O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI

OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA`LIM VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI
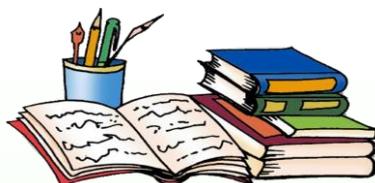
JAHON TILLAR FAKULTETI

INGLIZ TILI VA ADABIYOTI

ROMAN GERMAN FILOLOGIYASIGA KIRISH

FANIDAN

O'QUV–USLUBIY MAJMUA

Bilim sohasi:	**100000-Gumanitar soxa**
Ta'lim soxasi	**110000-Pedagogika**
Ta'lim yo'nalishi	**5111400-Xorijiy til va adabiyoti**
	(ingliz tili)

NAMANGAN-2021

Ўқув услубий мажмуа 2017 йил 1 мартдаги "Янги ўқув-услубий мажмуаларини тайёрлаш бўйича услубий кўрсатмани тавсия этиш тўғрисида"ги 107-сонли буйруғига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилган.

Тузувчи: **П.Лутфуллаев** – катта ўқитувчи

Тақризчилар: **Қ.Сидиқов**, НамДУ, филология фанлари номзоди, доцент.
                    С.Мисиров, НамДУ, педагогика фанлари номзоди, доцент.

Ўқув-услубий мажмуа Наманган давлат университети Кенгашининг 2021 йил 3 сентябрдаги 1 - сон йиғилишида кўриб чиқилган ва фойдаланишга тавсия этилган.

MUNDARIJA

№	Bo'lim nomi	Sahifasi
	FAN HAQIDA MA'LUMOT	**6**
	Modul dasturi	**9**
	O'QUV MATERIALLAR	**24**
	Muammoli vaziyat	**176**
	Kazus test	**182**
	Fanga doir video darslar	**242**

The actuality and the short content of the subject:	**The main content of the subject.**
	The present syllabus informs learners of the English language about scientific and theoretical problems of the history of Germanic languages. This subject covers the main events in the historical development of the Germanic languages: the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of Germanic speaking communities relevant to language history.
	In the process of teaching the history of the Germanic languages we take the students' knowledge on the disciplines like general and Uzbek linguistics, the history of the world, theoretical grammar, lexicology and theoretical phonetics.
	The analysis of the all language layers of the Germanic languages shows us that there are lot cases of correlations between the Latin, Greek, Gothic and Germanic languages. This can be seen in all layers of language. This subject gives some valuable information about how such correspondence was possible and provides the learners the clues for such problems.
	Roman-Germanic languages is connected with the other disciplines. It is based on the History of Germanic territory, studying the development of the language in connection with the concrete conditions in which the Germanic people lived in the several periods of their history. It shows phonetic, grammatical and lexical phenomena s they developed, and states the origins of the present day system.
	Every living language changes through time. It is natural that no records of linguistic changes have ever been kept, as

most changes pass unnoticed by contemporaries.

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

The aims of the subject

There is no less true of a foreign language. Therefore one of the aims of this course is to provide the student with knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present day Germanic languages. In studying the Germanic languages of today, we are faced with a number of peculiarities which appear unintelligible from the modern point of view. These are found in the vocabulary and in the phonetic and grammatical structure of a language.

The main aim of the subject is to give broad information about the historical development of the Germanic languages. The learners will also get some valuable information about how the Germanic languages became developed languages from the languages that was spoken by approximately ten million people. Though learning the history of the Germanic languages the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical. The history of the Germanic languages is of considerable interest to all students of English, since the English belongs to this group of languages. Moreover the

|	
	subject is aimed to give detailed information about the linguistic peculiarities of the Germanic languages in each period of their development and changes that took place in different layers of the language. **The tasks of the subject** The main task of the subject is to give some theoretical information about the history of the Germanic languages and other issues related to it. This subject also provides information about some linguistic features of the Germanic languages, its variants and prepares mature learners with complete theoretical information. The purpose of the subject is a systematic study of the language's development from the earliest times to the present day. Such study enables the student to acquire a more profound understanding of the language of today. Besides, the history of Germanic languages is an important subsidiary discipline for history of Germanic languages and literature.
Requirements for the students	In the process of learning this subject the students should understand the problems concerning the following problems and be able to discuss: - The periods in the history of Germanic languages; - The students should become able to discuss specific theoretical problems of functional aspect and the history of the Germanic languages, express their own opinion on these problems.
The rules of relations through e – mail	It is possible that a teacher and a student discuss the problems concerning the subject through e-mail; **it is prohibited to discuss the points given to the students on the phone, the grading is to be one only in the university campus, in the given rooms** and during the lessons. The time of opening the e-mail: from 2 P.M. to 7 P.M.

MODUL DASTURI

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI
OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI
INGLIZ TILI VA ADABIYOTI KAFEDRASI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»
O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,
_____dots. D.Xolmatov
«___» _____2021 yil

RAMAN GERMAN FILOLOGIYASIGA KIRISH

FANINING

ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI
2021/2022 o'quv yili kunduzgi ta'lim shakli, 2-kurslar uchun

Bilim sohasi: 100000 – Gumanitar soha

Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 110000 – Pedagogika

Bakalavriat yo'nalishi: 5120100–Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish

(Roman german filologiyasi)
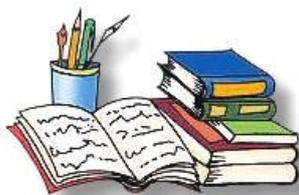
Namangan – 2021

Fan dasturi 2018 yilda ishlab chiqilgan va belgilangan tartibda tasdiqlangan o'quv reja asosida tuzilgan. Fan dasturi Uzbekiston davlat jahon tillari universitetida ishlab chiqilgan (2018 yil "27" iyundagi "6" -sonli bayonnoma) namunaviy dastur asosida tuzildi.

Tuzuvchi: **katta o'qituvchi P.Lutfullayev**

Taqrizchilar: **katta o'qituvchi M.Kukiboyeva**

Ishchi dastur Namangan davlat universiteti Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti Ingliz tili amaliy kursi kafedrasining yig'ilishida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.
2021 yil ___-_____ 1-sonli majlis bayoni.

Kafedra mudiri: Z.Sodiqov

Namangan davlat universiteti Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.
2021 yil ___- _____ 1-sonli majlis bayoni.

Fakultet dekani: p.f.n. M.Yakubbayev

Ishchi dastur Namangan davlat universiteti kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.
2021 yil ___ sentabr__-sonli majlis bayonining 5.1 qarori bilan tasdiqlangan

Kelishildi:
O'quv-uslubiy boshqarma boshlig'i: **X.Mirzaaxmedov**

I. O'quv fanining dolzarbligi va oliy kasbiy ta'limdagi urni

Mazkur fan roman va german tillari guruxiga kiruvchi tillarning umumiy va farklanuvchi belgilari va shu asosda ularning guruxlanishi, tarixiy tarakkiyotining umumiy konuniyatlari, ushbu tillarning shakllanishi va rivojlanishi jarayonlari, ularning fonetik, grammatik strukturalari va lugat tarkibida sodir bulgan asosiy vokealar va ularning tillar tarakkiyotiga kursatgan ta'siri kabi masalalrni uz kamroviga oladi. "Roman-german filologiyasiga kirish" ixtisoslik fanlari blokiga kiritilgan bulib, 3 kursda ukitilishi maksadga muvofik.

II. O'quv fanining maqsadi va vazifasi

Roman-german filologiyasiga kirish fanining maksadi talabalarga uzlari urganadigan asosiy chet tilining dunyodagi tillar orasida tutgan urni, unga oiladosh bulgan tillar xamda uzi tegishli bulgan til guruxiga mansub bulgan (roman yoki german) tillarining boshka til guruxlari yoki oilalaridan farklanuvchi asosiy xususiyatlari bilan tanishtirishni uz oldiga maksad kilib belgilagan. Fanni urganishining amaliy axamiyati shunda-ki roman yoki german tillarigan ixtisoslashayotgan talaba ayrim xayotiy situatsiyalarda uzi urganmagan ammo uzi urganayotgan til guruxiga mansub tildagi axborotni ukiy olishi va mazmunini tushuna olish kunikmasiga ega buladi.

Fanning asosiy vazifasi talabaga uzi urganayotgan tilning dunyodagi tillar urtasidagi urni va axamiyatining tushunish, undagi strukturaviy, funksional uzgarishlar sabab-okibatlarini tushunib olish bilim va kunikmalarini yaratishdir.

Fan buyicha talabalarning bilim, kunikma va malakalariga kuyidagi talablar kuyiladi. Talaba:

- urganilayotgan chet tilining dunyodagi tillar urtasida egallab turgan urnini tugri tushunib olish;
- urganilayotgan roman yoki german tilining kaerda kachon, kaysi bobo tildan, kanday paydo bulganligi xakida xakikiy ilmiy axborot berish;
- urganilayotgan roman yoki german tilining fonetik, grammatik va leksik-semantik konuniyatlarini bilish va kullay olish kunikmalarining egallashlari;

• urganilayotgan roman yoki german tillarida suzning morfologik strukturasi, grammatik ma'noni ifodalash usullari, grammatik kategoriyalarning funksional nuktai nazardan rivojlanganligi/ rivojlanmaganligi xakida tasavvurga ega bulish;

• roman yoki german tillarining jaxonda yoyilganlik darajasi, ularning turli til vaziyatlardagi mavkei, til siyosati va tilni rejalashtirish;

• roman yoki german tillarning tarixiy tarakkiyotida boskichlar va ularning uziga xosligi, boskichlarni shakllanish davrlari va ularga taallukli ijtimoiy-siyosiy-iktisodiy omillarning roli va urni;

• roman va german tillarida suzlashuvchi xalklar tomonidan kullanib kelingan va xozirda foydalaniladigan alifbolar va ularda sodir bulgan uzgarishni bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi;

• roman va german tillarining xududiy tarkalishi, bulinishi va ulardagi farklarning paydo bulish sabablarini tushuna olish;

• umum-xind Evropa belgilarining tillar fonetik, grammatik strukturasi va tugat tarkibida saklanib kolish salmogini izoxlab bera olishi;

• urganilatyogan chet tilida umum german va umum roman belgilarning saklanib kolganlik kulami va ularning fonetik, grammatik kurilishi va lugat tarkibida tutgan urnini taxlil kila olish kunikmalariga ega bulishi kerak.

3. Umumiy va o`quv ishlari turlari bo`yicha hajmi

III semestrda   soat, xaftasiga 2 soatdan, 16 soat   ma`ruza, 18 soat seminar mashg'uloti va 32 soat mustaqil ta`lim.

Semestr(lar) bo'yicha mashg'ulot turlariga ajratilgan soatning taqsimoti

№	Semestrlar	Yuklama	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari turi bo'yichao'quv yuklamasi taqsimoti(soat)				Mustaqil ta'lim
			Jami	Ma'ruza	Seminar	Laboratoriya mashg'uloti	
	3						
1	**Roman-german filologiyasiga kirish**		124	16	18/**54**	-	54
	JAMI:		**124**	**16**	**54**	**-**	**54**

4. Ma'ruza mavzulari, qisqacha mazmuni va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti

№	Mavzular	qisqacha mazmuni	Soat

1	**Roman - German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan urni**	Tilshunoslikning romanistika va germanistika soxalari bu soxalarning etakchi olimlari va ularning fanga kushgan xissasi, roman va german tillarining xind-evropa tillar oilasida tutgan urni. Xozirgi zamon roman va german tillari, ularning tarkalishi va tasnifi. Roman va German kabilalari xakidagi ma'lumotlar: (Piteas, Strabon, YUliy Sezar, Tatsit) roman va german kabilalarining tasnifi va "xalklarning buyuk kuchishi"davrida ularning joylashishi. Roman va german tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari: undoshlarning birinchi kuchishi, Grimm konuni, Verner konuni, unlilarning uzgarishi, otlarning turlanish tizimi, fe'llarning mikdor uzgarishi va suffiksli fe'llarga ajralish tizimi, kadimgi alifbo, roman va german tillarining eng muxim yozma yodgorliklari va ularning tasnifi.	2
2	**Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari**	Evropa kit'asida Kelt kabilalari. Rim kushinlarining Britaniya orollarini bosib olishi, Rimliklar kurgan tarixiy obidalar. Mintakada garbiy german kabilalari va ularning Rim bilan alokasi. Anglo-sakson, friz va yut kabilalarining Britaniya orollarini istilo kilishi va anglo -sakson davlatlarining yuzaga kelishi. Lotin tili va uning roman tillarining shakllanishidaagi urni va axamiyati. Kadimgi alfavitlar va yozma yodgorlikllar. Runik alifbo. Got alifbosi. Lotin alifbosining shakllanishi va tarkalishi. German va roman tillarining paydo bulish tarixi.	2
3	**Roman- german tillari fonetik uziga xosligi**	Roman-german tillari tovush tizimining tarixiy konuniyatlari; palatallashuv. Sonor undosh birikmalari oldida unlilarning chuzilishi, keyingi undoshning tushib kolishi natijasida unlilarning chuzilishi. Undoshlarning birinchi va ikkinchi kuchishi Roman-german tillari morfologiyasi. Otning grammatik kategoriyalari: rod, son, kelishik. Negiz asosida otlarning kadimgi tasnifi. Otlarda kuplik shakllarining xosil bulishi va ularning turlari. Suzning morfologik strukturasi. Ichki fleksiya	2

		yordamida uzakdagi unlining uzgarishi. Tashki fleksiya. Fleksiyasiz tovush almashinishi.	
4	**Roman-german tillari grammatik strukturasidagi uzigaxosliklar**	Sifatning ikki xil turlanishi: kuchli va kuchsiz turlanish, ularning paydo bulishi. Kishilik olmoshlari, olmoshlarda grammatik kategoriyalar: shaxs, son (ikkilik sonining mavjudligi), Kursatish olmoshlarning paydo bulishi. Sanok sonlar. Tartib sonlar.	2
5	**Roman- german tillari lug'at boyligining o'ziga xosligi**	Roman-german tillari lugat tarkibi va ularning tarakkiyoti. Lugat tarkibining xususiyatlari. umum xind - evropa va umum roman va german suzlari, lugat tarkibining boyib borishi va uning turli yullari: Affikslar yordamida suzlar yasash. Maxsuldor va kam maxsul affikslar.; Kushma suzlar. kushma suzlarni xosil kilish yullari. Tovush almashishi (umlaut); Eski suzlarning yangi ma'noga ega bulishi. Uzlashtirma suzlarning ishlatilishi.	2
6	**Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi**	Kadimgi german-roman davrining asosiy tarixiy vokealari. Unlilar tizimining uzgarishi. Urgusiz unlilarning xosil bulishi va ularning keyinchalik tushib kolishi. Unlilarning chuzilishi va kiskarishi. Diftonglarning chuzilishi va kiskarishi. Diftonglarining urta davrda chuzilishi va kiskarishi. Diftonglarining urta davrda monoftonglashuvi.	2
7	**SHarqiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari**	Otlarning turlanishida kelishiklarning soddalashib borishi va ularning predlogi birikmalar bilan almashtirilishi. Sifat darajalari. Kiyosiy darajalarda analitik shaklning yuzaga kelishi. Olmoshlarning turlanishda ikki kelishikning tizimga utishi. Kursatish olmoshlarida ikki turning xosil bulishi: yangi olmoshlarning paydo bulishi. Anik va noanik artikllarning paydo bulishi.	2
8	**SHimoliy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari**	Gapning bosh bulaklaridagi kat'iy tartibning asta - sekin karor topishi. Kushimcha gaplarning rivojlanishi. Urta davr lugat tarkibining uziga xos xususiyatlari. Ijtimoiy tuzumning uzgarishi, xunarmandchilik, savdo-sotik va kishlok xujaligi tarakkiyoti munosabati bilan lugat tarkibining boyib	2

		borish yullari. Eski suzlarning yangi ma'noda ishlatilishi, affikslar yordamida yangi suzlarning ishlatilishi.	
	Jami		**16**

Seminar III semester

	Mavzular	**Qisqacha mazmuni**	
1	Roman va German tillari xakida umumiy ma'lumot	Xozirgi zamon roman va german tillari, ularning tarkalishi va tasnifi. Roman va German kabilalari xakidagi ma'lumotlar: (Piteas, Strabon, YUliy Sezar, Tatsit) roman va german kabilalarining tasnifi va "xalklarning buyuk kuchishi"davrida ularning joylashishi.	2
2	Tillar tarakkiyotining yangi davri	Lotin tili va uning roman tillarining shakllanishidaagi urni va axamiyati. Kadimgi alfavitlar va yozma yodgorlikllar. Runik alifbo. Got alifbosi. Lotin alifbosining shakllanishi va tarkalishi. German va roman tillarining paydo bulish tarixi.	2
3	Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining axamiyati.	Roman-german tillari morfologiyasi. Otning grammatik kategoriyalari: rod, son, kelishik. Negiz asosida otlarning kadimgi tasnifi. Otlarda kuplik shakllarining xosil bulishi va ularning turlari. Suzning morfologik strukturasi.	2
4	Kasb - xunar jargonlarining paydo bulishi. Kitob nashr kilinishi munosabati bilan milliy til yozma shaklining keng tarkalib borishi.	Kishilik olmoshlari, olmoshlarda grammatik kategoriyalar: shaxs, son (ikkilik sonining mavjudligi), Kursatish olmoshlarning paydo bulishi.	2
5	YAngi davrda sodir bulgan asosiy fonetik uzgarishlar. Tillar grammatik tizimida sodir bulgan uzgarishlar	Lugat tarkibining xususiyatlari. umum xind - evropa va umum roman va german suzlari, lugat tarkibining boyib borishi va uning turli yullari: Affikslar yordamida suzlar yasash. Maxsuldor va kam maxsul affikslar.	2
6	Fe'llarning notugri tuslanishi tizimidan tugri fe'llar guruxiga	Unlilarning chuzilishi va kiskarishi. Diftonglarning chuzilishi va kiskarishi. Diftonglarining urta davrda chuzilishi va kiskarishi.	2

	utishi.		
7	Majxul nisbatning rivojlanishi, ish - xarakat va xolat passivi ma'nolarning farklanishi.	Kiyosiy darajalarda analitik shaklning yuzaga kelishi. Olmoshlarning turlanishda ikki kelishikning tizimga utishi.	2
8	Roman /German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan o'rni	Kushimcha gaplarning rivojlanishi. Urta davr lugat tarkibining uziga xos xususiyatlari. Ijtimoiy tuzumning uzgarishi, xunarmandchilik, savdo-sotik va kishlok xujaligi tarakkiyoti munosabati bilan lugat tarkibining boyib borish yullari.	2
9	Garbiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	Roman -german tillari tarakkiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy vokealari. Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining axamiyati. Maxalliy shevalarning saklanib kolishi va ularning ijtimoiy kurinishlari.	2
	JAMI		18

V. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

Mustakil ishga ajratilgan mavzularni urganishning asosiy maksadi mavzular buyicha ishlash jarayonida auditoriyada olib boriladigan seminar mashgulotlar paytida talabalarda xosil bulgan tasavvur, bilim va kunikmalarni yanada chukurlashtirish, mustakil xulosalar chikarish va turli ilmiy-amaliy gepotezalarni olga surishga urgatishdir. Talabalarning mustakil ishlarining moxiyati ma'lum mavzular buyicha mustakil ishlash natijasida ogzaki va yozma nutk kunikmalarini mustaxkamlash xisoblanadi.

Mustaqil ta'lim uchun tavsiya etiladigan mavzular:

1	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy boskichlari	6
2	Garbiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	6
3	SHimoliy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	6
4	Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi	6
5	SHarkiy german va roman tillarining uziga xos xususiyatlari	6
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	6
9	Roman -german tillari tarakkiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy vokealari.	6
10	Maxalliy shevalarning saklanib kolishi va ularning ijtimoiy kurinishlari	4
	Jami	28

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".

When did the Scandinavian invasions begin?

VI. Asosiy va qo'shimcha o'quv adabiyotlar xamda axborot manbalari

Asosiy adabiyotlar Ingliz tili

1. Don Ringe from Proto Indo-European to Proto Germanic, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2006, 420p.
2. Anderson B.L. Migration, accommodation and language change.-Palman publishers, 2008, 215 p.
3. Luraghi   S.,   Bubenik   V.   Continum   Companion   to   Historical Linguistics.- Continuum Publishers, 2010, 448 p.

Qo'shimcha adabiyotlar

Ingliz tili

1. A. Kuldashev. "An Introduction to Germanic Philology" Toshkent 2010
2. Arseneva V.V. i dr. "Vvedenie v germanskuyu filologiyu" Moskva 2003
3. Campbell l., Mixco M.J. A Glossary to Historical linguistics, Edinburgh University Press, 2007, 244p.

BAHOLASH MEZONLARI

Oraliq nazorat ☐ Test (dars jarayonida o'tilgan mavzular yuzasidan)	**5 baho**
Yakuniy nazorat ☐ Test (Semestr mobaynida o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha)	**5 baho**

3. The topics and the hours given for their discussion:

№	Topics	Lesson	Practical (practical work)	Self study
1.	The subject of the discipline "An introduction to Germanic Philology'	1	2	2
2	Language families	2-3	4	4
3.	General characteristics of the Germanic languages	4-5	4	4
4.	Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages (GL)	6-7	4	4
5.	Vocabulary of GL	8-9	4	2
6.	East GL	10-11	4	2
7.	West GL	12-13	4	2
8.	North GL	14-15	4	2
9.	North GL (Continued)	16-17	4	2
10.	High German and the second consonant shift	18-19	4	4
Total			38	28

4. The system of grading students' knowledge:

№	The names of tasks in the types of control works	The maximum point that a	The divisions of current check up and mid term

	student can earn		
I. The division of points on current check up	**40 points**	20	20
Practical lessons	Maximum points	*Current check up 1*	*Current check up 2*
1. The active participation of a student during lessons and practical work lessons and the level of how the student acquired the information, checking the students' notes	40	0-20	0-20
2. The student hands in self studies on time and in a proper way (case-studies, power point presentations and other types of self study)	10	0-5	0-5
II. Mid term	**30 points**		
1. In the mid-term the students are given 30 multiple choice tests. For each right answer the students get 1.0 points. **Total points:** 30	30	Week 12 of the semester	
III. Final test The students write answers to the five given theoretical questions. For each right answer there is given 6 points	**30 points**	At the last two weeks of the semester	
Total:	**100 points**		

Introduction

The present complex-syllabus informs learners of the English language about scientific and theoretical problems of the history of this language. This subject covers the main events in the historical development of the Germanic languages: the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system,

the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of Germanic speaking communities relevant to language history.

In the process of teaching the history of the Germanic languages we take the students' knowledge on the disciplines like general and Uzbek linguistics, the history of the world, theoretical grammar, lexicology and theoretical phonetics.

The analysis of the all language layers of the Germanic languages shows us that there are lot cases of correlations between the English, German and French languages. This can be seen in all layers of language. This subject gives some valuable information about how such correspondence was possible and provides the learners the clues for such problems.

History of the Germanic languages is connected with the other disciplines. It is based on the History of Europe studying the development of the language in connection with the concrete conditions in which the Germanic people lived in the several periods of their history. It shows phonetic, grammatical and lexical phenomena s they developed, and states the origins of the present day system.

Every living language changes through time. It is natural that no records of linguistic changes have ever been kept, as most changes pass unnoticed by contemporaries.

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

The aims and tasks of the discipline "Roman-Germanic philology"

There is no less true of a foreign language. Therefore, one of the aims of this course is to provide the student with knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present-day Germanic languages. In studying the Germanic languages of today, we are faced with a number of peculiarities which

appear unintelligible from the modern point of view. These are found in the vocabulary and in the phonetic and grammatical structure of a language.

The main aim of the subject is to give broad information about the historical development of the Germanic languages. The learners will also get some valuable information about how the Germanic languages became developed languages from the languages that was spoken by approximately ten million people. Though learning the history of the Germanic languages the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical. The history of the Germanic languages is of considerable interest to all students of English, since the English belongs to this group of languages. Moreover, the subject is aimed to give detailed information about the linguistic peculiarities of the Germanic languages in each period of their development and changes that took place in different layers of the language.

The main task of the subject is to give some theoretical information about the history of the Germanic languages and other issues related to it. This subject also provides information about some linguistic features of the Germanic languages, its variants and prepares mature learners with complete theoretical information. The purpose of the subject is a systematic study of the language's development from the earliest times to the present day. Such study enables the student to acquire a more profound understanding of the language of today. Besides, the history of Germanic languages is an important subsidiary discipline for history of Germanic languages and literature.

The volume of the subject

№	Type of the lesson	Hours	Semester
1	Practical	38	7
2	Self study	28	7
3	Total	66	7

O'QUV MATERIALLAR

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

Practical work 1

Lesson 1: *The subject of the discipline An Introduction to the Roman-Germanic Philology*

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. Linguistic map of the world 3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world 4. General principles of the development of languages 5. The Place of the Germanc languages among the languages of the world 6. 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 about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson, the students 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.

Technological mapping of the Practical work 1

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1.The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work

1. Introductory notes
2. Linguistic map of the world
3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world
4. General principles of the development of languages
5. The Place of the Germanic languages among the languages of the world

6. General approaches and methods for language study

Literature recommended

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

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

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

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

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

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

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: [лэ]> [л:] – more.

6. Spontaneous changes of phonemes.
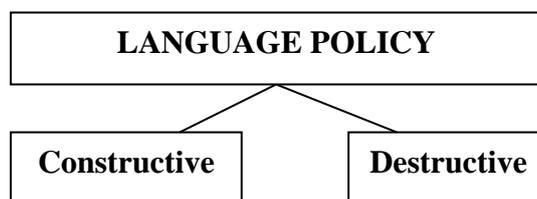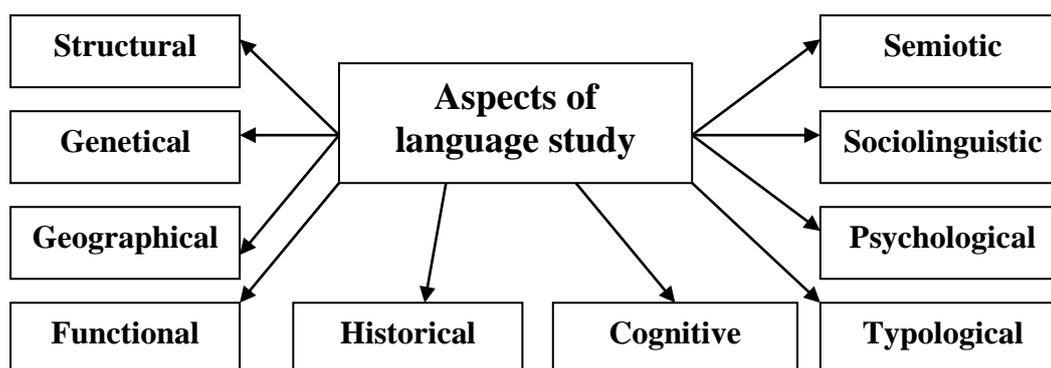
7. Change of the meaning of the words.

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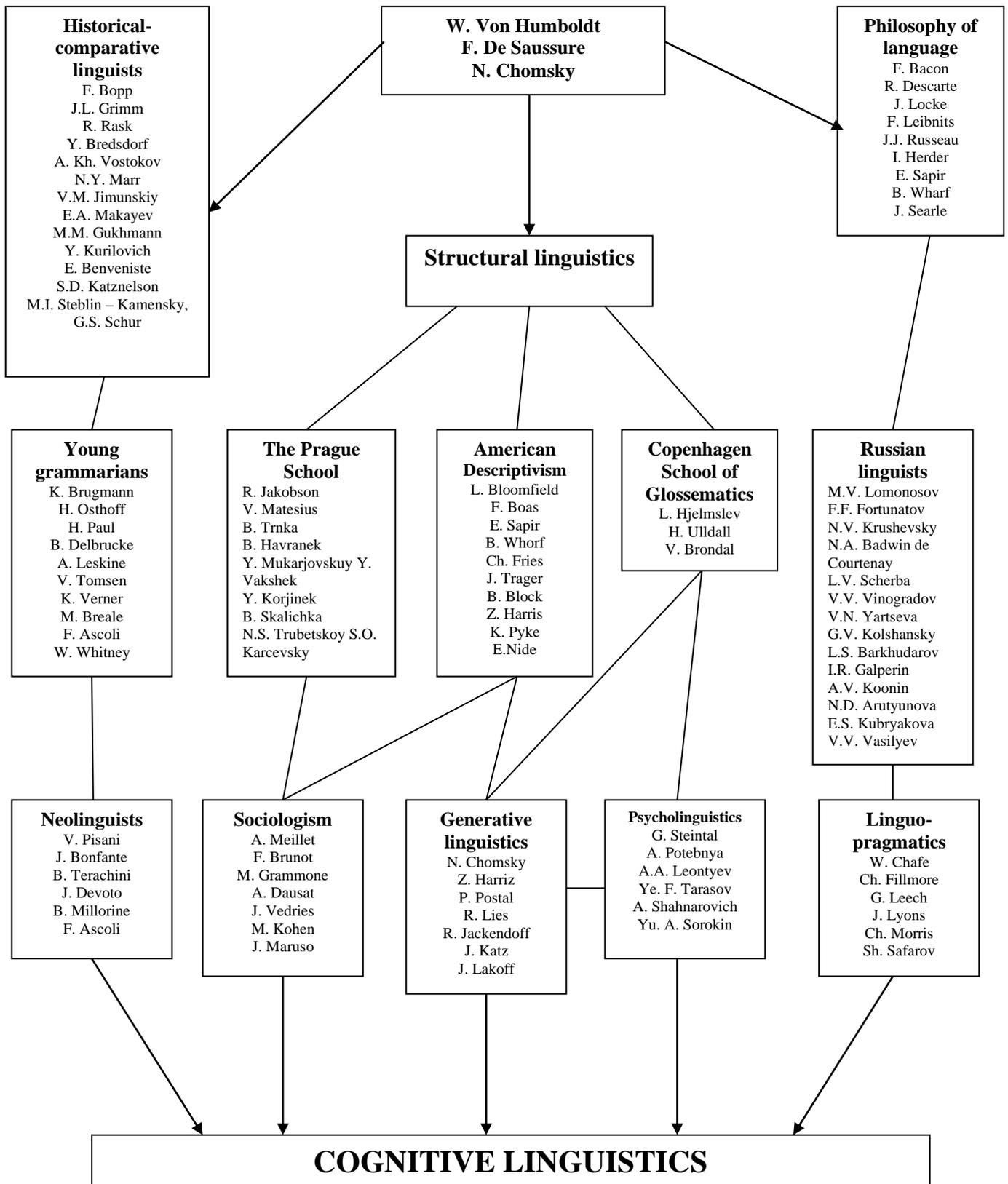
9. Cases of interrelation of processes.

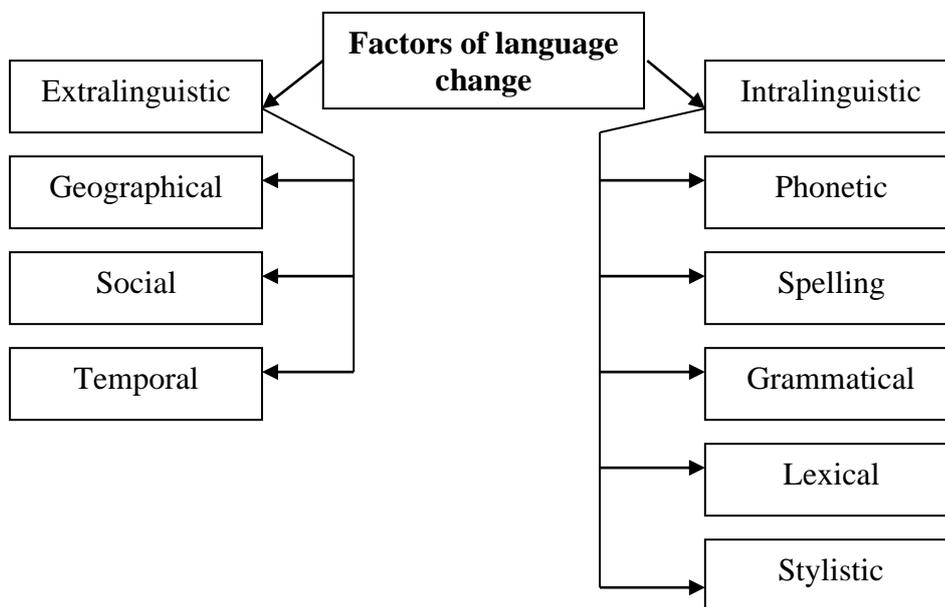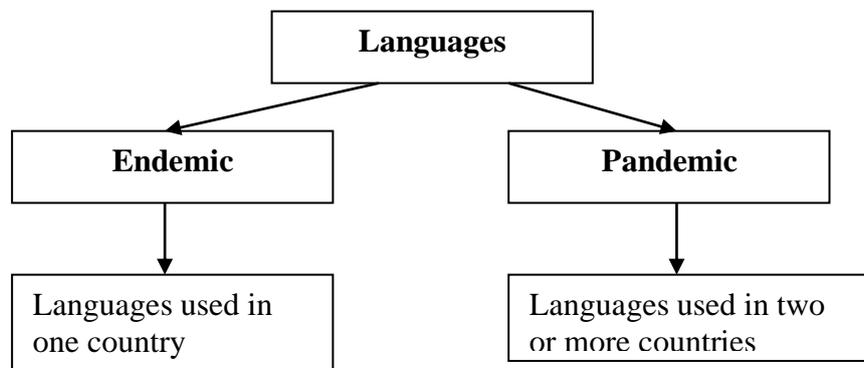There are two main factors of language change:

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

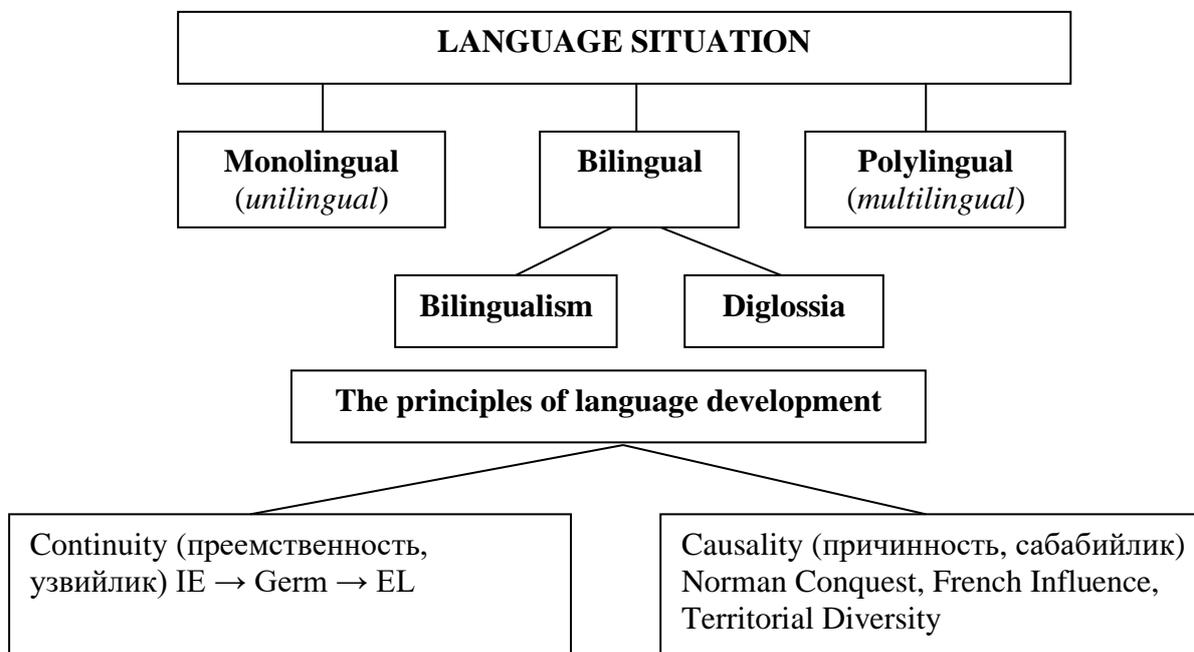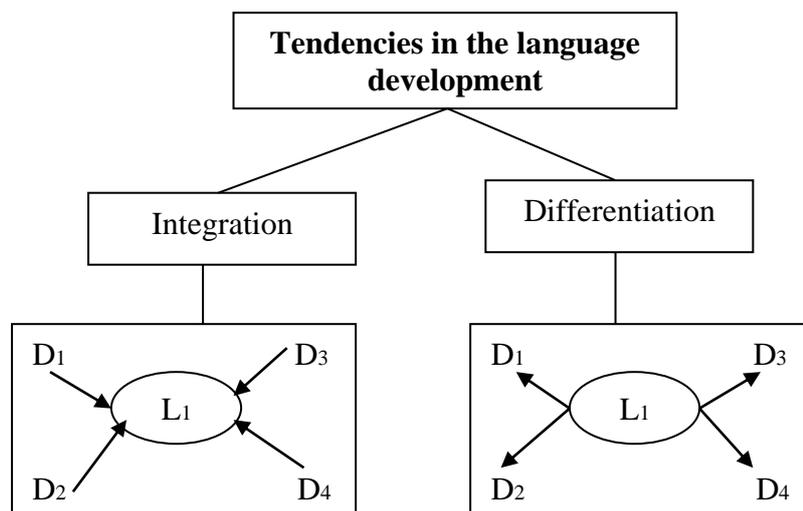**Causality** (причинность, сабабийлик) French Influence on English, 1066, Norman Conquest.

