

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

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ



ГЕРМАН ФИЛОЛОГИЯСИГА КИРИШ ФАНИДАН

ЎҚУВ-УСЛУБИЙ ҚЎЛЛАНМА

Тошкент – 2012

Тузувчи



**Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи кафедраси мудири,
филология фанлари номзоди, доцент Қўлдошев Акрам
Махмудович**

Такризчи: Филология фанлари номзоди, доцент Жўраев Б.

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг фанидан ўқув-услубий мажмуа – Тошкент:
ЎзДЖТУ. 2012 – _____ бет.**

Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг фанидан ўқув-услубий мажмуа – Тошкент: ЎзДЖТУ. 2012 – _____ бет.

АННОТАЦИЯ: Герман филологиясига кириш фани бўйича ўқув-услубий мажмуа инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи кафедраси томонидан яратилди ва ушбу ўқув-услубий мажмуа иккинчи курс талабалар учун мўлжалланган. Мазкур курсни ўзлаштирган талаба герман филологияси бўйича ўқилган маърузанинг мазмунини тушуниб етарлича билимга эга бўлиш, тилшуносликда тил ва унинг пайдо бўлиши, тил оилалари, тилларнинг ўзгаришининг асосий факторлари, тилларининг ҳозирги даврдаги ривожланиши ва уларнинг ўрни ҳақида тушунчага эга бўлади. Герман филологиясига кириш фани бўйича яратилган ушбу ўқув-услубий мажмуа олий ўқув юртли факультет ва бўлимларда инглиз филологияси бакалавриат йўналиши бўйича мутахассислар тайёрлашга мўлжалланган.

Тузувчи: Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи кафедраси мудир, филология фанлари номзоди, доцент Кўлдошев Акрам Махмудович

Тақризчи: Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди, Жўраев Б.

Ўқув-услубий мажмуа Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети Илмий кенгашида тавсия қилинган (2012 йил _____ даги «_____» баённома)

Ўқув-услубий мажмуа олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-хунар таълими ўқув-методик бирлашмалари фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи Кенгашнинг 2012 йил «__» _____ даги __-сонли қарорига мувофиқ нашрга тавсия этилган.

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ЎҚУВ-УСЛУБИЙ МАЖМУА ТАРКИБИ

- 1 Давлат таълим стандарти
- 2 Фаннинг намунавий дастури
- 3 Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури
- 4 Фаннинг календар тематик режаси
Герман филологиясига кириш фани
- 5 Фанни ўқитиш технологияси:
Герман филологиясига кириш фани
 - а) Маърузалар ўқитиш технологиялари
 - б) Амалий машғулотлар технологияси
 - в) Мустақил ишлар технологияси
- 6 ЖН, ОН, ЯН бўйича назорат саволлари
- 7 Тестлар
- 8 Глоссарий

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ СТАНДАРТИ

Ўзбекистон узлуксиз таълимнинг
Давлат таълим стандартлари
Олий таълимнинг Давлат таълим стандарти

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалаврларнинг тайёргарлик даражаси ва зарурий билимлар мазмунига қўйиладиган

ТАЛАБЛАР

Государственные образовательные стандарты
непрерывного образования Узбекистана
Государственный образовательный стандарт
высшего образования

ТРЕБОВАНИЯ

к необходимому содержанию и уровню подготовленности бакалавра по направлению *5120100 - Филология и преподавание языков (по языкам)*

State Educational Standards of Continuous Education of Uzbekistan
State Educational Standards of Higher Education

REQUIREMENTS

Necessary for content and level of Bachelors in *5120100 – Philology and language teaching*

Амал қилиш муддати « ____ » _____ 20__ йилдан
« ____ » _____ 20__ йилгача

1. 5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналишининг умумий тавсифи

1.1 Йўналиш - Ўзбекистон узлуксиз таълим Давлат таълим стандартлари, Олий таълимнинг Давлат таълим стандарти, Олий таълим йўналишлари ва мутахассисликлари Классификаторига киритилган.

1.2 Таълимнинг кундузги ўқиш шаклидаги муддати - 4 йил. Академик даража - «Бакалавр».

