** which is written in the Latin script because the Maltese are Catholic. **Hebrew** is another important classical language with its own script. It is the language of Judaism and of the Old Testament of the Bible. By the 1st Century BC it had become a liturgical language for Judaism. A modern form was revived and is now spoken in Israel where it is called **Ivrit.**

Amharic is the language of Ethiopia and has its own script. **Tigrinya** is spoken in the Horn of Africa. Many important ancient languages belong to this branch.

Akkadian (the language of the Assyrian Empire) used the Cuniform writing system to write pre-Biblical flood and creation stories. **Phonoecian** and its closely related relatives **Ugaritic** (for which the <u>alphabet</u> was invented) and **Punic** (the language of Carthage). **Nabatean,** an ancestor of Arabic spoken in Petra. **Syriac,** a liturgical language of the early Christian church. The most interesting is **Aramaic,** once the administrative language of the Perisan Empire, later the language of Palestine during Roman times. It now survives in small pockets in Syria, Iraq, Turkey and Iran.

The **Berber Branch** is spoken in the hills of North Africa by the Berbers (**Tuareg, KabyIE).** Also in the branch was **Guanch,** spoken on the Canary Islands until becoming extinct in the 16th Century.

People in Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sudan and Somalia speak languages of the **Cushitic Branch (Somali, Galla, Beja, Afar).**

Hausa, the most important member of the **Chadic Branch,** is the main language of Nigeria. It was once written in the Arabic script but now uses the Latin alphabet. The Chadic Branch contains 600 languages spoken in Nigeria, Chad and Cameroon.

The **Egyptian Branch** contains **Egyptian** the language of Ancient Egypt written in hieroglyphics. **Coptic** is the liturgical language of the Egyptian Coptic Church. It uses a Greek based alphabet. It is extinct as a spoken language.

These languages have grammars based on consonant clusters. Arabic uses clusters of three consonants. For example, in Arabic, the Letter triplet **KTB** has to do with writing. **KiTaB** is **book.** Plurals are all irregularly formed and the usual way is to change the vowels. **KuTuB** is **books.** Other words with the **KTB** root have something to do with writing: KaTaBa - to write, **KaTtaBa** - to make someone to write (i.e. **to teach), maKTaB - office, KaaTiB - writer, maKTaBa -library, miKTaB - typewriter, KuTuBii bookseller, maKTuuB - fate, letter** ("that which is written"). The consonants give the root meaning while the vowels, suffixes and prefixes give the grammatical meaning.

The Arabic alphabet mainly uses consonants because the reader can supply the correct vowels from the context. The first <u>Alphabets we</u>re invented by speakers of Semitic languages and so had no vowels. Unusually for this family, Somali has 20 separate vowel sounds. It also has four tones which indicate gender, number and case.

This language family originated in the Sahara area before it became a desert and spread to the Horn of Africa, North Africa and the Middle East. During the 7th Century AD, Arabic spread from the Arabian Peninsula with Islam to cover most of North Africa and the Middle East.

<u>The Caucasian Family of Languages</u>

The **Caucasian Family** is named after the Caucasus Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. This is a very linguistically diverse region.

The languages include **Georgian** (Georgia), **Chechen** and **Ingush** (both found in Chechnya in southern Russia), and **Avar** (9 dialects from a region called Dagestan). **Urartian** (extinct language of the Urartu Empire of Eastern Turkey) also belongs to this family.

Some linguists consider that these languages may actually be three separate families.

The languages are dominated by difficult consonant clusters. **Ubykh** (an extinct language whose last speaker died in 1992 in eastern Turkey) had 81 separate consonant sounds. Attempts are being made to revive it.

Kabardian (spoken in southern Russia) has only three vowels which often disappear in speech.

Many of these languages have a large number of noun cases. **Tsez** (spoken in a small region between Georgia and Chechnya) has 42.

The languages also have a property called **ergativity.** This means that the subject of a **transitive verb** is different from the subject of an **intransitive verb.** Transitive verbs can take an object (see, hear); intransitive verbs cannot take an object (go, walk).

The Dravidian Family of Languages

North India is dominated by languages of the Indo-European Family.

The **Dravidian Family** of languages is the very difficult sounding languages of South India. These include the major languages **Tamil** (spoken in the Indian state of Tamil Nadu, northern Sri Lanka, Singapore and Malaysia), **Malayalam** (Kerala state), **Kannada** (from Karnataka) and **Telugu** (Andhra Pradesh). Each has its own script which has the curved appearance typical of South Indian writing.

Pockets of these languages are found in central India **(Gondi, Kurukh, Kui)**, western India **(Tulu)** and in the Indus Valley of southern Pakistan **(Brahui).**

Elamite, a language known from inscriptions in Western Iran is now thought to have been Dravidian. These languages are distinguished by **retroflex constants,** which have been borrowed by the <u>Indic Branch</u> of the Indo-European Languages. These constants give Indian languages their distinctive sound and are formed with the tongue rolled up to the top of the mouth. The languages are agglutinating with up to 8 noun cases.

The languages once covered all of the Indian sub-continent and originated in the Indus Valley (modern Pakistan).

The Austro-Asiatic Family of Languages The **Austro-Asiatic Family** is a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. The family once covered a larger area until <u>Tai</u> language speakers migrated south from southern China.

The **Viet-Muong Branch** includes **Vietnamese** and **Muong** (both languages of Vietnam). The former is written in a form of the Latin script.

The **Mon-Khmer Branch** includes **Khmer** (the language of Cambodia written in a derivative of South Indian scripts), **Mon** (once a major language of a Thai empire; now spoken in parts of Burma, Thailand, China and Vietnam), **Palaung** (a tribal language in the hills of Burma and Thailand), **So** (Laos and Thailand), **Nicobarese** and **Nancowry** (both from the Nicobar Islands of the Indian Ocean).

The so-called **Aslian** languages are found in the hills of peninsular Malaysia and include **Sengoi** and **Temiar.**

The languages of the **Munda Branch** are found scattered in pockets of north India (**Mundari, Santali in** the state of Bihar and **Khasi** in Assam).

These languages are not tonal apart from Vietnamese where tones developed recently under Chinese influence. Vietnamese was once thought not to be related to other languages. The branches of this family were originally considered to be separate families.

The Niger-Congo Family of Languages The **Niger-Congo Family** features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The family originated in West Africa. Migrations took the languages to eastern and southern Africa. There are over 900 languages in this family in nine branches.

Africa's borders reflect colonial history rather than linguistic boundaries. For this reason, many of these languages are spoken across national frontiers.

The languages of this family include the west African languages of **Fulani** (Nigeria, Cameroon, Mali, Guinea, Gambia, Senegal, Mauritania, Niger, Burkina Faso), **Malinke** (Senegal, Gambia, Guinea, Mali, Ivory Coast), **Mende** (Sierra Leone), **Twi** (Ghana), **Ewe** (Ghana, Togo), **Mossi** (Burkina Faso), **Yoruba** (Nigeria), **Ibo** (Nigeria), **Kpelle** (Liberia), **Wolof** (Senegal, Gambia) and **Fang** (Cameroon, Gabon, Guinea).

In east and southern Africa the languages include **Swahili** (Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Berundi, Zaire - the most spoken language in this family), **Kikuyu** (Kenya), **Ganda** (Uganda), **Ruanda** (Rwanda), **Rundi** (Berundi), **Luba** (Zaire), **Lingala** (Zaire, Congo), **Kongo** (Zaire, Congo, Angola), **Bemba** (Zaire, Zambia), **Nyanja** (Malawi, Zambia), **Shona** (Zimbabwe), **Ndebele** (the Matebele in Zimbabwe and South Africa), **Tswana** (Botswana) and its close relative **Sotho** (South Africa,

Lesotho), **Swazi** (Swaziland, South Africa), **Xhosa** (South Africa) and its close relative **Zulu** (South Africa).

The southern languages have tones which are used partially for meaning but mostly for grammar. **Banda** (Congo) has three tones. Its speakers use three-tone drums to send formulaic messages. **Efik** has four tones and uses m and n as vowels.

Most of the Niger-Congo languages have prefixes and suffixes to qualify nouns and verbs as well as words that agree with them. Nouns and verbs never exist on their own. Fulani has 18 suffixed noun qualifiers.

THE COMPARATIVE METHOD

As we have seen, the human mind has been speculating for hundreds of years on the origin and relationship of languages. But the solution to all these problems was far from being correct because no linguistic material was available. It was not until the Renaissance that material was gathered for later investigators to work on, and they could not help being struck by the amazing similarity between some languages. Even in the sixteenth century, an Italian missionary called Filippo Sassetti had noted the similarity between the Italian numerals from six to nine - *sei, sette, otto, nove,* and their Sanskrit counterparts - sas, *saptd, astau, nova..* An attempt to classify known languages according to the resemblance between them was made by the thinker Scaliger in 1599, when he grouped the chief languages after their wont for God, calling them respectively the *deus-theos* (i.e. Latin Greek), *goit* (Germanic), and *bog* (Slavonic) languages.

This classification, however intelligent, might have continued blindly along these lines for ages, were it not for the discovery of Sanskrit.

In the history of language, the discovery of Sanskrit is often compared to the discovery of America in the history of Mankind. It altered at a single stroke the whole field of linguistic research.

William Jones, an English lawyer in India, wrote in 1786: "The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin and more acquisitively 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 be 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 similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Sanskrit."

In these_often quoted lines, Jones announced clearly and unequivocally the relationship between three of the great languages of antiquity-Sanskrit, Greek and

Latin-and at the same time anticipated the reconstruction of that common source which, it seems, no longer exists-the parent Indo-European language itself.

This climax of language research in the 18th century heralded the full blossoming of philology in the 19th century. We have good grounds for saying that linguistics as a science was created in the 19th century, especially comparative linguistics.

The first of the great pioneers in comparative linguistics of the last century in Western Europe was the Danish Rasmus Rask (1787-1832). His major work *Undersagelse om det gamle Nordiske eller Islandske Sprogs Oprindelse (Investigation on the Origin of Old Norse or Icelandic* (1818) may be called a comparative Indo-European Grammar. In this book Rask clearly demonstrated the significance of laws of sounds as a proof of linguistic kinship, although he added that they were especially convincing when supported by grammatical similarities. Thus in Rask we find the whole kernel from which modern linguistic comparative methods have been developed.

Rask introduced the idea that the comparison not only of inflectional systems, but also of phonetic characteristics, constituted a scientific approach to the examination of linguistic relationships; in other words, when properly examined, phonetics could provide clues as well as grammar.