Structural		Semiotic
Genetical	**Aspects of language study**	Sociolinguistic
Geographical		Psychological
Functional	Historical	Cognitive	Typological

LANGUAGE POLICY	
Constructive	Destructive

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

D₁ D₃
L₁
D₂ D₄

D₁ D₃
L₁
D₂ D₄

Glossary

1. Broca's aphasia. An aphasia characterized by difficulty 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:	The results of the lesson:
It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	Having learned this lesson the students 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.

Technological mapping of the Practical works 2-3

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	Student
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented
	1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.

Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity.
	2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc).	2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.
	2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.	2.3. The students work on the tables
	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.	3.1. The students listen attentively.
	3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

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.

Lesson 2-3: 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 alphabet 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.

The Caucasian Family of Languages

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 Indic Branch 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 Tai 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. The Young Grammarians believed that these

blind fatalistic sound laws were purely destructive, breaking the systematic structure of a language until the irregularities caused by them had to be remedied by analogous formations. The two concepts of sound laws and analogy were considered enough to explain practically everything in the development of language.

Some years later objections were raised to inviolable sound laws theory, and linguistic facts made students admit the existence of other circumstances which made these sound laws more flexible. Exceptions to the rules were explained with reference to hitherto unsuspected determining factors. (See Verner's Law below.)

For example, we find in Modern English *f* as the representative of Middle English *f* in such words as *fox, foot, and full.* But in the word *vixen-"female* fox"-we find *v* instead of *f.* Does this refute the theory of regular phonetic change? No, it does not if we find another explanation for the *v* in *vixen,* which is that *vixen,* is borrowed from a dialect of Southern English speech in which *f* regularly became *v.*

Phonetic formulae testifying to the close connection between Indo-European languages are based upon close observation of phonetic relations, and there are regular sets of phonetic, morphological, and syntactical laws. For instance, in the field of phonetics comparison shows the following law: Indo-European *p* corresponds to Greek *p,* Latin *p,* Lithuanian *p, and* Armenian *h* or *w.* In Armenian, *h* appears where in Greek we find *p:* the Greek *pyr* "fire" is *hur* in AFmenian; the Greek *pater* is *hair* in Armenian.

Changes like these may show the evolution of a single, or of a combination of sounds, from the earliest available records down to the latest innovations.

One important figure in the development of comparative linguistics as a science is the German scholar Franz Bopp, (1791-1867) who wrote a book, *Uber das Konjugationssystem der Sanskrit Sprache* ("On the Conjugation System of Sanskrit") (1816) comparing this subject with the conjugation of verbs in Greek, Persian, and German languages, and virtually creating the science of comparative linguistics; Sanskrit, supposed to be a more primitive language than Greek or Latin, became from then on the mainspring of linguistic research.

The merit of his book lies in its study of inflections; Bopp's main contribution was his systematic comparison of the inflectional endings of all the Indo-European languages.

He was dominated by one great idea, which he thought could be applied everywhere: the idea that every verb-form contains the concept "to be", and that in all verbal endings one may expect to find elements with this meaning. In all s-endings he sought the root *es-,* s- (Lat. *es-t* "he is", *s-unt* "they are"). Nowadays we cannot agree completely with this idea, but his essay is regarded as the beginning of comparative grammar.

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.

Glottochronology is the study of the rate of change in language, and the use of the rate for historical inference, especially for the estimation of the age of a language and its use to provide a pattern of internal relationships within a language family.

In principle, glottochronology should be applied only after the comparative method has prepared the ground, and it is of use mainly for languages with long historical stages of more than a thousand years.

Even in ideal conditions, glottochronological dates provide only a rough estimate of the most probable date when the related languages diverged. Practically, different investigators give different data for the divergence dates of linguistic

families. M. Swadesh, an American linguist who supports this method passionately, gives, for example, a time depth of 46 centuries since the minimum divergence between Aleut and south-west Greenlandic, considering this a unit of the fullest divergence in the family. The exact calculation depends on many factors, such as, for example, differences in the judgment of cognates, differences in the material selected from within a family, etc.

Thus, the divergence times revealed by the glottochronological method are not all accepted, since the use of this method has not been generally recognized. Beyond this, we may consider comparable those divergence times in which we have a good deal of confidence, and our degree of confidence must depend upon the circumstances. We can be more confident in divergence times that are confirmed by evidence from other sources. Swedish was quite right when he wrote: "Lexicostatistical data must be coupled with other evidence, including that of archaeology, comparative ethnography, and linguistic paleontology. The separate lines of study serve to verify or correct one another and to fill in details of the story."

Many linguists attack glottochronology for basing itself on the false premise that, when languages begin to diverge, -the separation is sharp and complete. Besides, it is doubtful whether the vocabulary of one language family changes at the same rate as that of another. What has been established for Indo-European languages cannot necessary be applied to other families? Then again, one should bear in mind that the test list of words taken for statistical calculation includes items of vocabulary which have been subject to various cultural influences. We must be very careful in the application of mathematical techniques to the measurement of linguistic change. Some of them must be abandoned as groundless.

Only the comparative method that emerged at the beginning of the 19th century, now coupled with other methods which, taken together, help to penetrate deeper into the prehistoric past of the Indo-European languages, can be considered a really sound approach to the understanding of the history of language.

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 4-5

Lesson 4-5: General characteristics of the Germanic languages

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Historical-comparative method in linguistics B) Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages C) The First Consonant Shift

	D) Verner's Law E) Rhotacism
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 about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: *A) The number of the languages existing in the world* *B) Indo-European languages in the world* *C) The number of Germanic languages in the world* *D) Groups of Germanic languages*
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.

Technological mapping of the practical works 4-5

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 **Introduction** **10 minutes**	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2	2.1. The instructor divides the	2.1. The students present the

The main stage (60 minutes)	students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work

1. The Noun in GL

2. The Pronoun in GL

3. The adjective in GL

4. The Numeral in GL

5. The Verb in GL

Literature recommended

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Lesson 4-5: 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.

Glossary

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

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

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

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

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 6-7

Lesson 6-7: Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages (GL)

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic B) The first consonant shift of PG Period C) The Second Consonant Shift. D) High German Dialects and their features.
The objective of the 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 about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: *A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?* *B) How does a language change?* *C) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?*
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.

Technological mapping of the Practical works 6-7

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work

1. Word stock of GL

2. Etymological layers of GL vocabulary

3. Word-Building in GL

4. Affixation in GL

Literature recommended

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

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

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

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

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

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

Lesson 6-7: 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 *Hermino-nes* in Pliny's list). In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages. The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications. The development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally PG split into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the lower valley of the Elbe consisted in their movement north, to the Scandinavian Peninsula, a few hundred

years before our era. This geographical segregation must have led to linguistic differentiation and to the division of PG into the northern and southern branches. At the beginning of our era some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled closer to the Vistula basin, east of the other continental Germanic tribes. It is only from this stage of their history that the Germanic languages can be described under three headings: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

East Germanic

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 A. D. they moved south-east and sometime later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch, the *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.

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.

West Germanic

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the

East and the Celtic tribes in the South. They must have retreated further west under the pressure of the Goths, who had come from Scandinavia, but after their departure expanded in the eastern and southern directions. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names. On the eve of their "great migrations" of the 4th and 5th the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians (known as the Anglo-Frisian group), the 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.

Glossary

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

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

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

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

Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 8-9

Lesson 8-9: Vocabulary of Germanic Languages

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanc B) The first consonant shift of PG Period C) The Second Consonant Shift.

	D) High German Dialects and their features.
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 about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: *A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?* *B) How does a language change?* *C) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?*
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.

Technological mapping of the Practical works 8-9

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The	2.1. The students present the results of their activity.

minutes)	instructor explains the rules for the drills.	
	2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc).	2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.
	2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.	2.3. The students work on the tables
	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.	3.1. The students listen attentively.
	3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work 4

1. Word stock of GL

2. Etymological layers of GL vocabulary

3. Word-Building in GL

4. Affixation in GL

5. The number of the languages existing in the world

6. Indo-European languages in the world

7. Germanic languages in the world

8. The groups of Germanic languages

Literature recommended

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The origin of futark remains the matter of severe debates between historians, linguists and philologists. There are two main theories: 1) Runic writing appeared on the basis of Latin alphabet; 2) cradles of these signs are in transalpine and North Italian scripts. Scientists have a lot of historical facts, approving that Etruscan merchants used this system. Probably they brought it to the North (6th c. RC.). However some researchers think that runes cropped up in German tribes from ancient Rome Latin writing. Comparing 3 letter types we have: 10 runic Letters in Etruscan language, which absolutely coincide each other; 5 coinciding runic Letters and 8 resembling ones in Latin. Latin, Etruscan and some symbols from Greek originate from Akhiram alphabet (lOc. RC). But the construction of runic alphabet (RA) different from others - for example, order of the first Letters. The main period of development is one, when occult signs, used in Alpine region and in the North, became combine sole system. Many runic symbols were used as icons, showing various things and animals. Some runologists suppose that even in the most developed variant they are close to pictures: rune "Fehu" f symbolizes cattle, Thurisaz q 1, - thorn,

Wunjo w - weathercock, Algiz z - elk, Zin xxs- lightning, Y r u - bow, Edhwaz m - horse.The top of development and complete formation of RA system was in 1-2 c. AD.

The number of runes in alphabet varied in the course of time. 28 sings appeared in the middle of the 6-th c. In Britain where German runes penetrated in the 5-th c. with Anglo-Saxon invasion, Frisian futark was improved by 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.*

3. 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 in vocabulary.

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 10-11

Lesson 10-11: East Germanic Languages

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Mutation of vowels in Gothic B) The first consonant shift and its results in Gothic C) Grammatical structure of Gothic D) Phonetic changes of Gothic
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 about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence in Gothic? B) How does a Gothic language change in vocabulary? C) What is the essence of Wulfila's creating a new alphabet?
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.

Technological mapping of the Practical works 10-11

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented
	1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity.
	2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc).	2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.
	2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.	2.3. The students work on the tables
	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.	3.1. The students listen attentively.
		3.2. The students write down

	3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	their individual tasks.

Practical work

1. The prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Gothic language

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

3. The main features of the phonetic structure of the Gothic language

4. The essential features of the grammatical structure of the Gothic language

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

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

Lesson 10-11: 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.

Glossary

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

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

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

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 12-13

Lesson 12-13: West Germanic Languages

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks

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

Technological mapping of the lesson on the topic "The subject of the discipline "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Technological mapping of the Practical works 12-13

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 **Introduction** **10 minutes**	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented

	problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work 6

1. Groups and subgroups of GL

2. The Norwegian language

3. The Icelandic language

4. The Swedish language

5. The Danish language

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.

Lesson 12-13: West Germanic Languages

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Iutes. 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 Germanc 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.

Glossary

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

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

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

Model of Teaching technology of the practical works on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Practical works 14-15

Lesson 14-15: North Germanic Languages

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Features of Norwegian language B) Features of Swedish language C) Features of Danish language D) Features of Faroese language
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 West GL.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence in North GL? B) How did North GL change in vocabulary? C) What is the essence of grammatical changes in North GL?
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.

Technological mapping of the lesson on the topic "The subject of the discipline "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Technological mapping of the Practical works 14-15

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed.	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented
	1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity.
	2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc).	2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.
	2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.	2.3. The students work on the tables
	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.

Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work 7

1. Main features of North GL

2. The Icelandic language

3. The Swedish language

4. The Danish language

5. The Faroese language

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". Т., 2010.

Lesson 14-15: North Germanic languages

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanc subgroup of languages The North Germanc 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 Germanc tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th c. and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanc 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 Germanc alphabet known as the *runic alphabet* or the *runes.* The runes were used by North and West Germanc 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 Germanc 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 Germanc 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 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, Germanc and Indo-European speech community. The Germanc 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 Germanc 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 æ, ø and å, which many regard as characteristic of Danish, were only introduced later; for instance å did not enter official orthography until 1948. Many foreign observers of spoken Danish have noticed something unique about the pronunciation. A 16th century Swedish statement claims that Danes press out the words as though they are about to cough. The word 'cough' must be a reference to the Danish glottal stop, a means of expression which is extremely rare in other languages, but in Danish is used in the pronunciation to distinguish between numerous words which would otherwise be identical, for instance: *anden* (second) - *anden* (the duck); *kørende* (driving) - *køerne* (the cows/queues); *møllIEr* (millIEr/mills) - *MøllIEr* (surname); parret (combined) - *parret* (the pair). The glottal stop is a powerful braking of the vibrations of the vocal cords, approaching closure and this may undoubtedly sound discordant, staccato-ish, like a kind of brief, dry cough. Danes avoid glottal stops in art song.

Altogether many non-Danes find it very difficult to decode Danish pronunciation. Danish is a very vowel-rich languagel with important distinctions between for instance *mile, mele, maele, male* (dune(flour(voice(paint) and *ugle, oil, SIE, SrIE* (owl(proper name(chaff(early). The final sounds in *hay, IEg, beer, flad* (sea, game, berry, flat), which are very common, can also cause problems. It is difficult to deduce the pronunciation from the written word. *Vejr, hver, vaer, vaerd* (weather, each, be, worth) are thus pronounced identically as are *hjul* and *jul* (wheel, Christmas). *Seks* (6) is pronounced 'sex'(seksten (16) 'sajsten'. The way from spoken to written word can also be difficult to predict. The diphthong 'aj' can be written *ej, eg, aj, ig* as in *sejl, regn, maj, sig* (sail, rain, May, oneself) and In even more ways in words of foreign origin. The Danish *t* is different from other t-sounds in being slightly sibilant. Apart from the use of glottal stops and other characteristics of pronunclatlon (Danish differs from the other Scandinavian languages in the so. called weakened stops. In the Middle Ages(the Nordic *p, t, k* after a vowel became *b, d, g* In written Danish and even weaker in the spoken language. *Tapa* became *tabe(gata* became *gade(kaka* became *kage* (lose (street(cake)(etc. These examples also show

how Danish weakened the vowels in unstressed syllables to e, pronounced 0 or merged with the surrounding sounds.

The written language is characterized by Letters with limited or no usage outside the Nordic countries: ee, *(!J, S.* Norwegian also uses ee and *(!J,* while *S* is found in Danish, Norwegian and Swedish. As in the other Nordic languages and in English, the number of declensions has been reduced during the history of the Danish language. Thus there is nothing in the form of the words which reveals what is subject(object or indirect object in a sentence such as *manden rakte drengen skeen* (the man handed the boy the spoon). The information about the relationship between the members of the sentence Is largely provided by their order and understood from the words' syntactic placement. It is characteristic of Danish and the other Nordic languages that the definite article is eclictic. While English, German (French and other Romance languages indicate definiteness by a preposed element (Nordic languages have a suffixed definite article. In Danish *the house, das Haus, la maison, la casa* is *huset.* The indefinite form is *hus.* Another characteristic of Nordic languages is the possibility of creating passive tense by appending a particular ending (for instance s in Danish, Norwegian 'bokmal' and Swedish. The passive tense of *boghandleren saelger bogen(the* bookseller sells the book) Is *bogen s;elges af boghandIEren* (the book is sold by the bookseller).

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 Germanc group of the Indo-European language family. 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. 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). 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.)

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. There are no real

regulatory institutions for the Swedish language, but the Swedish Academy and the Swedish Language Council *(Svenska spraknamnden)* have important roles. The primary task of the Swedish Academy is to further the use of Swedish language. The primary instrument for this is the publication of dictionaries; *Svenska Akademiens Ordlista* and *Svenska Akademiens Ordbok.*Even though the dictionaries are sometimes perceived as an official definition of the language; their function is rather intended to be descriptive. Swedish is distinguished by having more than one high-status variety, which is unusual for languages of its modest size. The Swedish term *rikssvenska* is problematic to translate. It might mean Swedish as spoken in Sweden compared to as spoken in Finland, but it might also denote the high-status variety spoken in Stockholm. Beside the high-status dialects, one can distinguish between a large number of Swedish dialects, often de1ined elements of historical divisions, provinces of Sweden:

- *Bergslagsmal* (spoken in Bergslagen)
- *Finlandssvenska* (spoken in Finland - Finland-Swedish, Eastern Swedish)
- *Gutniskal* (spoken in Gotlandia - Gutnish language)
- *GOtamal* (spoken in Gotaland)
- *Norrlandska mal* (spoken in Ngrrland - Northern Swedish)
- *Sveamal* (spoken in Svealand)
- *Sydsvenska maP* (spoken in Scania - Southern Swedish, formerly Eastern Danish)
- *Alandska* (spoken in the Aland Islands)

All speakers of these languages are bilingual in Swedish, and the consideration here is principally the dialect of кроken by these individuals. 2 Jamska belongs to the group of (Insular) West Scandinavian languages, as opposed to the other dialects of Swedish which belong to the (Continental) East Scandinavian group. The proper name of the language is Jamska, though t spelling *Jamska* is sometimes used.

Glossary

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

2. 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

3. 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).*

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

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Lesson 16-17: North Germanic Languages (Continued)

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) Features of Icelandic language B) Features of Faroese language C) Features of minor languages of North Germanc sub-group
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 West GL.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: A) How can you explain the facts of the influence of the Reformation to North GL? B) How did North GL change in the X-XIII centuries? C) What is the essence of grammatical changes in Icelandic language?
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.

Technological mapping of the lesson on the topic "The subject of the discipline "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Technological mapping of the Practical works 16-17

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 Introduction 10 minutes	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.
Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills. 2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc). 2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker. 2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity. 2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher. 2.3. The students work on the tables 2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers. 3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.1. The students listen attentively. 3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work 8

1. History of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Icelandic languages.

2. Phonetic structure of Norwegian languages.

3. Grammar of North GL.

4. Vocabulary of GL.

Literature recommended

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

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

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

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

Lesson 16-17: North Germanic languages. The Norwegian Language

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

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

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

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

Dano-Norwegian and New-Norwegian

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

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

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

- All school books printed in Norway must be published in both languages. .
- At least 25% of the programs shown on the broadcasting channel NRK must be in New Norwegian. This includes subtitling of movies, narrators, radio reporters etc.
- At Least 25% of all the official documents must be written in New-Norwegian.
- All persons working in official positions must have command of both languages. A person who sends a Letter to say, the municipality, is entitled to get a reply in the same language that his Letter was written in.

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

One single man created New-Norwegian. His name was Ivar Aasen and he was a

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Icelandic Language

1. Relationship to other languages. Icelandic is one of the Nordic languages, which are a subgroup of the Germanc languages. Germanc languages are traditionally

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

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

3. Grammar. Like the old Indo-European languages, Icelandic has a complicated grammar: Nouns are inflected in four cases (nominative, accusative, dative and genitive) and in two numbers (singular, plural). The same is true of most pronouns and adjectives, including the definite article and the ordinal and the first four of the cardinal numerals: these are also inflected in three genders, while each

noun is intrinsically masculine, feminine or neuter. Most adjectives and some adverbs have three degrees of comparison and most adjectives have two types of inflection, called strong and weak, in the positive and superlative. Verbs are inflected in three persons (1st, 2nd, 3rd), two numbers (singular, plural), two simple (non-compound) tenses, three moods (indicative, subjunctive, imperative) and two voices (active, medio-passive); in addition, by means of auxiliary verbs, the verbs enter into several constructions (including the so-called compound tenses) to represent the perfect, the future, the conditional, the progressive, the passive etc. The verbs also have three nominal forms, i.e. the infinitive (uninflected) and two participles, present and past (including supine).

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

Faroese language

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

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

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

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

Glossary

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

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

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

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

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Lesson 18-19: High German and the second consonant shift

Time 4 hours	Number of the students - 20
Form and type of the lesson	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lesson	A) The essence of the second consonant shift B) Formation and development of High German dialects C) Essential differences and similarities between High German and Low German
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 West GL.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lesson that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	**The results of the lesson:** Having learned this lesson the students will form understanding on the following topics: A) How can you explain the facts of the second consonant shift in High German? B) Patterns of the second consonant shift C) Linguistic consequences of the second consonant shift
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.

Technological mapping of the lesson on the topic "The subject of the discipline "Roman-Germanic Philology"

Technological mapping of the Practical works 18-19

Stages, time	Content of the activity	
	Instructor	**Student**
Stage 1 **Introduction** **10 minutes**	1.1. The instructor introduces the students with the topic, plan, aim, tasks, topicality, theoretical and practical values of the problems discussed. 1.2. The teacher uses brainstorming method in order to check the readiness of the students for the practical work	1.1. The students make notes on the items presented 1.2. The students will answer the questions to demonstrate their readiness.

Stage 2 The main stage (60 minutes)	2.1. The instructor divides the students into 3 groups and each group gets their tasks. The instructor explains the rules for the drills.	2.1. The students present the results of their activity.
	2.2. The students are informed about the evaluation criteria. (The teacher reminds the students that they can use the texts of the lesson, manuals, dictionaries etc).	2.2. The students answer the questions given by the teacher.
	2.3. The instructor acts as an onlooker.	2.3. The students work on the tables
	2.4. The teacher comments on the answers of the students and then makes conclusions.	2.4. The students will be informed about the results of their work.
Stage 3. The final stage	3.1. The instructor summarizes the practical work, marks the answers of the students and makes an appraisal of the best answers.	3.1. The students listen attentively.
	3.2. The instructor sets the topics for the self work	3.2. The students write down their individual tasks.

Practical work 9

1. The genetical relationship between English, German and Dutch

2. The features of Frisian language

3. The features of Afrikaans

4. The features of Yiddish

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Lesson 18-19: High German and the second consonant shift

German (Deutsch) is a member of the western group of the Germanc branch of the Indo-European language family. Spoken by more than 120 million people in 38 countries of the world, German is - like English and French – a pluricentric language with Germany, Austria and Switzerland as the three main centers of usage. Worldwide, German accounts for the most written translations into and from a language. Furthermore it belongs to the most learned and to the ten most spoken languages worldwide.

German is spoken primarily in Germany, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, in two-thirds of Switzerland, in two-thirds of the South Tyrol province of Italy, in the small East Cantons of Belgium, and in some border villages of the South Jutland County.

In Luxembourg, as well as in the French regions of Alsace and parts of Lorraine, the native populations speak several German dialects, and some people also master standard German (especially in Luxembourg), although in Alsace and Lorraine French has for the most part replaced the local German dialects in the last 40 years. Some German speaking communities still survive in parts of Romania, the Czech Republic, Hungary, and above all Russia, Kazakhstan and Poland, although massive relocations to Germany in the late 1940s and 1990s have depopulated most

of these communities.

Outside of Europe and the former Soviet Union, the largest German speaking communities are to be found in the USA, Brazil and in Argentina where millions of Germans migrated in the last 200 years; but the great majority of their descendants no longer speak German. Additionally, German speaking communities are to be found in the former German colony of Namibia, as well as in the other countries of German emigration such as Canada, Paraguay, Uruguay, Chile, Peru, Venezuela, South Africa, Thailand, and Australia. In the USA, the largest concentrations of German speakers are in Pennsylvania (Amish, Hutterites and some Mennonites speak Pem1sylvania German and Hutterite German), Texas (Texas German), Kansas (Mennonites and Volga Germans), North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Wisconsin and Indiana. Early twentieth century immigration was often to Si. Lollis, Chicago, New York, and Cincinnati. Most of the post Second World War wave are in the New York, Los Angeles, and Chicago urban areas, and in Florida. In Brazil the largest concentrations of German speakers are in Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, Parana, and Espirito Santo. Generally, German immigrant communities in the USA have lost their mother tongue more quickly than those who moved to South America, possibly due to the fact that for German speakers, English is easier to learn than Portuguese or Spanish.

In Canada there are people of German ancestry throughout the country and especially in the west as well as in Ontario. There is a large and vibrant community in the city of Kitchener, Ontario.

German is the main language of about 100 million people in Europe (as of 2004), or 13.3% of all Europeans, being the second most spoken native language in Europe after Russian, above French (66.5 million speakers in 2004) and English (64.2 million speakers in 2004). German is the third most taught foreign language worldwide, also in the USA (after Spanish and French); it is the second most known foreign language in the EU (after English;) It is one of the official languages of the European Union, and one of the three working languages ofthe EU, along with English and French.

The history of the German language begins with the High German consonant shift during the Migration period, separating South Germanc dialects from common West Gern1anic. The earliest testimonies of Old High German are from scattered Elder Futhark inscriptions, especially in Alemannic, from the 6th century, the earliest glosses date to the 8th and the oldest coherent texts to the 9th century. Old Saxon at this time belongs to the North Sea Germanc cultural sphere, and Low German should fall under German rather than Anglo-Frisian influence during the Holy Roman Empire.

As Germany was divided into many different states, the only force working for a unification or standardisation of German during a period of several hundred years was the general preference of writers trying to write in a way that could be understood in the largest possible area.

When Martin Luther translated the Bible (the New Testament in 1522 and the Old Testament, published in parts and completed in 1534) he based his translation mainly on this already developed language, which was the most widely understood language at this time. This language was based on Eastern Upper and Eastern Central German dialects and preserved much of the gran1ffiatical system of Middle High German (unlike the spoken German dialects in Central and Upper Germany that already at that time began to lose the genitive case and the preterit tense). In the beginning, copies of the Bible had a long list for each region, which translated words unknown in the region into the regional dialect. Roman Catholics rejected Luther's translation in the beginning and tried to create their own Catholic standard - which, however, only differed from 'Protestant German' in some minor details. It took until the middle of the 18th century to create a standard that was widely accepted, thus ending the period of Early New High German.

Glossary

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

2. 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).*

3. 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, й.* verb. The part-of-speeeh category comprising words that typically refer to an action c"' **state: *hit, break,* run.** *know ьеет*

4. weak verbs. In the Germanc languages, the verbs that form the past tense or participle by adding t ot d. They include weak irregular verbs such as *sleep-slept,* hi'-"", and *bend-bent,* and all the regular verb-.wug-test. A test of linguistic productivity in which a person is gnen a novel word and encouraged to use it in some inflected form. Here is a wug, Now there are t**o >f them: there are two ..."

1-2 amaliy mashg'ulot matni
Mavzu: German filologiyasiga kirish predmeti
Reja:
1. German tillari va ularning tarqalishi
2. Sezar va Tatsit Germanlar haqida
3. Qadimgi Germanlarning ijtimoiy hayoti va urf-odatlari
4. Xalqlarning buyuk ko`chishi
5. Johil qirolliklarning shakllanishi
Kalit so`z va iboralar:

German, hind-orupo, 400 million, G`arbiy german, Sharqiy german, Shimoliy german qabilalari, antik, Ingliz, nemis, niderland, afrikaans, idish, friz, qirollik, diniy e`tiqod, roman, Verden shartnomasi, qirol Lis, Lyudvig, nemis, Lotar

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1.   German tillari va ularning tarqalishi

German tillari hind-ovrupa tillari ichida so`zlashuvchilar soni bo`yicha birinchi o`rinda turadi. Turlicha hind-ovrupa tillarida jahonda 16 OOO mln. kishi so`zlashsa, shundan 400 mln. kishi German tillarida so`zlashadi.

Hozirgi zamon German tillari asosan 3 Guruhga bo`linadi:

1) G`arbiy german tillari,
2) Sharqiy german tillari,
3) Shimoliy german tillari.

I. G`arbiy german tillari guruhiga Ingliz, nemis, niderland (Golland), Afrikaans (bur), idish (yahudiy), friz tillari kiradi.

Ingliz tilida Buyuk Britaniya, Amerika Qo`shma Shtatlari, Avstraliya va Yangi Zelandiya aholisi so`zlashadi. Ingliz tili ushbu mamlakatlarda milliy til hisoblanadi. Shuningdek, Ingliz tili Kanadada fransuz tili bilan bir katorda davlat tili hisoblanadi, mamlakatda Ingliz-kanadaliklar aholining 40% dan ko`p qismini tashkil etadi. Ingliz tili Janubiy Afrika Respublikasida ham Afrikaans (bur) tili qatori davlat tili hisoblanadi. Umuman olganda, Ingliz tilida 300 millionga yaqin kishi so`zlashadi.

Nemis tilida Germaniya, Avstriya, Shimoliy va Markaziy Niderlandiya, Lyo`qsemburg, Franqiya hududidaGi Elьzas va LotarinG aholisi so`zlashadi. Shuningdek, nemis tili ovrupaning ayrim tumanlariga va Amerika Qo`shma Shtatlariga ham tarqalgan. Umuman olganda, jahonda nemis tilida 100 millionga yaqin kishi so`zlashadi.

Niderland (Golland) tili Niderlandiya va Bel`giyaning shimoliy tumanlaridan Flandriya aholilari ona tili hisoblanadi. Ushbu tilda dunyoda 19 million odam so`zlashadi.

Afrikaans (bur) tili Niderland koloniyachilarining tili hisoblanib, u tilda 3.5 million aholi so`zlashadi.

Idish - hozirgi zamon yahudiy tili hisoblanib, u turli Ovrupa mamlakatlarida yashovchi yahudiy aholisi o`rtasida tarqalgan.

Friz tili mustaqil milliy til hisoblanmaydi. Bu tilda Germaniyaning shimoliy-G`arbiy tomonlari aholisi so`zlashadi.

II. Shimoliy german (skandinav) tillari guruhiga quyidagi tillar kiradi: Island tili - Islandiya mamlakatining tili, 215 ming kishi so`zlashadi;

Norveg tili - Norvegiya aholisining tili, 4 mln.ga yaqin kishi so`zlashadi;

Farer tili - Farer orollari aholisi tili,35 ming kishi so`zlashadi;

Shved tili - Shvetsiyaning 8 mln.dan ziyod va Finlandiyaning 400 ming aholisi so`zlashadi.

Daniyaliklar tili - Daniya aholisining ona tili hisoblanib, bu tilda 5 mln.dan ziyod aholi so`zlashadi.

III. Sharqiy german tillari Guruhiga Got tili kiradi.

2.   Sezar va Tatsitlarning germanlar hahida

Qadimgi germanlar o`zlarining rivojlanishi tarixida boshqa qabilalar va xalqlar o`z boshlaridan kechirgan barcha kechinmalarni o`tkazdi. Germanlar farq qiladigan muhim, boshqalar bilan aralashmagan urug`ni tashkil qilmasdan balki arxeologik qazilmalar natijalariga e`tibor beradigan bo`lsak, hamda antik olimlar ya`ni Sezar va Tatsitlar fikrlariga tayanadigan bo`lsak, ular boshqa qabilalar bilan aralashib

ketganiga guvoh bo`lamiz. Ayniqsa, tarixiy faktlar asosida qarasak, ayrim german qabilalarining romanlashishi va kel`tlashishi ko`zga tashlanadi.

Ayrim olimlarning fikriga qo`shilish qiyin, chunki ular German tillari hind ovrupa-tillarining to`liq belgilarni o`zida saqlab qolgan deyishadi. Ammo, German tillarining rivojlanish jarayonida boshqa qabilalarning ta`siri natijasida ko`pgina elementlar German tillarida paydo bo`ladi.

3.   Qadimgi germanlarning ijtimoiy hayoti va urf-odatlari

German qabilalari boshida asosiy urug` boshlig`i turadi. Ya`ni qiyoslasak, Got tilida *kuni,*

Qadimgi Ingliz tilida *synn,*
*Qad*imgi yuqori nemis tilida *kunni,*
Qadimgi skandinav tilida *kun,*
*L*otin tilida *genus,*
*Y*unon tilida *genos* - nasl, avlod.

Yuqori hokimiyat xalq yig`ilishiga tegishli bo`lib, unda faqat qabila erkaklari qurollangan holda qatnashgan. Harbiy jarayonda harbiy qo`mondon saylangan. Masalan, Qadimgi yuqori nemis tilida Herizogo, Qadimgi Ingliz tilida heretoga, Qadimgi island tilida hertogi, nemis tilida Herzog - Gersog (G`arbiy ovrupada mulkdor va yuqori tabaqa dvoryanlar unvoni). O`sha davrda Germanlarda patriarxallik hukm surgan. Ammo, ayrim ma`lumotlarga qaraganda, o`sha davrda matriarxallik qoldiqlari ham mavjud bo`lgan. Shuning uchun ham ayrim Germanlarda opa-singillar tomonidan tog`a va jiyanlar o`rtasidagi qarindoshlik rishtalari hatto ota-o`g`il munosabatlaridan-da kuchliroq bo`lgan. Shunga qaramay, o`g`il, har holda, merosho`r bo`lgan. Dushman uchun opa-singil tomonidan jiyanni yoki qabila boshlig`ining qizi yoki jiyanini garovga olish ko`proq maqsadga muvofiq bo`lgan.

Germanlarning ko`chishi yangi eraning birinchi asrlarida yuz berdi. Sezarning ta`kidlashicha, Germanlar ko`chmanchilik davrida asosan chorvadorlik, ovchilik va harbiy bosqinchilik bilan shug`ullanganlar. Sezarning yozishicha, Germanlar asosan sut, pishloq, go`sht va juda kam non iste`mol qilishgan. Pliniy esa ularning ovqati sifatida suli yormasidan bo`lgan bo`tqa haqida yozadi.   Germanlarning   kiyimi asosan hayvonlar terisidan tayyorlangan, mo`yna bilan bezatilgan plash, ayollarning kiyimi esa qizilga bo`yalgan bo`z matodan bo`lgan.

Germanlarning ovullari xodadan yasalgan kulbadan iborat bo`lib, ular bir-biridan uzoq joylashgan va atrofi tomorqalar bilan o`ralgan. Ushbu qarorgohlarda butun boshli urug` joylashgan.