1.3 Бакалавр:

- касблар ва лавозимлар миллий классификаторига мувофиқ олий маълумотли шахс эгаллаши лозим бўлган лавозимлар бўйича мустақил фаолият кўрсатишга;

- таълим йўналиши ҳамда турдош таълим йўналишларининг магистратура мутахассисликлари бўйича олий таълим олишни давом эттиришга;

- кадрларни қайта тайёрлаш ва малака ошириш тизимида қўшимча касбий таълим олишга тайёрланган бўлиши шарт.

1.4 5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр касбий фаолияти соҳалари ва объектларининг тавсифи

1.4.1 Таълим йўналишининг илм-фанлар ва хизматлар соҳасидаги ўрни.

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши ижтимоий фанлар соҳасидаги йўналиш бўлиб, у лингвистика ва адабиётшунослик муаммоларини ўргатади. Йўналиш илмий ва педагогик ҳамда таржимонлик соҳасини ривожлантиришга, истиқболни белгилашга, касбий кўникмага мутасаддилик қобилиятига эга мутахассис тайёрлайди ва инсон фаолиятининг воситалари, усуллари, методлари ва услубларини ўз ичига олади.

1.4.2 Касбий фаолият объектлари

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр касбий фаолият объектлари- роман-герман тилларидан бири бўйича унинг назарий, тарихий, шевашунослик аспекти бўйича ўрганиш, роман-герман тилларидаги адабиёт ва унинг ривожланиш жараёни кабиларни ўз ичига олади.

1.4.3 Касбий фаолият турлари

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр фундаментал, умумкасбий ва махсус тайёргарлигига мувофиқ қуйидагиларни ўзлаштиради:

педагогик фаолият: юқори малакали чет тили ўқитувчиларини тайёрлаш;

информацион библиографик фаолият: кутубхоналарда кутубхоначи бўлиб ишлаш;

илмий-тадқиқот ишлари: гуманитар йўналиши бўйича илмий текшириш ташкилотларида кичик илмий ходим вазифасида ишлаш;

муҳаррирлик: газета, журнал, радио, телевидениеда муҳаррир-таржимон, мусахҳих бўлиб ишлаш.

таржимонлик фаолияти: турли давлат ва давлатга тегишли бўлмаган хусусий ташкилотлар ҳамда муассасаларда таржимонлик қилиш ва бошқа касбий фаолият турларини бажариши мумкин.

1.4.4 Турдош касбларга мослашиш имкониятлари

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр қуйидаги:

педагогик фаолият: мактабгача таълим, умумтаълим муассасалари, академик лицей, коллеж ва бошқа таълим муассасаларида чет тилларидан дарс бериши;

маъмурий иш: маориф, маданият, туризм соҳаларида; турли давлат муассасаларида, меҳмонхона, қўшма корхоналар, фирмаларда иш юритувчи, администратор, референт вазифасида ишлаш;

сервис хизмати: техник ва бошқа таржима турларини амалга ошириш, роман-герман тилларини интенсив шаклда ўргатиш (қисқа курслар);

психологик консультация хизмати: манфаатдор кўшма корхоналарга амалий ва услубий ёрдам кўрсатиш, турли босқичдаги таълим муассасаларида психолог - маслаҳатчи вазифасида фаолият юритиш;

илмий соҳада: бадиий, илмий асарларга тақризлар ёзиш каби касбий фаолият турларига мослашиши мумкин.

1.5 Таълим олишни давом эттириш имконияти.

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр куйидаги:

5A220101 - Адабиётшунослик (тиллар бўйича);

5A220102 - Лингвистика (тиллар бўйича);

5A220601 - Таржима назарияси ва амалиёти;

5A220104 - Адабий манбашунослик ва матншунослик;

5A220105 - Адабий танқид;

5A220106 - Касб-хунар фанларини ўқитиш методикаси мутахассисликлари ҳамда таълимнинг ваколатли бошқарув органи (лари) томонидан белгиланган турдош таълим йўналишлари (мутахассисликлари) бўйича икки йилдан кам бўлмаган муддатда магистратурада ўқишни давом эттириши мумкин.