Rask examined all the languages bordering geographically on Norse to discover whether they were related, and where he found a relationship he followed it up. He was the first to recognize the relationship between the languages now called Germanic. The scheme of genetic relations between these languages which Rask drew up was quite correct.

Rask's great merit was not merely that his scheme of linguistic relationships was correct, but that his reasoning in substantiating them was soundly based. He was quite right to state in his book that in the comparison of languages the grammatical side should never be forgotten, for the coincidence of words was extremely unreliable.

Even without the use of Sanskrit, Rask hit upon the two sound shifts in the history of the Germanic languages. It should be added that he did not see the complete regularity of the development of sounds. For example, he did not look for the reasons for the exceptions to his main rules. It remained for later generations of linguists to make discoveries that introduced a new conception of regularity and "law" into the evolution of sounds.

It was spokesmen for the German linguistic tendency called the Young Grammarians who insisted in the 1880's on the remarkable regularity of sound-changes and proclaimed the principle that phonetic laws admit of no exceptions. If the law did not operate in some instances, they said, this was because they had been

broken by analogy, e.g. by resemblances of sound or meaning which join different words together in the speaker's mind.

It was the German philologer Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) who established the principle of the sound shift in the phonetic history of the Germanic group of languages or, as he called it, the Lautverschiebung in his book *Deutsche Grammatik-("German* Grammar") (1819). In his opinion, there were two sound-shifting. The first occurred before the 4th century; the second had been completed by the 8th.

The first relates to the Low German group; the second, the High German.

in Low German and in *High German:*

bh	*b*	*p(b)*
dh	*d*	*t*
gh	*g*	*k(g)*
b	*p*	*fff*
d	*t*	*zz(z)*
g	*k*	*hh(h)*
p	*f*	
t	*th*	
k	*h*	

These shifts may be shown by the following chart: *Indo-European* becomes

It will be observed, first, that the law describes the alteration only of consonants; second, that it deals with the transformation or evolution of these consonants from the parent Indo-European language into the Germanic languages. It has no reference to languages developed out of Latin or to any language outside the Indo-European classification.

In 1877 Karl Verner added to Grimm's Law a supplementary law that has become known by his name. He explained certain irregularities in the Grimm series with reference to the position of accent in the Indo-European word. For example, according to Grimm's Law, the Anglo-Saxon forms for "father", "mother" and "brother" should have been *father, mothor, brothor,* since the Latin *pater, mater, frater* have, as middle consonant *t,* which should give *th.* Why, then, has Anglo-Saxon only *brothor* where the *th* is regular; why are the other forms *(frader, modor)* missing? Why does Anglo-Saxon show, instead of "father", *fader: medial d* instead of *medial th?*

Verner pointed out that in Sanskrit the accents in the words for "father", "mother" and "brother" fell as follows: *pitdr, matdr, bhrdtar.* In the first two words the accent comes *after* the *t;* in *bhrdtar* it comes *before.* The developement of *bhrdtar* was therefore regular: *t* shifted to *th* (Anglo-Saxon *brothor,* English *brother).* In cases where the accent *oc*curred *after* the *t,* however, a further shifting took place; the *t*

became d instead of *th,* giving the Anglo-Saxon *fader* and *modor.* Verner's Law explained other peculiarities of Anglo-Saxon phonetics and grammar.

Russian linguists should also be mentioned among the founders of comparative linguistics.

As early as the middle of the 18th century, the great Russian scientist M. V. Lomonosov (1711-1765) started on a comparative and historical study of languages. He understood which languages constituted the Slavonic group and established close ties between Baltic and Slavonic languages, assuming a common origin between them. It is interesting to point out that Lomonosov proved the existence of genetic ties between Baltic and Slavonic languages by comparing' not only words, but also grammatical forms.

Lomonosov distinguished between "related" and "non-related" languages. In his rough notes for his *Russian Grammar.* an interesting diagram was found containing the numerals "one" to "ten" in related languages-Russian, Greek, Latin and German, on the one hand, and in non-related languages-Finnish, Mexican, Chinese, on the other. In drawing up this chart Lomonosov undoubtedly had in mind the original, "related", unity of Indo-European languages which he counterposed to "non-related" languages. The numerals used by Lomonosov are quite reliable from an etymological point of view.

There is an important concept of comparative linguistics in Lomonosov's book, e.g., he claimed that all related languages had a common source, and the process of their development took thousands of years.

Although he did not use the methods of comparative linguistics in his works, Lomonosov Nevertheless created a basis for further investigations in this field in Russia. Russian scientists began to get interested in the comparative study of languages, and the academician P. S. Pall as edited a glossary of 285 words in two hundred languages of Europe and Asia in 1786 at the request of Empress Catherine.

Russian linguistics in the early 19th century is linked with the name of A. C. Vost6kov (1781-1864), who tried to show the various points of contact between related' languages. Vostokov's famous paper *Some Considerations on Slavonic* was published in 1820 under the auspices of the Moscow Society of Russian Philology Lovers. In this article Vostokov set out the chronology of specimens of Old Church manuscripts, and showed their difference from Old Russian. Beside this, he cleared up the problem of the so-called *juses* and showed their relationship to the Polish nasals.

As we have said, the phonetic correspondences revealed by Rask and Grimm became the foundation of the comparative phonetics of Indo-European languages. But Vostokov's definition of the sound meaning of the Slavonic juses was no Less important a discovery. He demonstrated that these juses were sounds dating from the

period of common Slavonic languages. Vostokov's theory of the common origin of all Slavonic languages and the possibility of reconstructing all the languages of this group was not clearly stated and remained a mere hypothesis.

Vostokov's merit is that he was the first scholar in the history of linguistics to show phonetic regularity in the sounds of related languages, anticipating Rask and Grimm.

A great contribution to comparative linguistics in Russia was made by F. I. Buslaev *(1818-1897),* professor at the Moscow University, where he lectured on comparative grammar. But his lectures on the history of the Russian language were more interesting and valuable, as they were based on independent investigations of specimens of Old Russian written language and folk-lore.

Buslaev discussed the problems of comparative linguistics in connection with the history of Russian in his first book *On Teaching the Native Language* (1844), the methodological significance of which lies in the fact that Buslaev here emphasized, for the first time in Russian linguistics the close relations between the history of the Russian language and the history of the Russian people who used it. Buslaev wrote: "Language expresses the life of the people. The language we speak now is the result of historical movement and of many changes over many thousands of years; language may be defined only in a genetic way, which necessitates historical research."

He studied Russian dialects very thoroughly but his weakness in this field was that he considered that the phonetics of these dialects reflected the phonetic processes of the recorded Indo-European languages. This fault may be explained by his ignorance of the prolonged historical formation of individual Indo-European languages.

These Russian linguists contributed a great deal to the advance of the comparative method in the early 19th century. They applied this method to varying degrees, but they perfected it and managed to solve some important problems connected with the comparative grammar of the Slavonic languages.

We must explain that the comparative method tries to reconstruct certain features of the language spoken by the original single language community, on the basis of resemblances in the descendent languages. The purpose of this reconstruction is to find out the general laws governing the development of these languages, from their common source onwards. If two languages have one common feature, this is more likely to have been inherited from the common ancestor of both languages than to have arisen independently in each of the two descendent languages, unless they are known to have been subjected to some common influence.

Now we must become acquainted with the concept 'of *cognates* which is a term used in comparative linguistics. The word means "born together", and it refers specifically to words which nave survived in various languages from a common

original language. There are dozens of examples, but let us take the word *mother.* This word certainly existed in Indo-European, probably in a form something like **mater* (the asterisk before "mater" is intended to indicate that this form is reconstructed). Latin has preserved it intact. The Greek *meter* is not much different or Old *Irish mathir* or the Slavonis *mali.* The Proto-Germanic form must have been something like **modor,* judging from the appearance of the word in Old High German and Old Norse; the German *Mutter* and the English *mother* have developed from the Old High German *muother* and the Anglo-Saxon *modor* respectively. So modern equivalents of "mother", like the French *mere,* the German *Mutter* and the Spanish *madre* are cognates.

While dealing with the reconstruction of the Proto (Common) Indo-European language (Proto- applies only to the ancestral language as reconstructed by the comparative method) we can rely only on those cognates from the related languages whose origin from this language is supported by sound laws and general tendencies in the development of their meaning, and the possibility of chance can be ruled out.

One plain example of chance is the English *bad* and the Persian *bad,* both of which have the same meaning, though the words are not related in origin. With a slight shift of sound, we have the Italian *donna* and the Japanese *onna,* both of which mean "woman", or the Russian *khor6shiy* and the Japanese *yoroshii,* both of which mean "good".

Vocabulary is therefore a very shaky criterion on which to base language kinship, though it may be observed that there are certain basic words, like names of family relationships and numerals, which are hardly ever borrowed. Numerals are especially reliable in obtaining information about the close genetic kinship of certain languages within a linguistic group. This may be seen from the following scheme:

Indo-European languages

Numeral	Sanskrit	Slavonic	Greek	Latin	German (Gothic)
2	Dvau	D(u)va	Dyo Treis	Duo	Twai
3 4	Trayas	Tri	Tettares	Tres	Threis
10	Catvaras	Cetyre	Deka	Quattuor	Fidwor
100	Dasa Satam	Desatb	He-katon	December	Taihun
		Sbto		Centum	Hund

We can be certain that words similar in form are cognates if they express material phenomena Ii ke "night", "star", "snow", "wind", "thunder": animals like "hound", "goat", "ox", "steer"; parts of a house like "door", "timber"; parts of the human body like "ear", "tooth", "heart", "foot"; and most significant of all, words

which express family relationships like "father", "mother", brother" and "sister", The following chart illustrates this:

Modern English	Sanskrit	Slavonic	Greek	Latin	German (Gothic)
Father	Pitar		Pater Meter	Pater	Fadar
Mother	Matar	mati	Phrator	Mater	Modar
brother	Bhratar	bray(r)b	Thygater	Frater	Brother
daughter	Duhitar	dbshti			dauhtar

But mere coincidences of related words are not enough to prove .their close kinship. Jones pointed outlast long ago as 1786 that grammatical forms had to be taken into consideration because only resemblances in the grammatical forms and the meaning expressed by them are absolutely reliable. If the same grammatical meanings are expressed in the same grammatical forms in the compared languages, we can be sure of their close relationship. Take, for instance, the verb "to take" in related languages, in the form "they take":

Russian	Old Slavonic	Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Gothic
berut	berot	bharanti	pheronti	ferunt	bairand

This example shows that the endings *-ut, -Qt, -anti, -onti, -unt, -and* are equivalent and come from the same source.