Germanlar to`qimachilik, sovun ishlab chiqarish, mato bo`yash, kulolchilik, metallarni qayta ishlash, kemasozlik va baliqchilik bilan shug`ullanishgan. Germanlar rimliklarga qoramol, teri, mo`yna, qahrabo sotib, ulardan metall buyumlar, qurol-aslaha, uy anjomlari, bezaklar, vino va mevalar sotib olishgan.

Qadimgi Germanlarning urf-odatlari haqida so`z ketganda, ta`kidlash joizki, ular mehmondo`st; turmushdagi eng muhim voqealar - farzand tug`ilishi, nikoh va dafn marosimlaridir. Vafot etganlarni Germanlar o`tda yoqishgan.

Germanlar xudoga ishonishgan, ular o`zlarining boshlanishi va paydo bo`lishi xudodan deb tushinishadi. Mifda ta`kidlanishicha, yer xudo Tuiskoni yaratdi va uning o`g`li Mann germanlarning katta ajdodi hisoblanadi. Germanlarning fikricha eng katta xudolar - eng yuqorida yashaydi, eng pastda esa ruhlar makoni - kulfat, do`zax. Insonlar dunyosi turli g`aytroddiy kuchlar bilan qurshalgan: janubda tinchlik, olov; shimolda ayoz va kulfat; sharqda ulkan bahodirlar, Garbda esa vanlar dunyosi deb tassavvur qilishgan.

3. Xalqlarning buyuk ko`chishi

Germanlar orasida mulk tengsizligi va urug`-qabilalar o`rtasidagi munosabatlarning keskinlashuvi German qabilalarining ijtimoiy-siyosiy hayotida katta o`zgarishlarga olib keldi. Ishlab chiqarish kuchlarining past rivojlanishi, yerga bo`lgan ehtiyojning kuchayishi, qulchilikka va rivojlangan qo`shni xalqlarning boyligini talon-taroj qilishga intilish German qabilalarining ko`chishiga sabab bo`ldi. Ular Ovrupaning katta hududlarini eglladilar. 4-7 asrlar davomida bu hodisa davom etdi va tarixda Xalqlarning buyuk ko`chishi davri nomini oldi.

Sharqiy German qabilalari - Gotlar Visla daryosining quyi oqimidan va Boltiq dengizi sohillaridan, Germanlar cho`llaridan Rim imperiyasi tomon ko`chishadi. O`sha paytda Rim imperiyasi uzluksiz urushlar, qullar va qaram mamlakatlarning qo`zg`olonlari natijasida zaiflashgan edi. Rim imperiyasining qulashi bilan quldorlik tuzumi ham barham topadi. German qabilalarining Ovrupaga buyuk ko`chishi 6-7-asrlarda tugaydi va Germanlarning johil qirolliklari tashkil topadi.

4. Johil qirolliklarning tashkil topishi

Germanlar qirolliklari 5- asrdan boshlab muayyan tarixiy vaziyatga bog`liq ravishda juda murakkab tarzda tashkil topa boshlaydi.

Sharqiy Germanlarning rim imperiyasi hududida rimliklar bilan to`qnashuvidan so`ng quyidagi davlatlar yuzaga keldi: Italiyada ostgotlar, Ispaniyada vestgotlar, o`rta Reynda burgundilar va shimoliy Afrikada vindallar.

6- asrning o`rtalarida Vizantiya imperiyasining qo`shinlari tomonidan vindallar va ostgotlar qiroliklari tugatiladi. 534 yil burgundilar qirolligi Merovinglar davlatiga qo`shiladi. Franklar, vestgotlar, burgundilar Galliya va Ispaniyaning romanlashgan aholisi bilan aralashib ketadi.

G`arbiy german qabilalari - angllar, sakslar va yutlar Britaniyaga ko`chadi va Britaniya hududining katta qismida o`zlarining qirolliklariga asos soladilar. Karl davlat tepasiga chiqqach, yer islohotlari o`tkazadi va franklar jamiyatini feodallashtiradi. Uning saroyida ko`pgina olimlar, shoirlar yig`ilishgan. Karl monastir maktblari va monax-ruhoniylar orqali madaniyat va savodxonlikni targ`ib qiladi. Ilk roman arxitekturasi uslubida ko`plab qasrlar va ibodatxonalar qurdiradi.

Karl vafotidan keyin Karolinglarning buyuk imperiyasi uch qismga bo`linib ketdi. Verden shartnomasiga asosan imperiyaning G`arbiy qismi ya`ni bo`lajak Fransiya Karl Lisonga; sharqiy qismi - bo`lajak Germaniya Lyudvig Nemisga, Karl va Lyudvig yerlari o`rtasidagi Italiya esa Loterga nasib qildi. Shunday qilib, uchta alohida davlat yuzga keldi.

<h1 style="text-align:center">3-4- amaliy mashg'ulot matni</h1>
<h2 style="text-align:center">Mavzu: <u>Qadimgi German qabilalari va ularning yozuvi</u></h2>

Reja:

1. Qadimgi german qabilalarining tasnifi
2. Qadimgi german qabilalari va ular tillarining tasnifi
3. Yozuv davrigacha german tillari
4. Runa yozuvi
5. Lotin yozuvi
6. Got yozuvi

<u>Kalit so`z va iboralar:</u>

Runa, lotin, got, yozuv, Vindallar, ingveeonlar, istveonlar, burgundilar, karinlar, gutonlar, tevtonlar, havklar, brukterlar, homavlar, sallar, Franklar, angllar, sakslar, yo`tlar, frizlar, bastarlar, markomanlar, kvadlar, langobardlar, alemonlar.

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1 Qadimgi german qabilalarining tasnifi

Qadimgi german tillari va ularning tasnifi o`sha tillar sohiblari bo`lmish qabilalar masalasi bilan bog`liq. German qabilalarining birinchi tasnifini Pleniy Starshiy amalga oshirdi va unga ko`ra 6 guruhga bo`ladi:

1. Vindallar, bunga burgundilar, karinlar, varinlar, go`ttonlar qabilalari kiradi. Ular hududning sharqiy qismida yashaganlar.

2. Ingveonlar, bunga kilovrlar, tevtonlar, havklar hamda angllar, sakslar, yutlar, frizlar. Ular Germaniya hudududining shimoli-g`arbiy qismida istiqomat qilishadi.

3. Istveonlar, bunga brukterlar, xavklar, sallar kiradi; keyinchalik esa franklar qabilalari ittifoqi ham qo`shiladi.

4. Pevkinlar, bastarlar bo`lib, ular mamlakatning sharqiy qismida yashashgan.

5. Germionlar yoki ermionlar bo`lib, ularga markomenlar kiradi, Germaniyaning janubiy qismida yashashadi.

6. Gillevionlar - skandinav qabilalari.

2. Qadimgi german qabilalari tillarining tasnifi

Qadimgi German bitiklari aks etgan yodgorliklarni o`rganish asosida quyidagi til guruhlarini ajratish mumkin:

1) Sharqiy german tillari. 4-6- asrlarga taalluqli yodgorliklardagi Got tili timsolida. Otsgotlar qirolligi barham topishi bilan got tili yozuvi ham yo`q bo`lib ketgan.

2) Shimoliy (skandinav) german tillari guruhi, 10- asrgacha runa yozuvida yodgorliklar timsolida ajratilgan.

3) G`arbiy german tillar guruhi, 7- asrga taalluqli bo`lgan yodgorliklarda Qadimgi Ingliz, Qadimgi friz, Qadimgi sakson, Qadimgi quyi frank va Qadimgi yuqori nemis tillari timsolida.

German tillaridan shimoliy va G`arbiy guruhlari hozirgacha saqlanib qolgan. Ular miliy tillar darajasida yoki milliy tilning lahjasi sifatida rivojlandilar. Ushbu tillarni qabila tillari sifatida tasniflasak, Vindillar Guruhiga gotlar, burgundilar kiradi va ular sharqiy German tillari namoyandalari hisoblanadilar. Ingveonlar guruhiga tevtonlar, havklar, frizlar, angllar, sakslar, yutlar kabi qabilalar tillari kiradi. Itsveonlar guruhiga frank qabilalari kiradi; germeonlar guruhiga - alemannlar, bavarlar, langobardlar kiradi va ular g`arbiy german tillari sohiblari hisoblanadilar. Gillevionlar - skandinav qabilalari shimoliy german tillarida so`zlashganlar.

3. Yozuv davrigacha bo`lgan german qabilalari

Qadimgi germanlar turli paytlarda turlicha elatlar bilan yaqinlashadi, masalan ya`ni finlar bilan, boltiq, va slavyan qabilalari bilan, janubda esa Qadimgi Greklar va rimliklar bilan yaqin munosabatda bo`ladi. Shu yaqinlashuvlar natijasi o`laroq, o`sha xalqlar tillarida German tillaridan kirib kelgan so`zlarni uchratish mumkin.

Masalan renga-uzuk,

Got. *hringes*,

Qadimgi yuqori nemis tilida *ring*,

kulta-tilla,

Got—gult,

Qadimgi yuqori nemis gold, rekas - boy,

Got, reiks,

Qadimgi yuqori nemis rich.

Ko`pgina germanlarning atoqli otlari nomlari va boshqa so`zlar lotin tilida bitilgan yodgorliklarda uchraydi, o`sha paytlarda german tillarining o`z yozuvlari paydo bo`layotgan davr edi. german atamalarining lotin tilidagi yozuvlarida asosan Germanlarda harbiy demoqratiya tuzish jarayoni va feodal munosabatlar tug`ilishi davri, hamda germanlarning huquqiy munosabatlari o`z aksini topgan. Diqqatga sazovor joyi german qabilalaridan burgundilar va langobardlar o`z ona tillarida bironta ham yozma yodgorlik qoldirmagan.

4. Runa yozuvi

Germanlarda eng qadimgi yozuv runa yozuvi hisoblanadi. "Runa" harfining nomi "sir" so`zining negizidan bo`lib, Got tilida runa-sir, nemis tilida *raunen-sirli,* sehrli ma`nolarini ifodalaydi. Germanlarda runa alfaviti Katta Runa deb ataladi va 24

belgidan iborat. Runa yozuvi asosan yog`ochlarga, metallarga, qabr toshlarga, tilla buyumlarga o`ymakorlik uslubida bitilgan. Angliyada Runa yozuvi bitilgan yodgorliklardan eng diqqatga sazovorlari Nortumbriyadan topilgan kuticha va Shotlandiyadan topilgan Rutvel tosh hochida bitilgan diniy mazmundagi she`r hisoblanadi. Anglosaksnlarning ingveonlar dialektida runa harflarining soni dastlab 28 tagacha ko`paygan; 9-10-asrlarning Qadimgi Ingliz tilidagi "Runa qo`shig`ida"gi runalar soni 33 taga yetadi. Runa yozuvi German tillari leksikasida ham o`z aksini topa boshladi.

Masalan, nemis tilida *Buchstab* - kitob javoni ma`nosini anglatsa,

Got tilida *ƀoka* harf, ko`plikda *bokos*- kitob,

Qadimgi Ingliz tilida *bocstaf.*

Undan tashqari,

Ingliz tilida *(to) read* - dastlabki ma`nosi "uylab topmoq", «ugadivat» ifodalagan yoki *write* - yozmoqning dastlabki ma`nosi "tirnamoq", «sarapat» ma`nolarini ifodalagan.

Germanlar 4-12- asrlarda xristianlashtirish jarayonida lotin yozuvi bilan tanishadi Gotlar esa Grekcha bilan tanishadi. Natijada runa yozuvi Lotin yozuvi hisobiga 9 asrda franklar davlatida, 11 asrga kelib esa Britaniya orollarida butunlay iste`moldan chiqib ketadi. Shunga qaramay runa yozuvi an`anaviy ravishda Skandinaviya va Daniyada 13-asrgacha, Shvetsiyada 16-17- asrlargacha saqlanib qoladi; ammo, undan sung runa yozuvi lotin va got yozuvi raqobatiga bardosh bermaydi. 19- asr o`rtalarida aytishlaricha runa alfaviti 2-3-asrlarda shimoliy Italiya alfavitidan kelib chiqqan, va keyin g`arbiy german qabilalari uni qabul qilib, boshqa german qabilalariga tarqatishgan. Shuni qayd etish joizki, runa yozuvi German qabilalarining Buyo`q Kuchish daridagi buyo`q madaniy kashfiyotlaridan biri bo`ldi. Ammo, bu yozuv keng tarqalmadi.

5. Lotin yozuvi

Germanlarning xristianlashuv jarayonida ularning malakatidagi bo`lajak tilning barcha muhim ijtimoiy va madaniy funksiyalarni lotin tili bajaradi. Chunki o`sha davrda yagona yozma va adabiy til Lotin tili edi. U cherkov va monastirlarda to`liq ishlatilar edi. Monastir maktablari nafaqat diniy targ`ibotni rivojlantirdi, balki asosiy madaniyat o`chog`i hisoblanardi. Lotin tili alfaviti turli o`zgarishlarga uchradi. Hozirgi zamon German tillari alfavitlari, negizi lotin alfaviti bo`lishiga qaramasdan, ham son jihatdan, ham harflar tarkibiga ko`ra lotin tili alfavitidan farq qiladi. An`anaviy German orfografiyasi ko`p asrlar mobaynida shakllandi va talay munozarali jihatlari mavjud. 15-asr oxirida , Uyg`onish davrida Italiyada matbuot uchun «antikva» deb nomlangan bosma harflar ishlab chiqildi. Bu lotin shriftining bir ko`rinishi bo`lib, u got shriftini siqib chiqardi. 16-asrdan boshlab antikva G`abiy Ovrupa mamlakatlarida keng tarqaldi va o`z vaqtida uning turli xil variantlari ishlab chiqildi. Germaniyada chet tili matnlarini chop qilish uchun antikvadan foydalanishardi. Hozirgi kunda ham German va roman tillari orqali G`arbiy Evropa

hududidan tashqarida tarqalgan lotin shrifti antikvaning turli variantlarida namoyon bo`ladi.

6.   Got yozuvi

Taxminan 11-asrlarda Italiyada lotin alfaviti bazasida yangi turdagi yozuv paydo bo`ldi, va u 11-asr oxirlarida Ovrupaning boshqa davlatlarida tarqala boshlaydi. Yangi yozuvning vazifasi me`morchilik orqali xristianlik g`oyalarini yoyish edi. Bu uslub dunyo madaniyatiga katta ta`sir o`tkazib, natijada ko`pgina nodir binolar Qad ko`tardi; masalan, Parijda Notr-Dam, Venada avliyo Stefena, Londonda Vestminister Abbat va bir talay boshqalar.

Uyg`onish Davri germanlardan gotlar, vandallarda tez rivojlanib, o`rta asrlarning 15- asri me`morchilik uslubi got uslubi deb atala boshlandi (ya`ni nemis tilida Gotisch, Inglizchada esa gothic). Burchakli, uchi o`tkir yozuv ham xuddi shu nom bilan nomlana boshladi. Ushbu nom singib ketdi va vaqt o`tishi bilan o`z bahosini yo`qotdi. Aslida me`morchilikdagi got usuli ham, got harfining ham gotlarga hech qanday aloqasi yo`q.

Ko`pchilik Ovrupa mamlakatlarida got yozuvi asr o`rtasida keng qo`llanilgan (Germaniyada, Angliyada, Fransiyada) va keyinchalik u Lotin tili tomonidan siqib chiqarilgan. Faqat Germaniyada bu yozuv mustahkam va uzoq muddat saqlanib turdi. Maktablarda shu yozuvda o`qitishgan, kitob chop qilishda va matbuotda, hatto xatlar yozishda shu yozuvdan foydalanishgan. Fashistlar diktaturasi davrida Got yozuvi haqiqiy nemis yozuvi deb e`lon qilindi. Ikkinchi jahon urushidan so`ng Got harflari asta-sekin lotin yozuvi tomonidan siqib chiqarildi. Buning asosiy sababi - nemis tilida chop qilinqan asarlarni chet elliklar uchun tushinarliroq bo`lishini ta`minlashdir.

5-6 amaliy mashg'ulot matni
Mavzu: German tillarida fonemalar tizimi va urg`u
Reja:
1. Urg`u va uning turlari.
2. Unlilar tizimi
3. Ablaut va uning turlari
4. Umlaut
5. Undoshlar tizimi va ularning birinchi siljishi
6. Verner qonuni
Kalit so`z va iboralar:
urg`u, fonema, bo`g`in, tonik (she`rda urg`uli va urg`usiz bo`ginlarning muayyan tartibda kelishiga asoslangan), dinamik, ekspirator, belgilangan, laxja, qisqa, cho`ziq, baland, o`rta, past, ko`tarilish, vokallanish, unli, ablaut, umlaut, assimilatsiya, fleksiya, unlilashish, jarangsiz, portlovchi, jaranglilashish.

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1.   Urg`u

Umum-hind-ovrupa tillarida urg`u ikki xususiyati bilan farqlanadi. Birinchi xususiyat shundan iboratki, bo`ginlarning birida ovoz (ton) ko`tariladi. Bunday urg`u tonik yoki musiqali urg`u deb ataladi va nafas kuchi bilan xarakterlanadigan dinamik urg`udan shunisi bilan farqlanadi. Qadimgi hind-ovrupa - sanskrit va grek - tillariga taalluqli yozma yodgorliklarda baland tonli bo`g`inlarni ajratadigan tizimli belgilardan foydalanilgan, masalan, sanskrit tilida varah- aylana, varah- saylov; grekchada tomos-bo`lak, tomos-o`tkir. Demak, urg`u ma`no ajratish funksiyasini bajargan.

Hind-ovrupa tillari urg`usining ikkinchi xususiyati uning erkinligidadir. Umumgerman tillarida erkin urg`u bosh bo`g`inga (o`zak) tushadigan turg`un urg`uga o`zgardi. Tonik urg`u esa dinamik urg`uga o`zgaradi. Hozirgi kunda tonik urg`u Shed va Norveg tillarida, shuningdek ayrim Daniyaliklar lahjasida uchraydi.

2.   Unlilar tizimi.

So`nggi umum hind-ovrupa davrida unlili fonemalar tizimi tiklanib, ular beshta qisqa va beshta cho`ziq fonemadan tashkil topadi:

Yuqori ko`tarilgan unlilar	i,ī	u, ū
O`rta ko`tarilgan unlilar	e, ē, o, ō	
Quyi unlilar	a ā	

Ushbu unililardan tashqari yana qisqa unli [ə] ham bo`lib, u asosan urg`usiz bug`inlarda uchraydi va ablaut natijasida cho`ziq unliga aylanadi. U sanskrit tilida **i,** boshqa xind-ovrupa tillarida **a** shaklida keladi.

Asosiy qisqa unlilar **e** va **o** bo`lib, ular ham unlilar almashinuvida ishtirok etadi. Sof unlilar esa ē, ō, ā,  ī, ū lar hisoblanadi. Umumgerman tillarida qisqa va cho`ziq unlilar o`rtasidagi farq saqlanadi. Eng muhim o`zgarishlar unlilar tizimida yuz beradi. Hind-ovrupa tillaridagi o̲ German tillarida a̲ ga aylanadi. *Rota* (g`ildirak) - Qadimgi german tilida *rad* bo`ladi.

German tillarida vokalizmni o`rganishda ikki davrga e`tibor berish lozim, ya`ni umumgerman tillarining birlashgan davri hamda german tilarining alohida bo`lgan davri. Umumgerman tillarida unlilar tizimi qisqa va cho`ziq fonemalardan tashkil topgan.

German tillarining qisqa **a** unli fonemasi hind-ovrupa ikki unli ā va ō fonemalariga mos keladi.

Masalan:

Grekcha *hortos,* lotincha *hortus – bog`*

Lotin hostis-mehmon; Run. gastir, Got gasts, Eski nemisda. gast

Yoki hind-ovrupa tillarida ū german tillarida u, qisqa unlisi orqali berladi.

Masalan: Sansrit tilida: sūnū, (o`g`il farzand)

Got tilida: *sunus,*

Qadimgi Ingliz, Qadimgi yuqori nemis, Qadimgi skandinav tillarida: *sunu,*

Runada: *sunur,*

Qadimgi island tilida: *sunr*

Hind-ovrupa tillaridagi e german tillarida i orqali ifodalanadi:

Lotincha ventus -shamol

Qadimgi Ingliz tilida -wind,

Qadimgi yuqori nemis tilida -wint,

Qadimgi skandinav tilida -wind,

Qadimgi island tilida -vindr.

Undan tashkari hind-ovrupa tillaridagi u german tillarida o orqali ifodalanadi:

Sanskrit *jugam* (zulm),

Grekcha *zygon,*

*Qad*imgi Ingliz tilida Zeoc yoki zoc,

Qadimgi yuqori nemis tilida: ***joch,***

*Qad*imgi skandinav tilida *ok.*

Cho`ziq unlilar ham quyidagicha o`zgaradi:

Hind-ovrupa tillardagi ā german tillarida ō orqali beriladi:

Sanskrit ***mātār,***

*G*rekchada ***mātēr,***

*L*otinchada ***Mātēr,***

*Qad*imgi Ingliz tilida *mōdor,*

*Qad*imgi skandinav tilida *mōdor,*

*Qad*imgi yuqori nemis tilida ***mōter,***

Qadimgi island tilida *moðir.*

Umuman, hind-ovrupa tillaridagi unlilar tizimi german tillarida quyidagicha o`zgaradi:

Hind Ovrupa	Umum-german	Got	Qadimgi Ingliz	Qadimgi yuqori Nemis	Qadimgi skand.	Qadimgif riz	Qadimgii sland
a,o,e	a	a	x	a	a	a	a
E	**e**	i	e/i	e/i	e/i	e/i	e/i
a,ō	ō	ō	ou	ō	ō	ō	ō
Ē	ē >æ	ē	æ	ā	ā	ē	ā

3.   Ablaut va uning turlari

Ablaut (nem. Ablaut, Ingliz Gradation) unlilarning almashinuvi bo`lib, ular muntazam ravishda so`z yasashda yoki so`z o`zgartirishda qo`llaniladi. Bu hodisa asosan so`z o`zagidagi, suffiksdagi yoki qo`shimchalardagi unlilarning almashinuvi

bo`lib, so`zning grammatik shakli yoki ma`nosiga bog`liq holda yuz beradi. Unlilarning bunday almashinuvi German tillariga nisbatan com (cemit) tillarida keng tarqalgan.

Masalan: arab. gatala-o`ldirmoq, gātela-o`ldirishga o`rinmoq, agatala-o`ldirishga majburlamoq, gutila-o`ldirilgan.

Ablaut tufayli unlilarning almashinuvi ikki xil bo`ladi: sifatli va miqdoriy.

Sifatli ablautda asosan qisqa va cho`ziq unlilarning almashinuvi nazarda tutiladi e-ē, o-ō. Hind-ovrupa tillarida sifatli ablautning eng keng tarqalgan- turi e>o dir: Grek. lego-gapirayapman, logos-so`z;

Lotin. tegō-yopaman, toga-kiyim-kechak.

Unlilarning cho`ziqligiga qarab ablaut uch darajada bo`ladi: mo`tadil (o`rta) daraja, cho`zilgan daraja va nolga teng daraja. Mo`tadil darajada ē va ō fonemalarida cho`zilish sodir bo`ladi:

Lot. sedeō - o`tirayapman->sēdi -o`tirdim(e--» ē ga o`zgarmoqda);

Grek. pōs-oyoq-podos-rod.padej.

Nolga teng daraja- unli reduksiyasi, ya`ni uning tushib qolishi demakdir. Sanskrit karomi-bajaraman->kratah-bajarilgan. Ushbu har uch darajali ablaut grekchada otning kelishiklarda turlanishida ko`zga tashlanadi:

patēr- ota

bosh kelishik: patēr- cho`ziq daraja

qaratqich kelishikda: patros- nolga teng daraja.

Ablaut tufayli fonemalarining o`zgarishi hodisasi turlicha urguning ta`sirida kelib chiqadi. Sifatli ablaut musiqali urg`u bilan bog`liq. Miqdoriy ablaut hodisasida eng ko`p tarqalgan fonemalar ē, ā *nol* kabilar. German tillarida nol darajadagi ablaut so`zlarda m,n,l,r fonemalaridan oldin u rivojlanadi.

Masalan:

Got tilida qiman-kelmoq-qums-kelish;

Qadimgi island: stella-o`g`irlamoq->stuldr-o`g`irlik;

Qadimgi Ingliz: fela-ko`p-full-to`la;

Qadimgi island: koldr-sovuq -> kuldi-ayoz.

German tillaridagi eng ko`p tarqalgan ablaut formulasi ē, ā -nol. German tillarida ichki fleksiya sifatida ablaut so`z o`zgarishida ham, so`z yasalishida ham o`z vazifasiga ega bo`lsa-da, keng va muntazam ravishda so`z o`zgarishida, hamda grammatik ma`no o`zgarishida ko`p uchraydi.

4.   Umlaut.

German tillarida o`zakdagi unlining qo`shimchadagi unliga assimilaqiyasi fonetik hodisasi ko`zatilgan. German tillarida o`sha davrda qisman regrissiv assimilatsiyasi keng tarqalgan bo`lib, uni Yakob Grimm umlaut deb nomladi, ya`ni unlilarning unlilarga o`zgarishi (Nem. umlaut, Ingliz.-mutation).

Umlaut natijasida, ya`ni ichki fleksiya natijasida grammatik ma`nolar ham o`zgaradi:

Qadimgi Ingliz tilida lonzira-lenzra-uzunroq, fōti-frēt-fæt-oyoqlar;

fulljan-> fyllan-to`ldirmoq.

Umlaut natijasida fonemalarning palatallashuvi (yumshash) ko`proq nemis tilida uchraydi.

5.   Undoshlar tizimi va ularning birinchi siljishi

Hind-ovrupa tillari va German tillarini qiyosiy-tarixiy o`rganish umumgerman tillarida undoshlar sistemasini quyidagicha tasniflash mumkin:

Shovqinli fonemalar	Jarangsiz portluvchilar : p,t,k
	Jarangli sirg`aluvchilar: b,d,g
	Jarangsiz sirg`aluvchilar: f, β,h

Sonor fonemalar: j,w,r,l,m,n.

German tillaridagi undoshlarni hind-ovrupa tillaridagi undoshlar bilan qiyoslaganda ayrim fonemalari tulig`icha mos keladi. Biroq, hind-ovrupa tillari va German tillarining shovqinli undoshlari qiyoslanganda muayyan o`zgarishlar mavjudligiga guvoh bo`lamiz. Bunday o`zgarishlarni Rasmus Rask va Yakob Grimmlar undoshlarning birinchi siljishi deb ataydi (The First Consonant Shift).

Hind-ovrupa tillari va German tillari undoshlarining to`g`ri kelish muno-sabatini quyidagicha tasniflash mumkin:

1) Hind-ovrupa tillari p,t,k -> German tillari: f, Ћ, h

Sanskritda *piter,*

Grek tilida *peter,*

Got . *fadar,*

*Qad*imgi Ingliz tilida *fæder,* q

Qdimgi yuqori nemis tilida *fater,*

*Qad*imgi island. *faðir*

2) Hind-ovrupa tillari bh, dh, gh   German tillari b,d,g

Sanskrit *bhratar-*

*Got.*brōЋar,

Qadimgi Ingliz tili brōЋor,

Qadimgi island brōЋir,

3) Hind-ovrupa tillaridagi b,d,g -> German tillarida p,t,k

Litov tilida slabnas-nimjon ->

Got. *slēpan,*

Qadimgi Ingliz tilida slæpan-uxlamoq

Shunday qilib, lotin tilida birorta ham shovqinli undosh yo`qki, hind-ovrupa tillarida o`zgarmay qolgan bo`lsa.

Undoshlarning birinchi siljishi davrida jarangsiz portlovchilar jarangsiz sirg`aluvchilarga o`tgan bo`lsa, jarangli portlovchilar jarangsiz portlovchilarga aylangan.

6. Karl Verner qonuni

U asosan German tillaridagi sirgaluvchi tovushlarning jarangeizligicha qolishi yoki jaranglilashuvi hind-ovrupa tillaridagi so`zlarning qaysi bo`g`iniga urg`u tushishiga bog`liq ekaniga e`tibor berdi. Undoshlarning jaranglilashuvi asosan

so`zlarda undoshlardan oldin kelgan unliga urg`uning tushishi yoki tushmasligiga bog`liq ekanligini qayd etadi.

Karl Verner qonuniga asosan hind-ovrupa tillari va German tillaridagi undoshlarning o`zgarishini quyidagicha `ayd etish mumkin:

Hind-ovrupa tillari		German tillari
Opa		ofa oƂa oba
Ota		oða oƂa oda
Oka		oha oga
Osa		osa oza oza

7-8 amaliy mashg'ulot matni
Mavzu: German tillarida morfologik qurilishida asosiy belgilar
Reja:
1. So`zning morfologik qurilishi.
2.0tlarning turlanishi:
    a) unlilar asosida
    b) undoshlar asosida
3. Sifatning turlanishi va qiyosiy darajasi
4. Fe`lning morfologik tasnifi
5. Fe`lning grammatik kategoriyalari

Kalit so`z va iboralar:

Tizim, turlanish, so`z, o`zak, suffiks, ikki morfemali, negiz, qo`shimcha, uch morfemali, kelishik, tuslanish, kuchli, kuchsiz, mujskoy/jenskiy rod, to`g`ri, noto`g`ri, shaxs, son, zamon, mayl, aniqlik, buyruq, shart, nisbat, mediopassiv, infinitiv, sifatdosh I,II.

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1.   So`zning morfologik qurilishi
Qadimgi German tillarida so`zlarning qurilishi yoki qayta qurilishi eng muhim jarayonlardan biri hisoblanadi. Hind-ovrupa tillaridagi uch morfemali so`z+negiz yasovchi suffiks+qo`shimcha ikki morfemali so`zlarga aylanadi: negiz+qo`shimcha.

Negiz yasovchi suffikslar kelishiklarda uchraydigan fleksiya holatiga qo`shilib ketadi yoki o`zakka birikib ketadi. Shu yo`sinda so`zlarning morfologik qurilmasida o`zgarishlar ro`y beradi. So`zlarni negizga ajratish leksik ma`noni anglatsa, qo`shimcha esa grammatik ma`noni ifodalaydi.

Masalan: *fæder (ota) -fæder+as (otalar)*

Ikki morfemali so`z qurilmasi german tillarida keng tarqalgan bo`lsa, uch morfemali so`zlar got va runa yozuvlarida ko`p uchraydi. Tillarda morfema tarkibi qo`shimcha prefikslar, suffikslar va so`zlarning tuzilishiga ko`ra bundan ham murakkabroq bo`lishi mumkin.

Masalan: Got tilida *un-kuð -bilimsizlik,*
Qadimgi Ingliz tilida *un-eaðe-lik-qiyin.*

2. Otlarning turlanishi

Qadimgi german tillarida otlarning rod, son va kelishik kabi morfologik kategoriyalari bo`lgan.

Qadimgi german tillarida otning son kategoriyasini ifodalashda morfologik ko`rsatkichlari bo`lmasa-da, kelishiklardagi fleksiya son kategoriyasini ham ifodalagan.

Otning uchta rod kategoriyasi bo`lgan. Ularni bir-biridan farqlash esa ot negizlarini klasslarga bo`lish asosida bo`lgan. Shu tufayli turli grammatik roddagi otlar turli kelishik va son shakllari orqali ifodalanadi.

Negiz turlarini aniqlash qadimgi german tillaridagi ma`lum faktlardan foydalanib, rekonstruksiya usuli orqali amalga oshiriladi. Ayniqsa, got tillaridagi ot paradigmasi, eng qadimgi skandinav, tillaridagi, runa yozuvidagi kelishik shakllari, hamda boshqa hind-ovrupa tillaridagi ma`lumotlarni qiyoslash bunda muhim o`rin tutadi.

Qiyosiy grammatika german tillaridagi otlarni unlilar asosida farqlaydi:-a-, -ō-, -i-, -u-, . Bu kuchli turlanishga kiradi. Undoshlar *-n-, -r-, -s.* Bunda *-n-* asosida kuchsiz turlanish yuz beradi.

a) Unlilar asosida turlanish

-a- unlisi asosida turlangan mujskoy va sredney roddagi otlarning negizi hind-ovrupa tillaridagi -o- negizli otlarga mos keladi.

Got. m.r. *staims* -tosh,   -cp.p. *waurd* - so`z
Qad. ing. m.r   *stān* -sr.r bān - suyak
Qad.yo`q.nem. m.r. *walf-bo`ri* -sr.r barn-bolalar

-ja - asosida turlanganda shimoliy va g`arbiy german tillarida -j-unlilashadi: Got. *Harjis – qo`shin,*

 *Qad.*ing. *here,*
 *Qad.*yuqori nem. *heri*

-ō- asosli turlanadigan otlar grek tilida *chōra* - soat, lotin tilida *rosa - roza,* rus tilida g*olova* - faqat jenskiy rodga taaluqli bo`lgan.

-/- asosli otlar Qadimgi german tillarida faqat mujskoy va sredney rod guruhiga kirgan.

Masalan:
Got. m.r. *gasts-mehmon j.r.qēns-xotin*
Qad.Ingl. m.r *wine-do`st* j.r *dæd-sovg`a*
Qad.yuq.nem. m.r *gast-mehmon*   j.r *math-kuch*

-*u*- asosli otlar uchala rodga taalluqli bo`lsa-da, ko`pchiligi mujskoy rodni tashkil qiladi.

Got.m.r sunu-tish,
Qad.Ingl.m.r. *sunu,*
Qad.yuq.nem. m.r *sunu*
Got.j.r *handus-qo`l,*
Qad.Ingl. j.r. *hand-ruka*

b) Undoshlar asosida turlanish

Qadimgi german tillarida negiz yasovchi suffiks -n - unlilar bilan murakkablashadi, u esa rodlarni bir-biridan farqlovchi hisoblanadi. Ya`ni, *-an-/-in-* negizli otlar mujskoy va sredney rodlar paradigmasini ifodalasa, *-ōn-* va *-in-* negizli otlar jenskiy rod otlarining morfologik ko`rsatgichlaridir.

Masalan: bosh kelishik, birlik, muj.rod,
Got tili hana-xo`roz,
Qad.Ingl. *hana,*
Qad.yuq.nem. *hano q*aratqich kelishik:
Got tili *hanins,*
Qad.Ingl. *hanon,*
Qad.yuq.nem. *hanen* yoki, bosh kelishik, birlik, jen.rod,
Got. *tuggō,*
Qad.Ingl. *tunze,*
Qad.yuq. nem. *runga-til; q*aratqich kelishik:
Got tili *tuggōns,*
Qad.Ingl. *tunzan,*
Qad.yuq.nem..*zungūn.*
-*s*- negizli otlar got tilidan boshqa german tillarida rotatsizm hodisasiga uchraydi: *s>z>r* :
Got. *Housjian*
Qad.Ingl. *horen,*
Qad.yuq.nem. hūren.- eshitmoq
-r - negizli otlar barcha german tillarida mavjud bo`lib, ular asosan, mujskoy va sredney rodga kiruvchi otlar hisoblanadi. Ular asosan,    qavm-qarindosh  ma`nolarini ifodalovchi otlardir:
Got. *fadar,*

Qad.Ingl. *freder,*

Qad.yuq.nem. fater-ota

Qad.Ingl. *modor,*

Qad.yuq.nem. *muoter*-ona.