2. 5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) йўналиши бўйича бакалаврнинг тайёргарлик даражасига қўйиладиган талаблар

2.1. Бакалавр тайёргарлигига қўйиладиган умумий малакавий талаблар

Бакалавр:

- дунёқараш тавсифидаги билимлар тизимини эгаллаган бўлиши, гуманитар ва ижтимоий - иқтисодий фанлар асосини, жорий давлат сиёсати масалаларини билиши лозим, ижтимоий муаммолар ва жараёнларни мустақил таҳлил этишга қобил бўлиши;

- Ватан тарихини билиш, миллий маънавий масалалар ва умуминсоний кадриятлар бўйича ўз нуқтаи назарини баён эта олиши, ҳамда илмий асослай олиши, миллий ғоя асосида фаол ҳаётий ўринни эгаллаши;

- табиат ва жамиятда юз бераётган жараёнлар ва ҳодисалар ҳақида яхлит тасаввурга эга бўлиши керак, табиат ва жамият ривожланиши ҳақидаги билимларни эгаллаши, замонавий илмий асосларда улардан ҳаётда ва касбий фаолиятида фойдалана олиши;

- инсонлар орасидаги жамиятга, атроф муҳитга бўлган муносабатини тартибга солувчи ҳуқуқий ва ахлоқий меъёрларни билиш, уларни касбий фаолиятда ҳисобга олиши;

- ахборотни тўплаш, таҳлил қилиш, ишлов бериш ва унумли фойдалана олиш; ўз касбий фаолиятида мустақил фикрлаш ва керакли қарорлар қабул қила олиши;

- бакалавриятнинг тегишли йўналиши бўйича рақобатбардош умумкасбий тайёргарликка эга бўлиши;

- янги билимларни мустақил ўзлаштира олиши, такомиллаштириши ва ўз меҳнатини илмий асосда ташкил этиши;

- соғлом турмуш тарзини шакллантириш, жисмонан бақувват ва спорт билан шуғилланиб бориши зарурияти ҳақида илмий тасаввурга ва эътиқодга эга бўлиши, ўзини жисмонан такомиллаштиришнинг малака ва кўникмаларига эга бўлиши керак.

2.2 Умумкасбий малакавий талаблар

Бакалавр:

филолог-тилишунос сифатида: мамлакатда мавжуд турли фойдаланиш кўламига эга бўлган тилларга структурал ва функционал ривожланиш қонуниятларини мукамал билиши ва уларга тавсиф бера олиши;

филолог-адабиётшунос сифатида: ҳозирги замон адабий жараёнларини тўғри таҳлил қила билиши ва турли жанрга мансуб бадиий асарларни таҳрир қила билиши;

таржимон сифатида: чет тилидан она тилига, она тилидан чет тилига турли матн ва нутқ маҳсулотларини оғзаки ва ёзма шаклда, изчил ва синхрон равишда сифатли таржима қила олиш кўникмалари устиворлигини таъминлаш ҳамда ривожлантиришни амалга ошириши;

илмий соҳада: ўрганилаётган тил ва умумий тилшунослик соҳасида тил тузилиши, унинг қўлланилиши ва турли лингвистик жараёнлар бўйича илмий изланишлар олиб бориш;

сервис ва бошқа турдаги хизматларни кўрсатиш соҳасида: шахс психологиясининг ўзига хос хусусиятларини инобатга олган ҳолда турли муассасаларда ўқувчи, талаба ва ходимларга керакли рекреацион хизматни кўрсата олиш кўникмаларига эга бўлиш;

таълим соҳасида: узлуксиз таълим тизими муассасаларида ўқув жараёнини ташкил этиш ва ўтказилишига кўмаклашиш (ўқув персонали), тадқиқотларда иштирок этиш, маълумотларни тўплаш, умумлаштириш ва таҳлил этиш, умумий ўрта, ўрта махсус, касб-хунар таълим муассасаларида ўқув машғулотларини ўтиш, замонавий педагогик ва ахборот технологияларни эгаллаш ва тадбиқ этишни билиши керак.