The importance of grammatical criteria is that words can be borrowed, but grammatical forms cannot.

As far as the meaning of the reconstructed words is concerned, they need not coincide exactly; they can diverge according to the laws of polysemy, as the following example shows:

Sanskrit	Kravis	*Russian*	Krov'
Greek	Kreas	*Old High German*	Hreo
Latin	Cruor	*Anglo-Saxon*	Hra
Lithuanian	Kraujas	*English*	raw
Old Slavonic	Krbvb		

On the basis of these forms, it can be assumed that in the Indo-European parent language there was a root *"kreu" which could assume different, though related, meanings ht all these languages: "blood" in Russian, "meat" in Greek, "raw" in English.

Correct reconstruction helps us to understand the real etymology of words. We can confidently reconstruct the words in the parent language for "brother" and "sister" as *bhriiter and *s{jeso(r). In the former, the first element bhrii-was a gradational variant of the verbal root *bher-"to bear", "to carry". The second morpheme was, of course, the same -ter as in *pa-ter. In *s{je-sor the first component was the reflexive element meaning "one's own", and the second signified "female", seen also in Latin uxor or uksor "wife".

These short excursions into etymology should be enough to show the fascination of this research.

Engels appreciated the importance of the comparative method in the study of languages. He showed that "substance and form of one's own language, however, only became intelligible when their origin and gradual evolution are traced, and this cannot be done without taking into account, first, their own extinct forms, and secondly, allied languages, both living and dead."

This important statement is of great significance for a proper understanding of the essence of the comparative method in linguistics. This method has been justified by discoveries made in the 19th century. On the basis of the comparative method it was suggested that the Latin nouns ager "tillage", and sacer "sacred" originated from the reconstructed forms *agros and *sakros. In 1899 a document was found in Rome dating from the 6th century A. D. in which the suggested form sakros was found.

Some original forms calculated by eminent linguists in the 19th century by comparative method were discovered in the Hittite language in the north east of Asia Minor at Boghazkoy on the site of the prehistoric capital Hattusas, about eighty miles east of Ankara. Some cuneiform tablets in the Hittite language, discovered in Boghazkoy in Asia Minor, were translated by the Czechoslovak scholar Bedrich Hrozny in December, 1915, who proved its linguistic affinity with Indo-European. A revolution was also affected in early Greek studies by the discovery in 1939 of clay tablets at Pylos in Messenia which were deciphered by Michael Ventris in 1952. This meant putting back the beginning of recorded Greek to a time long before Homer, perhaps as early as 1500 B. C.

It was suggested long ago with the help of the comparative method that the Greek words aichme "spear" and artoko6pos "baker" arose from the forms *aiksmii and *artopokwos. This was confirmed by the recently deciphered Krito-Micenian inscriptions.

The comparative method has been thoroughly applied to the reconstruction of Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Romance, Proto-Germanic, Proto-Celtic, and Proto-Slavonic. Rather Less thorough use of the method has been made in reconstructing Proto-Semitic, Proto-Finno-Ugric, and Proto-Bantu. Work is well under way on the Malayo-Polynesian languages, Algonquian, and several other groups.

As we have stated, the comparison of languages which are believed to have been dialects of one language in the past, is done by what is known as the comparative method.

There is, however, another method of reconstructing the previous stages of a language when neither older texts nor related languages are known. A suitable term for this method is internal reconstruction, the theoretical foundation of which lies partly in synchronic, partly in diachronic linguistics. Synchronic linguistics (from the Greek *syn* "wi th" and *chronos* "time", IE. simultaneity) deals with the study of language at the present moment, while diachronic linguistics (from the Greek *dia* "through" and *chronos* "time", IE. of continuous time) concerns the study of language in its historical development.

In the last decade the method of glottochronology has sprung up, better known as the Lexicostatistic method, which envisages the measurement of linguistic change, particularly of the ages of language families without documented histories.

The basic premise of glottochronology is the fact that the basic vocabulary of human language tends to be replaced at a constant rate throughout its development. This approach is based on the principle stated by E. Sapir who said that the greater the degree of linguistic differentiation within the group, the greater was the period of time that must be assumed for the development of such differentiation.

If we could measure the degree of differentiation of two related languages, this would show the relative Length of time that they had been diverging from their common ancestor: it would be glottochronology (from Greek *glotta* "language" and *chronos* "time").

The glottochronological method involves three principle variables: the rate of retention, the period of time and the proportion of coinciding test list equivalents in two languages that are related.

The formula for finding the rate of retention is t=log c ^ log r in which *t=the* period of time between two stages of a language, c=the proportion of common forms, and *r=the* rate of retention. With this formula, it was found that the rate of retention is approximately 80 per cent per thousand years.

3-Mavzu: Roman-german tillari fonetik uziga xosligi
Lesson : Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages.

The Earliest Period of Germanic History. Proto-Germanic.

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language (also termed Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic and simply Germanic). PG is the linguistic ancestor or

the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th c. B.C. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community.

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

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

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. RC., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. In the 1st c. B.C. in COMMENTARIES ON THE GALLIC WAR (COM-MENTARII DE BELLO 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 *Herminones* in Pliny's list). In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications. The development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally PG split into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

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

East Germanic

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

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

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have Left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in place-names, which reveal

the directions of their migrations: *Bornholm* and *Burgundy* go back to the East Germanic tribe of *Burgundians; Andalusia* is derived from the tribal name *Vandals; Lombardy* got its name from the *Langobards,* who made part of the population of the Ostrogothic kingdom in North Italy.

North Germanic

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

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

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

colony up to the early 19th c. Consequently, both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish.

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

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

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

4 Mavzu: Roman-german tillari grammatik strukturasidagi uziga xosliklar
Lesson 4: General characteristics of the Germanic languages

THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGES

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

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

racial origin and language.

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

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

Indo- Iranian, which was later, subdivided into:

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

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

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

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

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

million people; and (c) Byelorussian (white Russian), spoken by 9 million people.

(2) Southern Slavonic which include: (a) Bulgarian, current mostly in Bulgaria among more than seven million people; (b) Serbo-Croatian, the language of the Serbs and Croats, about 12 million people, chiefly in Yugoslavia, whose oldest texts date from the 11th century; (c) Slovenian, spoken by 2 million people, with its oldest texts dating from the 1Oth century.

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

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

V. Germanic has three distinct groups:

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

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

(3) East Germanic which has Left no trace. The only representative of this

group is Gothic, whose written records have been preserved in the fragmentary translation of the Bible by the bishop Ulfila. Some Gothic words spoken in the Crimea were collected there in the 16th century.

VI. Italo-Celtic with two large groups:

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

(2) Celtic, with its Gaelic sub-group, including Irish, which possessed one of the richest literatures in the Middle Ages from the 7th century, Scottish and the Briton subgroup with Breton, spoken by a million people in Brittany and Welsh, spoken in Wales.

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

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

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

Two main theories have been advanced concerning the break-up of the original

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

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

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

Schleicher's faults are typical of many books 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 Indo-European. From the point of view of vocabulary, for instance, Indo-Iranian shared with Baltic and Slavonic a considerable number of words which may be found only in these languages and they supply important clues of the connection between these two linguistic families: the Sanskrit word *suit* "to be bright, white" has its cognate in the Old Slavonic language in the form of *suitlti* "to dawn".

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

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

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

rather than Iranian traits.

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

5 Mavzu: Roman- german tillari lug'at boyligining o'ziga xosligi
Lesson 5: Vocabulary of Germanic Languages

GERMANIC ALPHABETS

Germanc 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, be-came 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 dis-advantages, 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 Germanc 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.

Glossary

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

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

6 Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi

Lesson 6. General information about German, English, Frisian, Afrikaans and other languages (4 hours)

Plan

1. The West Germanic
2. The German language
3. The English language
4. The Frisian language (Netherlandish)
5. The Afrikaans language
6. Other languages

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The German language

Danish was subject to the strongest external influence in the period 12001500. The North German language of the Hanseatic towns was able to spread because the area came to dominate the entire Nordic and Baltic area commercially and economically for several hundred years. There were large German-speaking population groups in the major Danish towns and Low German was not as different from the Nordic languages of that time as German is from contemporary Scandinavian languages. Therefore German could more easily influence Nordic. It is obvious from the vocabulary. The influence was partly direct, partly indirect, as most of the Romance and Classical loans have also been mediated through this language.

Many of the words are related to trade, crafts and urban life, but quite a few enter the core vocabulary, for instance *angst, Iykke, magt, blive, straks,* jo (fear, happiness, power, become, immediately, after all). Danish has adopted at Least *1/500* words from Middle Low German alone. After the Reformation *I* the import of loanwords from the south continued. German remained the main supplier, but High German, Luther's German, increasingly replaced low German as the source of influence. Easily recognisable are words with the prefixes geand *er-* such as *gespenst, gemen, erfare, erhverve* (ghost, viIE, Learnt obtain). Within crafts and trade, the flow of loan words continued and numerous ordinary words with no particular connection with a specific sphere were added: *billig, slynegl, flot, pludselig, munter,* etc (cheap, villain, smart, sudden, jolly). As in Germany, most designations of occupation at the new university in Copenhagen were Latin: *student, professor, magister.* Maritime terms were Low German or Dutch, for instance *matros, pynt, dcek, fartfiJj,* etc (able *seamanl* point, *deckl* vessel).

The English language

ENGLISH recently, Danish like most other European languages has been strongly influenced by English/American. The influence is particularly noticeable within areas such as science, technology, trade, advertising, sports, entertainment and politician journalism, but the English fingerprint on the vocabulary is still far smaller than the French, German and Classical. Nonetheless it is striking how rapid the influence has been. It is also characteristic that within certain scientific and educational *areas,* the mother tongue is being rejected in favor of English. In addition, large parts of the youth culture are influenced by English-language texts and loans from English/American.

Some even believe all neologisms within the vocabulary are English. This is by no means the case. English is the most dominant loan supplying language, but the lists of neologisms still contain more native constructions, especially new combinations of familiar elements *(lommeregner* for pocket calculator).

This selection of words introduced in the mid 1990s gives an impression of the types of neologisms: *Afrodansker, cd-rom-breender, du mmy, etisk regnskab, emaile, euro, mdevareminister, gren afgift, homebanke, light, netavis, poll, returntast, site* (Afro-Danel CD-ram bumerl *dummy* ethical *accountsl* emailingl *eurol* minister for food, green tax, home banking, light, internet newspaper, poll, return *key,* site).

The Frisian language (Netherlandish)

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

The Afrikaan Language

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.

Number of speakers (1988): 10 million.