-nt- negizli otlar asosan mujskoy rod otlari bo`lib, hozirgi zamon sifatdosh II ning otlashishidan paydo bo`lgan.

Got. *nasjants,*

Qad.Ingl. *hæland,*

Qad.yuq.nem. *heilant- qu*tqaruvchi.

Qadimgi german tillarida otlarning to`rt kelishigi, ya`ni bosh, qaratqich, jo`nalish va tushim kelishiklari mavjud bo`lgan.

3.   Sifatning turlanishi va qiyosiy darajasi

Hind-ovrupa tillarida sifatda ham ot negiz qanday bo`lsa, xuddi shunday turlanish mavjud edi. Hind-ovrupa sifatlari -o- negizlisi german tillarida –a-mujskoy va sredney rodlarida. Hind-ovrupa sifatlari -ā- negizlisi german tillarida - ō - mujskoy va sredney rodlarida.

Qadimgi german tillarida sifat ham kuchli va kuchsiz turlanishga ega bo`ladi. Kuchsiz turlanish -n-negizli sifatlarda rivojlanadi.

Qadimgi german tillarida sifatlarning kuchli va kuchsiz turlanishi natijasida aniqlik va noaniqlik kategoriyalari bir-biridan farqlanadi. Qadimgi german tillarida sifatning qiyosiy darajasi -iz-, -ōr- qo`shimchalari orqali ifodalansa, orttirma daraja - ist; -ōst- suffikslari orqali ifodalanadi.

Qad.Ingl. *lang-legzra-lingest*

Qad.yuq.nem. *lang-lengiro-lengist*

Ayrim sifatlarda, ayniqsa, mavhum asliy va miqdoriy belgilarni ifodalovchi sifatlarning daraja kategoriyasi supplitiv usulda ifodalanadi:

Qad.Ingl. lȳtel-læsse.-læst.

4.   Fe`llarning morfologik tasnifi.

`      Qadimgi german tillarida barcha fe`llar o`tgan zamon shaklining ifodalanishiga qarab, ikki guruhga bo`linadi: kuchli va kuchsiz fe`llar. Qadimgi german tillarida kuchli fe`llar o`zakdagi unlilarning almashinuviga qarab yetti klassga bo`linadi.

I-V klass kuchli fe`llar got tilida fe`lda uchraydigan ablaut asosida tahlil qilinadi. Got tili kuchli fe`llarining o`zakdagi unlilar almashinuvi boshqa german tillari fe`llarida uchraydigan ablaut fonetik o`zgarishlar natijasida anchagina murakkablashadi.

Kuchli fe`llarning VI va VII klassga tobelari shakl yasovchi hodisaning asosini tashkil etadi.

Qadimgi german tillarida VI fe`llarning barchasida unlilarning miqdoriy almashinuvi sodir bo`ladi:

German tillarida a>ō (hind-ovrupa tillarida o>ō).

Tillar	Inf	O`tgan zamon birlik	O`tgan zamon ko`plik	Sifatdosh II

142

Got.	Faran	Fōr	Fōrum	Farans - bormoq
Qad.angl	Faran	Fōr	Fōron	Faren
Qad.yuq.nem	Faran	For	Fuorum	Gifaran

Ayrim VII klassga xos got tili fe`llarda bir vaqtning o`zida o`zakdagi unlining almashinuvi bilan bir qatorda reduplikatsiya hodisasi ham sodir bo`ladi: *lētan-qoldirmoq, lailōt, lailōtum-lētans.*

Kuchsiz fe`llar otlardan yoki boshqa fe`llardan ikkinchi marta shakllangan hisoblanib, o`tgan zamonda asosan, dental suffikslar -d-/-t- variantlari yordamida zamon kategoriyasini ham ifodalagan. Qadimgi german tillari kuchsiz fe`llari 4 guruhga bo`linadi:

1. klass. -ja-negizli:

Got. *sōkjan,*

Qad.Ingl. *dēman*-muhokama qilmoq.

2. klass, -ō- negizli:

Got. *fiskōn-baliq* tutmoq,

Qad.ingl. *macian -* qilmoq

3 klass, -ai- negizli: faqat got tilida o`tgan zamonda va o`tgan zamon sifatdosh shaklida: *haban-habaida-habaiðs - ega bo`lmoq,* boshqa german tillarida esa fe`llarga dental suffikslar qo`shilishi orqali ifodalanadi:

Qad.Ingl. *habban-hæfde;*

Qad.yuq.nem. *habēn-habēta.*

4 klass. Faqat got tilida *-na-/nō-* negizli fe`llar kiradi.

Got: fullnan-to`ldirmoq-fullnōda

5.   Fe`lning grammatik kategoriyalari

Qadimgi german tillari fe`llarida shaxs, son, zamon (hozirgi va o`tgan), mayl (aniqlik, buyruq, optativ), nisbat (aniqlik va mediopassiv), hamda fe`lning shaxssiz formalari - indikativ, sifatdosh I va II, mavjud bo`lgan.

O`sha davrda shaxs ko`rsatkichlari fe`l kategoriyalarini ham ifodalagan. Masalan: Got tilida *niman-olamiz,* -an qo`shimchasi 1 shaxs, ko`plik, aniqlik

mayli, aniq nisbat, hozirgi zamon singari kategoriyalarni ifodalagan.

9-10 amaliy mashg'ulot matni
Mavzu: Umumgerman leksikasi
Reja:
1. Umumgerman etimologik leksik parallellar
2. Kelt va Lotin tillaridan leksik birliklarning ilk o`zlashishi
3. German tillarining o`zaro aloqasi
4. G`arbiy german tillarida fonetik izoglossalar (bir-biriga yaqinlashtiruvchi belgilar)
5. G`arbiy german tillarida morfoloGik izoglossalar
6. Rototsizm
Kalit so`zlar:

etimologiya, parallel, izogloss, areal, lug`aviy fond, razryad, tana qismlari, hayvonlar va usimliklar nomlari, o`zlashtirish, kelt, lotin, unlilar siljishi, undoshlarning birinchi siljishi, uzayish, skandinav, runa, rototsizm.

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1.   UmumGerman tillarida etimoloGik parallellar

Qadimgi german tillari lug`at fondida ko`pgina leksik yaqinliklar mavjud bo`lib, ular german areallaridan chetga chiqmaydi. Mazkur etimologik parallellar umumgerman lug`at fondini tashkil qilib, asosan, umumgerman davrida sodir bo`ladi.

Umumgerman etimologik parallellarini Qadimgi german tillaridan quyidagi misollar yordamida berish mumkin:

**1) Ot so`z turkumida.** Bu razryad bir qancha tematik guruhlarga bo`linadi:

a) tana qismlari nomlari:

Got. *handus,*

Qad.Ingl.*hand,*

Qad.yuq.nem *hant*

b) hayvonlar va o`simliklar nomlari:

Got. fugls-qush.

Angl *fuzol,*

Qad.yuq.nem *fogal*

v) tabiiy va jug`rofiy tushunchalar:

Got. swais - dengiz, ring.

Qad.Ing. sæ, ren-rizn;

Qad.yuq.nem. sēo, regan

g) Ayrim predmet nomlari:

Qad.Ingl. brycz-ko`prik,

Qad.yuq.nem-brucha;

d) Mavhum tushunchalar:

Qad.Ingl. *Iif-hayot,*

Qad.yuq.nem *lib,*

Qad.island. *lif*

**2) Fe`llarda** leksik-grammatik so`zlar etimologik parallellari ko`plab uchraydi:

Got. *drigkan,*

Qad.Ingl. *drincan,*

Qad.yuq.nem trincan-ichmoq; *sandjan sendan senten* – jo`natmoq

3) Sifatlarda ham quyidagi etimologik parallellar bor:

Got. *braiðs,*

Qad.Ingl. *brād,*
Qad.yuq.nem *breit* – keng; *siuks- sēoc -sich -* kasal
4) Olmoshlarda:
Got. *swaleiks,*
Qad.Ingl. *swilc,]*
Qad.yuq.nem. *solih* - shunday
5) Ravishlarda:
Got. *ufta,*
Qad.Ingl. *ost,*
Qad.yuq.nem *oft*-tez-tez.
German tillari lug`at fondining 30% ni umumgerman leksikasi tashkil qiladi.

2.   Kelt va Lotin tillaridan dastlabki o`zlashtirishlar

German tillarining leksik fondi rivojlanish jarayonining turli davrlarida kelt va lotin tillari leksikasi hisobiga boyib bordi. Nogerman etnik guruhlardan germanlar keltlar bilan to`qnashgan va natijada kelt va lotin tillaridan ko`plab so`zlar o`zlashgan.

Masalan:
Kelt, *īsemo* - temir.
Got. *eisam,*
Qad.Ingl. *īsem/iren,*
Qad.yuq.nem. *isam* yoki *isan*
Kelt   *rig* -hukmdor ->
Got., *raiks,*
Qad.Ingl. *rice,*
Qad.yuq.nem *rikhi.*

Keltlardan o`zlashtirilgan qatlam german tillari leksikasiga ham german tillari paydo bo`lish davrida kirib kelgan. Lotin tilidan o`zlashgan so`zlar germanlarning parokandalikka uchragan davriga to`g`ri keladi. Ammo, turli german tillaridagi o`zlashma so`zlar bir-biriga juda o`zshash. Lotin o`zlashmalari ushbu qatlamining xarakterli xususiyati shundaki, ular asosan og`zaki nutq orqali kirib kelib, tezda umumiy iste`molga tarqalgan. Mazkur qatlamdagi so`zlar Rim sivilizatsiyasining qadimgi germanlar madaniyati va ijtimoiy turmush tarziga o`tkazgan turli ta`sirlaridan guvohlik beradi.

Lat. molina - tegirmon,
Qad.Ingl. *mylen,*
Qad.yuq.nem *mulin*
Lat *vinum* - vino,
Got. *wein,*
Qad.Ingl. *win,*
Qad.yuq.nem *win*
Lat. *coquina* - oshxona

Qad.Ingl. c*ucene,*
Qad.yuq.nem *chuhkina*

German tillarining mustaqil rivojlanishi davrida hind-ovrupa tillaridan farqli belgilari ko`payib boradi. Ayniqsa, unlilarning siljishi, undoshlarning birinchi siljishi, morfologiyada sifatlarning kuchsiz turlanishi, kuchsiz fe`llarning o`tgan zamonida dental suffikslarning paydo bo`lishi, kuchli fe`llar tuslanishi, shakllanishi (ablaut ta`sirida), German tillari leksik fondining shakllanishida o`z o`rniga ega bo`lgan yangi so`zlar yaratilishi shular jumlasidandir.

3.   German tillarining o`zaro aloqasi

German tillari guruhida o`zaro bir-biriga yaqinlik, ularning rivojlanishida aniq tarixiy voqealar ko`zga tashlanadi. Tillarning qadimiy o`zaro aloqasi lingvistik xaritani yaratishga yordam beradi.

Lingvistik xarita turli hududlar tillari o`rtasidagi aloqani, jumladan G`arbiy va shimoliy german tillari o`zaro yaqinligini aniqlashga yordam beradi. Bu guruhlar tillariga umumiy bo`lgan muhim fonetik, leksik, morfologik izoglosslar ushbu tillar rivojlanish tarixida ularning yaqindan aloqada bo`lganligidan dalolat beradi.

G`arbiy german tillarining sharqiy va shimoliy german tillaridan farqlovchi xususiyatlari aniqlangan.

4. G`arbiy german tillarida fonetik izoglosslar

1) G`arbiy german tillarida undoshlarning cho`zilishi. Bu hodisa undoshlar-ning qisqa unli va j dan so`ng dubllashishi demakdir.
Got. *satjan,*
Qad.Ingl. *settan,*
Qad.yuq.nem. sezzen-o`tkazmoq

Undoshlarning cho`zilishi r,*l,b*dan oldin ba`zan uchragan, juda kam holatlarda esa *n,m,w* dan oldin ham uchragan:

Got *snutrs* - dono,
Qad.Ingl. *snottor,*
Qad.yuq.nem *snottar.*
Undoshlar cho`zilishi r dan boshqa barcha undoshlarda sodir bo`ladi:
Got. nasjam-qutqarmoq,
Qad.Ingl. - *nerian,*
Qad.yuq.nem - *nerien*
Jarangli sirg`aluvchilar esa portlovchilarga aylanadi: ff [uv] ->bb: Qad.island-sif,
Got.-sibja [sivja],
Qad.Ingl.-sibb,
Qad.yuq-nem-sibba-sippa- qarindosh.
2) G`arbiy german tillarida jarangli sirg`aluvchi ō portlovchi d ga aylanadi, Qad.yuq.nem. tilida esa undoshlarning ikkinchi siljishida t ga aylanadi:
Got. *beiden* [bi:ðan],
Qad.Ingl. *biddan,*
Qad.yuq.nem. *bittan*-kutmoq

5. G`arbiy german tillarida morfologik izoglosslar

1) G`arbiy german tillarida sifatdosh II ning kuchli turlanishi muhim ahamiyatga ega.

Qad.Ingl. *bindendu,*

Qad.yuq.nem *bintantiu* – bog`layotgan

2) G`arbiy german tillarining got va qadimgi skandinav tillaridan farqi shundaki, unda infinitivning turlanish formalari mavjud:

Qad.Ingl. jo`nalish kelishik (to) *nimenne*-olish uchun, Qad.yuq.nem.qaratqich kelishik *nemannes,* jo`nalish kelishik nemanne.

3) G`arbiy german tillarida "bo`lmoq" fe`lining hozirgi zamonda shaxs formalari ikki o`zakning qo`shilishi yordamida beriladi:

	Birlikda		Ko`plikda
I shaxs	Bēo	I shaxs	Bēoð
II shaxs	Bist	II shaxs	Bēoð
III shaxs	Við	III shaxs	Bēoð

6. Rotatsizm

G`arbiy va shimoliy german tillarida **z** undoshining **r** undoshiga aylanish hodisasi ro`y beradi. Bu hodisa Grek harfi (φ) nomi bilan Rotatsizm deb ataladi.

Mazkur o`zgarish, ya`ni rotatsizm hodisasi asosan kuchli fe`llar shakllarida va ayrim leksik parallellarda uchraydi.

Masalan:

Qad.Ingl. cēosan-»cēas->curon-coren - tanlamoq

Qad.Ingl. was-wæron -bo`ldi-bo`ldilar.

Oldingi mavjud bo`lgan r harfi z dan paydo bo`lgan z dan fonetik jihatdan, ayniqsa, skandinav va runa yozma yodgoliklari ikki xil belgi bilan, ya`ni r va R orqali beriladi, ammo ularning talaffuzi bir xil.

Masalan, runa yozuvida *dohtriR - q*iz farzand.

11-12 amaliy mashg'ulot matni
Mavzu: <u>German tillari rivojlanishida asosiy bosqichlar</u>
Reja:

1. Qabila tillarining rivojlanishida umumiy qonuniyatlar
2. Xalq tillarining shakllanishi
3. Millatlarning tashkil topishi va milliy tillarning rivojlanishi
4. Sharqiy german tillari guruhi
5. Skandinav tillari

Kalit so`zlar:

bosqich, qonuniylik, xalq, millat, yozuv, knyazlik, savdo-sotiq, ishlab chiqarish, feodalizm, davlat, umumiylik, territoriya, ijtimoiy, psixologik, madaniyat, Skandinaviya, Zelandiya, siling, markaziy va janubiy Yevropa, Daniya, Hordalan, Norvegiya, Shvetsiya, Vestergetland, Estergetland.

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1. Qabila tillari rivojlanishida umumiy qonuniyatlar

Germanlarning ilk yozma yodgorliklari barcha german tillari o`rtasida katta o`xshashlik borligidan darak bersa, qabila tillarining rivojlanishi natijasida farqli tomonlari ham ko`zga tashlanadi. Qardosh qabilalarning birlashishi va qabilalar ittifoqi paydo bo`lishi bilan german tillari rivojlanishida yangi bosqich boshlandi: bir-biridan ajralib ketgan qardosh qabilalarning bir-biriga yaqinlashishi boshalanadi. Bu jarayonda bir til umumqabila tili sifatida boshqalaridan ustunroq qo`yiladi - ushbu til kuchli qabila tili bo`ladi.

German qabilalari tarixi shuni ko`rsatadiki, qabilalar ittifoqi birlashish jarayoni bir bosqichda sodir bo`lmaydi. Xalqlarning Buyuk Ko`chishi davriga qadar hududiy yaqin kichik qardosh qabilalar birlashgan edi. Bunday birlashishlar etnik jihatdan har xil bo`lib, ular qardosh bo`lmagan tillarda gaplashgan.

Masalan, ostgot qiroli Erminarih hukumronligi davrida, u boshqargan qabilalar ittifoqiga nafaqat Gotlar, balki, boltiqbo`yi va sharqiy fin qabilalari kirgan.

2. Xalq tillarining shakllanishi

Xalq tillarining shakllanishi u yoki bu feodal mamlakatda yuz berayotgan muayyan tarixiy vaziyatga bog`liq ravishda sodir bo`lgan. agar, feodal davlatda siyosiy va iqtisodiy markaz qancha barvaqt aniqlanib, barcha knyazliklar yagona tan olingan markazga bo`ysunib rivojlansa, xalq tili ham ertaroq shakllanadi.

Savdo-sotiq, ishlab chiqarishning rivojlanishi bilan shaharlarning ahamiyati oshib, feodal parokandalikning o`rniga davlat boshqaruvining yangi tizimi - absolyut monarxiya vujudga keladi va davlat boshqaruvini markazlashtiradi. Feodal tuzimni va urf-odatlarni siqib chiqarish asnosida millat shakllanadi. Millatni tashkil qiladigan belgilardan bo`lmish hudud birligi, iqtisodiy, ruhiy va madaniy hayot birligi bilan bir qatorda til birligi ham muhim sanaladi.

3. Millatlarning tashkil topishi va milliy tillarning rivojlanishi

Umumiy millat tili xalq tili asosida tiklanadi va bu jarayon muayyan tarixiy sharoitdan kelib chiqib, har xil shakllarda bo`lishi mumkin. Shakllanishiga London lahjasi asos bo`lgan Ingliz milliy tilining vujudga kelish jarayonida sharqiy-markaziy dialektlar shimoliy dialektlarni siqib chiqardi; chunki markaziy-sharqiy dialektlar mamlakat siyosiy va iqtisodiy hayotida muhim o`rin tutgan. Ushbu dialekt asosida Ingliz tili aniqlandi va milliy til sifatida rivojlandi.

Feodalizmdan kapitalizmga o`tish davrida yosh milliy burjuaziya til oldiga aniq talablar qo`yadi: masalan, fanni rivojlantirish, umummilliy madaniyatni ko`tarishda til normasiga e`tibor qaratiladi. Chunki, ushbu talablar feodalizm davrida qo`yilmagan edi. Tilni normallashtirish matbaachilar yagona til birligiga intilishi asnosida boshlandi. Milliy tillarni normallashtirish uchun yozuvchilar va olimlarning ongli faoliyati turtki bo`ldi va milliy grammatikalar, lug`atlar chop qila boshlandi. Milliy til -butun xalq tili bo`lib, o`z ichiga og`zaki va yozma ko`rinishlarni oladi. Ta`kidlash joizki, so`zlashuv tili mamlakat tarixi mobaynida yozma tildan farqlanib kelgan.

Keyinchalik, fan va texnikaning rivojlanishi, aholi o`rtasida madaniyatning tarqalishi, ommaviy axborot vositalarining yangi, qudratli ko`rinishlari, radio, televideniyaning paydo bo`lishi bilan milliy tilning og`zaki shakli yozma shakl ta`sirida ma`lum normaga tushadi.

4.   Sharqiy german tillari guruhi

Qadimgi german tillari uchta katta guruhga bo`linadi:

1) Sharqiy german tillari, bunga Got tili kiradi;

2) Shimoliy german tillari - skandinav tillari, buning tarkibiga qadimgi shimoliy tillar, ya`ni qadimgi shved, qadimgi norveg, qadimgi island, qadimgi daniyaliklar tillari;

3) G`arbiy german tillari - qadimgi yuqori nemis tili, qadimgi Ingliz tili, qadimgi sakson tili, quyi frank va friz tillari.

Sharqiy german tillariga asosan gotlar mansub bo`lib, ular o`zlarini gut Þiuda - Gutlar xalqi deb atashadi. Dastlab, Gotlar shimol tomon, Dunaydan Dneprgacha tarqaladilar. 3 asr o`rtalarida Gotlar Rim imperiyasiga hujum qiladi. Ular ulkan harbiy ittifoqqa birlashib tuzib, Bolqon va Kichik Osiyoga yurish qiladilar. Gotlar Qora dengiz sohillarida joylashib, o`sha yerda ostgotlar va vestgotlarga bo`linadi.

258 yil Gotlar Qrimni zabt etadi. Faqat 18 asrga kelib, qrim gotlari mahalliy aholi bilan butunlay qorishib ketdi. Qora dengiz sohillarida ostgotlar rahbarligida qabilalarning qudratli ittifoqi tuziladi.

Vestgotlar esa Vizantiya imperatoriga Rim imperiyasi hududida jolashish uchun ruxsat so`rab murojaat qilishgan. Ammo vestgotlarning turmush tarzi nihoyatda og`ir edi, ular rim qullari va koloniya ko`magida Rim imperiyasiga qarshi chiqib, uni tor-mor qilishadi. 439 yilda Italiya ostgotlar tomonidan bosib olinadi. Ostgotlar qirolliGi 555 yilgacha hukmronlik qiladi. Shu tariqa gotlar va boshqa sharqiy german qabilalari keyinchalik mahalliy aholi bilan aralashib ketib, vaqt o`tishi bilan tarix sahnasidan g`oyib bo`ladi. Got tili germanshunoslikda katta ahamiyat kasb etadi; u haqda qiyosiy-tarixiy tilshunoslik uning yozma yogorliklari bo`yicha to`liq ma`lumot beradi. Got tili fonetik, grammatik tuzilishining tahlili german tillarining rivojlanish yo`llarini aniqlashda o`ta muhimdir. Got tiliga mansub faktlar german tillarini qiyosiy-tarixiy va tipologik tadqiqotlar o`tkazish uchun katta imkoniyatlar yaratadi.

Got yozuvining paydo bo`lishi 4 asrda gotlar orasida xristian dinining tarqalishi bilan bog`lik. Got yozuvi asosida grek alfaviti yotadi. Biroq, ayrim harflar lotin va runa yozuvidan o`zlashtirilgan. Got alfaviti 27 harfdan iborat.

Got injilidan (Bibliya) bir necha qo`lyozmalar saqlanib qolgan:

■   «Kumush kodeks» (qonunlar majmuasi) (Codex Argenteus) 5-6 asrlarga mansub bo`lib, qo`lyozma Upsaldagi (Shvetsiya) universitet kutubxonasida saqlanmoqda. Unda kumush va tillo harflar bitilgan.

■   «Ambrozian kodekslari» (Codices Ambrosiani) 7-8 asrlarga mansub. Milandagi Ambrozian kutubxonasida saqlanmoqda.

■   «Korolin kodeksi» (Codex Carolinus) - 5 asrga mansub; Got va Lotin tillarida bitilgan ikki tilli qo`lyozma.

■   «Gissen parchasi» - Misrda topilgan. U ham Got va lotin tilarida bitilgan.

Yanada mayda Got esdaliklari 8 varaqda Ioan Evangiliy parchalarida va Got kalendaridan keltirilgan.

5.   Skandinav tillari

Skandinaviya haqidagi dastlabki ma`lumotlar eramizdan avvalgi 1- asrga mansub. O`sha paytda Daniyada va Skandinaviya yarimorolining katta qismida germanlar joylashgan edi. Skandinaviya yarimorolida yashagan bir qancha qabilalar vatanini tark etib, markaziy va shimoliy Evropaga yo`l oladilar. 5-6 asrlarda yutlar va angllar Britaniya orolariga ko`chib keladilar, shundan Yutlandiya va Angliya nomlari tarqalgan. Daniyaning hozirgi nomi "Danmark" daniyaliklar chegara yeri ma`nosini anglatadi. Danlar asosan Shvetsiyadan kelishgan.

Zelandiya orolida *silinglar* qabilasi yashagan. Zelandiya nomi *Selund* so`zidan olingan. Shuningdek, Norvegiya so`zi X*ordaland* so`zidan kelib chiqqan, chunki u yerda x*arudlar* yashagan. Hrzir bu Gollandiya deb ataladi.

Shvetsiyada eng katta qabilalardan *svionlar* va *sveelar* yashagan. Bu so`zning etimologik ma`nosi "svoy" -"o`zimizniki" yoki Sverige so`ziga taqaladi.

Skandinaviya nomi skāne- Skone so`zidan kelib chiqib, "xavfli orol" ma`nosini bildiradi. Skandinav qabilalari asosan chorvachilik, dehqonchilik bilan shug`ullanganlar. Keyinchalik dengizda so`zish, Rim imperiyasi va German qabilalari bilan savdo aloqalarini rivojlantiradi. Skandinayaviya mamlakatlar tarixining 8- asr oxiridan 11- asr boshlarigacha bo`lgan davri "Vikinglar davri" deb ataladi. Vikinglarning yurishlari 8- asr oxirida boshlanadi, ular Angliya, Shotlandiya, Irlandiya va Uelsning katta hududlarini bosib oldilar.

G`arbiy Evropada Normanlar (shimol odami) nomi bilan atalib, shimoliy Amerikani, Ispaniyani va Janubiy Italiyani bosib oldilar. Keyinchalik ular "varyaglar" nomi bilan Rus mamlakatini istilo qiladi. "Varyag" so`zi "qasamyod" ma`nosini anglatadi.

Boltiq va   Qora dengizlarni tutashtiradigan "Varyagdan Grekkacha" degan nom bilan mashhur suv yo`llari orqali vikinglar Konstantinopolgacha yetib kelishadi. 11- asr o`rtalariga kelib vikinglar yurishlari barham topadi.

Mavzu: G`arbiy german tillari
Reja:

1. Ingliz tili
2. Yozuvning paydo bo`lishi va uning lahjalari
3. Normanlar istilosidan keyin angliyada til vaziyati
4. Boshqa g`arbiy german tillari (friz, qadimgi sakson, Niderland, nemis, yahudiy (idish) va Afrikaan tillari)

Kalit so`zlar:

Ingveonlar, sakslar, angllar, frizlar, istveonlar, franklar, erminonlar, Shvabo-alemonlar, bavarlar, xalq, millat, Midland, Graf, Niderland tili, idish, torayish, delabilizatsiya, spirantizatsiya, vokalizatsiya, affrikatlashuv, turinglar, dialek (lahja), afrikaan, ost-ind, xatlar.

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5 Гухман ММ. Готский язык. - М: Изд-во литературы на иностранных языках. 1958 - 190 с.
6 Жирмунский В.М. Введение в сравнительно-историческое изучение германских языков. - М, - 1Ь: Просвещение, 1964.-214 с.

1. Ingliz tili

G`arbiy german tillari uch guruh qabilalariga bo`linadi:

A) Ingveonlar -sakslar, angllar, frizlar;

B) Istveonlar - franklar;

B) Ermeonlar - Shvabo-alemonlar, bavarlar

Angllar, sakslar va yutlar eramizning 5-6-asrlarida Britaniya orollariga joylashib, Ingliz xalqi, keyinchalik Ingliz millatiga asos soldi. Frizlar mustaqil davlat tuzolmasa-da, o`z tillarini saqlab qolganlar va hozirda Gollandiyaning Frislandiya provinsiyasida, bundan tashqari Shimoliy dengiz sohillarida hamda G`arbiy germaniya chegarasidagi friz orollarida yashovchi aholi ushbu tilda so`zlashadi. Sakslarning Britaniya orollariga kelmaganlari nemis xalqi tarkibiga kirib, nemis millatini tashkil qildi. Istveon franklarining asosiy qismi, shuningdek, Ermeonlarning shvabo-alemonlari va bavarlari ham nemis xalqi va millatining asosiy qismini tashkil qildi. Shimoliy franklar Niderland millatini tashkil qilgan; Belgiyaning nemis-zabon aholisi Flamandlar ham ana shu Shimoliy Franklardan tarqalgan.

German tillarining G`arbiy german guruhi 5 kichik guruhga bo`linadi:

1) Qadimgi Ingliz tili (anglosakson tili);
2) Qadimgi-friz tili;
3) Qadimgi sakson tili;

4) Qadimgi quyi frank tili;
5) Qadimgi yuqori nemis tili;

Zamonaviy Ingliz tilining 3 xil varianti bor: Britaniya, Amerika va Avstraliya variantlari. Ingliz tili uzoq vaqt mobaynida Angliyaning hukmronligi ostida bo`lgan Osiyo va Afrikadagi mustamlakalari - Hindiston, Nepal, Shri-Lanka, Birma, Gonkong, Malayziya, JAR, Misr kabi mamlakatlarda keng tarqalgan. Ingliz tili ushbu davlatlar boshqaruvi, savdo, ta`lim sohalarida hamda davriy va ilmiy nashrlarda qo`llanilgan.

Milliy ozodlik harakatlarining rivojlanishi va milliy madaniyatning rivojlanishi bilan milliy tillarning siyosiy-ma`muriy va madaniy-marifiy sohalardagi ahamiyati oshib bormoqda. Natijada Ingliz tili esa asta-sekin o`z o`rnini bo`shatib bermoqda.
Ingliz tili tarixi uch davrga bo`linadi:
- Qadimgi Ingliz tili davri 5-11- asrlar;
- O`rta Ingliz tili davri 12-15- asrlar;
- Yangi Ingliz tili davri o`z navbatida 2 ga bo`linadi:
Ilk yangi Ingliz tili davri 16-17- asrlar;
Eng yangi Ingliz tili davri 17- asrdan hozirgacha bo`lgan davr.

2.   Yozuvning paydo bo`lishi va uning lahjalari

Qadimgi Ingliz tili davridagi yozma yodgorliklar asosida to`rtta lahjani aniqlash mumkin: Nortumbriya, Mersiy, Vesseks va Kent lahjalari. Shulardan Nortumbriya va Mersiy lahjalari angllarniki bo`lib, bir-biriga juda yaqin bo`lgan. ammo angllar qirolligi hududiy cheklanishi ular o`rtasidagi farqlovchi hususiyatlarning ham rivojlanishiga sharoit yaratadi.

Vesseks lahjasi Temzaning janubiy tarafidagi sakslar qirolligida, Kent lahjasi esa Angliyaning janubi-sharqidagi uncha katta bo`lmagan Kent qirolligida.tarqalgan.

Qadimgi Ingliz tili davrida Runa yozma yodgorliklari juda kam uchraydi. Ulardan eng ko`zga qo`rinarlisi Ro`tvel Xochiha bitilgan diniy mazmundagi she`r bo`lsa, yana bir taniqli yodgorlik Kit mo`yidan (soqoli) yasalgan qu`tichadagi bitik hisoblanadi. Har ikkala bitikda Nortumbriya lahjasiga xos belgilar mavjud.

Xristianlikning tarqalishi bilan anglosakslar yozuvida Lotin alfaviti qo`llanila boshladi. Anglosakslarga bu yozuv irland missionenrlari tomonidan kirib keldi. Irland xatida "g" harfi «3» orqali berilgan. _Anglosakson olimlari_ alfavitga [ð] va [θ] tovushlarini ifodalash uchun «Ƀ`» belgisini kiritganlar. Alfavitdagi "c" harfi esa [k] tovushini ifodalagan: cild - farzand, cumon - kelmoq.. Alfavitdagi 'f' harfi esa jarangli [v] va jarangsiz [f] fonemalarini ifodalagan: _3iefan_ - bermoq, _folc_ - xalq.

Shu alfavit asosida monastir qoshida maktab tashkil qilinib, unda 600 monax o`qitilgan.

3.   Normanlar istilosidan keyin Angliyada til vaziyati

Normanlar istilosi va hukumat tepasiga fransuz madaniyatiga mansub tabaqaning chiqishi natijasida davlat boshqaruvi va sud tizimida Ingliz tili qo`llanilishini ancha cheklanib qoldi. Monastir maktablarida darslar Ingliz tilida o`qitila boshladi. Ammo, ilm-fan va cherkovda oldingidek lotin tili hukmronligicha qoldi. Adabiyot fransuz

tilida rivojlandi. Ingliz tilida faqat past tabaqa vakillari - dehqonlar, mayda yer egalari, hunarmandlar va savdogarlar o`rtasida qo`llaniladigan bo`ldi.

11- asrning oxiri va 13- asrning boshlarida Ingliz yozuvi chuqur tushkunlikka yo`z tutadi. Uzsseks lahjasi o`zining adabiy yozma standart sifatidagi mavqeini yo`qotadi. Deyarli ikki asr mobaynida Ingliz tili turli lahjalarga bo`lingan tarqoq holda rivojlanadi va natijada lahjalar o`rtasidagi farq yanada chuqurlashadi. Ushbu farq ayniqsa Angliyaning Midland Grafligi ikki tomonidagi shimoliy va janubiy lahjalari o`rtasida ko`zga ko`rinadi va natijada ushbu ikki hudud aholisi bir-birini yahshi tushunmaydigan darajaga etadi.

Bu borada Djon Trevoz va Uilyam Kekston shunday yozadi: bir graflikda so`zlashiladigan Ingliz tili boshqa bir graflikdagi Ingliz tilidan keskin farq qiladi.

4.   Boshqa g`arbiy german tillari

G`arbiy german tillariga, shuningdek, friz, qadimgi sakson, niderland, Afrikaan, nemis va yahudiy tillari mansub.

1) Friz tili. Mazkur tilda 370 minga yaqin aholi so`zlashadi. Asosan, Niderlandiyada tarqalgan; bundan tashqari Germaniyaning ikki rayonida ham so`zlashiladi. Keyingi 500 yil ichida friz tilining qo`llanilish hududi qisqarib borgan. Buning sababi shundaki, 16- asrlarda Frislandiya o`z mustaqilligini yo`qotadi va niderland tili davlat tili sifatida friz tilini siqib chiqaradi. Yaqin kunlargacha friz tili faqat og`zaki so`zlashuv tili sifatdagina mavjud edi.

Friz tilining fonetik hususiyatlari quyidagicha:

• Unlilar qisqarishi: nem. *Sak,* nider. *Zak,* friz. *Sek,***Ingl**. *Sack- q*op.

• Unlilarning delabizatsiyasi: nider. *doep,* nem. *dGyp,* friz, *grein, I*ngl. *green* - yashil.

• - n - ning ayrim undoshlar oldidan tushib qolishi: nem. *funt,* friz. *SH, I*ngl. five

• Spirantizatsiya - [g] -> friz, j, Ingl. Y [J]: nem. *gestern,* nider. *gisteren,* friz, *juster, I*ngl. *yesterday.*

• Vokalizatsiya - [g] harf birikmalarida ag, eg -> friz, ei [ai], sey [ei], nem. tag, nider. dag, friz dei, Ingl. day - kun.

• Affrikatizatsiya - [k] -> friz, Ingl. ch [tʃ]:

nem. kirche, nider. kerk, friz, tsjrke, Ingl. church - cherkov

• Ayrim holatlarda [r] ning tushib qolishi: Hem.wort, nider.woort, friz.wurd, Ingl.word - so`z

Qadimgi friz tili va qadimgi Ingliz tili o`rtasida katta o`xshashliklar mavjud.

2) Qadimgi island tili. Bu til g`arbiy german tillari guruhining qabilaviy dialekt tillaridan biri; ingveon qabilalaridan sakslar tili. Bu til davlat ham, millat ham bo`lmagan.

Qadimgi saks tilida Reyn va Elba hududlari o`rtasida yashaydigan aholi so`zlashgan.

8- asrda Franklar imperiyasi qulagach, bu til janubiy germaniyada madaniy va iqtisodiy rivojlanishda o`zining katta ta`sirini ko`rsatadi.

3) Niderland tili yoki golland tili ikki mamlakatda tarqalgan. Birinchidan, bu til Niderlandiyaliklar tili va unda 13.5 mln. kishi so`zlashadi.

Ikkinchidan, bu til Belgiyaning shimoliy hududida tarqalgan bo`lib, unda 6 mingdan ziyod kishi so`zlashadi. Fransuz tili bilan bir qatorda Niderland tili Belgiyaning davlat tillaridan biri. Bu til quyi nemis tili lahjasiga yaqin. Niderland tili hozirgi Niderlandlar yurti va shimoliy Belgiya hududida yashagan qabilalar -franklar, frizlar va saks qabilalari lahjalari asosida yaralgan. Bu tilning asosiy tarkibini qadimgi g`arbiy quyi frank lahjasi tashkil qiladi, friz va saks qabilalari lahjalarining ta`siri birmuncha kam.

Niderland tili tarixi uchga bo`linadi: Qadimgi niderland, o`rta niderland va yangi niderland.

4) Afrikaans tili. Bu til ilgari Bur tili deb atalgan. 1925 yildan boshlab, Janubiy Afrika Respublikasida Ingliz tili bilan bir qatorda davlat tili bo`lgan. Unda qariyb 3.5 mln. kishi so`zlashadi; shundan 2 mln. afrikalik va 1.5 mln. metis. Afrikaans German tillari ichida eng yoshi hisoblanadi – 17- asr ikkinchi yarmida shakllangan. Bu tilga 1962 yil Golland Ost-Ind kompaniyasi bazasida asos solingan. Afrikaans tilining leksikasi 99% niderland tilidan tashkil topadi.

Niderland va Afrikaans tillari fonetik umumiy o`xshashliklari quyidagilar:

• Cho`ziq undoshlarning yo`qligi;

• Jarangsiz portlovchi p,t,k larda nafas tovushining ishtirok etmasligi;

• "g" sirg`aluvchi xarakteri;

• Ayrim o`rinlarda [ə] unlisning qo`llanilishi: nid., afr., kerk ['kɛrək] - cherkov

5) Nemis tili. G`arbiy german tillariga mansub bo`lib, so`zlashuvchi aholi soni bo`yicha Ingliz tilidan keyingi ikkinchi o`rinda turadi. Bu tilda 100 mln.ga yaqin aholi so`zlashadi. Nemis xalqi va nemis tili ilk o`rta asrlar - 5-11- asrlarda o`zaro qarindosh german qabilalari - franklar, xattlar, to`ringlar va ularning lahjalari asosida shakllandi. Nemis xalqi va nemis tili shakllanishi dastlabki bosqichida asosiy rol qadimgi istveonlardan franklarga tegishli bo`lgan. Uzoq vaqt mobaynida ushbu tillarning yozuvi bo`lmagan va faqat og`zaki muloqat tili hisoblangan. Franklar davlatining yozuv va davlat tili Lotin bo`lgan.

Nemis xalqining tili asosan franklar davlatining sharqiy hududida istiqomat qilgan g`arbiy german qabilalari tillari asosida shakllangan. Franklar, alemanlar, bavarlar, xattlar, to`ringlar qabilalari o`rtasidagi iqtisodiy va madaniy aloqalarning rivojlanishi natijasida bir-biriga yaqin lahjalarda so`zlashuvchi bu qabilalarning birlashuvi va aralashuvi kuzatildi hamda shu tariqa nemis xalqi vujudga keldi. Nemis xalqi shakllanishidagi eng muhim voqea 9- asrda franklar davlatining uch qismga bo`linib ketishi va undan mustaqil nemis davlatining ajralib chiqishi bo`ldi.

6) Yahudiy tili — Idish. Asosan AQSh, MDH, shuningdek, Polsha va Ruminiyada istiqomat qiluvchi 11.5 mln. yahudiydan tahminan 6-7 millioni Idish tilida so`zlashadi va bu til ular uchun adabiy til hisoblanadi. Bu til Germaniya hududida ayrim o`rta nemis va shimoliy nemis lahjalari qorishmasi asosida shakllandi.

Yahudiylarning tarqlishi - 14-16- asrlarda yahudiylar germaniyaning turli viloyatlaridan sharqiy Evropa slavyan mamlakatlaridan Polshaga, keyin Rossiya, Ukraina va Belorussiyaga ommaviy ko`chishadi.

Idish tilida adabiyot dastlab diniy adabiyot ko`rinishida paydo bo`ldi. 16-asrdan boshlab ertaklar, afsonalar va romanlar yaratildi.

Idish tili adabiyotining markazi ikkinchi jahon urushidan so`ng shimoliy va janubiy Amerika hamda Isroil hisoblanadi. Ammo, Isroilda davlat tili Idish emas, balki, Ivrit bo`lib, uning asosida qadimgi (klassik) yahudiy tili yotadi.

TOPSHIRIQLAR VARIANTLARI

Question for the Mid-term and Final exams on the discipline

«Roman-Germanic Philology"

1. General characteristics of Indo-European languages in the world

2. Families and groups of Indo-European languages.

3. General characteristics of Germanic group of languages.

4. Groups of Germanic languages.

5. Phonetic structure of Germanic languages.

6. Grammatical structure of Germanic languages.

7. Vocabulary of Germanic languages.

8. The East Germanic languages.

9. The North Germanic languages.

10. The West Germanic languages.

11. The 1st Consonant shift.

12. The 2nd Consonant shift.

13. The Substratum Theory.

14. The Rhotacism.

15. The Stress in Germanic languages.

16. The Gothic language.

17. The Swedish language.

18. The Norwegian language.

19. The Danish language.

20. The Icelandic language.

21. The Faroese language.

22. The German language.

23. The Dutch language.

24. The Frisian language.

25. The Afrikaans language.

26. The Yiddish language.

27. The English language.

28. Essential notions and tendencies in Language Policy and language situation.

29. Essential tendencies in Language development.

30. Diachronic and Synchronic aspects of language Functioning.

KEYSLAR TO'PLAMI
Topics for Case studies on the discipline «Roman-Germanic Philology"
Case study 1.

Imagine you have found a manuscript written in an unknown language. But you are sure that it was in one of the Germanic languages. Think of what should be done to establish the language of the manuscript.
Case study 2.

You used the time machine and you occurred to find yourself in one of the European countries of the VI-VII centuries. Try all the measures to communicate with the native people.
Case study 3.

Some people think that the events described in the first consonant shift took place in the XIX century when Jacob Grimm worked out the statements of the law. Give your reasons to explain that his ideas are wrong.
Case study 4.

Linguists say that the first consonant shift made a great contribution to form a separate group of languages later called Germanic. On what bases this statement is supported by historians?
Case study 5.

Some people are sure that the English language developed from the Latin language. Give reasons to reject this idea.
Case study 6.

We know that the English language was greatly influenced by the French language. Explain on what social conditions the intercourse took place.
Case study 7.

Imagine that you live in the IX century England. You want to know about some events which took place earlier. Where would you go and why.

Case study 8.

Imagine that you arte in the village of Ruthwell in Scotland and you have found a tall stone with strange inscriptions. What would you do in order to understand the meaning of this inscription?

Case study 9.

Imagine Caedmon was your friend. Some striking changes took place in his character and behavior. You want to know the reason, what would you do?

Case study 10.

Imagine you are the author of the epic poem "Beowulf" and you want to write the continuation of this poem. What events would you choose as the subject for your creative work?

Case study 11.

Imagine you are King Alfred. You want to translate more works of Geek and Latin philosophers. Whose work would you choose to translate into Old English to begin with?

Case study 12.

Imagine you live in King's court in the XII century England. Would you make attempts to learn the English language spoken by the common people.

Case study 13.

Imagine you are member of House of Lords. It is the XIII century. You are asked to make a speech. What language would you prefer to make your speech?

Case study 14.

Imagine you are an elementary school teacher and you arte asked to explain the strange pronunciation of the English "one" to little ones beginning to read. How would you explain?

Case study 15.

Imagine you are a beginning level teacher. One of your pupils used the form "mouses" instead of "mice". First give the right version and then explain why it is so.

Case study 16.

Imagine you are a teacher. One of your pupils mispronounced the word "bought" as [bought]. First give the correct pronunciation then explain why it is pronounced in this way.

Case study 17.

Imagine you are a school teacher. One of your learners asked about the difference between the terms "New English" and "Modern English". How would you answer this question?

Case study 18.

Imagine you to explain some people the fact why some words in British and American English are used in different meanings. How would you explain?

Case study 19.

Imagine you have to explain how a language spoken by 4 million people on an island became a global language. How would you explain?

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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.

	Mavzu
1	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari
2	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari
3	SHimoliy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari
4	Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi
5	SHarqiy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari
6	Roman- german tillari lug'at boyligining o'ziga xosligi
7	Roman-german tillari fonetik o'ziga xosligi
8	Roman /German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan o'rni

9	Roman –german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari.
10	Mahalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari
11	Ingliz-tili
12	Shved-tili
13	Golland-tili
14	Daniya-tili
15	Island-tili

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 the 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 unit, 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 ьeem*

Roman-german filologiyasi fanidan amaliy mashg'ulotlarning mavzulari va qisqacha mazmuni.

1-mavzu. Roman / German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan o'rni

Tilshunoslikning romanistika va germanistika sohalari bu sohalarning etakchi olimlari va ularning fanga qo'shgan xissasi, roman va german tillarining hind-evropa tillar oilasida tutgan o'rni. Hozirgi zamon roman va german tillari, ularning tarqalishi

va tasnifi. Roman va German qabilalari haqidagi ma'lumotlar: (Piteas, Strabon, YUliy Sezar, Tatsit) roman va german qabilalarining tasnifi va "xalqlarning buyuk ko'chishi"davrida ularning joylashishi. Roman va german tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari: undoshlarning birinchi ko'chishi, Grimm qonuni, Verner qonuni, unlilarning o'zgarishi, otlarning turlanish tizimi, fe'llarning miqdor o'zgarishi va suffiksli fe'llarga ajralish tizimi, qadimgi alifbo, roman va german tillarining eng muhim yozma yodgorliklari va ularning tasnifi.

2-mavzu. Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari

Evropa qit'asida Kelt qabilalari. Rim qo'shinlarining Britaniya orollarini bosib olishi, Rimliklar qo'rgan tarixiy obidalar. Mintaqada g'arbiy german qabilalari va ularning Rim bilan aloqasi. Anglo-sakson, friz va yut qabilalarining Britaniya orollarini istilo qilishi va anglo – sakson davlatlarining yuzaga kelishi.Lotin tili va uning roman tillarining shakllanishidaagi o'rni va ahamiyati. Qadimgi alfavitlar va yozma yodgorlikllar. Runik alifbo. Got alifbosi. Lotin alifbosining shakllanishi va tarqalishi. German va roman tillarining   paydo bo'lish tarixi.

3-mavzu. Roman-german tillari fonetik o'ziga xosligi

Roman-german tillari tovush tizimining   tarixiy qonuniyatlari; palatallashuv. Sonor undosh birikmalari oldida unlilarning cho'zilishi, keyingi undoshning tushib qolishi natijasida unlilarning cho'zilishi. Undoshlarning birinchi va ikkinchi ko'chishi

Roman-german tillari morfologiyasi.   Otning grammatik kategoriyalari: rod, son, kelishik. Negiz asosida otlarning qadimgi tasnifi. Otlarda ko'plik shakllarining hosil bo'lishi va ularning turlari. So'zning morfologik strukturasi.Ichki fleksiya yordamida o'zakdagi unlining o'zgarishi. Tashqi fleksiya. Fleksiyasiz tovush almashinishi.

4-mavzu. Roman-german tillari grammatik strukturasidagi o'ziga xosliklar

Sifatning ikki xil turlanishi: kuchli va kuchsiz turlanish, ularning

paydo bo'lishi. Kishilik olmoshlari, olmoshlarda grammatik kategoriyalar :

shaxs , son (ikkilik sonining mavjudligi), Ko'rsatish olmoshlarning paydo bo'lishi. Sanoq sonlar. Tartib sonlar.

Kuchli va kuchsiz fe'llar. Preterit – prezent fe'llar va ularning morfologik xususiyatlari. Suppletiv fe'llar. Fe'llarning asosiy grammatik kategoriyalari: shaxs, son, zamon, mayl. Fe'lning analitik shakli

masalasi: Nisbat kategoriyasi.

Sintaksis. Gap turlari. So'roq gaplarda so'z tartibi. Gapda bosh bo'laklarning ifoda etilishi. Sodda gapda sintaktik aloqalarning ifodalanishi. Kelishiklarning vazifalari.

5-mavzu. Roman- german tillari lug'at boyligining o'ziga xosligi

Roman-german tillari lug'at tarkibi va ularning taraqqiyoti.

Lug'at tarkibining xususiyatlari. umum hind – evropa va umum roman va german so'zlari, lug'at tarkibining boyib borishi va uning turli yo'llari: Affikslar yordamida so'zlar yasash. Mahsuldor va kam mahsul affikslar. Qo'shma so'zlar. qo'shma so'zlarni hosil qilish yo'llari. Tovush almashishi (umlaut); Eski so'zlarning yangi ma'noga ega bo'lishi. O'zlashtirma so'zlarning ishlatilishi.

6-mavzu. Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi

Qadimgi german-roman davrining asosiy tarixiy voqealari. Unlilar tizimining o'zgarishi. Urg'usiz unlilarning hosil bo'lishi va ularning keyinchalik tushib qolishi. Unlilarning cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarning cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarining o'rta davrda cho'zilishi va qisqarishi. Diftonglarining o'rta davrda monoftonglashuvi. YAngi diftonglarning hosil bo'lishi. Undoshlar tizimining o'zgarishi. O'rta davrda grafikasidagi o'zgarishlar. Morfologiya. 12-15 asrlarda morfologiyada sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar.

7-mavzu. Sharqiy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari

Otlarning turlanishida kelishiklarning soddalashib borishi va ularning predlogi birikmalar bilan almashtirilishi. Sifat darajalari. Qiyosiy darajalarda analitik shaklning yuzaga kelishi. Olmoshlarning turlanishda ikki kelishikning tizimga o'tishi. Ko'rsatish olmoshlarida ikki turning hosil bo'lishi: yangi olmoshlarning paydo bo'lishi. Aniq va noaniq artikllarning paydo bo'lishi. Kuchli fe'llar tizimidagi o'zgarishlar. Fe'l bo'yicha hozirgi zamon sifatdosh shakllarning o'ziga xos hususiyati. Fe'lning aniq, majhul va o'tgan zamon shakllarining yuzaga kelishi.

Ravishdosh va infinitivning paydo bo'lishi. Ravishlarning suffikslar yordamida yasalishi. Suffikslarning soddalashuvi. Got tili va uning xususiyatlari.

8-mavzu. Shimoliy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari

Gapning bosh bo'laklaridagi qat'iy tartibning asta – sekin qaror topishi. Qo'shimcha gaplarning rivojlanishi. O'rta davr lug'at tarkibining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari. Ijtimoiy tuzumning o'zgarishi, hunarmandchilik, savdo-sotiq va qishloq xo'jaligi taraqqiyoti munosabati bilan lug'at tarkibining boyib borish yo'llari. Eski so'zlarning yangi ma'noda ishlatilishi, affikslar yordamida yangi so'zlarning ishlatilishi. Ikki til: ya'ni skandinav va fransuz tillari hisobiga ingliz va nemis tili lug'ati tarkibining boyib borishi. Norveg, Dat, shved, farer va island tillari

9-mavzu. G'arbiy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari

Roman –german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari. Milliy tilning vujudga kelishida poytaxt shevasining ahamiyati. Maxalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari. Kasb – hunar jargonlarining paydo bo'lishi. Kitob nashr qilinishi munosabati bilan milliy tillar yozma shaklining keng tarqalib borishi. Nemis, ingliz, golland, friz, afrikaans, idish tillari

10-mavzu. German va roman tillari taraqqiyotining asosiy tendensiyalari

YAngi davrda sodir bo'lgan asosiy fonetik o'zgarishlar. "Unlilarning buyuk ko'chishi". Urg'usiz bo'g'indagi unlilarning tushib qolishi. YAngi unli tovushlarning paydo bo'lishi. Unlilar va undoshlar tizimida sodir bo'lgan boshqa o'zgarishlar. Roman va german tillar grammatik tizimida sodir bo'lgan o'zgarishlar. Fe'llarning noto'g'ri tuslanishi tizimidan to'g'ri fe'llar guruhiga o'tishi. Majhul nisbatning rivojlanishi, ish – harakat va holat passivi ma'nolarning farqlanishi.

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.

	Mavzu
1	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari
2	Roman-german tillari shakllanish tarixining asosiy bosqichlari
3	SHimoliy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari
4	Roman-german tillarining klassifikatsiyasi
5	SHarqiy german va roman tillarining o'ziga xos xususiyatlari
6	Roman- german tillari lug'at boyligining o'ziga xosligi
7	Roman-german tillari fonetik o'ziga xosligi
8	Roman /German tillarining dunyo tillari orasida tutgan o'rni
9	Roman –german tillari taraqqiyoti tarixining yangi davridagi asosiy tarixiy voqealari.
10	Mahalliy shevalarning saqlanib qolishi va ularning ijtimoiy ko'rinishlari
11	Ingliz-tili
12	Shved-tili
13	Golland-tili
14	Daniya-tili
15	Island-tili

Dasturning informatsion-metodik ta`minoti

Roman-german filologiyasi fanini o'qitish yangi informatsion texnologiyalardan foydalangan xolda amalga oshiriladi-ki, unga ko'ra o'qitish jarayonini o'zaro uzviy bog'liq etaplar, fazalar, amallarga ajratish, bo'lishiga erishiladi.

Roman-german filologiyasi bo'yicha ta`limda mo'ljallangan natijaga erishish uchun bajariladigan xarakatlarni muvofiqlashtirish, ketma-ket, bosqichma-bosqich amalga oshiriladi.

Roman-german filologiyasi fanini o'qitishda ta`lim takror ishlab chiqiladigan konveyerli jarayon sifatida tashkil etiladi, undan kutiladigan natija xam mufassal tasvirlanib, aniq qayd etiladi. Mazkur fandan o'quv materiali aniq ifodalangan o'quv maqsadiga mos qayta tuzib, ishlab chiqiladi, ayrim qismlarga ajratiladi, o'quv materialini o'rgatishning al ternativ yo'llari nazarda tutiladi, xar bir bo'lakni o'rganish test yordamida nazorat etilib, xato, kamchiliklar tuzatilib, to'g'rilab boriladi. Texnologik yondoshuvni qo'llash german filologiyasiga kirish fanidan qo'yilgan maqsadlariga erishishini kafolatlaydi.

Roman-german filologiyasi fanini o'qitishda quyidagi pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalaniladi.

- Ta`lim jarayoni oldindan loyixalanadi va auditoriyada tinglovchilar bilan qayta ko'rib chiqiladi.

- Tizimli yondoshuv asosida talabalarning o'qish-bilish faoliyatini tasvirlaydigan ta`lim jarayonining loyixasi tuzib chiqiladi.

- Ta`lim maqsadi real, aniq diagnostik bo'lishiga erishiladi va tinglovchining bilim, o'zlashtirishi sifati ob`ektiv baxolanadi.

- Ta`lim jarayonining tuzilishi va mazmuni yaxlitligi, o'zaro bog'liq va o'zaro ta`sirida bo'lishiga erishiladi.

- Roman-german filologiyasi fanining barcha qismlari, tushunchalar apparati va bazaviy tamoyillarni o'qitishda ta`lim shakllarini optimallashtirishga erishiladi.

- Ta`lim jarayonida texnik vositalar va inson saloxiyatining o'zaro ta`siri xisobga olinadi.

- Ma`ruzaviy va amaliy mashg'ulotlar talabaning faolligiga tayanib zigzag, breynstorm, skarabey, veer va shu kabi interfaol metodlar yordamida olib boriladi.

- Oraliq va yakuniy nazorat va baholash kerakli o'rinlari belgilangan mezonlarga binoan talabalarning test vazifalarini bajarishi orqali amalga oshiriladiki, tinglovchilarning bilim darajasi shakllantiruvchi va jamlovchi baxolar yordamida aniqlanadi.

- Roman-german filologiyasi fanini o'qitishda zamonaviy pedagogik texnologiyalardan foydalanishning pirovard maqsadi ta`limning rejalashtirilgan natijasiga erishishning kafolatlanganligi va ta`lim samaradorligining yuqori bo'lishiga erishishdir.

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.

Foydalanadigan asosiy darsliklar va o'quv qo'llanmalar ro'yxati:

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TARQATMA MATERIALLAR

CARD 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

MUAMMOLI VAZIYAT
SAVOLNOMALAR

30. How many people speak English in the contemporary world?
31. Why is English sometimes spoken of as the "20th century Latin"?
32. In how many countries is English the official language?
33. What is the genealogical classification of languages?
34. Name the groups of the Indo-European family of languages.
35. Which languages make separate groups in the Indo-European family of languages?
36. Name the subgroups of the Germanic group of languages.
37. Which languages belong to the West Germanic subgroup?
38. Are the relations of languages based upon belonging of the nations speaking those languages to the same race?
39. Give the formulation of J.Grimm's law.
40. Explain the relation between the Russian word болото and English pool from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
41. Explain the relation between the Lithuanian word pirmas 'first' and English first from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
42. Explain the relation between the Latin word duo 'two' and English two from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
43. Explain the relation between the Russian word три and English three from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
44. Why is the Gothic language of special interest for linguists?
45. When did the English language originate?
46. Name the Celtic tribes that inhabited Britain before the Roman period.
47. Name the Germanic tribes on the dialects of which the English language was based?
48. How long did the Roman reign in Britain last?
49. Why did the Roman have to leave Britain in the 5th century?
50. How did the Roman colonization influence the language of the Celts?
51. Who described the Conquest of Britain by the Germanic tribes?
52. What group did the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes belong to?
53. What helped the formation of the English language on the basis of the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes?
54. What was the political situation in Britain after the Germanic Conquest?
55. Name the nine Germanic kingdoms which existed on the territory of Britain in the 6th century.
56. Which kingdom had the dominating position in the 7th century?
57. Which was the most powerful kingdom in Britain in the 8th century?
58. Explain the meaning of "Danelaw".
59. When did the Scandinavian invasions begin?
60. How long did Britain remain a part of the Danish Empire?
61. Who became the king of England after the fall of the Danish power?

62. When was the Anglo-Saxon power restored?
63. Name the periods of the history of the English language.
64. Calculate which is the shortest and which is the longest period in the history of the English language.
65. What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?
66. Name the most important Old English literary documents.
67. What did the letters of the Runic alphabet look like?
68. What is "Beowulf"?
69. Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?
70. How many vowel monophthongs were there in Old English?
71. What does it mean when we say that the Old English system of vowels was symmetric?
72. Explain the fact that in Old English texts we come across such spelling variants as man -mon, land - lond, etc.?
73. How many diphthongs were there in Old English phonetic structure? Name them.
74. Give the definition of ablaut.
75. Write out the four basic forms of the verb writan 'to write'.
76. Give the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives strong, long, eald in Old English. Explain them.
77. Is there historic relation between the modern words road and to ride?
78. Name the nine principal phonetic changes that took place in Old English.
79. What is the Old English fracture?
80. Explain the change *herte > heorte.
81. Explain what is diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonant.
82. Explain the change *scacan > sceacan.
83. Explain the change *scamu > sceamu.
84. Explain the change *scort > sceort.
85. What is umlaut?
86. Explain the change *sandian > sendan.
87. Explain the change *wopian > wepan.
88. Explain the change *fullian > fyllan.
89. What is velar umlaut?
90. Explain the change *slahan > sleon.
91. Explain the change *sehan > seon.
92. Explain the change *tihan > teon.
93. Explain the change *fohan > fon.
94. Explain what is lengthening of vowels before the homorganic clusters.
95. Why do you think the root vowels in modern forms child and children differ?
96. In what instances did voicing and unvoicing of fricatives take place?
97. In what positions did the palatalization of [k'] take place?
98. In what positions did the palatalization of [sk'] take place?
99. Explain the change cild > child.

100. Explain the change scip > ship.
101. What is metathesis?
102. Explain the change yrnan > rynnan.
103. Explain the change ascian > axian.
104. What is the assimilation of consonants?
105. Explain the change wiste > wisse.
106. Explain the change wifman > wimman.
107. What sounds did the letter F denote in Old English?
108. How were the interdental consonants denoted in Old English?
109. Why do you think the letter Z was not used in Old English?
110. How many words were there in the Old English lexicon according to Professor A.I.S-mirnitsky's evaluation?
111. Name the three main principles of the classification of the lexicon.
112. What is the morphological classification of the lexicon?
113. What is the stylistic classification of the lexicon?
114. What is the etymological classification of the lexicon?
115. Give five examples of simple words in Old English.
116. Give five examples of derivative words in Old English.
117. Produce the morphological analysis of the word mycelheafdede.
118. Give five examples of stylistically marked words in Old English.
119. Why is important to look for parallels of Old English words in other Germanic or Indo-European languages?
120. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Indo-European lexicon.
121. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Germanic lexicon.
122. Give three examples of words belonging to the specific English lexicon.
123. Give ten examples of borrowed words in Old English.
124. What is the Comparative-Historic Method?
125. Why is it impossible to rely upon the outer similarity in establishing the genetic relations between words?
126. What confirms that the English word first, Russian первый and Lithuanian pirmas belong to the same Indo-European root?
127. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word stella?
128. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word mater?
129. What is the correspondence of the Old English word hand in other Germanic languages?
130. What is the correspondence of the Old English word stan in other Germanic languages?
131. What is the correspondence of the Old English word word in other Germanic lan-guages/
132. What is the origin of the word lord?
133. What were the three layers of Latin borrowings in Old English?

134. Why were there Latin words in the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes before they conquered Britain?

135. What is the origin of the word street?

136. What is the origin of the word cheese?

137. What is the origin of the word kettle?

138. What is the origin of the word sack?

139. Give five examples of English geographical names with the Latin element castra?

140. What is the origin of the word angel?

141. What is the origin of the word devil?

142. What is the origin of the word bishop?

143. What is a loan translation?

144. Compare the structure of the word 'Monday' in Old English and Latin.

145. Compare the structure of the word 'Friday' in Old English and Latin.

146. Give three examples of Celtic borrowings in English.

147. Analyze the morphological structure of the Old English word fiscere?

148. What is the origin of the word darling?

149. What is the origin of the word childhood?

150. What does it mean when the English language is qualified as predominantly analytical?

151. What was the grammatical structure of Old English: predominantly analytical or predominantly synthetic?

152. How are the phonetic changes in English connected with the development of grammar?

153. What grammatical categories had the noun in Old English?

154. What types of declension had the noun in Old English?

155. What gender could be the nouns of a-stem in Old English?

156. What gender could be the nouns of consonant stem in Old English?

157. What was the inflection of the Dative case plural with most nouns in Old English?

158. Decline the noun scip.

159. Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the o-stem with a short and long root vowel

160. Decline the noun hyll.

161. Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the masculine and feminine gender of the i-stem.

162. Which case forms had the same inflections in the u-stem declension?

163. Decline the noun sunu.

164. Decline the noun duru.

165. What genders could be the nouns with the n-stem?

166. Compare the inflections of the nouns of the masculine, neuter and feminine gender with the n-stem in the Nominative and Accusative case singular.

167. Decline the noun man.

168. 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 → Ө > 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. <u>Je</u> ; R. <u>я.</u>
B) Gt. <u>Ik</u>
C) O Icel <u>ek</u>
D) OE. <u>Ic;</u> NE <u>I</u>

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

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.

1.4 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.

1.5 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 boʻlib, har bir savolga berilgan yozma javobga talaba maksimal 5 ball olishi mumkin.

Har bir savol javobi uchun 5 balldan qoʻyiladi. Har bir savolga berilgan javobdagi bitta xato 1 ballga teng.

ON olishda talabalardan shuningdek mustaqil ish topshirish ham soʻraladi. Mustaqil ish sifatida ONga belgilangan mavzularni aytib berishga tayyorlab kelish soʻraladi. Bunda ogʻzaki javobga maksimal 5 ball qoʻyiladi.

3.   Yakuniy nazorat

Yakuniy nazorat 3 ta topshiriqdan iborat boʻlib, har bir topshiriq 5 tadan savolni oʻz ichiga oladi. Yakuniy nazoratga maksimal 30 ball qoʻyilishi mumkin.

Har bir topshiriq javobi uchun 10 balldan qoʻyiladi. Har bir savolga berilgan javobdagi bitta xato 1 ballga teng. Bundan kelib chiqadiki, talaba savolga yozma javob berishda 4 xatoga yoʻl qoʻysa, oʻsha savolga berilgan javob 6 ball bilan baholanadi.

FANNI O'RGANISH BO'YICHA QO'SHIMCHA MANBALAR

Lesson 1. The Old Germanic tribes and history of their languages
1.   **The christianisation of England**
2.   **Distribution of the Germanic tribes**
3.   **Old English kingdoms**
4.   **Dialects of Old English**
5.   **Archaeology and Old English**
6.   **Classification of Germanic tribes**

The withdrawal of the Romans from England in the early 5th century left a political vacuum. The Celts of the south were attacked by tribes from the north and in their desperation sought help from abroad. There are parallels for this at other points in the history of the British Isles. Thus in the case of Ireland, help was sought by Irish chieftains from their Anglo-Norman neighbours in Wales in the late 12th century in their internal squabbles. This heralded the invasion of Ireland by the English. Equally with the Celts of the 5th century the help which they imagined would solve their internal difficulties turned out to be a boomerang which turned on them.

Routes taken across the North Sea by Germanic tribes in the 5c. The Jutes came from Jutland and settled in Kent. The Saxons came from the area of present-day (Lower) Saxony and settled largely south of the River Thames. The Angles came from the lower part of the the Jutland peninsula which is now Schleswig Holstein in Germany and settled in central and northern England.

The lines in the above map are very approximate. Many of the settlers may have crossed the North Sea from the area of present-day Belgium as this would have involved the shortest sea journey.

Our source for these early days of English history is the *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* written by a monk called the Venerable Bede around 730 in the monastery of Jarrow in Co. Durham (i.e. on the north east coast of England).
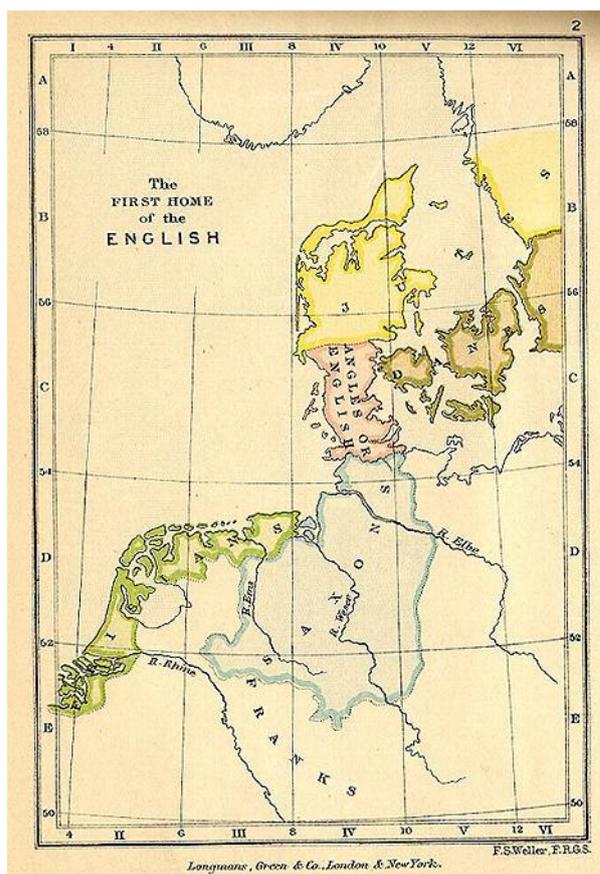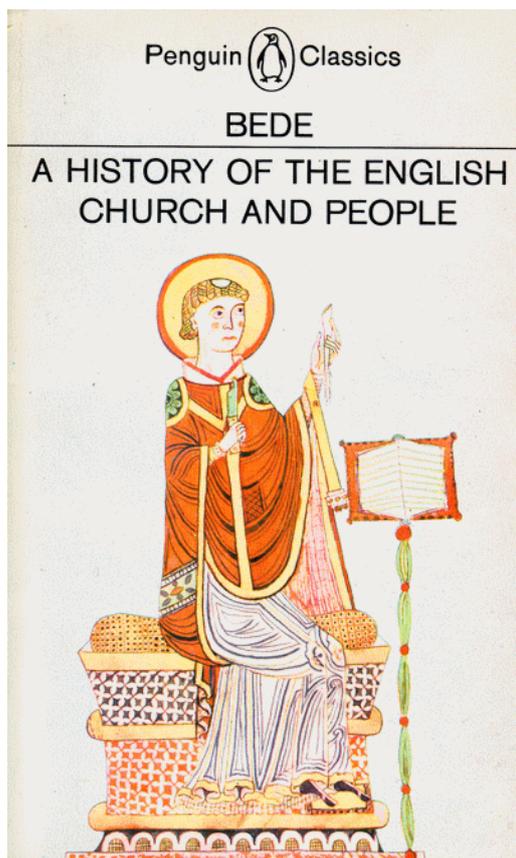
According to this work — written in Latin — the Celts first appealed to the Romans but the help forthcoming was slight and so they turned to the Germanic tribes of the North Sea coast. The date which Bede gives for the first arrivals is 449. This can be assumed to be fairly correct. The invaders consisted of members of various Germanic tribes, chiefly Angles from the historical area of Angeln in north east Schleswig Holstein. It was this tribe which gave England its name, i.e. *Englaland*, the land of the Angles (*Engle*, a mutated form from earlier **Angli*, note that the superscript asterisk denotes a reconstructed form, i.e. one that is not attested).

Other tribes represented in these early invasions were Jutes from the Jutland peninsula (present-day mainland Denmark), Saxons from the area nowadays known as Niedersachsen ('Lower Saxony', but which is historically the original Saxony), the Frisians from the North Sea coast islands stretching from the present-day north west coast of Schleswig-Holstein down to north Holland. These are nowadays split up into North, East and West Frisian islands, of which only the North and the West group still have a variety of language which is definitely Frisian (as opposed to Low German or Dutch).

The indigeneous Celts of Britain were quickly pressed into the West of England, Wales and Cornwall, and some crossed the Channel in the 5th and 6th centuries to Brittany and thus are responsible for a Celtic language — Breton — being spoken in France to this day, although Cornish, its counterpart in south-west England, died out in the 18th century.

The Germanic areas which became established in the period following the initial settlements consisted of the following seven 'kingdoms': Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. These are known as the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy. Political power was initially concentrated in the sixth century in Kent but this passed to Northumbria in the seventh and eighth centuries. After this a shift to the south began, first to Mercia in the ninth century and later on to West Saxony in the tenth and eleventh centuries.

The christianisation of England

The English were formally Christianised in 597 when Augustine, who was sent by Pope Gregory I with a group of missionaries, arrived in England. He was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 601, establishing this city as the centre of British bishops before his death in 604, a tradition which has remained since. By the end of the seventh century, most of Germanic speaking England had become Christian.