Other languages. French and Italian

In the 17th and 18th century, the nobility introduced a number of French words such as *baron* and *respekt* (baron, respect), but this influence was also wide-ranging: *atelier, ku lisse, silhuet, premiere, kon ku rrence, chef, direktfiJr, fabrik, industri, patru/je, korps, ammunition, korset, klinik, ambulance, karantame, bandage, kanyIE, dessert, souper, bouillon, bet kote/et, kompot, garderobe, toiIEt, alkove, salon, sekretcer, avis, redaktfiJr, journalist, annonce,* etc (studio, set, silhouette, premiere, competition, boss, director, factory, industry, patrol, corps, ammunition, corset, clinic, ambulanced quarantine, bandage, hypodermic needle, dessert, supper, bouillon, steak, cutlet, compote, wardrobe, *toilet* alcove, salon, secretary newspaper, editor, journalist, advertisement).

Italian loans include *fallit, inkasso, sa/do, konto, bankerot, andante, piano, cello* (ruinl debt collectionsl balancel account, bankruptcy, andante, *pianol* cello). Italian also provided *kartoffel* (potato).

Like the other European culture languages, Danish includes large contributions from Greek and Latin.

7 SHarqiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari
Lesson 7: East Germanic Languages. The Gothic language.

The Gothic language, now dead, was spoken by a group of Old Germanc 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 Visigoths, or West Goths. Another tribal union of the Goths, the Ost-rogoths, or East Goths, inhabited the Black Sea shores. For a time the Goths ruled a great kingdom north of the Danube river and the Black Sea. Then, in A.D. 315, the Huns, a savage people, swept into Europe from Asia. They conquered the Ostrogoths and forced the Visigoths to seek refuge across the Danube within the boundaries of the Roman Empire. In a battle fought near the city of Adrianople, in 378, the Visigoths defeated and slew Emperor Valens. For a time they lived peaceably on Roman territory. In 395 they rose in rebellion under their ambitious young king Alaric and overran a large part of the Eastern Empire. In 410 Rome fell into the hands of the Visigoths. Alaric led the attack.

Alaric's successors Led their people out of Italy and set up a powerful kingdom in Spain and southern Gaul. In the year 507 the Visigoths in Gaul were defeated by the Franks and were forced beyond the Pyrenees. For 200 years their kingdom in Spain flourished. It did not come to an end until 711, when the Moors crossed over from Africa and in a terrible eight-day battle destroyed the Visigothic kingdom. And that was the end of the Visigoths as an independent people. The Ostrogoths for a time formed part of the vast horde which followed the king of the Huns, Attila. They settled in the lands south of Vienna when the Hunnish kingdom fell apart. Their national hero was Theodoric the Great, a powerful and romantic figure who became king in 474. In 488 he invaded Italy.

Theodore's reign was one of the best but his kingdom was one of the great "might-have-beens" of history. He failed largely because no permanent union was affected between the barbarians and the Christian-Roman population. It was during his reign that many manuscripts of Gothic which have come down to us 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc languages as a whole. Later on, when written monuments of other Old Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc. 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 Germanc or probably when Old Germanc 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 Germanc group of the Germanc 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 Germanc languages (except for a handful of earlier runic inscriptions in Old Norse). Thus it sheds light on an older stage of a Germanc language and on the development of Germanc 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 Germanc but has major differences from other known Germanc 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 Germanc 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 **Germanc 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 Germanc (eg bird: *"fug/s"* is an a-stem, cf the Primitive Germanc 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 Germanc.

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 Germanc 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.

- 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 Germanc languages.

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

- **active** and **passive**: there are active and passive verb forms except for the passive preterite which is expressed by means of a different verb *(wisan =* 'to be' or *wairpan =* 'become') and a perfect participle (eg *daupips* was = 'he was baptised'). Here we can see the beginnings of the development from a synthetic to an analytical language, which is typical of all West-Germanc languages. (see also Middle Dutch verbs). The principal developments from a language state with these features to the modern West-Germanc 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.

8 SHimoliy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari

TheNorth Germanic languages. General information about Icelandic, Norwegian, Faroese, Danish and Swedish languages (4 hours)

Plan
1.   The North Germanic
2.   The Icelandic Language
3.   The Norwegian Language
4.   The Faroese language
5.   The Danish Language
6.   The Swedish language

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

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

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

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

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

At the present time the two varieties tend to fuse into a single form of language *nynorsk* ("New Norwegian").

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

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

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

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

Old Icelandic written records date from the 12th and 13th c., an age of literary flourishing. The most important records are: the ELDER EDDA (also called the POETIC EDDA) - a collections of heroic songs of the 12th c., the

YOUNGER (PROSE) EDDA (a text-book for poets compiled by Snorri Sturluson in the early 13th c.) and the Old Icelandic sagas.

The Icelandic Language

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

2. The origin of the Icelandic language. Iceland was settled in the period A.D. 870-930. Most of the settlers came from Norway, especially Western Norway, a few of them from Sweden and some from the British Isles, including Ireland. The language, which came to prevail in Iceland, was that of the people of Western Norway. It is commonly agreed that a considerable part of the immigrants was of Celtic stock (estimates, based partly on physical-anthropological studies, vary from 10 to 30 percent). However, the Icelandic language shows only insignificant traces of Celtic influence. The only evidence is a few Celtic loan words and a few personal names and place-names. Icelandic and Norwegian did not become markedly different until the fourteenth century. From then onwards the two languages became increasingly different. This was for the most part due to changes in the Norwegian language, which had in some cases begun earlier in Danish and Swedish, while Icelandic resisted change, no doubt thanks in part to the rich Icelandic literature of the 12th and following centuries. Resistance to change is one of the characteristics of the Icelandic language, which explains the fact that a twelfth century text is still easy to read for a modern Icelander. However, Icelandic has undergone considerable change in its phonetics. Another characteristic of the language is its uniformity, i.e. absence of dialects.

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

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

5. Icelandic in other countries. There are Icelandic language communities in North America. They came into being because of emigration from Iceland to Canada and the United States

in the last quarter of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries. The earliest of these settlements was established in Utah in 1855, but it was around 1870 that continuous emigration began. In 1870, a small Icelandic settlement was established on Washington Island in Lake Michigan. Later, an Icelandic settlement arose in North Dakota. In 1875, the first Icelandic settlement was established in Canada, on the Western shore of Lake Winnipeg ("New Ice-land"). Such settlements arose also in Alberta, Saskatchewan, and British Columbia. Until recently, tens of thousands of people in these areas still could speak the Icelandic language. For further details regarding the Icelandic language, see the publication Iceland 1986.

The Norwegian Language

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

These three characters are ^E(аз), 0 (0) and A(a) and they come in that order right after Z in the alphabet. They are pronounced as the vowels in "sad", "bird" and "four". Computer keyboards sold in Norway have three more keys than

Standard English keyboards, one extra key for each extra Letter.

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

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

Dano-Norwegian and New-Norwegian

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

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

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

• All school books printed in Norway must be published in both languages. .

• At least 25% of the programs shown on the broadcasting channel NRK must be in New Norwegian. This includes subtitling of movies, narrators, radio reporters etc.

• At Least 25% of all the official documents must be written in New-Norwegian. .

• All persons working in official positions must have command of both languages. A person who sends a Letter to say, the municipality, is entitled to get a reply in the same language that his Letter was written in.

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

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

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

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

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

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

During the beginning of the 20th century spelling reforms made the two languages more alike, and many words were accepted in both languages. A special arrangement was made: Some words could be spelt in several different ways (sola or solen). One way of spelling was made

compulsory for schools to teach and school book writers to use, and the other, a so-called bracket form, was allowed for everyone else to use as they wised. The students could freely choose the way of spelling that was closer to their dialect. Though the spelling and the words have changed a bit, this is still the reality in Norwegian schools today.

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

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

One result of the war was that the citizens united a bit more and finally agreed that both versions were just as "Norwegian" as the other (during the war all the illegal papers had been printed in Dano-Norwegian). In the early 1950s efforts were made to make *one* written language.

These linguistic rapprochements came to a sudden holt in 1952. That year many schools started using text books made after the radical spelling reform of '38. A lot of parents thought the reform ruined the language, and formed a protest. The parental protest began in the Oslo area and then spread to the rest of the country. Those who protested were mainly users of Dano-Norwegian. Close to 100,000 persons signed a petition against the '38-reform that year. The parents went further in their protest the year after: they corrected all their children's school books to the previous spelling standard.

The Faroese language

Faroese is a West Nordic or West Scandinavian <u>language</u> spoken by about 40,000 people in the <u>Faroe Islands.</u> It is one 01 insular <u>Scandinavian languages</u> (the other is <u>Icelandic), w</u>hich have their origins in the <u>Old Norse language</u> spoken in <u>Scandinavia</u> in the <u>Viking Age.</u>

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

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

In <u>1937, F</u>aroese replaced <u>Danish</u> as the official language of the Faroe Islands.

Faroese Nationalism and the Faroese language

The national awakening in the 19th century was a popular recognition of Faroese cultural traditions and language. The respect and attention the Faroese gave to their language and other cultural traditions can therefore have been said to be their way of enduring and expressing Faroese national identity. The struggle to keep the Faroese language alive is part of Faroese se identity and nationalism as it is predominantly through language and folk ballads that we sense an ongoing nationalism in the Faroe Islands.

Like the geographical position of the Faroe Islands, the Faroese language, as we know it today, is placed somewhere between Norwegian and Icelandic. The Faroese language is a West-Norse language, which in grammatical terms is closest to the Icelandic language, whilst the dialects are closer, related to the Norwegian language.

In the 15th century, the Faroese written language was more or Less the same as the Norwegian and Icelandic written language, the Faroese language did have some unique *word* formations that were not found in the Norwegian *nor* Icelandic language though. But after the Reformation (1540) the Danish language replaced the Faroese written language in all official purposes. In the school and the church, it was forbidden to speak Faroese, but otherwise the common-man never really replaced the Faroese vernacular with Danish. In the middle of the 19th

century Faroese once again became a written language, but due to the lack of national literature in the period after the Reformation a lot of different dialects had developed within the vernacular. This development made it difficult to go back to the old Faroese written language; hence, a new written language was therefore created which included aspects of all the different dialects.