St. Augustine

Canterbury Cathedral

Although the south of England is taken to have been christianised by St. Augustine of Canterbury, the north of England had already been largely christianised by Irish and Scottish monks. The island of Iona was an important centre of the early Celtic church in the north and is particularly associated with Saint Saint Columba (521-597), or Colmcille (Irish 'Dove of the Church'), who was chief monk there and who gave the island its Irish name *Oileán Cholm Cille* 'Island of Colmcille'.

Distribution of the Germanic tribes

The Germanic tribes in England show a characteristic distribution almost from the very beginning. The Jutes, according to legend led by the brothers *Hengest* and *Horsa* (both words mean 'horse'), settled in Kent (the name is Celtic) probably having made their way via the coast of present-day Belgium. The Saxons settled in the remaining area south of the Thames and on the Isle of Wight. They were to remain there and found a kingdom which obtained practical sovereignty over England in the late Old English period and which was known then as West Saxony from which the name Wessex is derived (the same holds for Sussex and Essex). North of the Thames the Angles settled. This large area can be further subdivided. North of the Humber was a region which represented an amalgamation of two former Celtic kingdoms, Bernicia and Deira. Between Humber and Thames lay the area of Mercia. This was bounded on the west by Wales along what is called Offa's Dyke after King Offa (757-796) and on the east coast by the area of East Anglia.

Course of Offa's

Offa's Dyke in Wales   Dyke

Old English kingdoms

In the beginning of the Old English period, Kent was the centre of political and cultural influence in England. This situation lasted for about 150 years with a Kentish king (Ethelbert) ruling over all of England south of the Humber at one stage. In the seventh and eighth centuries matters changed and at least cultural influence shifted to the north of England. The main reason for this was the establishment of centres of learning in northern England, notably on the island of Lindisfarne (noted for the Old English version of the gospels), at Wearmouth and at Jarrow where the venerable Bede lived and worked.

Old   English   'kingdoms'
around 600

Old   English   'kingdoms'   around 800

The (extreme) northern part of Britain was Christianised before the south, probably from Ireland via Scotland. Ireland was in the centuries up to the Viking invasions a centre of learning and a source of missionaries for Europe. In Scotland monasteries with Irish or Irish-trained monks had been established, for example on the island of Iona (see above). Christianity and hence learning then spread southward at least in the foundation of monasteries which were centres of learning. In the eighth and early ninth centuries political influence moved southwards and lay in the hands of the Mercians until 825 when the then Mercian king was overthrown by a West Saxon. The first of a long line of West Saxon kings with their seat in Winchester was Egbert. Of all these the most prominent in a cultural sense is Alfred who if not himself a great scholar was at least responsible for the flowering of learning in Wessex in the late ninth century and for the rise of the West Saxon dialect of Old English as a *koiné* (dialect used as a quasi-standard in those areas outside its own native one).

In many treatments of history in the Old English period, reference is made to the Anglo-Saxon *heptarchy* after the sevens 'kingdoms' which are recognised to have existed during this time: 1) Wessex, 2) Sussex, 3) Essex, 4) Kent, 5) East Anglia, 6) Mercia, 7) Northumbria.

Dialects of Old English

The dialects of Old English are more or less co-terminous with the regional kingdoms. The various Germanic tribes brought their own dialects which were then continued in England. Thus we have a Northumbrian dialect (Anglian in origin), a Kentish dialect (Jutish in origin), etc. The question as to what degree of cohesion already existed between the Germanic dialects when they were still spoken on the continent is unclear. Scholars of the 19th century favoured a theory whereby English and Frisian formed an approximate linguistic unity. This postulated linguistic entity is variously called Anglo-Frisian and Ingvaeonic, after the name which Tacitus (*c* 55-120) in his *Germania* gave to the Germanic population settled on the North Sea coast. Towards the end of

196

the Old English period the dialectal position becomes complicated by the fact that the West Saxon dialect achieved prominence as an inter-dialectal means of communication.

For the development of Old English culture an important step was the Christianisation of the south of England. This did not take place (at least to any great extent) in the manner one might imagine, i.e. from the north, or indeed from Ireland. Early Irish saints like St.Columba (see above) were restricted in their influence to Ireland and Scotland. It is true that Aidan was sent to Northumbria and was involved in founding the monastery at Lindisfarne (634), but the activities of Saint Augustine who was dispatched by Gregory I (540-604, the author of the *Cura Pastoralis* 'Pastoral Care' an early devotional work) to christianise England antedated those of Aidan by a full generation. He arrived with a group of missionaries in 597 in Kent and convinced the then king Ethelbert to be baptised. The mission proceeded well for Augustine and in 601 he was made Archbishop of Canterbury, this leading to the official establishment of the christin church in England. The pre-Viking atmosphere was favourable in England to ecclesiastical scholarship and in the 7th and 8th centuries many scholars and teachers of note are to be found, such as Aldhelm (640-709) and of course Bede (673-735) who was the greatest representative of the Benedictine monastery of Jarrow. He is the author of many works of general scientific interest and is the first English church historian (see above). The most notable scholar after Bede is Alcuin (735-804) who favoured contacts with the continent and helped to prevent the English church of the time from becoming isolated.

Archaeology and Old English

Sutton Hoo

Excavation work at Sutton Hoo in 1939
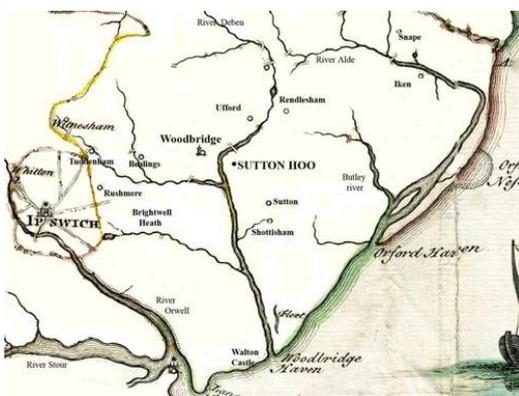
Location of Sutton Hoo, east/north-east of Ipswich with a burial mound on the site

Sutton Hoo near Woodbridge in Suffolk is a location where two burial grounds from the sixth and early seventh centuries were found. The ship burial site from the early seventh century was exacavated in 1939. It is the major archaeological site from the Old English period. It offers us information about the cultural practices of the Anglo-Saxons and is invaluable because not so much is known about these from written documents.

Apart for the ship used in the burial, the site contained many artefacts which were laid into the graves of individuals buried there. This common practice meant that military items such as swords and helmets were put into the graves as well. Other more everyday items were also buried, e.g. drinking horns, as well as metal artefacts connected with clothing, e.g. buckles and clasps, which survived well because of the material they were made of. These items were often quite ornate and hence have an artistic value. The designs used for these items are reminiscent of contemporary Celtic design found on artefacts in Ireland.

Buckle found at Sutton Hoo
Shoulder Clasp found at Sutton Hoo

Ship burial in the Germanic world

The practice of ship burial would seem to have been widespread in the Germanic world and other examples have been found. The most well preserved is probably the Oseberg Viking Longship which was found in a burial ground near Oslo at the beginning of the 20th century

The Oseberg Viking Longship in the Museum of Oslo, Norway

Another ship burial site with a significant find is from Haithabu near the city of Schleswig in the most northerly German state-province of Schleswig-Holstein.
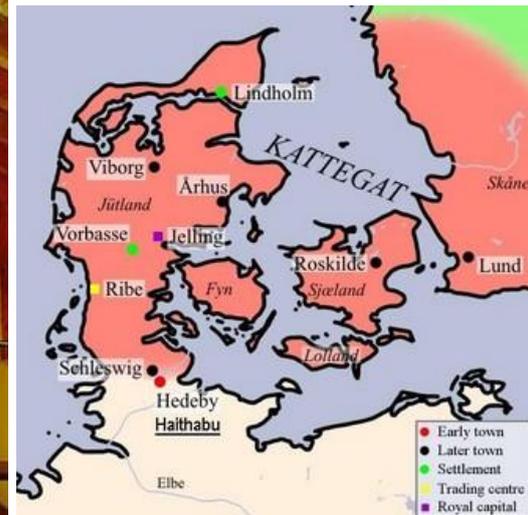
The Longship at Haithabu, Schleswig-Holstein, north Germany

6. The earliest descriptions of the Germans, the ancient tribes that spoke Germanic languages

The history is known from the writings of Greek and Roman authors. The earliest paper is written by Pytheas. He lived in the second half of the 4th century B.C. Pytheas sailed much. The description of his journeys is not preserved. But something was quoted in the papers of old historians as in Titus Livy and Polybius in the second century B.C. They provided extracts from a paper of Pytheas. It was also mentioned that Old Germanic tribes raided the Hellenic countries of south-eastern Europe, Italy and Gall. In the beginning of our era the Greek historian Strabo wrote about Germans nomads. They moved from forest to forest, built houses, and were engaged in cattle bringing. The great writer Plutarch described Germans as wild nomadic tribes who had constantly been in war. They were not interested in agriculture or in cattle bringing, but only in war. The Roman general Julius Caesar devoted several chapters to the militant Germanic tribes in his "Commentaries on the war in Gall" (1044 B.C.). Caesar fought with them on the Rhine. He took two expeditions against the Germanic tribes who wanted to get hauled on some territories. The Romans defeated the Germans in both expeditions. Caesar wrote about their military tactics, described how they prepared their attacks and so on. Caesar wrote that Germans lived in tribal unions. He also gave a detailed description of the structure of their society and peculiarities of their life.

The next great historian Pliny spent many years in the Roman provinces of Low and High Germany. He was a prominent encyclopedias. He wrote a book called "Natural History". He was the first who enumerated and classified the military tribes. It was proved by many scientists. According to Pliny there were several Germanic tribes:

• **The Vindili.** They lived in the eastern part of the territory inhabited by the Germanic tribes. They consisted of the Goths, the Burgundians and the Vandals. The Vandals first inhabited the territory between the Oder and the Vistula. Later they moved to Northern Africa through Spain. The word vandalism originated from Vandal (means Barbary).

• **The Burgundians** came to the continent from the island of Bornholm. It was in the Baltic Sea. Later they moved to the west and settled in south-eastern part of France in the area called Burgundia.

• **The Goths** first inhabited the lower coast of the river Vistula. Later they moved to the south and formed powerful tribal unions of Ostrogoths and Visigoths.

- **The Ingvaenoes.** They lived in the north-western part of the Germanic territory. They inhabited the Jutland peninsula and the coast of the North Sea. The tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians were formed later of this group.

- **The Istaevones**. They lived on the Rhine. Later they formed a very powerful tribal union of Franconians. In the early Middle Ages they were powerful group of West Germans.

- **The Herminones** lived in the centre of Germany and later the German nation was formed of these tribes.

- **The Hilleviones** were isolated from other Germanic tribes. They inhabited Scandinavia. Modern Scandinavian nations are the descendants of these tribes.

The Vindili spoke eastern Germanic; the Hilleviones spoke northern Germanic, the Ingvaones, Istaevones and Herminones – West Germanic.

The Roman historian Tacitus made a detailed description of the life and customs of ancient Germans. Tacitus was a prominent Roman historian. He himself had never been to Germany. Being a Roman senator he got information from military travelers, actions, etc. he also used papers written about the Germans before him. In the time of Tacitus there were constant arm conflicts between the Germans and Romans. Numerous attempts of the Roman generals to conquer the Germanic tribes failed. In the second half of the second century after a short period without wars they began their attacks again. The ancient Germans had a tribal society. In the head of each tribe there was a chief who was called 'kuning'. Some modern place-names testify to this social structure of the Germans. The whole tribe had the name of the Chief.

Lesson 2. The Phonetic System of Germanic Languages
Plan
1.   The Phonetic Structure of Old English
2.   **Correspondences between the Common Germanic and the Indo-European Phonemes**
3.   Phonetic Changes of the Old English Period
1. The Phonetic Structure of Old English
In Old English, like in other languages, there were vowels and consonants.

The Old English vowels differed from each other not only by quality (i.e. by articulation), but also by quantity (i.e. by length). The length of vowels is denoted by a line above the corresponding letter, e.g.: a, e, o. You know that in modern English it is also important to distinguish long and short vowels, but such a sound as, for instance, **[ae]** has no long correspondence in today's English, like there is no corresponding short vowel to **[a:]**. The situation in Old English was different: all vowels existed in pairs, i.e. alongside with every short vowel there was a long one having the same articulation. That is why the Old English system of vowels is spoken of as symmetric. As a whole the system of monophthongs in Old English looks like this:

[a] [a] [e] [i] [o] [u] [y] [a/o]
[a:] [a:] [e:] [i:] [o:] [u:] [y:]

This vowel was a positional variant of the short **[a]** and was pronounced before the consonants **[n]** and **[m].** The vowel **[a/o]** was articulated as a sound intermediate between **[a]** and **[o].** That is why in the Old English texts we can see the same words spelt in different variants: **land** vs. **lond, man** vs. **mon, and** vs. **ond,** etc.

Besides the monophthongs, there were four pairs of diphthongs in the vowel system of Old English:

[ea] [eo] [ie] [io]
[ea:] [eo:] [ie:] [io:]

The Old English diphthongs were descending, i.e. the first element was the strong, accented one. The peculiarity of the Old English diphthongs was also in the following: their second element was wider than the first.

The system of consonants included the following sounds:

■   labial **[p], [b], [m], [f], [v]**

- front-lingual **[t],]d], [b], [n], [s], [r], [l]**
- velar **[k], [g], [h], [y], [y'], [x]**

The signs **b (thorn)** and **d (eth)** denoted the voiceless or voiced interdental sound (like in Modern English **'thing'** or **'this').** The letter **g** (yogh) had several meanings; it denoted the hard **[g]** (like in Modern English **'good',** the palatalized **[g']** (like in Russian **гиря),** the velar fricative **[gh]** (like the Ukrainian **[г]),** and finally **[j]** (like in Modern English **'yes')** (see OE spelling).

Correspondencies between the Common Germanic and the Indo-European Phonemes

OE vowels were largely of common Germanic origin [Иванова, Чахоян, Беляева 1999: 59]:

Gothic	Old High German	OE
short vowels		
[i] - fisks	[i] - fisc	[i] fisc 'fish'
[i] - stilan	[e] - stelan	[e] stelan 'steal'
[a] dags	[a] tac	[ж] daeg 'day'
[a] dagos	[a] taga	[a] dagas 'days'
[a] manna	[a] mann	[o] ma(o)nn, mann
[u] stulans	[o] gistolen	[o] stolen 'stolen'
[u] fulls	[u] fol	[u] full 'full'
long vowels		
[i:] leipan	[i:] li:dan 'to suffer'	[i:] li:pan 'to travel'
[e:] sle:pan	[a:] sla:fan	[e:] (Angican dialect) [ж:] (West Saxon dialect) sle:pan, sls:pan
[ai] stains	[ei] stein	[a:] sta:n 'stone'
[o:] bro: par	[uo] bruodar	[o:] bro: por
[u:] tu:n 'settlement'	[u:] zu:n	[u:] tu:n 'town'
diphthongs		
[au:] auk 'for, bcs'	[ou:] ouch 'also'	[ea:] ea:c 'also'
[iu] diups	[io] tiof	[eo:] deo:p 'deep'

2. Ablaut

The term *'ablaut'* is used to denote the gradation of vowels in the root which "functions as the inner inflection" /Ахманова 1966, 28/. We can find ablaut in many Indo-European languages. For instance, in Russian we can see that in the forms беру - поборы - брал there is gradation -e-/-o-/zero.

There was qualitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its quality and quantitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its length.

Qualitative gradation (степени качественного аблаута)

o - the full grade, a fully stressed vowel;

e - the reduced grade, a weakly stressed vowel;

zero - the zero grade, an unstressed vowel.

In the Indo-European languages the most widespread was the gradation e-o, e.g. Greek lego (говорр) -logos (слово), Lat. tego: (покрывар) - toga (одежда); Rus. беру - собор - брать; бреду - брод, беру -собор.

Quantitative gradation (степени количественного аблаута)

e /o- the full grade;

e:/o: - the prolonged grade;

zero - the zero grade

E.g. Greek pate'rizo 'to call a father' - the full grade; vocative case pa'ter - the prolonged grade; gene-tive pat'ros - the zero grade.

Being a phonetic process, ablaut was most associated with the formation of the basic forms of Indo-European strong verbs. Thus it came to be understood and employed as *a grammatical means of the form-bi-ulding in verbs.*

In the Germanic languages the Indo-European gradation e-o-zero corresponded to the gradation e-a-ze-ro, because I.-E. o = Germ. a; the Indo-European e corresponded in some Germanic languages, O.E. among them, to i: i-a-zero.

For the Germanic languages, including Old English, the ablaut is very important, as it is a means of word-change and word-building.

Ablaut is used in the forms of the so called strong verbs. Let us compare the four basic forms (the infinitive, the past tense singular, the past tense plural and Participle II) of the Old English verb WRITAN 'to write'. They are as follows: (1) WRITAN 'to write', (2) WRAT '(he) wrote', (3) WRITON '(they) wrote, (4) WRITEN 'written'. We can see that besides different endings in the forms given above there is gradation of vowels in the root: -i-/-a-/-i-/-i- (-zero-zero).

Now let us take another verb DRINCAN 'to drink' and consider its forms: (1) DRINCAN 'to drink', (2) DRANC '(he) drank', (3) DRUNCON '(they) drank', (4) DRUNCEN 'drunken'. The vowel gradation is different here: -i-/-a-/-u-/-u-(-zero-zero).

If we take the corresponding forms of the verb BERAN 'to bear' we shall find a different pattern of gradation: -e-/-ae-/-ae-/-o-(-zero-zero) (BERAN 'to bear' - BER '(he) bore - BERON '(they) bore' - BOREN 'borne').

The different patterns of vowel gradation in the four principle forms give the basis for the classification of the strong verb which we are going to discuss later.

Ablaut may be also seen in the formation of the degrees of comparison in some adjectives; e.g.:

STRA(O)NG 'strong' - STRENGRA 'stronger' - STRENGEST 'strongest'[1] LA(O)NG 'long' - LENGRA 'longer' - LENGEST 'longest' EALD 'old' - IELDRA 'older' - IELDEST 'oldest'

In some cases ablaut is used as a means of word-building /Ильиш 1968, 60/; e.g.:

BELIFAN 'to leave' - LAF 'remainder'
FORLEOSAN 'to lose' - LEAS 'deprived'
BERAN 'to bear' - BER 'stretcher'
FARAN 'to travel' - FOR 'journey'
RIDAN 'to ride' - RAD 'road'
SINGAN 'to sing' - SONG 'song'

In spite of the fact that the English language has changed tremendously for the centuries of its exis -tence, some traces of the Old English ablaut still may be found in Modern English. It is ablaut that can help us explain such a phenomenon as the so called 'irregular' verbs. The conventional term 'irregular' does not seem quite correct if we look upon the phenomenon from the historic point of view. Historically, the verbs which form their past tense and Participle II by way of vowel change in the root are quite REGULAR. The traces of ablaut may be also found in the pairs of such words as STRONG - STRENGTH, LONG - LENGTH, SING - SONG, etc. Knowing what ablaut is you will be able to establish the relations between similar words which are not very evidently connected semantically, e.g.: RIDE and ROAD.

3. Phonetic Changes of the Old English Period

The phonetic system never remained unchanged during the Old English period. There were nine main phonetic changes in the Old English language: (1) Old English fracture, (2) diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonants, (3) umlaut, (4) lengthening of vowels under certain conditions, (5) voicing and unvoicing of fricatives, (6) palatalization of consonants and development of sibilants, (7) metathesis (метатеза - взаимная перестановка звуков или слогов в пределах слова), (8) assimilation of consonants, (9) doubling and falling out of consonants.

Let us discuss each phenomenon in detail. VOWEL CHANGES:

1)   The Old English fracture is a change of the short vowels [ae] and [e] into diphthongs before some groups of consonants, when [ae] turned into the diphthong [ea] and [e] into the diph-thong [eo]. Such diphthongization took place when [a] or [e] was followed by the combination of

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[1] Here we deal with the quantitative ablaut or the common IE ablaut. Or as Prof. Mezenin maintains, here we have i-mutation.

[r], [l] or **[h]** with any other consonant or when the word ended in **[h].** E.g.: ***aerm > earm** 'arm', ***aeld > eald** 'old', ***aehta > eahta** 'eight', ***saeh > seah** 'saw', ***herte > heorte** 'heart', ***melcan > meolcan** 'to milk', ***selh > seolh** 'seal', ***feh > feoh** 'property.

2) Diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonants or PALATALIZATION of vowels took place when the vowel was preceded by the initial **/j/** or **/k'/ and /sk'/: g-, c-, sc-.** It had two stages /Смирницкий 55, 122/. Originally as a result of the palatalization of the consonants there appeared an ascending diphthong (i.e. a diphthong with the second element stressed), and then, according to the English phonetic norm, the ascending diphthong turns into a usual descending one; e.g.: **/e/ > /ie/ > /ie/; /o/ > /eo/ > /eo/.** If we drop the transitional stage (the ascending variant of the diphthong), the general process of diphthongization may be presented as follows:

[a] > [ea] [e:] > [ie:]

[a:] > [ea:] or [eo:] [o] > [eo]

[a] > [ea] [o:] > [eo:]

[ae:] > [ea:] [u] > [io] (in the 9th c. [io] > [eo]) [e] > [ie] [u:] >[io:] (in the 9th c. [io:] > [eo:])

As a result of this change new words with diphthongs appeared in the Old English language ; e.g.: ***scacan > sceacan** 'to shake', ***scawian > sceawian** 'to see', ***scamu > sceamu** or s**ceomu** 'shame', ***gaef > geaf** 'gave', ***gaer > gear** 'year', ***sceld > scield** 'shield', ***ge > gie** 'you', ***scort > sceort** 'short', ***scop > sceop** 'created', ***gung > giong > geong** 'young', ***gutan > giotan > geotan** 'to pour'.

3) Umlaut is a change of the vowel caused by partial assimilation with the following vowel in the word /Ильиш 1973, 48/. Umlaut, as V.M.Zhirmunsky writes, is a Germanic, but not proto-Germanic phenomenon: we do not see it in the oldest documents of Germanic languages /Жирмунский 1960, 314/. In Old English it is necessary to distinguish the front-lin -gual umlaut (the change of the vowel under the influence of the following **[j])** and the velar umlaut (the change of the vowel under the influence of the following **[u], [o]** or **[a]).** A phenomenon similar to umlaut takes place as well before the consonant /h/ /Ильиш 1973, 50/.

In the i-umlaut (i-mutation, front-lingual umlaut, палатальная или переднеязычная перегласовка) both monophthongs and diphthongs are involved. This phenomenon implies the fronting and narrowing of back vowels under the influence of the following [j]. The change of the vowels in that case is as follows:

[a] > [e], e.g.: *sandian > sendan 'to send'

[a] > [ae], e.g.: *larian > laeran 'to teach'

[ae] > [e], e.g. : *taelian > tellan 'to tell' [o] > [e], e.g.: *ofstian > efstan 'to hurry' [o] > [e], e.g.: *wopian > wepan 'to weep' [u] > [y], e.g.: *fullian > fyllan 'to fill' [u] > [y], e.g.: *ontunian > ontynan 'to open' [ea] > [ie], e.g.: *hleahian > hliehhan 'to laugh' [ea] > [ie], e.g.: *hearian > hieran 'to hear' [eo] > [ie], e.g.: *afeorian > afierran 'to move' [eo] > [ie], e.g.: *getreowi > getriewe 'true'_

The mechanism of the front-lingual umlaut can be seen very well in the examples above: the vowel [i] in the ending of the word influences the root vowel in such a way that the latter becomes narrower, while the sound [i] itself as a rule disappears.

The velar umlaut means the diphthongization of front vowels under the influence of back vowels in the following syllable. In case of the velar umlaut the following changes take place:

[a] > [ea], e.g.: *saru > searu 'armour'

[e] > [eo], e.g.: *hefon > heofon 'heaven'

[i] > [io], e.g.: *sifon > siofon 'seven'

The phonetic changes before the consonant /h/ are characterized, as some scholars notice, by certain ambiguity /Ильиш 1973, 50/. As a result of this change the Old English word *naht, for instance, develops the following variants: neaht, nieht, niht, nyht; the past form of mag (may) - meahte - miehte, mi-hte, myhte.

4) The lengthening of vowels:

a) __ before the homorganic clusters (гоморганные согласные, образурщиеся одним и тем

же произносительным органом) <u>nd, ld, mb</u> took place in the 9th century. The cause of this phenomenon is not clear enough. The scholars write about its unusual, even enigmatic character /Плоткин 1967, 62; Мифтахова 1964, 6 - 9/. Such words as BINDAN 'bind', BUNDEN 'bound', CILD 'child' began to be pronounced as BI:NDAN, BU:NDEN, CI:LD. But in case there was a third consonant after nd, ld or mb no lengthening took place, e.g., in the plural form CILDRU 'children' the short [i] remains.

Vowels were also lengthened when certain consonants following them dropped out:

b) __ when 'm,n' dropped out before 'f, s, [thorn]', and 'n' dropped out before 'h' (the Ing-vaeone lengthening of vowels). E.g., *fimf > fi:f, *uns > u:s, *onper > o:6er, *ponhte > po:hte

c) __ g before 'd, n'. E.g. *seegde > see:de; *frignan > fri:nan

d) ___ the lengthening of vowels and syllabic contraction due to the falling out of intervocalic [x] and [x '] is a phonetic phenomenon which consists in the elimination of the consonant [h] in the position between two vowels, while those vowels form one phoneme, mainly a long diphthong:

[a] + [h] + vowel > [ea], e.g.: *slahan > slea:n 'to kill'

[e] + [h] + vowel > [eo], e.g.: *sehan > seo:n 'to see'

[i] + [h] + vowel > [eo], e.g.: *tihan > teo:n 'to accuse'

[o] + [h] + vowel > [o], e.g.: *fohan > fo:n 'to catch'

As a result of the contraction, as it can be seen in the examples, the syllable structure of the word changes: disyllabic words become monosyllabic.

The dropping out of 'h' between l and a vowel also caused the diphthongization and lengthening: *seol-has > seo:las 'seals'.

LESSON 3. THE FIRST CONSONANT SHIFT, OR GRIMM'S LAW. VERNER'S LAW

Plan

1. The peculiar Germanic system of word accentuation.
2. Independent Vowel Changes in Proto-Germanic
3. The first consonant shift, or Grimm's law.
4. Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)

In IE there existed two ways og accntuation: musical pitch and force stress. The position of the stress was free and movable.

Both these properties changed in PG. Force stress became the only type of stress used. In early PG the stress was movable, in late PG its position in the word stabilised The stress was now fixed on the first syllable and could not move in form- or word-building.

This played an important role in the development of Germanic languages: in the development of stressed and unstressed vowels, in the development of unstressed grammatical endings and suffixes.

Vowels.

Vowels underwent qualitattive, quantitative, positional and spontaneous changes. Differentiation of long and short vowels is regarded as an important characteristic of the Germanic group.

Independent Vowel Changes in Proto-Germanic

Change illustrated		Examples		
		Non-Germanic	**Germanic**	
IE	**G**			
			Old	**Modern**

		Non-Germanic	Old	Modern
		L nox, *Ir* nochd, *R* ночь	*Gt* nahts, *O Icel* nátt, *OHG* naht	Sw *natt*, G *Nacht* Sw *må*,
		R могу; мочь	*Gt* magan, *OE* магап, мæз	NE *may*
			O Icel móðir, *OE* mōdor	Sw *moder*, NE *mother*
:	:	*L* mater, *R* мать *O Ind* bhrāta, *L* frater, *R* брат	*Gt* broþar, *O Icel* bróðir, *OE* brōðor	Sw *broder*, NE *brother*

Mutation of Vowels in Late PG

Change illustrated	Examples		
	Non-Germanic	**Germanic**	
		Old	**Modern**
IE	*L* ventus, *R* ветер	*Gt* winds, *0 Icel* vindr, *OE* wind	Sw *vind, NE wind*
		OHG izit, *OE* iteþ,	*G iβt*, NE *eats*,
	L edit, *R* ест	*O Icel* eta, *OE* etan	G *essen*, NE *eat*
	L edere, *R* есть	*O Icel* sunr, *OE* sunu	
	Lith sunus, *R* сын		Sw *son*, NE *son*
		O Icel, OE horn	NE *horn*, Sw *horn*
	Celt hurman		

2) Consonants

The first consonant shift, or Grimm's law.

Consonant Shift in Proto-Germanic (Grimm's Law)

Correspondence illustrated		Examples		
		Non-Germanic	Germanic	
			Old	Modern
PIE	**PG**	ACT I		
		L pes, pedis	*Gt* fōtus, *O Icel* fótr, *OE* fōt	Sw *fot*, NE *foot* G *Fuβ*
		R пена	*OE* fām	G *Feim*, NE *foam*
		L piscis, *R* пескарь	*Gt* fisks, *OE* fisc	G *Fisch, NE fish*
		L tres, *R* три	*Gt* þreis, *O Icel* þrir, *OE* þrēo	Sw *tre*, G *drei*, NE *three*
		L tu, *Fr* tu, *R* ты	*Gt* þu, *OE* þū	G Sw *du*, NE *thou*
		L cor, cordis, *Fr* coeur, *R* сердце	*Gt* hairto, *O Icel* hjarta, *OE* heort	G *Herz,* NE *heart*
		L canis *R* колода	*Gt* hunds, *OE* hund *OE* holt	G *Hund*, NE *hound* G *Holz*, NE *holt*
	ACT II			
		Lith balà, *R* болото *L* labare, *R* слабый	*OHG* pfuol, *OE* pōl *Gt* slepan, *OE* slǽpan	G *Pfuhl*, NE *pool* G *schlafen*, NE sleep
		L decem, *Fr* dix,	*Gt* taíhun, *O Icel* tíu,	Sw tio, G *zehn*,

			OE tien	
		R десять		NE *ten*
		Fr deux, *R* два	*OE* twā	NE *two*
		L edere, *R* еда	*Gt* itan, *OE* etan	Sw äta, NE eat
		L vidēre, *R* ве-дать, видеть	*OE* witan	G *wissen,* NE *wit*
		L genu, *Fr* genou	*OE* cnēo, *Gt* kniu	NE *knee,* G *Knie*
		L iugum, *R* иго	*Gt* juk, *O Icel* ok, *OE* зеос	Sw *ok,* NE *yoke*
	ACT III			
h[1]		*O Ind* bhrāta, *L* frater, *R* брат	*Gt* broþar, *O Icel* bróðir, *OE* brōþor	Sw *broder,* G Bruder, NE *brother*
		L ferre, *R*.беру *Fr* future, *R* быть	*Gt* baíran, *OE* be-ran *OHG* bin, bíst, *OE* bēon	G *gebären,* NE *bear* G *bin, bist,* NE *be*
h		*O Ind* rudhira, *R* рдеть	*Gt* rauþs, *O Icel* *rauðr, OE* rēad	G *rot,* Sw röd, NE *red*
		O Ind mádhyas, *L* medius *R* делать	*Gt* midjis [ð], *OE* middle *Gt* gadeþs, *OE* dǽd, dōn	G *Mittel,* NE middle NE *deed, do*
h		*L* hostis, *R* гость *L* (leg-) lectus, *R* залегать	*Gt* gasts, *O Icel* gestr, *OE* giest *Gt* ligan [γ], *O Icel* liggja, *OE* licзan	Sw gäst, G *Gast,* NE *guest* G *liegen,* NE *lie*
		O Ind vaha,.*L* via, *R* везти	*Gt* wiga [γ], *O Icel* vegr, *OE* weз	Sw *väg,* G *Weg,* NE way

1-It is assumed that PIE contained sets of aspirated plosives opposed to pure non-aspirated plosives: [bh, dh, gb] vs [b, d, g] as well as [ph, th, kh] vs [p, t, k]. The voiceless [ph, th, kh] are not included in the shift, since they behaved like the corresponding pure plosives [p, t, k] and probably were not distinguished in West IE.

By the terms of Grimm's law voiceless plosives developed in PG into voiceless fricatives (ACT I), IE voiced plosives were shifted to voiceless plosives (ACT II), and IE voiced aspirated plosives were reflected either as voiced fricatives or as pure voiced plosives (ACT III).

Cases which contradict the Grimm's law. Voicing of fricatives in PG, or K. Verner's law.

K.Verner's law: all the Early PG voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x] which arose under Grimm's law and also [s] inherited from PIE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed, in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless.

VERNER'S LAW

This is phonetic principle formulated by the Danish philologist Karl Adolf Verner (1846-96) in 1875, which modifies certain points in the earlier work of the

German philologist Jacob Grimm. Verner's Law describes a regular shift in stress that took place in words in the Germanic languages after the consonant shift postulated by Grimm. According to Grimm, the ancient IndoEuropean parent language sounds of **P, t,** and **k** changed into **f, th** and **h** in the Germanic languages, while **b, d,** and **g** in the ancient tongue changed to the Germanic **p, t,** and **k.** Verner observed that this was true when the accent fell on the root syllable, but when the accent fell on another syllable, ancient Indo-European **p, t,** and **k** became Germanic **b, d,** and **g.** Verner then applied these rules to the consonants sand **r.** Verner's law states that with respect to the

206

Germanic languages, the medial and final fricatives were voiced if they came after an unaccented syllable in the Indo-European parent language. His work is important in the study of linguistics because it provesboth that language changes are evolutionary and that no exceptions or gaps exist in linguistic development.

Verner's Law, stated by Karl Verner in 1875, describes a historical sound change in the proto-Germanic language whereby voiceless fricatives ***f, *t, *s** and ***x,** when immediately following an unstressed syllable in the same word, underwent voicing and became respectively ***b, *d, *z** and ***g.** When Grimm's Law was discovered, a strange irregularity was spotted in its operation. The Proto-Indo European (PIE) voiceless stops ***p, *t** and ***k** should have changed into Proto-Germanic (PGmc) ***f, *p** (dental fricative) and ***x** (Velar fricative), according to Grimm's Law. Indeed, that was known to be the usual development. However, there appeared to be a large set of words in which the agreement of Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, Baltic, Slavic etc. guaranteed PIE ***p, *t** or ***k,** and yet the Germanic reflex was a voiced consonant **(*b, *d** or ***g).**

At first, irregularities did not give scholars sleepless nights as long as there were many examples of the regular outcome. Increasingly, however, it became the ambition of linguists to formulate general and *exceptionalness* rules of sound change that would account for all the data (or as close to the ideal as possible), not merely for a well-behaved subset of it.

One classic example of PIE *t> PGmc *d is the word for 'father', PIE *pH2te: r (here *H2 stands for a Llaryngeal, and the colon marks vowel Length) > PGmc *fade:r (instead of expected *fape:r). Curiously, the structurally similar family term *bhra:te:r 'brother' developed as predicted by Grimm's Law (Gmc. *broe:r). Even more curiously, we often find *both* *p and *d as refIExes of PIE *t in different forms of one and the same root, e.g. *werp - 'turn', preterit *warp 'he turned', but e.g. preterit plural and past participle *wurd- (plus appropriate inflections).

Karl Verner was the first scholar who put his finger on the factor governing the distribution of the two outcomes. He observed that the apparently unexpected voicing of voiceless fricatives (and their falling together with *** b, * d, * g)** occurred if they were non-initial and immediately preceded by a syllable that carried no stress in PIE. The original location of stress was often retained in Greek and early Sanskrit, though in Germanic stress eventually became fixed on the initial (root) syllable of all words. The crucial diference between *phate:r and *bhra:te:r was therefore one of secondsyllable versus first-syllable stress (cf.