During the three centuries where there was no official Faroese language, Faroese was only kept alive as a spoken language, which was mainly possible due to the long traditions of telling tales and singing folk ballads. During the long, dark and windy winter months, the few inhabitants in the different villages entertained each other by telling Legendary tales about their ancestors and other historical figures, and singing folk ballads while dancing the traditional Faroese ring-dance. All the villagers met these winter evenings, from the youngest to the oldest villager and all were eager to learn the tales and folk ballads by heart. When summer came and it was possible to travel to the other islands these tales and folk ballads were exchanged between the islanders. In this way both the younger and older generations throughout the country knew of the same tales and ballads and as these same stories and tales were continually told and sung, even after newer ones had been made, they were kept alive *for* centuries. A rich tradition of literature can therefore be said to have existed on the Faroe Islands even though it only existed as oral-literature. The tales and folk ballads still exist today in more or Less the same *form* as they did in the previewed period, because of the tradition of handing them down from generation to generation (till the more than 80.000 verses were finally written down in the 19th and 20th century). And as the theme of the tales and ballads are mostly of European tradition and the ballads composed in the 18th and 19th century about Faroese, Norwegian and Icelandic heroism, they serve as historical as well as cultural treasures. Undoubtedly the most important ballad ever written in the Faroe Islands is Fuglakvreoio (The Bird Ballad), which is about Danish government officials (personified as birds of prey) suppressing the Faroese people (personified as small birds). Written in the late eighteenth century, Fuglakvreoi is one of the first patriotic ballads written on the Faroe Islands where a sense of resentment towards administrative figures is traced. Fuglakvreoio was written by N6lsoyar-Pall who was a kind of ombudsman *for* the people against the government, in Fuglakvreoio he himself is personified as Tjaldur (Oystercatcher, the Faroese national bird).

National Romanticism in Europe eventually reached the Faroese and attention was once again given to the old folk ballads. In 1817 the Danish scholar RC. Lyngbye started to write down Faroese folk ballads and in 1822 Freroiske Qvreder om Sigurd Fofnersbane og hans jet was published.

In 1781, Liens Christian Svabo had started to collect old Faroese folk ballads, but due to ill fortune, he had to stop his work and he lived a humble life on a tiny government pension in T6rshavn. His magnificent piece of work was not fully printed until 1959 and only one of the ballads was printed in Svabo's lifetime - in 1814, in Swedish collections of folk poetry. This was the first time a Faroese text was printed. The first no~fist to write his ballads in Faroese was Jens Christian Djurhuus (1773), but these were not published until 1891. Tradjtionally Djurhuus' ball;iQSWere historical tales and only Learned by heart by the inhabitants. Djurhuus ballads Te to this day themosfpopularballads in the Faroe Islands. This is very much due to the language of the ballads, because even though they were written by the end ofthe 18th century the language was closely related to the spoken language and still is. It was not until 1854 that the first Faroese grammar was published. The father of the written language was V.U. Hammershaimb (1819*1909)* and in spite of the age differences between him and Djurhuus their relationship was close and very much based on their common interest in the Faroese language and folk ballads. This of course might be one of the reasons why the language in Djurhuus' ballads is so close to the present-day language of the Faroe Islands.

The oldest literature of most of the European nations is folk ballads and tales. According to Johann Gottfried Herder (1744-1803), a German theologian/philosopher, these ballads and tales represent the most truthful and deepest feelings in people's spiritual inheritance. Herder's philosophy inspired patriotic feelings among people, and collections of folk ballads flourished

especially in Scandinavia and Germany. It was very much Herder's Romanticism that inspired the Faroese to collect all the different tales and ballads into written literature.

A century after the French Revolution, we see the first actual national movement succeed in the Faroe Islands. F0foyinga felagio (The Faroese fellowship) was founded in January 1889 with the purpose to: (1) Bring the Faroese language to honor and recognition; (2) unite the Faroese people and further their competence in all things to enable them to provide *for* themselves. Evidently, the Faroese put much of their identity in their 1anguage, as the first lines of this praise to the 1anguage shows. This song was made in 1878 by Friorikur Petersen, and was reprinted in the only newspaper in the Faroe Islands at that time, Dimmalretting, in connection with the foundation of Foroyinga felagio.

What can touch the heartstrings? What can strengthen boys? The mother tongue - Hvat kann teg i sorgum troysta? Hvat kann tendra gleoisneista? Tao er m60urmal.

What can comfort you in your sorrows? What can light your glimmer of joy?

The mother tongue Even though the Faroese had yearned for a written language for centuries the publication of Hammershaimb's grammar did not come into being without problems as not all inhabitants agreed with his structure of the language. Jacob Jacobsen (1874-1918) was one of Hammershaimb's opponents; he thought that Hammershaimb's spelling was too complicated whereas his own version was more true to the spoken language. A "spelling-contest" began between the supporters of the two versions but eventually Jakobsen conceded to Hammershaimb's version and around 1900 Hammershaimb's grammar was accepted as the Faroese grammar. Despite the publication of the grammar in 1854, the Faroese language was not acknowledged as the official language of the Faroe Islands until 1937.

The Danish Language

Denmark has joined the EU internal market - with the intensified exchange of goods and services which followed in the wake. As far as language is concerned, the idea has largely been realized throughout the thousand years Danish has existed as separate from all other languages in the Nordic countries. Danish has adopted words from other languages, especially European ones, and Danish is itself a manifestation of a Nordic, Germanic and Indo-European speech community.

The Germanic languages differed from the other Indo-European languages by a series of special developments within vocalism, consonantism and stress (dynamic accent). Today, 500 million people have Germanic languages as their mother tongue and far more master another (generally English) as well. They include the languages Afrikaans Danish, English, Frisian, Faeroese, Icelandic, Dutch (with Flemish), Norwegian, Swedish and German.

The history of the Danish language can be traced back for more than 1,000 years. However, the Letters aʒ, 0 and a, which many regard as characteristic of Danish, were only introduced later; for instance a did not enter official orthography
until 1948.

The Swedish language

The national language of Sweden is Swedish. It is the native tongue of some 90 per cent of the country's almost 9 million

Swedish is a language spoken in Sweden and England. Swedish is one of the Scandinavian languages, a sub-group of the Germanic group of the Indo-European language family.

History

Swedish is closely related to, and often mutually intelligible with, Danish and Norwegian. All three diverged from Old Norse about a millennium ago and were strongly influenced by Low German. Swedish, Danish and Norwegian Bokmal are all considered East Scandinavian languages; Swedes usually find it easier to understand Norwegian than Danish. But even if a Swede finds it difficult to understand a Dane it is not necessarily the other way around.

Geographic distribution

Swedish is the national language of Sweden, mother tongue for the Sweden-born inhabitants (7,881,000) and acquired by nearly all immigrants (1,028,000) (figures according to official statistics for 2001).

Swedish is the language of the Aland Islands, an autonomous province under the sovereignty of Finland. In mainland Fin] however, Swedish is mother tongue for only a minority of the Finns, or about six percent. The Finnish-Swedish minority is concentrated in some coastal areas of southern and southwestern Finland, where they form a local major some communities.

In Estonia, the small remaining Swedish community was very well treated between the first and second world wars. Municipalities with a Swedish majority, mainly found along the coast, had Swedish as the administrative language and Swedish-Estonian culture experienced an upswing.

There is considerable migration (labor and other) between the Nordic countries but due to the similarity between the languages and culture expatriates generally assimilate quickly and do not stand out as a group. (Note: Finland is, strictly speaking, not a Scandinavian country. It does, however, belong to the so called *Nordic countries* together with Iceland and Scandinavian countries.)

Official status

Swedish is the de facto national language of Sweden, but it does not hold the status of an official language there.

In Finland, both Swedish and Finnish are official languages. Swedish had been the language of government in Finland for 700 years, when in 1892 Finnish was given equal status with Swedish, following Russian determination to isolate the Gra Duchy from Sweden. Today about 290,000, or 5.6% of the total population are Swedish speakers according to official status for 2002. In Finnish, Swedish is officially referred to as the *other domestic language,* or *toinen kotimainen kieli,* that since educational reform in the 1970s has been a compulsory subject for pupils with Finnish mother tongue mandatory in the examinations. The introduction of mandatory education in Swedish in schools was seen as a step to avoid further Finlandization Pupils with Swedish mother tongue like wisely study the *other domestic language* Finnish in Mainland Finland.

Swedish is the official language of the small autonomous territory of the Aland Islands, under sovereignty of Finland, protected by international treaties and Finnish laws. In contrast to the mainland of Finland the Aland Islands are monolingual- Finland has no official status.

Swedish is also an official language of the European Union.

MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI

Mustaqil ishni tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni

Mustaqil ishga ajratilgan mavzularni o'rganishning asosiy maqsadi mavzular bo'yicha ishlash jarayonida auditoriyada olib borilgan ma`ruzalar va amaliy mashg'ulotlar paytida talabalarda xosil bo'lgan tasavvur, bilim, malaka va ko'nikmalarni yanada chuqurlashtirish, talabalarni yangi bilimlar to'plash, mustaqil xulosa chiqarish va ingliz tili grammatik tizimida uchraydigan innovatsion xodisalar xaqida turli ilmiy-amaliy farazlarni olg'a surishga o'rgatishdir. Talabalarning mustaqil ishlari ma`lum mavzular bo'yicha mustaqil tadqiqotlar o'tkazish natijasida taxlil qilinayotgan grammatik xodisa va strukuralarga mantiqiy asoslangan funktsional tavsif bera olishga o'rgatadi. Mustaqil ishlarning natijalari mavzu bo'yicha annotatsiya, referat, ma`ruza, tezislar, kurs ishlari, konspekt, retsenziya shaklida rasmiylashtirilishi mumkin.

1	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy boskichlari	2
2	Garbiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	2
3	SHimoliy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	2
4	Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi	4
5	SHarkiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	4
6	Roman- german tillari lugat boyligining uziga xosligi	4
7	Roman-german tillari fonetik uziga xosligi	4
8	Roman /German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan urni	2
9	Roman -german tillari tarakkiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy vokealari.	2
10	Maxalliy shevalarning saklanib kolishi va ularning ijtimoiy kurinishlari	2
	Jami	28

GLOSSARIY

GLOSSARY for the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"

ablaut. The process of inflecting a verb by changing its vowel: *sing-sang—sung*.

adjective. The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a property or state; *the BIU BAD wolf: wo HOT.*

adverb. The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to the manner or time of an action: *tread SOFTLY, BOLDLY go; He will leave SOON.*

affix. A prefix or suffix.

agrammatism. A symptom of aphasia in which the patient has trouble producing well formed words and grammatical sentences, and trouble understanding sentences whose meanings depend on their syntax, such as *The Jog was tickled by the cat*

agreement. The process in which a verb is altered to match the number, person, and gender of its subject or object: *He* S.WEM.S (not *SMELL)* versus *They SMELL* (not *SMLLLS).*

anomia. A symptom of aphasia in which the patient has difficulty retrieving or recognizing words.

aphasia. A family of syndromes in which a person suffers a loss or impairment of language abilities following damage to the brain

Aristotelian category. See **Classical** category

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

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

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

back-formation. The process of extracting a simple word from a complex word that was not originally derived from the simple word *to bartend* (from *bartender), to burgle* (from *burglar).*

bahuvrihi. A headless compound that refers to someone by what he lias or does rather than by what he is. *flatjoot. four-eyes, cutthroat.*

behaviorism. A school of psychology, influential from the 1920s to the 1960s, that reiected the study of the mind as unscientific, and sought to explain lobe behavior of organisms (including humans[1] with laws of stimulus-response conditioning Usually associated with the psychologist B. F. Skinner

blocking. The principle that lorbids a rule to apply to a word if the word already has a corresponding irregular form, f-or example, the existence of *came* blocks a rule from adding *-ed* (o *come,* thereby preempting *corned.*

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

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

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

case. A distinction among noun forms corresponding approximately to the distinction among subjects, objects, indirect objects, and the objects o! prepositions In English it is the difference between / and *me. he* and *him.* and so on

CAT scan. Computerized Axial Tomography. The construction of a cross-sectional picture of the brain r>r bodv from a set of X-ray data**.**

central sulcus. The groove in the brain that separates the frontal lobe from the parietal lobe, also called the Central fissure and the Rolandic fissure

ChilDES. The Child Language Data Exchange System. A computer database of transcripts of children s speech (http://childespsv.cmu edu/childesi, developed by the psycholinguists Brian MacVVhinney and Catherine Snow.

classical category. Л category with well-specified conditions of membership, such as odd number' or "President of the United States.'

coda. The consonants at the end of a syllable, *task, ромр*

cognitive neuroscience. The study ot how cognitive processes ilanguage, memory, perception, reasoning, action* are carried out by the brain.

cognate. A word that resembles a word in another language because the two words descended from a single word in an ancestral language, or because one language nriginalK borrowed the word from the other.

collocation. Л string ol words commonly used together: *excruciating fain: in the line of fire-*

compound. A word formed b\ joining two words together: *blackbird, babysitter*

conjugation. The process of inflecting a verb, or the set of the inflected forms of a verb *quack, quacks quacked, quacking.*

connectionism. A school of cognitive psychology that models cognitive processes with simple neural networks subjected to extensive training. Much, but not all. of contemporary connectionism is a form of associationism

consonant. A phoneme produced w ith a blockage or constriction of the vocal tract.

conversion. The process of deriving ,1 new word by changing the part-of-speech category of an old word: *an impact* (noun) -» *to impact* (verb): *to read* (verb) —> *a good read* (nouni.

cortex. The surface of the cerebral hemispheres of the brain, visible as gray matter, containing the bodies of neurons and their synapses with other neurons; the mam site of neural computation underlying the higher cognitive, perceptual, and motor processes

declension. I he process ot inflecting a noun, or the set of the inflected forms of a noun: *duck, ducks*

default. The action taken in a circumstance that has no other action specified for it. For example, if you don't dial an area code before a telephone number, rhe local area code will be used as the default

derivation. The process of creating new words out of old ones, either by" affixation *ibreah + -able —» breakable: sing + -er —> singer),* or by compounding *[super + woman —> superwoman).*

determiner. The part-of-speech category comprising articles and similar words, *a. the. some, more. much. many.*

diphthong. A vowel consisting of iwo vowels pronounced in quick succession, *bite: lovd; тлке.*

Early Modern English. The English of Shakespeare and the King James Bible, spoken from around 1450 to I "00.

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

eponym. A noun derived from a name: *a* M.'fiOOG't; *a SHYLOCK.*

ERP. Event-related potential. An electrical signal given off by the brain in response to a stimulus such as a word or picture, measured by electrodes pasted to the scalp.

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

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

generative linguistics. The school of linguistics associated with Noam Chomsk) that attempts to discover the rules and principles that govern the form and meaning of words and sentences in a particular language and in human languages in general

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

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

grammar. A database, algorithm, protocol, or set of rules that governs the form and meaning of words and sentences in a language

MEG. Magnetoencephalography. The measurement of the magnetic signals give-'n off by the brain.

Middle English. The language spoken in England from shortly after the Norm.m invasion in 1066 to around the time of the Great Vowel Shift in the 1400s

Modern English- The variety of English spoken since the eighteenth century' See also **Early Modern English.**

mood. Whether a sentence is a statement, an imperative, or a subjunctive

morphemes. The smallest meaningful pieces into which words can be cut

morphology. The component of grammar that builds words out of pieces (morphemes). Morphology is often divided into inflection and derivation.

MRI. Magnetic Resonance Imaging Л technique that constructs pictures of cross-sections of the brain or body.

neural network. Л kind of computer model, loosely inspired by the brain, consisting of interconnected units that send signals to one another and turn on or off depending on the sum of their incoming signals. The connections have strengths that increase or decrease during a training process.

neurons. The information-processing cells of the nervous system, including brain cells and the cells whose axons (output fibers) make up the nerves and spinal cord.

neurotransmitter. A chemical that is released by a neuron at a synapse ami that excites or inhibits the other neuron at the synapse.

noun. The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a thing or person, *dog, cabbage. John, country:*

nucleus. The vowel or vowels at the heart of a syllable: *trAln; tAp.*

number. The distinction between singular and plural: *chipmunk* versus *chipmucks.*

Old English. The language spoken in England from around 450 to 1100. Also (.ailed Av>gw> Sawsn, aftet the ttshvs. speaking the Unguage that invaded BriVavn afOund 450

onset. The consonants *M* the beginning of a syllable: *STRing: PLay.*

participle. A form of the verb that cannot stand by itself, but needs to appear with an auxiliary or other verb: *He has tATEN* (perfect participle); *He was EATEN* (passive participle): *He is t.Mlxc.* (progressive participle).

part of speech, The syntactic category ot a word: noun, verb, adjective, preposition, adverb, conjunction passive. A construction in which the usual object appears as the subject, and the usual sub)ect is the object of the preposition in or absent altogether ! tens *robbed, hie litis* nibbled *to death by ducks.*

pattern associator memory. A common kind of neural network or connectiomst model consisting of a set of input units, a set of output units, and connections between even input unit and even,' output units, sometimes via one or more bidden layers of units Pattern associator memories are designed ю memorize the output-. for each of a set of inputs, and to generalize from similar inputs to similar outputs

perfect. Л verb form used for an action that has already been completed at the time the sentence is spoken: *John HAS EATEN.* See also **pluperfect.**

person. The distinction between / (first person), *you* (second person), and *he/she/it* i third person)

PET. Positron Emission Tomographv. A technique for constructing pictures of cross-sections of the brain or body in which areas with dilferent kinds or amounts ol metabolic activity are shown in different colors

phoneme. A vowel or consonant, one ol the units of sound corresponding roughly to the letters of the alphabet that are strung together to form a morpheme: *bat.beat-.st ou t.*

phonetics. How the sounds of language are articulated and perceived.

phonology. The component of grammar that determines the sound pattern of a language, including its inventory of phonemes, how they may be combined to form legitimate words, how the phonemes must be adjusted depending on their neighbors, and patterns of intonation, timing, and stress.

phrase. A group of words that behaves as a unit in a sentence and that typically has some coherent meaning: *in the dark, the man in the gray suit; dancing in the dark; afraid of thd wolf.*

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

pluralia tantum. Nouns that are always plural, such *as jeans, suJs,* and *the blues* The singular is *plurale tantum.*

psycholinguist. A scientist, usually a psychologist by training, who studies how' people understand, produce, or learn language.

predicate. A state, event, or relationship, usually involving one or more participants, often identified with **the verb phrase** of a sentence: *Tlie gerbil ATE I Hi- PEANUT.*

preposition. A part-of speech category comprising words that typically refer to a spa tial or temporal relationship: *in, on. near, by, for. under, before*

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

productivity. The ability to speak and understand new word forms or sentences, ones not previously heard or used.

progressive. A verb form that indicates an ongoing event. *He a HAVING his hands*

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

regular. See **irregular.**

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

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

umlaut. The process of shifting the pronunciation of a vowel toward the front of the mouth. In German, vowels "hat undergo umlaut ior that underwent it in earlier" historical periods) are indicated by two dots: *a, б, ŭ.* verb. The part-of-speeeh category comprising words that typically refer to an action c'" **state: *hit, break,* run.** *know ьеет*

Roman –german filologiyasi fanidan talabalar bilimini

BAHOLASH MEZONI

1. Joriy nazorat. 1.1 Amaliy mashg'ulot mavzulari yozma bayoni, talabalarning Amaliy mashg'ulotlariga tayyorgarligi tekshirilganda ulardan Amaliy mashg'ulot mavzusiga yozma ravishda tayyorgarlik so'raladi. Amaliy mashg'ulotga yozma tayyorgarlik ko'rishda talabalarning asosiy va qo'shimcha ma'lumotlardan foydalanganligi, internet ma'lumotlaridan foydalanganligi e'tiborga olinadi va har bir practical work yozma bayoniga talaba 2 ballgacha olishi mumkin. Bunda Amaliy mashg'ulot mavzusi rejasidagi to'rtta asosiy savolning yoritilishiga 0.5 balldan beriladi.

1.2 Amaliy mashg'ulot mavzulari og'zaki bayoni. Bunda talabalardan practical work mavzusini og'zaki tarzda bayon qilib berish so'raladi. Og'zaki bayon qilish davomida talabalarning ingliz tilidagi nutqi, ma'lumotlarning to'g'ri talqin qilinishi, adekvat bayoniga e'tibor qaratiladi. Og'zaki bayon qilib berishda talabaga 5 ta savol beriladi. Har bir savolga javob 0.5 ballga teng. Ya'ni talaba har bir Amaliy mashg'ulot og'zaki bayonida maksimal 2.5 ball olishi mumkin.

1.3 Talabalardan Amaliy mashg'ulot mashg'ulotlari davomida 1 ta test topshirig'ini bajarish so'raladi. Har bir test uchun talaba maksimal 4 ball olishi mumkin. Test topshiriqlari 40 ta muqobil javobga ega test savollariga javob berish so'raladi. Har bir to'g'ri javob 0.1 ballga teng.