Sanskrit pita: versus bhra:ta:).

The *werT-1 *wurd- contrast is likewise explained as due to stress on the root versus stress on the inflectional suffix (IEaving the first syllable unstressed). There are also other Vernerian alternations such as illustrated by Modern German ziehen / (ge) zogen 'draw' < PGmc. *tiux-I *tug- < PIE *deuk-I *duk- 'lead'.

There is a spin off from Verner's Law: the rule accounts also for PGmc *z as the development of PIE *s in some words. Since this *z changed to *r in the Scandinavian languages in West Germanic (German, German, Dutch, English, Frisian). Verner's Law resulted in the alternation Isl versus Irl in some inflectional paradigms. For example, the Old English verb *ceosan* 'choose' had the past plural form *curon* and the past participle *(ge)coren* < *kiusI *kuz- < *g^Aeus-1 *g^Aus-'taste, try'. We would have *coren* for *chosen* in Modern English if the consonantal shell of *choose* and *chose* had not been generalised. But Vernerian /r/ has not been leveled out in *were* < PGmc. *we:z-, related to *was.* Similarly, *lose,* though it has the weak form *lost,* also has the compound form *forlorn.*

It is worth noting that the Verner's Law comes chronologically after Grimm's Law (because Grimm's Law provides most of its input) and before the Germanic shift of stress to the initial syllable (because the voicing is conditioned by the old location of stress). The stress shift erased the conditioning environment and made the Vernerian variation between voiceless fricatives and their voiced alternants look mysteriously haphazard.

The moral of Verner's Law is that crucial evidence necessary to sort out the historical evolution of a linguistic lineage may reside where few people would dream of looking for it. Verner

found it "out there" in Greek and Sanskrit, while everyone else had tacitly assumed that Germanic changes can be explained in Germanic terms without recourse to external comparison.

A statement, propounded by the Danish philologist Karl Verner in 1875, which explains certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law by the original position of the accent. Primitive Indo-European k, t, p, became first in Teutonic h, th, f, and appear without further change in old Teutonic, if the accent rested on the preceding syllable; but these sounds became voiced and produced g, d, b, if the accent was originally on a different syllable. Similarly s either remained unchanged, or it became z and later r. Example: Skt. sapta (accent on ultima), Gr. 'e'pta, Gothic sibun (seven). Examples in English are dead by the side of death, to rise and to rear.

Danish linguist wondered why not every I-E stop changed in the same way. His formulation established that Grimm's Law was consistent and could account for all known cognate evolution:

Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)

		Change illustrated	Examples		
IE	**PG**		**Non-Germanic**	**Germanic**	
	Early	Late		old	modern
		f>v	*L* caput	*Gt* haubiþ, *O*	Sw *huvud,* G
				Icel haufoð, *OE* hēafod [v]	*Haupt,* NE *head*
			L septern	*Gt* sibun, *OE* seofon [v]	G *sieben,* NE *seven*
		θ>ð ,d	*O Ind*	*Gt* hund, *O Icel*	G *Hundert,* Sw
			satam,	hundrað, *OE*	*hundrade,* NE
			R сто	hund	*hundred*
			L pater,	*Gt* fadar [ð], *O Icel*	G *Vater*, Sw *fader,*
			O Ind pitā	faðir, *OE* fæder	NE *father*
		x > γ, g	*L* cunctāri	*O Icel* hanga, *OE* han3ian	Sw *hänga,* NE *hang*
			L socrus, *R* свекровь	*Gt* swaíhro, *OHG* swigur, *OE* swe3er	G *Schwager*
		s > z	*L* auris,	*Gt* auso, *O Icel*	Sw öra, G *Ohr,*
			Lith ausis	eyra, *OE* ēare	NE *ear*
		(Note: [z] in many languages became [r]) Rhotacism.			

Lesson 4. Morphologic structure of words in German languages

Form-building means, synthetic and analytical languages.

Both PG and OG languages had a synthetic grammatical structure, which means that the relationshops between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the words rather than their position or bi auxiliary words.

Synthetic means of form-building: inflective, suppletive, reduplication, vowel gradation, or ablaut.

Ablaut is an independent vowel interchange unconnected with any phonetic conditions. Ablaut was inherited by Germanic from ancient PG. The principal gradation series used in the IE languages – [e~o]- can be shown in Russian examples: нести - ноша. Qualitative and quantitative ablaut. In qualitative ablaut vowels differ only in their quality. Alteration of short and long vowels,

208

and also alteration with zero represent quantitative ablaut. L. Lēgi 'elected' – lego 'elect', R. беру - сбор.

Gradation series in Gothic strong verbs.

Examples of Vowel Gradation in Gothic Strong Verbs

IE	e	o	zero	zero	
PG	e/i	a	zero	zero	
Principal forms	infinitive	Past sg	Past pl	Participle II	
Class 1	reisan	rais	risum	risans NE	*rise*
Class 2	ĸiusan	kaus	kusum	kusans	
Class 3	bindan	band	bundum	*choose*	
				bundans	*bind*

Strong and weak verbs.

The terms were proposed by J.Grimm. The srong verbs built their proncipal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings. The week verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, they built the Past Tense and the Participle II by insertiong the dental suffix between the root and the ending.

Simplification of word structure in late PG. Role of stem-suffixes in the formation of declensions.

Originally, in Early PG the word consisted of three main component parts: the root, the stem-suffix and the grammatical ending. In Late PG the old stem-suffix lost its derivational force and merged with other components of the word. The word was simplified: the three-morpheme structure was transformed into a two-morpheme structure: stem+grammaticacl ending. e.g. PG *fisk-a-z, Gt fisks (NE fish).

Most nouns and adjectives in PG, and also many verbs, had stem-forming suffixes; according to them they fell into groups or classes: a-stems, i-stems, ō-stems, etc. This grouping accounts for the formation of different declensions in nouns and adjectives, and for some differences in the conjugation of verbs

Lesson 5. Grammatical categories of the verbs in German languages.

The verb-predicate agreed with the noun in two grammatical categories: number and person. The category of Mood was costituted by Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense consisted of Present and Past categorial forms.

Conjugation of verbs in Old English

	Strong		Weak	
Infinitive **Present tense** *Indicative*	findan (NE *find)*	beran *bear*	dēman *deem*	lōcian *look*
Singular 1st 2nd 3rd Plural	finde fintst fint findaþ	bere bir(e)st bir(e)þ beraþ	dēme dēmst dēmp dēmaþ	lōcie lōcast lōcaþ lōciaþ
Subjunctive Singular Plural	finde finden	bere beren	dēme dēmen	lōcie lōcien
Imperative Singular Plural *Participle I* **Past tense** *Indicative*	find findaþ findende	ber beraþ berende	dēm dēmaþ dēmende	lōca lōciaþ lōciende

Singular 1st	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
2nd	funde	bǽre	dēmdest	lōcodest
3rd	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
Plural	fundon	bǽron	dēmdon	lōcodon
Subjunctive Singular	funde	bǽre	dēmde	lōcode
Plural	funden	bǽren	dēmden	lōcoden
Participle II	(ȝe)fundon	(ȝe)boren	(ȝe)dēmed	(ȝe)lōcod

Grammatical categories of the verbals.In Oe there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. Their nominal features were more obvious than verbal. The latter was revealed only in their syntactic combinability: they could take diect objects and be modified by adverbs.

The Infinitive had a reduced case-system: two forms which roughly correspond to the Nom. and Dat. cases of Nouns.

Nom. beran

Dat. to beranne

Participles.Part I was opposed to Part.II through Voice and Tense distinction. Part.I was active and expressed present or simultaneous processes, while Part.Iiexpressed states andqualities resulting from past action, was passive, if the verb was transitive.

Participles in Old English

Voice Tense	Active	Passive	NE
Present	berende	—	*bearing*
	secȝende	—	*saying*
	ȝanȝende	—	*going*
	farende	—	'travelling'
Past	ȝeȝān	ȝeboren	*gone, born*
	ȝefaren	ȝesǽdd	'who has departed, said'

Morphological classifications of verbs.

Strong verbs. There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. They formed their stems by means of vowel gradation (ablaut) and by adding certain suffixes.

The classes of strong verbs.

Strong Verbs in Old English

Principal Forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Singular[1]	Past Plural	Participle II	NE
1	wrītan	wrāt	writon	writen	*write*
2	(a) cēosan (b) būȝan	cēas bēaȝ	curon buȝon	coren boȝen	*choose* *bow*

3	(a) findan (b) helpan (c) feohtan	fand healp feaht	fundon hulpon fuhton	funden holpen fohten	*find* *help* *fight*
4	beran	bær	bǽron	boren	*bear*
5	(a) cweða (b) sittan	cwæð sæt	cwǽdon sǽton	cweden seten	'say' (obs. *quoth) sit*
6	scacan	scōc	scōcon	scacen	*shake*
7	(a) hātan (b) ȝrōwan	hēt (heht) ȝrēow	hēton (hehton) ȝrēowon	hāten ȝrōwen	'call', 'name' *grow*

Weak verbs. The weak verbs derived their Past Tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present Tense stem with the help of the dental suffix.

The classes of weak verbs.

Weak Verbs In Old English

Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
I	-an/-ian	-de/-ede/-te	-ed/-d/-t	
	(a) styrian (b) temman (c) dēman (d) cēpan (e) tellan (f) þyncan	styrede teraede dēmde cēpte tealde þūhte	styred temed dēmed cēped teald þūht	*stir* *tame* *deem* *keep* *tell* *thin*
II	-ian	-ode	-od	
	lōcian	lōcode	lōcod	*look*
III	-an	-de	-d	
	libban habban	lifde hæfde	lifd hæfd	*live* *have*

Class 1: includes regular and irregular verbs. The verbs of the Class I, being i-stems, originally contained the element [-i/-j] between the root and the endings. This caused palatal mutation of the root vowel, and the lengthening of consonants. [-i/-j] was lost in all verbs before the age of writing.

Two groups of verbs in Class I – types (e) and (f) had an interchange of root-vowels: the Infinitive had a mutated vowel like all the verbs of ClassI, while the other two forms retained the original non-mutated vowel. These verbs are called irregular in Class1

Minor groups of verbs.

Preterite-present or past-present verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms (or, more precisely, IE perfect forms, denoting past actions for the present). Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Mos of these verbs had new forms of the Past tense built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also acquired the forms of the verbals: Participles and Infinitives; mos of the verbs dfid not have a full paradigm and were in this sense "defective"

Conjugation of Preterite-Presents in Old English

Infinitive	cunnan (NE *can)*	sculan (NE *shall, should)*
Present tense		
Indicative		
Singular 1st	cann	sceal(l)
2nd	canst	scealt
3rd	cann	sceal(l)
Plural	cunnon	sculon
Subjunctive		
Singular	cunne	scule, scyle
Plural	cunnen	sculen, scylen
Participle I	—	—
Past tense		
Indicative		
Singular 1st	cūðe	sceolde
2nd	cūðest	sceoldest
3rd	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðon	sceoldon
Subjunctive		
Singular	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðen	sceolden
Participle II	cunnen, cūð	—

These verbs had noParticiple I; some preterite-presents built Participle I from the Present Tense stem, e. g. OE мазоn, мæз, Participle I — *мазende (NE may).*

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Most of them did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive of which followed the preterie-present, eventually preterite-present verbs developed into modal verbs.

Anomalous verbs had irregular forms. The verb *willan* had a past tense form *wolde.* Some verbs combined the features of strong and weak verbs. OE *dōn* had a week Past tense form with a vowel interchange and a Participle in *–n* like strong verbs*n: dōn – dyde – зedōn.Būan-būde-зebūn.*

Suppletive verbs.Two verbs were suppletive. OE *зān* whose Past tense was built from a different root: *зān – eōde – зeзān* and *wesan,bēon.* The verb *bēon* is an ancient IE suppletive verb. N nmany languages its paradigm is made up oif several roots (R. Быть, есть). In Oe the Present tense forms were the modifications of the roots *wes- and *bhu-.The Past tense was built from the root *wesan on the pattern of the strong verbs of the Class 5.

Conjugation of OE bēon, NE be

	OE		NE
Infinitive	wesan	bēon	be
Pres. Indicative			
1st p. sg	eom/am	bēo/bio	am

		m		
2nd p. sg	eart	bist/bis	-	
3rd p. sg	is	biþ	is	
Pl	sint/sind on	bēoþ	are	
	earon/ar on			
Pres. Subjunctive				
Sg	sīe, sý	bēo	be	
Pl	sīen, sýn	bēon		
Imperative				
Sg	wes	bēo	be	
Pl	wesaþ	bēoþ		
Part.1	wesende	bēonde	being	
Past Indicative				
1st p. *sg*	wæs		was	
2nd p. sg	wǽre			
3rd p. sg	wæs		was	
Pl	wǽron		were	
Past Subjunctive			-	
Sg	wǽre		were	
Pl	wǽren			
Part. II	-		been	

Syntax

Ways of expressing syntactical relations: agreement, government, joining.

The sentence. The simple sentence. The main parts, the secondary parts. Word order. Multiple negation. Compound and complex sentences. Connectives.

Lesson 6.Eastern Germanic languages. Gothic langage
Plan

1. East Germanic
2.   The Gothic Language
3.   The gothic written language and monuments.

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 some time 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.

The Gothic Language

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

For a time the Goths ruled a great kingdom north of the Dan-ube 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 alew 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 hends 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.

Theodoric; s reign was one of the ablest and 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 Germanic written language, which give us the possibility of speaking about the structure and the vocabulary of the languages, were written in

Gothic. The written records of other Old Germanic languages appeared much later, several centuries after. The monuments of the Gothic language reflect the stage in its development when it is still possible to reveal to a certain extent the main peculiarities which characterize Old Germanic languages as a whole. Later on, when written monuments of other Old Germanic languages appeared, these peculiarities had become obliterated or changed considerably, so that only a comparison with Gothic makes it possible to reconstruct the earliest stage in their development or at Least to understand the origin of the phenomenon under review.

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

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

The monuments are the following:

I. Codex Argenteus, in the University library of Ups ala (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 Caro1inus. 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 8t. Paul's Eistles; 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. Jhon.

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

All these manuscripts were firet 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.

It "lawful?" in compounds having a prefix it is attached to the prefix it is to the prefix, as gaulaubjats? (= ga-u-Iaubjats?) "do ye two believe?"; the relative particle -ei, which is added enclitically to form conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses, as mippanei "when, while", panei "when" (cp. pan "when"), patei "that" (cp. Pata demo pron. neut. "that, this"), saei "who, he who, which" (cp. Sa demo pron. masc. "that, this"), etc.; ei itself is often used as a conjunction introducing subordinate clauses; the enclitic particle -un "and, but, now, therefore" in composition with other words often adds intensity to the signification, as wasuh pan sums siuks "now a certain man was sick" (J.XI,I). Anparuh pan siponje is "and another or his disciples" (M. VIII, 2l), etc. The h is often associated to the initial consonant of a following word (see above p.15), as wssup-psn suns is sa alpiza... "now his elder eon was... 11 (L.XV,25).

The morphological system of the Gothic language has retained to a considerable extent the structural peculiarities characteristic of Common Germanic. Wide use of the system of inflexions, structural patterns of various types of declension and conjugation, gradation of vowels in form-building suffixes. Absence of analytical forms, stability of certain categories, such as medio-passive

forms, verbs with reduplication -these are the features which distinguish Gothic among other Old Germanic languages.

At the same time there appeared some innovations characteristic of the Gothic language only, such as Class IV of weak verbs in -nan, the optative and imperative forms in -au. On the other hand, the Gothic language has lost some forms retained by other Old Germanic languages, among them the Instrumental case, the declension in Considerable ohanges appeared in different word-former under the influence of reduction of unstressed syllables; the beginning of this process goes back to the period of Common Germanic. This accounts for the absence of the personal index-p in the 3 person singular optative (nimai), of the personal index -e in the 3 person singular preterit indicatve (nam), of the Dative case ending -i (gumin* .3uminii) .which were lost in Common Germanic or probably when Old Germanic languages on 1 y began to separate from one another. The reduction of unstressed syllables caused the three-part structure of the word (root + stem-forming suffix +ending) to be brought to two parts (root + ending) or eyen to one part only (cf. the Dat. sing. of degs. "day" :dag: * a3-a-a).

Dead language belonging to the now extinct East Germanic group of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages (see Germanic Languages). Gothic has special value for the linguist because it was recorded several hundred years before the oldest surviving texts of all the other Germanic languages (except for a handful of earlier runic inscriptions in Old Norse). Thus it sheds light on an older stage of a Germanic language and on the development of Germanic languages in general. The earliest extant document in Gothic preserves part of a translation of the Bible made in the 4th cent. A.D. by Ulfilas, a Gothic bishop. This translation is written in an adaptation of the Greek alphabet, supposedly devised by the bishop himself, which was later discarded.

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

It all appears that the Gothic Bible was used by the Visigoths in Spain until circa 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 (see Braune/Ebbinghaus "Gotische Grammatik" Tlibingen 1981)

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

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

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

There is also the case of the "Crimean Goths". A few fragments of their language dating to the 16th century exist today. Assuming those fragments are genuine, it appears to be a different language from the one used in the Gothic Bible (but is still certainly Germanic).

Lesson 7. 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),</u> which 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,</u> Faroese 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,</u> Faroese 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 aȝ, 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 <u>England.</u> Swedish is one of the <u>Scandinavian languages,</u> a sub-group of the <u>Germanic</u> group of the <u>Indo-European language family.</u>

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 <u>Low German.</u> 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, <u>mother tongue</u> for the Sweden-born inhabitants (7,881,000) and acquired by nearly all immigrants (1,028,000) (figures according to official statistics for <u>2001).</u>

Swedish is the language of the <u>Aland Islands,</u> an <u>autonomous</u> province under the <u>sovereignty</u> of <u>Finland.</u> 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 <u>first</u> and <u>second</u> 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 <u>Nordic countries b</u>ut due to the similarity between the languages and culture expatriates generally <u>assimilate</u> 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 <u>Iceland</u> and <u>Scandinavian countries</u>.)

Official status

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

In Finland, both Swedish and Finnish are <u>official languages.</u> Swedish had been the language of government in Finland for 700 years, when in <u>1892 F</u>innish was given equal status with Swedish, following <u>Russian</u> 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 *<u>toinen kotimainen kieli,</u>* that since educational reform in the <u>1970s</u> has been a compulsory subject for pupils with Finnish <u>mother tongue</u> mandatory in the examinations. The introduction of mandatory education in Swedish in schools was seen as a step to avoid further <u>Finlandization</u> Pupils with Swedish mother tongue like wisely study the *other domestic language* Finnish in Mainland Finland.

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

Swedish is also an official language of the <u>European Union.</u>

Lesson 8. The West Germanic languages. 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 Iutes. 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

225

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.

## *GERMANLAR TO'G'RISIDA DASTLABKI MA'LUMOT BERUVCHI MANBALAR*
◆ **REJA:**

◆ **German qabilalari va tillarining tasnifi.**

◆ **Britaniya orollarining ilk tarixi.**

◆ **Britaniyani Germanlar tomonidan ishg'ol qilinishi.**

◆ **Anglo-Sakson qirolliklari.**

◆ **Tayanch-iboralar**

Grek tarixchilari, Yuliy Tsezar, Gal urushi, Pliniya, Tatsitlar, Oder-Reyn daryosi, Got tili, qadimgi shved, dat tillari, yuqori nemis tili, Istveonlar, Germinonlar, Vindillar qabilasi, Hind-evropaliklar, gallo-breton, menk tillari, kort tili, Bernikiya, Deyra, Fritz tili.

INGLIZ TILI GERMAN TILLARI GURUHIGA KIRUVCHI TILDIR

◆ German tillari guruhiga ingliz tilidan tashqari yana memis, shved, dat, norveg, golland, island tillari ham kiradi. Bu tillarning bobokalon tili Got tilidir. Grmanlar to'grisidgi dastlabki qaytlar eramizdan avvalgi II va I asrlarda yashagan grek tarixchilarining (Pitkas) asarlarida uchraydi.

◆ Eng avvalgi birinchi ma'lumot beruvchi manba Yuliy Tsezarning "Gall urushi to'g'risidagi hotiralar" asari hisoblanadi. (Eramizdan avvalgi I asr), keyinchalik esa rim tarixchilari Pliniya va Tatsitlarning asarida berilgan (Eramizning I va II asrlari).

◆ Tatsit ma'lumot berishicha germanlar o'sha asrlarda Oderdan Reyn daryosigacha bo'lgan Markaziy Evropani egallashgan. Visla daryosining yuqori qismida Got qabilalari joylashgan so'ngra ular janubga tomon siljib u yerdan g'arbga qarab, ya'ni Bolqonnga – Italiya va Ispaniyaga o'tishgan.
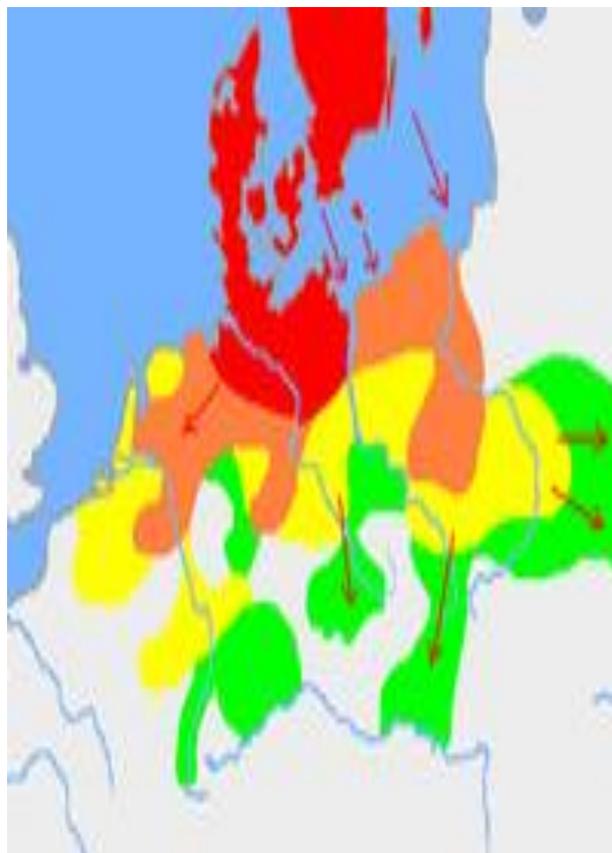
◆ *GERMAN QABILALARI VA TILLARNING TASNIFI.*

◆ Qadimgi german tillari, ya'ni ilk o'rta asr tillari – uchta yirik tarmoqqa bo'linadi.

- ◆ Got tili kiruvchi sharqiy tarmoq;
- ◆ Shimoliy tarmoq-quyidagi qadimgi shved, qadimgi Norveg, qadimgi island va qadimgi dat tillarini birlashtiruvchi skandinav tillari;
- ◆ Qadimgi yuqori nemis tili, qadimgi ingliz tili, qadimgi sakson, quyi frank va friz tillari kiruvchi g'arbiy tarmoqlaridir. Bizgacha yozma yodgorliklarda yetib kelgan tillarning tasnifi ana shunday.
- ◆ German qabilalari yirik qabila ittifoqlariga birlashganlar. Ana shu yirik ittifoqlar to'grisida bizga Pliniy ma'lumot beradi.
- ◆ U german qabilalarini 6 ta katta guruhga bo'ladi.
- ◆ 1. Vindillar-bunda sharqiy germanlar qabilalari vandallar, gotlar va boshqa qabilalar kiradi.
- ◆ 2. Gillevionlar-Skandinaviyada yashagan shimoliy german qabilalari bo'lmish-Reyn daryosining sharqida yashagan- svionlar, danlar, gautlar va boshqalar kiradi.
- ◆ 3. Germinonlar-Reyn daryosining sharqida yashagan-alemanlar, shvablar, langobardlar va boshqa qabilalar kiradi.
- ◆ 4. Istveonlar (Iskevonlar) – Reyn daryosi o'zanida yashagan frank qabilalari.
- ◆ 5. Ingevonlar-Shimoliy dengiz qirg'oqlarida qarorgoh qurgan sakslar, frizlar, yutlar, angllar, tevtonlar, va kimvrilar guruhi.
- ◆ 6. Bastsrnlar va pevkinlar Vendillar qabilasiga kiradi.

BRITANIYA OROLLARINING ILK TARIXI

- ◆ Britaniya orollarining birinchi aholisi hind-yevropaliklarga aloqasi yo'q, iberiylar bo'lgan. Ular so'ngi tosh asriga taaluqli bo'lgan neolitlarga borib taqaladi. Keyingi aholisi-eramizdan avvalgi VII asrda Britaniyaga borib qolgan hind-yevropaliklar qabilasi bo'lmish keltlardir.
- ◆   Kelt tillari gallo-breton va gael deb ataluvchu ikki yirik guruhga bo'linadi. Gall tilida hozirgi frantsiya hududini egallagan galliya aholisi so'zlashgan. Britan tillari o'z navbatida:
- ◆ Hozirgi kungacha saqlanib qolgan Breton tiliga;
- ◆ Hozirda o'lik til sanalmish korn tiliga:
- ◆ Uels aholisi so'zlashuvchi valli tiliga tarmoqlanadi.
- ◆ Gael guruhiga a) to'gli shotlandiya tili b) irland va c) menk tillari kiradi.
- ◆ Keltlar tomonidan Britaniyaning birinchi shaharchalarida qurilgan. Rimliklar Britaniyalik keltlar to'grisida Piteasning asarlaridan bilib olishgan. Ular bilan

birinchi duch kelish eramizdan avvalgi I asrlarga to'g'ri keladi. Eramizdan avvalgi 55 yilda Yuliy Tsezar, Galliyani egallab, Britaniya orollariga yurish qilgan. Birinchi yurish muvaffaqiyatsizlikka uchragandan so'ng, eramizdan avvalgi 54 yili yana bir urinish bilan u keltlarni bo'ysundirib, muvaffaqiyat qozond. O'sha paytdan boshlab, to eramizning I asrining 80 yillariga qadar rimliklar mamlakatni ichkarisiga kirib, uni ishg'ol qila boshladilar. Uels rimliklar qo'l-ostidan tashqaridan qolgan. Ular yo'llar qurishgan, harbiylar uchun qurilgan binolar keyinchalik shaharga aylantirilgan. Bu shaharlar nomlarining ikkinchi komponenti lotincha castra "harbiy qo'nalg'a" so'zidan kelib chiqqan: Lawcaster, Manchester, Chester, Bochester, Leicester va boshqalar.

◆ Keltlar tomonidan Rimliklarga qarshi qo'z'galon eramizning 60 yillaridan qirollicha Boaditsiya tomonidan uyushtirilgan, ammo keltlarning tor-mor qilinishi bilan yakunlangan.

◆ Rimliklarning Britaniyadagi zo'ravonligi eramizning V asrigacha davom etgan. V asrning boshlarida Rim german qabilalarining, ya'ni gotlarning urishi havfi ostida qoldi. Nihoyat 408 yili Rimliklar hokimiyati german qabilalarining zarbasiga dosh berolmay quladi.

BRITANIYANI GERMANLAR TAMONIDAN ISHG'OL QILINISHI
◆ Rimliklar Britaniyani harbiy soqchiligidan ketgandan so'ng brittlar tashqi dushmanlardan himoyasiz qolgan. Britaniyani angllar, sakslar, frizlar va yutalar tomonidan bosib olinishi uning keyingi taqdirini belgilashda hal qiluvchi o'rin tutgan. O'gizdan-og'izga o'tish bilan yetib kelgan va ma'luma'lumotlarga ko'ra germanlar Britaniyani V asrning o'rtalarida bosib olishgan. Bu bosqinchilikning tafsiloti bizga no'malum.

◆ Hech qanday yozma ma'lumotlar qolmagan. Rim-kelt madaniyati yer bilan yakson qilingan, bosqinchilar madaniyat rivojidan ancha orqada edilar.

◆ VI asrning ohirlariga kelib, germanlar tog'li hududlardan ya'ni, Shotlandiya, Uels va Kornuollada tashqari Britaniyaning barcha hududlarini egallab oldilar.

◆ Germanlar Britaniyada yettita qirollik tuzilgan:

◆ Bular-Bernikiya va deyra deb nomlangan qismlardan tashkil topgan Nortumbriya, markazda-Mersiya undan sharqroqda Sharqiy Angliya, janubda esa Esseks, Susseks va Uesseks, Janubiy sharqda Kent kabi qirolliklari. Bu yettita davlat keyinchalik to'rtta asosiy qirollikka ya'ni Nortumbriya, Mersiya, Uesseks va Kent qirolliklariga birlashgan va bu qirolliklar chegaralarida 4 ta dialekt paydo bo'lgan: Nortumbriya, Mersiya, Uesseks va Kent Dialektlarning keyingi rivoji hududdan tashqariga chiqmagan. Faqat qadingi Ingliz dialektlaridan Friz dialekti batamom yo'qolib ketgan, chunki Friz qabilasi ham barham topgan edi.

◆ *ANGLO-SAKSON QIROLLIKLARI*
◆ To'rtta anglo-sakson qirolliklari tinimsiz bir-birlari bilan urusholib borib, ustunlikni qo'lga olish uchun kurashganlar. Avvalgi mutloq hokimlik goh

Nortumbriyaga, goh Mersiyaga nasib bo'lsa, IX asrning birinchi yarmigakelib Uesseks qirolligi hokimiyatni o'z qo'liga oldi. Uesseksning mavqe'i oshib borish bilan anglo-sakson mamlakatlari o'rtasidagi o'tkir farqlar silliqlana boshladi. Endilikda "Angelcynn" so'zi-ya'ni "angllar nasli" iborasi Britaniyaning barcha aholisiga nisbatan ishlariladigan bo'ldi, ular angllar davlatiga yoki saksonlar davlatiga tegishli bo'lishidan qat'iy nazar. "Englelond"- so'zi esa butun mamlakat yoki davlat nomi sifatida e'tirof etila boshladi.

◆ VI asrning ohirlaridan Britaniyani nasroniylashtirish (hristianlashtirish) boshlangan. VII asrning ohiriga kelib esa nasroniy dini butun mamlakatga tarqaldi. Nasroniy cherkov va monastirlar huzurida qo'lyozma kutubxonalar tashkil etilib rohiblar (monhlar) salnomalar yozish bilan shug'ullanganlar. Cherkovning madaniy ta'siri ostida yozuvga asos solindi.

QADIMGI INGLIZ YOZUVI
◆ REJA:

◆ **Qadimgi german yozuvining tarkibi.**
◆ **Qadimgi ingliz yozma yodkorliklari.**
◆ **Qadimgi ingliz tili davri leksikasi.**
◆ **Skandinav bosqinchiligi yoki islohasi.**
◆ **Normandlar istilosi. XI-XIV asrlar.**
◆ **Tayanch-iboralar**
◆ German yozuvi, qing'ir chiziqlar, tosh, runic alfavit, Rutvell qishlog'i Klermon Ferran shahri, hristian missionerlari, Uesseks dialekti, Qirol Algred, Parker yilnomasi, Mersiya dialekti, cherkov madhiyasi, kent dialekti, lotin tili, Anglo-sakson yilnomasi, Skandinav vikinglari.

◆ Qadimgi-ingliz yozuvi. Eng qadimgi german yozuvi 24 belgidan iborat hamda tik va qing'ir chiziqlarga ega bo'lgan runic alfavitgan foydalangan. Bu belgilar toshga, daraxtga yoki metalga o'yib yozilgan va bundan ko'proq skandinavlar foydalanganlar. Run yozuvining kelib chiqishi noma'lum, ammo tarixiy manba'alarning guvohlik berishicha, u janubiy yevropa alifbosining zamonaviylashtirilgan ko'rinishidir.

◆ Bor yo'g'i 2 ta run yozuvidagi qadimgi yodgorlik topilgan.bittasi janubiy-g'arbiy Shotlandiyaning Rutvell qishlog'i yaqinidagi hochga yozilgan yodgorlik bo'lsa, ikkinchi Frantsiyaning Klermon-Ferran shahri yaqinidan topilgan kit mo'ylovidan mo'ylovidan yasalgan bezak qutichadir.

◆ Hristian missionerlari Angliyaga lotin alifbosini olib kirishgan. Unga bir nechta runic belgilar ham qo'shishgan, jumladan [0] va [q] tovushlarini berish uchun runic belgi [Ъ] ishlatilgan.

QADIMGI INGLIZ YOZMA YODGORLIKLARI

◆ Qadimgi ingliz yozma yodgorliklari har to'rttala dialektda saqlanib qolgan, biroq ko'prog'i Uesseks dialektida saqlangan. Uesseksning nuduzini siyosiy nuqtayi-nazardan oshishida IX asrning 2-chi yarmida davlatni boshqargan qirol Alfredning hizmati katta bo'lgan. Qirol Alfred g'oyat qobilyatli davlat arbobi bo'lishi bilan birga, u bevosita tilshunoslik masalalari bilan ham, jumladan, tarjimonshunoslik bilan shug'allangan, tarjimonlar maktabi ochib, unga Frantsiyadan yirik olimlarni jalb qilgan va ular bir qator tarjimalarni qirol Alfred topshirig'iga binoan bajarganlar. Qirol Alfredning o'zi ham bir nechta kitoblarni tarjima qilgan.

◆ Yozma yodgorliklar nasriy va nasmiy turlarga bo'linadi. Ko'proq bu yerda nasriy yodgorliklarning nomlari dialektlar bo'yicha keltirilgan.

◆ Uesseks dialekti. "Anglo-sakson yilnomasi". Bu yilnoma parallel solnoma sifatida VII asrdan buyon mavjud.eng muhim "Parker yilnomasi" deb nomlangan va uning tarjimasi IX asrgacha davom ettirgan.

◆ Qirol Alfred tomonidan IX asrda 1) "Cura Pastoralis" (Qavmga rahbarlik qiluvchi ruhoniyning tashvishlari) VI asrda Yashagan Grigoriy Ining asari tarjima qilingan. Bu asar qirol Alfred V asrda yashagan "Ispan rohibi Orosiyaning jahonshumul tarixi" deb nomlagan sozboshi ham yozgan. Ushbu so'zboshi yana Ohthere va Vulfstan degan sayyohlarning hikoyalari ham qistirilgan.

◆ X asrda abbat Elfrikning "Grammatika san'ati" deb nomlangan asari tarjima qilingan.

◆ Mersiya dialekt. –Bu dialektda IX sardagi injilning to'rt kitobidan biri tarjima qilingan. Huddi shuningdek, cherkov madhiyalari ham o'girilgan.

◆ Nortumbriya dialekt. –Bunda injilning lotin alifbosidagi tarjimasi yozilgan.

◆ Kent dialekt. - Kent dialektda injildagi oyatlar hamda yuridik hujjatlarning tarjimalari amalgam oshirilgan.

◆ Poetik (nazmiy) yodgorliklar – Poetik yodgorliklarning ichida eng ahamiyatlisi va yirigi, noma'lum muallifning "Beovulf" deb nomlangan epik poemasini, rohib Kyunevulfning- "Yelene", "Yuliana", "Andrey" poemalarini hamda noma'lum muallifning "Yudif" poemasini sanab o'tish mumkin.

QADIMGI INGLIZ TILI DAVRI LEKSIKASI

◆ Qadimgi ingliz tili davri leksikasi deyarli german tillaridan kelib chiqqan kelib chiqqan so'zlardan iborat bo'lgan. So'zlarning ko'pchilik qismi hind-yevropa tillari o'zaklaridan tashkil topgan. Qiyoslang: Qadimgi ingliz tilida mere-dengiz; lot-mare, rus-more va boshqalar.
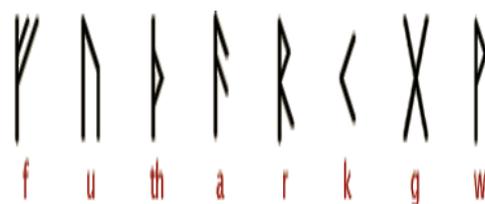
◆ Leksik qatlamni oz qismini hind-yevro tillarida muqobili yo'q, umumgerman tillariga hos bo'lgan so'zlar tashkil etgan. Bularga winter-qish, sa-dengiz, hus-uy, biter-achchiq kabi so'zlar kiradi.
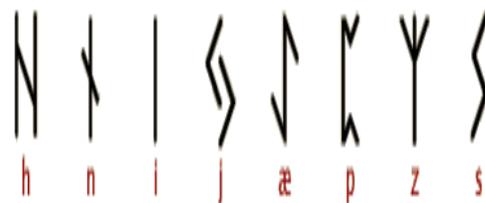
◆ Germanlar materikda bo'lgan paytlarida Rimliklar bilan savdo aloqalar qilishgan.ana shu aloqalarning natijasida win-vino; lot, vinum; pere-nok, lot, pira; pipor-qalampir, lot, pepir kabi lotincha so'zlar birinchi marotoba german tiliga olib kirilgan.
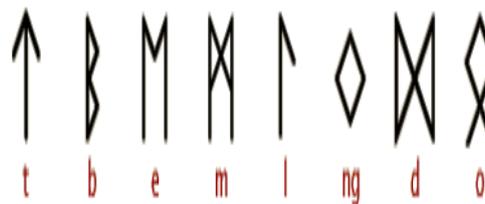
◆ Angliya nasroniylashtirilgan paytda qadimgi ingliz tiliga din maktab ta'limi bilan bog'liq bo'lgan bir qator so'zlar kirgan, scol-maktab, lotincha-schola, mazister-ustoz, lotincha-magister. O'zlarining kelib chiqishi jihatidan bu sozlar grek tiliga mansub, qadimgi ingliz tiliga bu so'zlar lotin tili orqali kirgan. Bu jarayon lotin tilidan kirib so'zlarning ikkinchi qatlamini tashkil qiladi.

SKANDINAV BOSQINCHILIGI YOKI ISTILOSI

◆ VIII asrning oxirlaridan boshlab Skandinav vikinglari (Qadimgi Skandinaviyadagi harbiy dengiz askarlari) Angliyaga yopirilib kela boshladilar. "Anglo-sakson yilnoma"siningshohidlik berishicha,birinchi bo'lib daniyaliklar kelishgan.

◆ Dengizda suzish mashqini yaxshi egallagan hamda qo'rqmas, dovyurak askar bo'lgan vikinglar Irlandiya va Fransiyaga allaqachon hujum qilishgan bo'lishsa, Irlandiya va Grenlandiyani birinchi ochgan va u yerda yashagan ham ana shular bo'lgan. Amerikani birinchi ochganlar ham vikinglardir.

◆ IX asarning 60-yillariga kelib skandinavlar katta kuchga ega bo'lishgach, Angliya armiyasi va dengiz kuchlari ularga bas kela olmay qolgan. Faqat 876 yili Uedmorda

bo'lib o'tgan jangda hech qaysi armiya g'alabaga erisha olmagach, Qirol Alfred skandinavlar bilan suhl tuzib, Angliyaning shimoliy - sharqiy qirg'oqlarining bir qismini ularga berishga rozi bo'ldi. Bu hudud "Danelag" ya'ni, Daniya tasarrufidagi viloyat degan nomni oldi.

◆ Danelag XI asarning ikkinch yilligigacha yashagan. Lekin 1013 yili Angliya qiroli axdini buzib, hiyonat qilganligi tufayli skandinavlar yana Angliyaga hujum qilishdi. Ingliz qiroli Etelred (tentat laqabli) Frantsiyaga qochgan va 1016 yili Daniya qirolining o'g'li Sveyna Kanut Angliyaning qiroli bo'ldi. Daniyaliklar avlodi Angliyada 1042 yilgacha davlat tepasida turdilar. Bu paytga kelib Daniya qirolliklari inqirozga yuz tuta boshlagach, Angliya qirolligini anglo-sakson avlodlaridan bo'lmish Eduard egalladi.

◆ SKANDINAVIYALIKLAR ISTILOSI

◆   Danelagni egallagan Skandinaviyaliklar bilan yaqin qo'shnichilik qilish natijasida ingliz tiliga skandinav tilidan ko'pgina so'zlar kirib kelgan. Bu so'zlar kundalik hayotda ishlatiladigan umumliksik satxni egallovchi leksemalardir. Skandinav tilidan o'zlashgan so'zlar qatoriga hozirgi standart ingliz tilidagi fellow<sk. fedaza, husband<husbanda, law<lazu, wrong<wrang, to call<kalla, to take<taka va boshqalar.

◆   Tovush tarkibi bo'yich skandinav tillari ingliz tiliga yaqin bo'lgan. Shundan bo'lsa kerak o'zlashgan so'zlar ingliz tilidagi asl ingliz so'zlari bilan dubletlar hosil qiling.

◆ **INGLIZ   SKANDINAV**
◆   Shirt   skirt
◆   shriek   screech
◆   from   fro
◆   whole   hala
◆ Shuningdek skandinav tilidan "they" olmoshi ham o'zlashgan.

◆ NORMANDLAR ISTILOSI XI-XIV ASRLAR

◆   1065 yili qirol Eduard o'zidan voris qoldirmay dunyodan o'tgan. Oqsoqollar kengashi Vitenagemot ("donolar majlisi") olamdan o'tgan qirolning uzoq qarindoshlari bo'lmish Haroldni Angliyaning qiroli etib sayladilar. Angliya qirolligiga Normandiya gertsogi Vilgelm ham da'vogar edi. Harold bilan da'vogar Vilgelm Angliya uchun taxtini egallash uchun Angliyaning janubidagi Gastingesda 1066 yili jang qilishdi. Janubda Harold qo'shini tor-mor qilinib, o'zi o'ldirilgandan so'ng, Vilgelm bosqinchi Angliya qiroli bo'lib oldi.

◆   Frantsiyaning shimoliy qirg'oqlarida joylashgan Normandiya o'z nomini Frantsiya qiroli Karl Dumbul vikinglar lashkariga bas kelolmasligini tushunib 912 yili shartnoma bilan bu hududni ularga ya'ni vinglarga bergandan keyin olgan. (Nortmann-shimoliy odam degani) Normandiya feudal Frantsiyaning gertsogligi bo'lgan. Skandinavlar yetarli axoli bilan chatishib ketishi natijasida, ularning tili va madaniyatini qabul qilgan, o'zlashtirishgan. Angliyaga esa, ular Frantsuz tilida so'zlashuvchilar va Frantsiya feodal davlati tizimini olib kelishgan. Xukumdor sinf feodal aristokratiya va din peshvolari Normandiyaliklardan iborat edi

GERMAN FILOLOGIYASI TARIXI. O'RTA ASR INGLIZ DIALEKTLARI
◆ REJA:

◆ **Nortumbriya dialekti.**
◆ **Mersiya-markaziy dialekti.**
◆ **Uesseks yoki janubiy-g'arbiy dialect.**
◆ **Yozuv.**
◆ **Tayanch iboralari:**
◆   Ingliz dialektlari, jag'rofik joylashish. Nortumbriya, shimoliy dialekt, kent dialekt, kent grafligi, Norman bosqinchligi, Frantsuz tili, Anglo-Norman dialekt, lotin tili, cherkov tili, hujjat va davlat, Norman mirzalari, inglizcha matn, fonema, "th" digrafi.
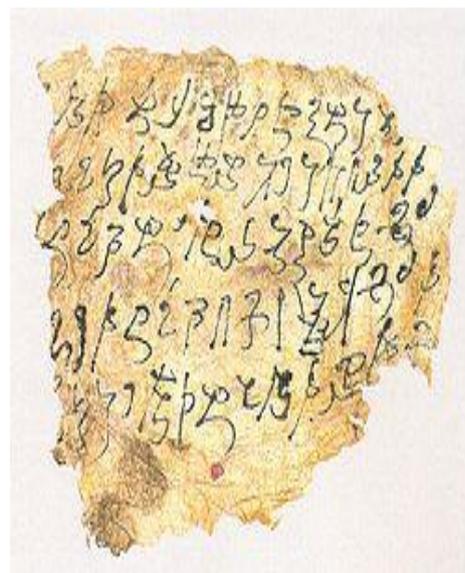
◆ O'RTA ASR INGLIZ DIALEKTLARI, ANGLIYADA MULOQATDA UCHTA TIL.

◆   Shahar va qishloqlardagi yerli aholi ingliz tilida so'zlashuvni davom ettiraverdilar. Qadimgi asr asosiy ingliz dialektlari o'rta asrda ham saqlanib qolib o'z vazifalarini muntazam bajardilar, Qirolliklar tugatilgandan so'ng, o'rta asr dialektlari jug'rogik joylashishiga qarab atala boshlandilar. Junladan Nortumnriya endilikda shimoliy (northern) dialekt deb, Mersiya markaziy yoki Midiand deb, Uesseks esa janubiy yoki janubiy-g'arbiy (Southern, South-Westeam) deb nomlana boshlandilar. Faqat kent dialekti o'z mavqeyini saqlab qolgan, chunki Kent grafligi qirollikni avvalgi hududida o'z hokimyatini qo'ldan bermagan edi. Norman bosqinchiligidan so'ng ingliz tili yagona ish yuritish muloqat tili bo'lib qo'lolmadi. Bosqinchilar o'zlari bilan Frantsuz tilini, aniqrog'i uning shimoliy dialekti, ya'ni Norman dialektini ham olib kelishdi. Shuning uchunkeyingi asrga kelib, Anglo-norman dialekti muloqat tili bo'lib qoldi. Bu dialect XIV asrning oxirigacha yashadi, so'ng izsiz yo'qolib ketgan. Mamlakatda ma'lum vazifa bajargan uchunchi til lotin tili bo'lgan va lotin tili fan cherkov tili bo'lib faoliyat ko'rsatgan.
◆ Mersiya dialekt. –Bu dialektda IX sardagi injilning to'rt kitobidan biri tarjima qilingan. Huddi shuningdek, cherkov madhiyalari ham o'girilgan.

◆ Nortumbriya dialekt. –Bunda injilning lotin alifbosidagi tarjimasi yozilgan.
◆ Kent dialekt. - Kent dialektda injildagi oyatlar hamda yuridik hujjatlarning tarjimalari amalgam oshirilgan.
◆ Poetik (nazmiy) yodgorliklar – Poetik yodgorliklarning ichida eng ahamiyatlisi va yirigi, noma'lum muallifning "Beovulf" deb nomlangan epik poemasini, rohib Kyunevulfning- "Yelene", "Yuliana", "Andrey" poemalarini hamda noma'lum muallifning "Yudif" poemasini sanab o'tish mumkin.

YOZUV

◆ Hujjar va davlat ahamiyatiga molik qog'ozlarni Norman mirzalari olib borishlari uchun, ular inglizcha matnlarni ko'chirishda o'zlariga tanish bo'lgan bir qator tovushlarni yozuvda ifoda etish uchun imloga ayrim yangiliklar olib kirishgan. Ular, asosan, uchta:
◆ Frantsuz tilida yo'q bo'lgan fonemalarni ifoda etish uchun,
◆ Frantsuz tilidagi mavjud fonemalarga o'xshab ketadigan, lekin ingliz tilida alohida belgilanmaydigan fonemalarni ifoda etish uchun,
◆ Frantsuz va ingliz tilidagi o'xshash, ammo sal sharq qiluvchi fonemalarni ifoda etish uchun o'zlari yangiliklar kiritishgan.
◆ [d], [0] Frantsuz tilida yo'q fonemalarni ifoda etish uchun mirzalari qadimgi ingliz tilida juda kam ishlatilgan "th" digrafini qo'llashgan: **thick, that:**

ROMAN FILOLOGIYASIGA KIRISH

◆ REJA:

◆ **1. Roman tillari haqida umumiy tushuncha.**
◆ **2. "Romaniya" atamasining ta'rifi.**
◆ **3. Roman tillarining soni**
◆ **4. Hozirgi zamon Roman tillari.**
◆ **Tayanch-iboralar**
◆ Roman tillari, jahon tillari, manba-lotin tili, Ispaniya, Portugaliya, aholi, rasmiy davlat bilan, genetic qarindoshlik, umum iste'mol leksika, romaniya, tasarruf, linsvistik, etnograf, tarixchi, muqobil, til va dialect, adabiy me'yor, lombart yoki siriliya, retoroman, katalak tillar.
◆ 1.Roman tillari deb nomlangan tillari guruhi boshqa jahon tillari orasida alohida o'rin tutadi. Roman tillari-bu kelib chiqishi jihatidan birra manbadan tarqalgan tillardir; bu tillarning barchasi lotin tilining og'zaki nutq shalli asosida yuzaga kelgandir.
◆ Roman tillarida Ispaniya, Italiya, Portugaliya, Ruminiya, Ruminiya, Frantsiya kabi G'arbiy Yevropa va shuningdek, Lotin Amerikasidan Argentina, Braziliya, Kuba, Meksika, Peru kabi davlatlarning aholisi so'zlashadilar. Moldaviyaning rasmiy davlat-moldavan tili ham roman tillari guruhiga kiradi.
◆ Roman tillarining genetic qarindoshligini quyidagi misollar orqali namoyish etish mumkin.
◆ 2. Eramizning V-IV asrlardagi so'ngi rim tarixchilarining asarlarida "Romaniya" (Roma-Rim) atamasi uchraydi. Bu atama bilan Rim davlati tasarrufiga kiruvchi hududlar tomomlangan. Lingvistik nuqtai nazardan

"Romaniya" atamasi lotin tili tarqalgan chegaralarni ham aks ettirgan. Hozirgi zamon tilshunoslari, emograflari va tarixchilari "Romaniya" atamasidan "roman tillari tarqalgan hududlar" atamasining qisqartirilgan muqobili sifatida foydalanmoqdalar.

◆ 3. Roman tillarining soni masalasi muammoli masala hisoblanadi. Buni biryo'qlama hal etish "til" va "dialekt" (laxja) tushunchalarini bir-biridan ajratishning yetarli omillarining yo'qligidadir. Shu paytgacha taklif etilayotgan omillar, ya'ni o'zaro tushinish yoki tushunmaslik, ma'lum fonetik sifatlarning mavjudligi, yoki adabiy me'yorning ishlatilishi yoki ishlatilmasligi yetarli deb hisoblanmaydi.

◆ Italiyaning shimolida yashovchi qishloq fuqorosi, masalan, janubdagisini tushunmasligi mumkin. Shundan kelib chiqib, lombard yoki sitsiliya tillari alohida til sifatida mavjud deb ham bo'lmaydi.

◆ "Adabiy til-mi? yoki dialekt" tushunchalarining bir-biridan farqlash qanchalik qiyin bo'lishiga qaramay roman tilida so'zlashuvchilar nutqini alohi olingan roman tillarining ko'rinishi sifatida tan olmoqdalar.

◆ Shunday qilib, roman tillariga quyidagilar kiradi.

◆   1-Guruhga: ispan, portugal, fransuz, italyan, rumin tillari. Bu tillari yagona ma'muriy hududda yashovchilar uchun rasmiy aloqa vositasi bo'lib xizmat qilgan. Ayrimlari esa, davlatlararo muloqotni ham amalda oshiradi.

◆   2- Guruhga: moldavan, retoroman, katalan tillari va ushbu tillar yagona ma'muriy hududda emas, balki, avtonom viloyatda, aloxida olingan respublikada muloqat mezoni bo'lib hizmat qiladi.

◆   3-Guruhga: provonsal (oksitan) va galisiy kiradi. Bu tillari adabiy, madaniy va juda boy tarixga ega.

◆   4-Guruhga: sardine tili bo'lib, tarixiy-etnik jamoa uchun hizmat qilgan va boshqa roman tillaridan o'zining aniq ifodalangan strukturasi bilan ajralib turadi.

◆   Roman tillari guruhiga yana hozirgi paytda yo'qolib ketgan dalmatin tili ham kiradi. Bumdan tashqari yana tarixiy taraqqiyot natijasi o'laroq ispan, portigal va fransuz tillari asosida kreol tillari shalklangan. Ispan tilining aloxida ko'rinishi sifatida sefard tili ham roman tillari guruxiga taaluqlidir.

◆ 4.Hozirgi zamon roman tillari.

◆   Yer sharining 10/1 qismi aholisining ona tilisini roman tillari tashkil qiladi. Roman tillari juda ko'p davlatlarda radio, televideniye, matbuot hujjatlar tili, hamda aloqa vositasi bo'lib xizmat qiladilar. Qolaversa yarim milliard insonlarning ham har kungi muloqotining mezoni hisblanadi.

ROMAN TILLARINING DUNYO HUDUDLARIDA TARQALISHI VA ULARNING KO'RINISHLARI QUYIDAGICHA:

◆ **Portugal tili** – a) Mazkur til dunyoning ikki – Azor va Madeyra orollarini qo'shib olganda Portugaliya va Braziliya davlatlarining rasmiy so'zlashuv tilidir.

◆ b) Angola, Mozambik, Gvineya-Bisau, Yashil Burun, San-Tome va Prinsipi kabi davlatlarning ham rasmiy tili hisoblanadi.

◆ c) Portugaliyaning sobiq koloniyasi hisoblanmish Sharqoy Timotning ham rasmiy aloqa tili Potrugal tilidir.

◆ Portugal tilida so'zlashuvchilarning umumiy soni 140 milliondan ortiqroq kishini tashkil qiladi.

◆ **Galisiy tilida so'zlashuvchilar** – Portugaliyaga chegaradosh Iberiya yarim orolida joylashgan Galisiyadagi galisiyaliklardir. Genetik jihatdan galisiy tili Portugal tili bilan yaqin qarindosh hisoblandi.

◆ XII-XIII asrlarda galisiy tilida boy poetic asarlar yaratilgan, ammo keyinchalik bu tilning yozma an'analarida bo'shashib ketganligi sabab, muvaffaqiyatga erisha olmadi. Hozirgi paytda galisiy tili muloqot mezoni bo'lib faqat qishloq jo'ylarda hizmat qilmoqda va hamda folklorda yashamoqda. Oliy o'quv yurtlarida galisiy tili qo'shimcha fan sifatida o'rganilmoqda.

◆ A) **Ispan tili.** Dunyoning 20 dan o'rtiq davlatining rasmiy davlat tili ispan tili hisoblanadi. Eng avvalo Ispaniyaning davlat tili tarkibiga O'rtayer dengizidagi Balear orollari va Atlantik okeanidagi Kanar orollaridagi halqhing tili ham kiradi. Lotin Amerikasidagi Argentina, Boliviya, Venesuela, Gvatemala, Gonduras, Dominikan Respublikasi, Kolumbiya, Kosta-Rika, Kuba, Meksika, Nikaragua, Panama, Paragvay, Peru, Puerto-Riko, Salvador, Urugvay, Chili, Ekvador kabi davlatlarning ham rasmiy davlat tili hisoblanadi. So'na hisob-kitoblarga qaraganda, lotin Amerikasining aholisi soni hozirgi paytda 340 million kishini tashkil etadi, bundan 200 millioni Ispan tilida so'zlashuvchilardir.

◆ Aholi hisobiga ispan tilida so'zlashuvchilarning ko'pchiligini Meksikaliklar, ya'ni 65 millionini tashlik etadi.

◆ Puerto-Rikoda ikkita rasmiy til mavjud ingliz va ispan. Peruda esa, ispan tili bilan bir qatorda hindular tili kechua ham rasmiy til hisoblanadi. Paragvayda ham hindular tili guarani teng tarqalgan. Bu tilda adabiyotlar nashr qilinsa ham, rasmiy til maqomiga ega emas. Hozirgi paytda Lotin Amerikasida 30 milliondan ortiq oholi hindu tillarida muloqat qiladilar.

◆ B) Ispan tili Afrika davlati hisoblanmish Ekvatorial Gvineya Respublikasining rasmiy tili hisoblanadi. Ispan tilida asosan aholining G'arbiy Saxaradagi Yevropalik qismi, hamda Maroko qirolligida so'zlashadilar, chunonchi Marokko qirolligining rasmiy tili arab tilidir.

◆ C) Ipan tilidan Filippin Respublikasining uchchalik ko'p bo'lmagan qismi ham foydalanadi, ammo keyingi paytlarda ispan tili rasmiy til hisoblanmish ingliz va tagal tillar tamonidan siqib chiqarilmoqda.

◆ Ispan tilida muloqot qiluvchilarning umumiy soni 240 milliondan ortadi.

◆ Ispan tili ingliz, arab, xitoy, rus, fransuz tillari kabi BMT ning rasmiy hamda ish yurituvchi tili hisoblanadi.

◆ **Katalan tili** – 1) Katalan tilida so'zlashuvchilarning ko'pchiligi (^ milliondan ortiqroq) Ispaniyaning sharqiy viloyatlarida yashaydilar. Kataloniyada, qsman Valensiyada va Aragonda, Balear otollarida ham. Uzoq yillardan beri qilib kelinayotgan sa'i-harakatlar tufayli 1980 yili Kataloniya avtonom maqomiga ega bo'ldi.

◆ 2) Katalan tili Sharqiy Pirineyadagi Andorra davlatining ham rasmiy tilidir. Andorra aholisi ispan hamda fransuz tillaridan ham teng huquqli rasmiy til sifatida foydalanadilar.

◆ 3) Katalan tilidan Sharqiy Pirineyadagi (Benin) fransuz departamentining aholisi ham foydalanadi. Katalan tilida so'zlashuvchilar AQShda, Lotin Amerikasida, qisman Kuba va Argentinada yashaydilar.

◆ **Fransuz tili** - a) Bu til 53,5 milliondan ortiq odam so'zlashuvchi Frantsiya davlatining huddi shuningdek, Belgiya, Lyuksemburg, Shveytsariya, Monako, Andorra, Kanada kabi davlatlarning rasmiy tilidir.

◆ b) Bundan tashqari frantsuz tili Afrikada joylashgan 13 ta davlatning yakkayu-yagona rasmiy tili hamdir, ya'ni Benin, Fil Suyagi Qirg'og'i, Yuqori Volta, Gabon, Gvineya, Zoir, Kongo, Mali, Niger, Senegal, Togo, Chad respublikalarining davlar tili hisoblanadi.

◆ Kamerunda frantsuz tili ingliz tili bilan rasmiy davlat tili maqmini bo'lshadi. Seyshel orollarida esa uchta rasmiy til-frantsuz, ingliz va kreol tillari davlat tillari deb tan olingan. Beshta Afrika davlatlarida (Burundi, Djibuti, Ruuanda, Komor orollari, Madagaskar ham kiradi) bir paytni o'zida frantsuz va yetarli aholi tillaridan biri yoki arab tili rasmiy deb qabul qilingan.

◆ Frantsuz tili Gaiti Respublikasining, Gvadelupa, Martinika, Reyunon, Polineziya, Gaiti oroli, Yangi Kaledoniya kabi davlatlarning rasmiy tili sifatida ishlatiladi. Shuningdek bu til Vetnam, Laos, Kampuchiya, kabi Janubiy-Sharqiy Osiyo davlatlarida ham aloqa vositasi bo'lib hizmat qiladi.

◆ Frantsuz tili so'zlashuvchilarning umumiy soni 80 milllion kishidan ortiqdir. Frantsuz tili BMTning ham rasmiy, ham ish yurituvchi tili hisoblanadi.

◆ **Provansal yoki Ositan tili** – Bu til janubiy Frantsiya aholisi bir qismining ona tilisidir. Provanal tilida so'zlashuvchilarning aniq hisobi yo'q, taxmin qilinishicha 2 mln. Dan 8 mln. gacha kishi so'zlashadi. "Provansal tili" atamasi sobiq Rim provinsiyasining nomidan kelibb chiqqan.

◆ *-Provincia Romana*

◆ Bu tilning tarixi qisqacha quyidagicha: O'rta asrlarda (IX-XIII asrlar) Frantsiyaning janubida yuridik hujjatlar va ma'muriy qog'ozlar tili bo'lib qadimgi provansal tili ishlatilgan. XII-XIII asrlar mobaynida provansal adabiyoti, ayniqsa lirikasi, (poeziyasi) gullab yashnagan. Ammo 1959 yili

Frantsiya qiroli Fransiska I ning farmoniga binoan barcha yuridik hujjatlar faqat frantsuz tilida olib borilsin deyilgandan so'ng provansal tilining nufuzi pasayib ketdi. Hozirgi Frantsuz jamiyatida provansal tili mahalliy lahja nufuziga ega, holos. Ijtimoiy hayotning barcha javhalariga frantsuz tilini kiritish siyosati provansal tilining ijtimoiy vazifalarni yo'qotishga olib keldi.

◆ Tillardan aloqa vositasi sifatida foydalanish Frantsiyada o'zida hos hususiyat kasb etadi, chunki bu yurtda frantsuz tili rasmiy davlat tili bo'lsada, u bilan bir qatorda turli hududlarda bask, katalan, provansal, italyan tilining korsikan dialekti, breton, flamand tillari, nemis tilining Elzas dialekti ham ishlatiladi.

◆ **Italyan tili** – 1) Italyan tli Apennin yarim orolidan tashqari yana Sardiniya va Sitsiliya orollarini qamrab oluvchi Italiya davlatining rasmiy davlat tilidir. Aholining umumiy soni 57 millio bo'lsa, undan 98 % italyanlardir. Italiya hududidan tashqarida, jumladan AQSh va Lotin Amerikasi mamlakalarida 4 milliondan 10 milliongacha italyanlar yashaydilar.
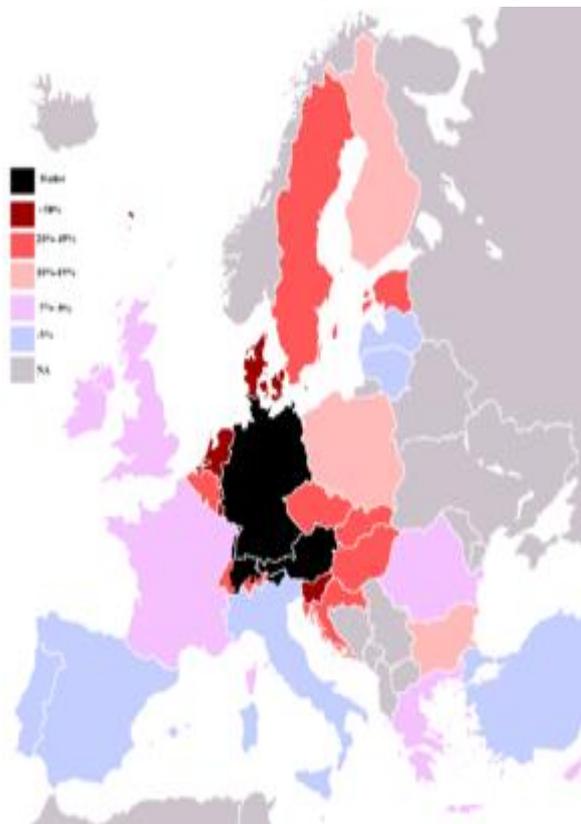
◆ Italyan tili Shveytsariyaning ham rasmiy tillaridan biri hisobanadi. Shunindek, bu til Apennin yarim orolida joylashgan kichkina davlat – San-Marinoning (21 ming aholisi bor) ham rasmiy davlat tili bo'lib hizmat qiladi.

◆ 2) Italyan tili Afrikadagi Somali Demokratik Respublikasining uncha ko'p bo'lmagan aholisi tomanidan ham ishlatiladi (evropaliklardan kelib chiqqan qismi). Rasmiy til bo'lib bu yurtda Somali va arab tili qabul qilingan.

◆ Italyan tilida so'zlashuvchilarning umumiy soni 65 milliondan oshadi.

◆ *SARDIN YOKI SARD TILI.*

◆ Sardin tili Sardiniya oroli hududida yashovchi ozchilik aholining tilidir.bu tilida muloqot qiluvchilarning taxminiy soni 0,5 millionga yaqin. Aholining yosh bo'g'ini italtan tilida erkin so'zlashganligi tufayli bu tilga italyan tilining ta'siri katta. So'z va iboralar qabul qilinmoqda, gaplarning sintaktik strukturalari ham italyan tili grammatikasi qoidalari asosida tuzilgan.

◆ *RETOROMAN TILI.*

◆ Alp tog'lari hududlarida bir guruh roman tili nutqiga o'xshash tildan foydalanuvchi aholi yashaydi. Tabiiy tog' sharoiti, ularning tarqoq joylashishi har bir qishloq, viloyatning mahalliy harakterini belgilaydi va shu bilan birga o'sha joydagi laxjani boshqalaridan ajratib turadi. Retoroman tili atamasi F.Ditsning "Roman tillari grammatikasi" asarida uchraydi.

◆ Retoroman tili konstitutsiya bo'yicha Shveytsar konfederatsiyasining milliy tili maqomiga ega. Bu tilda vaqtli matbuot nashr qilinadi va universitetlarda o'qitiladi.

◆ Retoroman tili uch ko'rinishda – ya'ni, Shveytsar, tirol va friul variantlarda ishlatiladi. Bu tillarda so'zlashuvchi aholining soni aniq emas.

◆ *RUMIN TILI.*

◆ Bu til Ruminiya respublikasining rasmiy davlat tilidir. Bu tilda 22 milliondan ortiqroq kishi so'zlashadi. Bolqon yarim orolida joylashgan davlatlarda roman nutqining uch ko'rinishi mavjud. Ular – arumi, meglenit, istriot ko'rinishdagi variantlardir. Bu uch Roman laxjalari X-XII asrda ro'y bergan axoli ko'chishi tufayli umumrumin tilidan ajralib ketgan.

◆ *MOLDAVAN TILI.*

◆ Bu til Moldaviya respublikasining rasmiy davlat tilidir. Aholining 65% yoki taxminan 2,6 million kishi moldavan tilida so'zlashadi.

◆ Genetik va tuzilishi jihatidan moldavan tili rumin tiliga yaqin. Ammo rivojlanishning tarixiy sharoitlari bu ikki qarindosh tilni bir-biridan farqlab, moldavan tilini alohida til ko'rinishida rivoj topib, mustaqil millat tiliga aylantirgan.

◆ *KREOL TILLARI.*

◆ 1492 yili Amerika qit'asining ochilishi bu yurtga ko'pchilik yevropaliklarni ko'chib otishiga olib keldi. Yerli aholini qirib tashlab Afrikaning turli viloyatlaridan qullar-qora tanlilarning olib kelinishi natijasida bir xil jismoniy mehnat bilan band bo'lib, yelkami-yelka yashab turgan qullar bir-birini va ho'jalarini tushuna olmaydigan vaziyatni yuzaga keltirdi. Bu narsa o'z navbatida vositachi tilga ehtiyoj tug'dirdi. Har bir konkret vaziyatda bironta yevropa tili ana shu vazifani bajarib turdi. Keyinchalik portugal, ispan, frantsuz va g'arbiy yevropa tillarini ommaviy tusda egallash, o'rganishi jarayoni boshlanib ketdi.

◆ G'arbiy Yevropatillarini o'rganish, gapirish, eshitish orqali bo'lganligi sabab, juda ko'p tovushlar gapiruvchilarning ona tilidagi tovushlarga o'xshab talaffuz etilardi. Ana shunday qilib, yevropa, eng avvalo, roman tillari asosida talaffuzi me'yoriga to'g'ri kelmaydigan buzuq tillar yoki pinjin tillar paydo bo'ldi. Vaqt o'tishi bilan bu tillar doimiy muloqot uchun hizmat qiladigan tillarga aylandi. Bu tillar hozirgi paytda ham mavjud va ularni kreol tillari deb atashadi.

◆ Kreol so'zining etimologiyasi noma'lum. Faqat bu atama hindular tilidan kelib chiqqan deb taxmin qilinadi. Brinchi marta bu atama XVI asr ohirlaridagi Ispan tilidagi matnlarda uchraydi.

◆ Kreol tilining frantsuz toifasida shunday so'zlar uchraydi. Met, conet, lot, dot- ular frantsuz tilidagi quyidagi so'zlarga to'g'ri keladi: Mettre, connaitre, l'autre, d'autre kabilar.

ROMAN TILLARINI TASNIFLASH MUAMMOLARI

◆ REJA:

- ◆ **G'arbiy Roman tillari.**
- ◆ **Sharqiy Roman tillari.**
- ◆ **Tayanch-iboralar**
- ◆   Fonetik faktorlar, morfologik harakter, jarangsiz intervokal undoshlar, hudud tamoyili, Ibero-roman, gallo-roman, istalo-roman, balkan-roman hududlari.
- ◆ 1.Roman tillari 2 ta katta ya'ni g'arbiy va sharqiy guruhlarga bo'linadi. Bo'linish o'tgan asrda F.Dits tomonidan amalga oshirildi. Bu tasnif faqat 6 ta roman tillarini qamrab olgan, holos. Bular ispan va Portugal, frantsuz va Portugal, italyan va rumin tillaridir. Roman tillarini g'arbiy va sharqiy guruhlarga ajratishda fonetik faktorlar, qisman morfologik harakterda bo'lgan omillar mezon qilib olingan. Ulardan eng mohiyatlisi jarangsiz intervokal undoshlarni (p,t,k) jarangliga aylanishidir.
- ◆ Lotin tilidan roman tillariga o'tishda ayrim tillarda yuqorida keltirilgan tovushlar jaranglashgan: lat. (og'zaki) potere > isp, poder, port, poder, frans. pouvoir.
- ◆   G'arbiy va sharqiy guruhlarga bo'linishi, bu tillarni to'laligicha strukturaviy jihatdan bir-biriga mos tushadi degan gap emas.
- ◆   2. Roman tillari yana umumiy hudud tamoyili bo'yicha ham guruhlarga birlashadi.
- ◆   Manashu asos bo'yicha asrimizning 40-50 yillari italyan olimi Karlo Talyavini tomonidan roman tillari 4 ta hududga: Ibero- roman, gallo-roman, italo-roman va bolqon-roman hududlariga ajratilgan. Quyidagi jadvalda yana ham yaqqo'roq aks etgan.
- ◆   Barcha g'arbiy roman tillarini ichida lotin tilidan ko'p farq qiladigani ham fonetik, ham grammatik jihatdan, frantsuz tilidir. Masalan, fe'lllaridagi fleksiyaning yo'qolib ketishi natijasida olmosh – egani, fe'ldan oldin, taqozo etdi.
- ◆   Qiyoslang: isp. canto, cantas, canta; va frans. je chante, tu chantes, it chante va boshqalar.

FANGA DOIR VIDEO DARSLAR

1 https://www.balticmedia.com/west-germanic-languages

2 https://www.expatrio.com/living-germany/learn-german/german-alphabet-and-grammar

3 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2OynrY8JCDM

4 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vgcUhkMtmUQ

5 https://www.goethe-verlag.com/book2/EN/ENDE/ENDE025.HTM

6 https://theculturetrip.com/europe/germany/articles/7-fascinating-facts-about-the-german-language/

7 https://www.thelocal.de/20210826/10-facts-that-explain-the-german-language/