1.4   Referat tayyorlash. Mashg'ulotlar davomida talabalardan referat tayyorlash so'raladi. Referat mavzusi Amaliy mashg'ulot mashg'ulotlarida o'rganilgan mavzu yuzasidan tayyorlanadi. Referat mavzusi talabalarga birinchi Amaliy mashg'ulotda beriladi. Referatning tayyorlanishiga ya'ni rasmiylashtirish qoidalariga amal qilinganligi, unga tayyorlangan taqdimotning mosligi va og'zaki tarzda himoya qilib berilishi baholanadi. Referatning rasmiylashtirilishiga maksimal 1 ball va himoyasi uchun maksimal 3 ball qo'yiladi. Agar talaba referat taqdimotini o'tkazishga tayyor bo'lmasa talabadan referat asosida 4 ta savolga javob berish so'raladi. Har bir to'g'ri javob maksimal 1 ballga teng.

2.   Oraliq nazorat. Oraliq nazorat yozma shakli 3 ta savoldan iborat bo'lib, har bir savolga berilgan yozma javobga talaba maksimal 5 ball olishi mumkin.

Har bir savol javobi uchun 5 balldan qo'yiladi. Har bir savolga berilgan javobdagi bitta xato 1 ballga teng.
ON olishda talabalardan shuningdek mustaqil ish topshirish ham so'raladi. Mustaqil ish sifatida ONga belgilangan mavzularni aytib berishga tayyorlab kelish so'raladi. Bunda og'zaki javobga maksimal 5 ball qo'yiladi.
3.   Yakuniy nazorat. Yakuniy nazorat 3 ta topshiriqdan iborat bo'lib, har bir topshiriq 5 tadan savolni o'z ichiga oladi. Yakuniy nazoratga maksimal 30 ball qo'yilishi mumkin.

Har bir topshiriq javobi uchun 10 balldan qo'yiladi. Har bir savolga berilgan javobdagi bitta xato 1 ballga teng. Bundan kelib chiqadiki, talaba savolga yozma javob berishda 4 xatoga yo'l qo'ysa, o'sha savolga berilgan javob 6 ball bilan baholanadi.

TARQATMA MATERIALLARCARD I
1. What is the purpose of this course?
2. Indo- European family of languages.
3. Give information about Germanic language group

CARD II
1. When was the Gothic language spoken?
2. Give information about Grimm's law.
3. The Austro-Asiatic Family of Languages

CARD III

1. Give information about Verner's law.
2. What can you tell about modern Germanic Languages?
3. The Dravidian Family of Languages

CARD IV
1. Why do we learn introduction of language philology?
2. Linguistic features of Germanic languages
3. The Afro-Asiatic Family of Languages

CARD V
1. Give information about Greek language group
2. What are Language Families?
3. The Malayo-Polynesian Family of Languages

CARD VI
1. Describe the linguistic situation in Britain before and after the Germanic settlement.
2. The Uralic language Family
3. Give information about Baltic language group

CARD VII
1. In what period did Germanic conquers come to Britain and what was happened?
2 The Altaic Family of Languages
3. Give information about Slavonic language group

CARD VIII
1. The Sino-Tibetan Family of Languages
2. Modern Germanic languages.
3. Give information about Iranian language group

CARD IX
1. The Niger-Congo Family of Languages
2. Give information about Indian language group
3. The Caucasian Family of Languages

CARD X
1. Give information about Italic language group
2. Describe the linguistic situation in Britain before and after the Germanic settlement.
3. Why do we learn introduction of language philology?

CARD XI
1. Give information about Greek language group

2. The Uralic language Family
3. Give information about Germanic language group

SAVOLNOMALAR

1. How many people speak English in the contemporary world?
2. Why is English sometimes spoken of as the "20th century Latin"?
3. In how many countries is English the official language?
4. What is the genealogical classification of languages?
5. Name the groups of the Indo-European family of languages.
6. Which languages make separate groups in the Indo-European family of languages?
7. Name the subgroups of the Germanic group of languages.
8. Which languages belong to the West Germanic subgroup?
9. Are the relations of languages based upon belonging of the nations speaking those languages to the same race?
10. Give the formulation of J.Grimm's law.
11. Explain the relation between the Russian word болото and English pool from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
12. Explain the relation between the Lithuanian word pirmas 'first' and English first from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
13. Explain the relation between the Latin word duo 'two' and English two from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
14. Explain the relation between the Russian word три and English three from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
15. Why is the Gothic language of special interest for linguists?
16. When did the English language originate?
17. Name the Celtic tribes that inhabited Britain before the Roman period.
18. Name the Germanic tribes on the dialects of which the English language was based?
19. How long did the Roman reign in Britain last?
20. Why did the Roman have to leave Britain in the 5th century?
21. How did the Roman colonization influence the language of the Celts?
22. Who described the Conquest of Britain by the Germanic tribes?
23. What group did the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes belong to?
24. What helped the formation of the English language on the basis of the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes?
25. What was the political situation in Britain after the Germanic Conquest?
26. Name the nine Germanic kingdoms which existed on the territory of Britain in the 6th century.
27. Which kingdom had the dominating position in the 7th century?
28. Which was the most powerful kingdom in Britain in the 8th century?
29. Explain the meaning of "Danelaw".
30. When did the Scandinavian invasions begin?
31. How long did Britain remain a part of the Danish Empire?
32. Who became the king of England after the fall of the Danish power?
33. When was the Anglo-Saxon power restored?

34. Name the periods of the history of the English language.
35. Calculate which is the shortest and which is the longest period in the history of the English language.
36. What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?
37. Name the most important Old English literary documents.
38. What did the letters of the Runic alphabet look like?
39. What is "Beowulf"?
40. Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?
41. How many vowel monophthongs were there in Old English?
42. What does it mean when we say that the Old English system of vowels was symmetric?
43. Explain the fact that in Old English texts we come across such spelling variants as man -mon, land - lond, etc.?
44. How many diphthongs were there in Old English phonetic structure? Name them.
45. Give the definition of ablaut.
46. Write out the four basic forms of the verb writan 'to write'.
47. Give the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives strong, long, eald in Old English. Explain them.
48. Is there historic relation between the modern words road and to ride?
49. Name the nine principal phonetic changes that took place in Old English.
50. What is the Old English fracture?
51. Explain the change *herte > heorte.
52. Explain what is diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonant.
53. Explain the change *scacan > sceacan.
54. Explain the change *scamu > sceamu.
55. Explain the change *scort > sceort.
56. What is umlaut?
57. Explain the change *sandian > sendan.
58. Explain the change *wopian > wepan.
59. Explain the change *fullian > fyllan.
60. What is velar umlaut?
61. Explain the change *slahan > sleon.
62. Explain the change *sehan > seon.
63. Explain the change *tihan > teon.
64. Explain the change *fohan > fon.
65. Explain what is lengthening of vowels before the homorganic clusters.
66. Why do you think the root vowels in modern forms child and children differ?
67. In what instances did voicing and unvoicing of fricatives take place?
68. In what positions did the palatalization of [k'] take place?
69. In what positions did the palatalization of [sk'] take place?
70. Explain the change cild > child.
71. Explain the change scip > ship.
72. What is metathesis?

73. Explain the change yrnan > rynnan.
74. Explain the change ascian > axian.
75. What is the assimilation of consonants?
76. Explain the change wiste > wisse.
77. Explain the change wifman > wimman.
78. What sounds did the letter F denote in Old English?
79. How were the interdental consonants denoted in Old English?
80. Why do you think the letter Z was not used in Old English?
81. How many words were there in the Old English lexicon according to Professor A.I.S-mirnitsky's evaluation?
82. Name the three main principles of the classification of the lexicon.
83. What is the morphological classification of the lexicon?
84. What is the stylistic classification of the lexicon?
85. What is the etymological classification of the lexicon?
86. Give five examples of simple words in Old English.
87. Give five examples of derivative words in Old English.
88. Produce the morphological analysis of the word mycelheafdede.
89. Give five examples of stylistically marked words in Old English.
90. Why is important to look for parallels of Old English words in other Germanic or Indo-European languages?
91. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Indo-European lexicon.
92. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Germanic lexicon.
93. Give three examples of words belonging to the specific English lexicon.
94. Give ten examples of borrowed words in Old English.
95. What is the Comparative-Historic Method?
96. Why is it impossible to rely upon the outer similarity in establishing the genetic relations between words?
97. What confirms that the English word first, Russian первый and Lithuanian pirmas belong to the same Indo-European root?
98. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word stella?
99. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word mater?
100.   What is the correspondence of the Old English word hand in other Germanic languages?
101.   What is the correspondence of the Old English word stan in other Germanic languages?
102.   What is the correspondence of the Old English word word in other Germanic lan-guages/
103.   What is the origin of the word lord?
104.   What were the three layers of Latin borrowings in Old English?
105.   Why were there Latin words in the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes before they conquered Britain?
106.   What is the origin of the word street?
107.   What is the origin of the word cheese?

108. What is the origin of the word kettle?
109. What is the origin of the word sack?
110. Give five examples of English geographical names with the Latin element castra?
111. What is the origin of the word angel?
112. What is the origin of the word devil?
113. What is the origin of the word bishop?
114. What is a loan translation?
115. Compare the structure of the word 'Monday' in Old English and Latin.
116. Compare the structure of the word 'Friday' in Old English and Latin.
117. Give three examples of Celtic borrowings in English.
118. Analyze the morphological structure of the Old English word fiscere?
119. What is the origin of the word darling?
120. What is the origin of the word childhood?
121. What does it mean when the English language is qualified as predominantly analytical?
122. What was the grammatical structure of Old English: predominantly analytical or predominantly synthetic?
123. How are the phonetic changes in English connected with the development of grammar?
124. What grammatical categories had the noun in Old English?
125. What types of declension had the noun in Old English?
126. What gender could be the nouns of a-stem in Old English?
127. What gender could be the nouns of consonant stem in Old English?
128. What was the inflection of the Dative case plural with most nouns in Old English?
129. Decline the noun scip.
130. Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the o-stem with a short and long root vowel
131. Decline the noun hyll.
132. Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the masculine and feminine gender of the i-stem.
133. Which case forms had the same inflections in the u-stem declension?
134. Decline the noun sunu.
135. Decline the noun duru.
136. What genders could be the nouns with the n-stem?
137. Compare the inflections of the nouns of the masculine, neuter and feminine gender with the n-stem in the Nominative and Accusative case singular.
138. Decline the noun man.
139. What was the peculiarity of the root declension in Old English?

TESTLAR

1-variant

1. How was the evolution of English made up?
A) according to diverse facts and processes
B) only according to diverse matters
C) according to political events in the history
D) according to the growth of literature

2. What language group does English belong to?
A) Persian group
B) Slovanian group
C) Romance group
D) Germanic or Teutonic group

3. How many are the Germanic languages in the modern world?
A) 5
B) 10
C) 11
D) 12

4. What language was an entirely pre-historical for Germanic tribes?
A) Proto-Germanic
B) English
C) German
D) Danish

5. Who was the changes of consonants identified by in the early 19 th c.?
A) by R. Jakobson
B) by J. Grimm
C) by C. Verner
D) by D. Bolonger

6. Choose a correct answer of Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)?
A) t → Ɵ > æ,d: pater; OE. f æder; NE father
B) e → I, e: L. ventus; R. ветер; NE Wind
C) u → u, o: Alt. hurnan; OE hotn; NE horn
D) a: → o: L. mater, R. мать; OE moder; NE mother

7. In the early periods of history the grammatical forms were built in the synthetic way:
A) by means of inflections
B) by means of sound inter changes and suppletion
C) by means of inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion
D) by no means

8. Which of the following pronouns are non-Germanic?
A) Fr. Je ; R. я.
B) Gt. Ik
C) O Icel ek
D) OE. Ic; NE I

9. What is vowel gradation or ablaut?
A) The earliest set of vowel interchange
B) The earliest set of vowel interchanges
C) Ablaut is connected vowel interchange with phonetic conditions
D) The modern set of consonant interchanges

10. What is the difference between Strong and Weak verbs?
A) there is no any difference between them;
B) Strong verbs had not preserved any richness of form
C) Weak verbs, beutt their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges and certain grammatical endings
D) Weak verbs had lacking richness variety of form

11. When was the history of English begun?
A) with the invasion the British Ises by Germanic tribes in the 5 th c.-l
B) with the Scandinavian invasions of the Brithish Iskes since the 8 th c.-l
C) with the Norman Conquest in the 11 th c.
D) with geographical expansion of the English language from the 17 th to 19 th c.

12. What tribs invaded the British Iskes?
A) the Saxons and the Jutes
B) the Angles and the Jutes
C) the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes
D) the Saxons, the Jutes and the Cells

13. What OE dialects were existed in the history?
A) Kentish and West Saxon
B) Kentish, West Saxon, Mercian and Northumbrian
C) West Saxon, Mercian and Nordhumbrian
D) Mercian and West Saxon

14. How was the earliest alphabet in Old English called?
A) the Runes
B) there was no name of the alphabet
C) Symbolic
D) the runes and the Latin alphabet

15. How many the conventional periods is English history mainly based on?
A) three periods: Old English, Middle English, New English
B) two periods: Old English, New English
C) four periods: Early Old English, Old English, Middle English, New English

16. How long did the Roman occupation of Britain last?
A) nearly 200 years
B) nearly 100 years
C) nearly 400 years
D) nearly 500 years

17. Choose the right form of spletting of [a] and [a:] in Early Old English?
A) Gothic: Pata; OE p æt; NE that
B) Gothic: Stains; OE stan; NE stone
C) Gothic: alls; OE eall; NE all

18. What is Palatal Mutation in Old English?
A) Mutation could also be caused by preceding consonants
B) Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable
C) The organs of speech prepared themselves for the transition from one sound to the other
D) After the palatal consonants [k'], [sk'] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs

19. What is hardening in OE?
A) Proto-Germanic [z] underwent a Phonetic modification of [z] into [r] and became a sonorant
B) The proto-Germanic voiced friatives [æ], [v], [y] whe hardened to [d], [b], [q]
C) Only the two fricatives [v] and [y] were hardened to [b] and [g]
D) Voiceless fricative consonates became voiced

20. What is rhotacism?
A) Rhotacism is Palatalisation and Splitting of velar consonants
B) Rhotacism is loss of Consonants in some Positions
C) -
D) Proto-Germanic [z] underwent a Phonetic modification of [z] into [r] and became a sonorant
E) Voiceless fricative consonants became voiced

21. Choose the correct form of rhotacism?
A) Gothic: maiza; OE mara; NE more
B) Gothic: kaus; OE ceas; NE chose
C) Gothic: guma; OE зима; NE man

22. Which word in each pair could go back to an OE prototype with Palatal mutation?
A) barms-bearm (NE chest); deaf-daauf (NE deaf)
B) heofon-heaven; hæfde-had
C) maiza-mara (NE more)
D) old-elder; strong-strengthen; man-men

23. What nominal grammatical categories were there in OE?
A) number, case, gender, degrees of comparison
B) number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, the category of definiteness/indefiniteness
C) number, case, gender, the category of definiteness /indefiniteness
D) number, gender, degree of comporison

24. How many cases did the noun in OE have?
A) Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative
B) Nominative, Genitive, Dative
C) Nominative, Genitive, Accusative
D) Nominative, Accusative

25. What classes did OE pronouns fall roughly?
A) personal, indefinite, relative and possessive
B) personal, demonstrative and reflexive
C) personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite
D) personal, demonstrative and indefinite

2-variant
1. How many persons number and genders existed in OE Personal Pronouns?

A) 3 persons, 3 numbers in the 1st and 2 nd persons (two numbers in the 3 rd person) and 3 genders in the 3 rd person
B) 3 persons, 3 numbers and 3 genders in the 3 rd person
C) 2 persons, 3 numbers and 4 genders in the 3rd person
D) 3 persons, 2 numbers and 3 genders in the 3 rd person

2. Choose a demonstrative pronoun of Femininegender?
A) se,se
B) seo
C) pæt
D) pa

3. Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. What is the difference between these two kinds of declensions?
A) The difference is according to gender of adjectives
B) It dependson case in adjectives
C) It dependson number
D) According to their origin and the use of several stemforming suffixes

4. What means form-building did comparison of adjectives in OE include?
A) Suffixation and supplethon
B) Suffixation plus vowel interchange and Suppletion
C) Suffixation, Suffixation plus vowel interchange, Suppletion
D) There was no means of form-building except one which was Suffixation

5. What kinds Morphological Classification were Old English Verbs based on to be divided
A) Strong (7 classes with different gradation series); weak (3 classes with different stem-suffixes); Minor groups (Preterite-presents, Suppletive, Anomalous)
B) Strong (7 classes with different gradation series); Weak (3 classes with different stem-suffixes)
C) Strong (7 classes with different gradation series); Minor groups (Preterite-presents, Suppletive, Anomalous)
D) Weak (3classes with different stem-suffexes) Minor groups (Preterite-presents, Suppletive, Anomalous); Less- Strong (6 classes with different gradation series)

6. Choose a correct form of Strong verbs in Infinitive?
A) locian (NE look); deman (NE deem)
B) writan (NE write); findan (NE find)
C) tellan (NE tell); pyncan (NE think)
D) helpan (NE help); cepan (NE keep)

7. Was the OE vocabulary Germanic?
A) The OE vocabulary was almost Romance
B) The OE vocabulary built up on a great deal of borrowings
C) NO, The OE vocabulary wasnot Germanic
D) Yes, The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic

8. Haw many and what etymological layers can native OE words be subdivided?
A) They are 3: common Indo-European words, common Germanic words, specifically OE words
B) They are 2: common Indo-European words, common Germanic words
C) Native OE words arenot subdivided
D) Native OE words belong to one layer that are specifically OE words

9. Borrowings are very few in OE vocabulary. Which of the following words belong to borrowings from Celtic?
A) hand, sand, fox
B) word, smæl, we
C) Devon-port, Lich-field, Canter-bury
D) brid (NE bird), Wib (NE wife), man

10 What language did the words connected with trade and units of measurement and containers come from?
A) from Latin
B) from Celtic
C) from French
D) from Spanish

11. Which of the words take negative prefixes?
A) unzeboren, for-sip, un-dæd
B) unspediz, on-zytan, weorgan
C) unhae, wisdom, mislician
D) ze-boren, sip, spediz

12. What period was feudalism well established?
A) in late Old English, in the 7 th century
B) in late Middle English, in the 14 th century
C) in Early Middle English, in the 11 th century
D) in late Middle English, in the 15 th century

13. In what period the differences between the regional dialects grow?
A) in late Old English
B) in Early Middle English
C) in late Middle English
D) in Early New English

14. What effect on the language is particularly apparent in Middle English since the 8 th century?
A) The Germanic invasions
B) The Roman Empire
C) The Norman Conquest
D) The Scandinavian invasions

15. Which of the following words bear names of Scandinavian origin?
A) Avon, Evan
B) Ouse, Exe
C) Woodthorp, Brimtoft
D) Thames, Dover

16. It is known that the Norman Conquest was not only a great event in British political history but wheter it was also the greatest event in the history of English
A) Yes, its arliest effect was a drastic change in the linguistic situation
B) No, there was no influence of the Norman Conquest on the language
C) Its effect was a little of the language
D) There is not correct answer

17. Later Middle English the difficulty lies in the growing dialect mixture. What dialect groups were there?
A) Central and Northern
B) Kentish, South-Western dialects
C) Southern group and Northern group
D) Southern group, Midland and Northern

18. What language group were Irish and Welsh influenced by?
A) by Danish
B) by Norwegian
C) by Celic
D) by German

19. What language was the state and the main language of literature in Early Middle English?
A) English
B) French
C) Danish
D) German
E) Latin

20. When was Agnlo-Norman a dead language?
A) in the 14 th century
B) in the 11 th century
C) in the 10 th century
D) in the 15 th century

21. When was the London dialect developed?
A) In the 16 and 17 th centuries
B) In the 13 and 14 th centuries
C) In the 15 and 16 th centuries
D) In the 14 and 15 th centuries

22. What the poets of Middle English do you know?
A) Chaucer, Chivalry, Shelly
B) Chaucer, John Gower, Byron
C) Chaucer, William Langland, John Gower
D) Hoccleve, Lydgate, Chaucer, Shelly

23. What dialect was "The Canter bury Tales" by Chaucer written in?
A) The Welsh dialect
B) The Northern dialect
C) The Kentish dialect
D) The London dialect

24. What period does the formation of the national literary English language cover?
A) The Late Middle English (1350-1475)
B) The Early New English (1475-1660)
C) The Late New English (1660-up to day)
D) The Late Middle English (1300-1400)

25. What the most immediate effect on the development
A) being founded the universities

B) establishing of printing
C) the invention printing
D) Economic and Political Unification

Keys to the Tests: History   1-variant
1. A
2. D
3. C
4. A
5. B
6. F
7. C
8. F
9. B
10. D
11. A
12. C
13. B
14. A
15. A
16. C
17. A
18. B
19. B
20. C
21. A
22. D
23. B
24. A
25. C
2-variant
1. A
2. B
3. D
4. C
5 A
6 B
7 D
8 A
9 C

10A
11. A
12. C
13. B
14. C
15. C
16. A
17. D
18. C
19. B
20. A
21. D
22. C
23. D
24. B
25. C