бошқарув ва ташкилотчилик соҳасида: турли давлат ва нодавлат муассасалар ташкилий қурилиши ва бошқарув масалалари бўйича тасаввурга эга бўлиши керак.

Касбий маҳорат бўйича ўз билими ва кўникмасини эгаллаган лавозимида мустақил фаолият кўрсатиш талабларига ва профессионализмга жавоб бериши керак.

2.3 Таълим дастурлари бўйича билим, малака ва кўникмаларга қўйиладиган талаблар

2.3.1 Гуманитар, ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар бўйича талаблар

Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар қисми бўйича талаблар Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги тасдиқлаган «Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар блоки бўйича бакалаврларнинг тайёргарлик даражаси ва зарурий билимлар мазмунига қўйилган талаблар» асосида белгиланади.

2.3.2 Математик ва табиий-илмий фанлар бўйича талаблар

Математик коммуникатив курс

Бакалавр:

- информатика, инфорацион технологиялар ва математик лингвистикага оид тасаввурга эга бўлиши:

- математика – оламни идрок этишнинг алоҳида усули сифатидаги, унинг тушунча ва тасаввурлари умумийлиги ҳақида;

- математик тилшуносликнинг лингвистик фанлар орасида ўрнини билиш, фаннинг тушунчалар аппарати ва таҳлил методларини эгаллаб олиши;

- матнни тадқиқ этишда ва унинг тил қатламлари бўйича элементларини аниқлашда математик лингвистика имкониятларидан фойдаланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;

- ахборот тўғрисида, уни сақлаш, қайта ишлаш ва узатиш тўғрисида билиши ва қўллай олиши;

- экспериментал (тажрибавий) маълумотларни қайта ишлашнинг асосий услуб ва усулларини қўллай билиш;

- математик белгиларнинг лингвистик белгилардан фарқини, комбинатор математика элементларини;

- эҳтимоллар назариясини турли воқеаларда татбиқ қила олишни;

- синтаксисни моделлаштиришни билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;

- ҳисоблаш техникаси ва дастурий таъминот имкониятларидан фойдаланиш ва программалаштириш;

- компьютер графикаси воситаларидан фойдаланиш;

- содда ва мураккаб бирикмаларнинг турли кўринишларини ўз амалиётида ишлата олиш;

- ўз фаолиятида тил унсурлари қўлланилиши эҳтимоллик имконини топиш учун элементар формулалардан фойдаланиш;

- тилнинг ташкил қилувчи ва тобе тузилмаларини қўллаш;

- энг оддий амалий лингвистик масалаларни ечишда шунга мос келадиган математик назариялардан фойдалана билиш малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.

Табиий – илмий курси

Бакалавр:

- табиатшунослик тараққиётининг асосий босқичлари, замонавий табиатшунослик хусусиятлари, эволюцион ва Ньютон парадигмалари;
- жонли ва жонсиз табиатдаги ўзаро муносабатлар;
- материядаги элементлар тузилиши иерархияси тўғрисида, оламнинг микродан-макрогача ва мегагача тузилиши;
- психологиянинг физиологик асослари, ижтимоий хулқ, экология ва инсон саломатлиги;
- организм ва муҳитнинг узвийлиги, экосистема, табиатни асраш ва табиийбойликлардан оқилона фойдаланиш;
- талабаларнинг турли ёш даврларда ривожланиш қонуниятлари;
- мактаб гигиенаси, меҳнат ва дам олиш режасини ташкил этиш;
- ер тараққиётида инсоннинг ўрни, ягона маданият парадигмаси ва ноосфера;
- ўрганиладиган мамлакатнинг (минтақа) табиий ва ижтимоий географияси;
- ўрганилаётган тил мамлакатлари ва халқларининг илмий, маданий мерослари; ўрганилаётган тил мамлакатининг сиёсий тарихи, маданияти, дини ва иқтисодий-ижтимоий муаммолари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;
- табиат ривожланишининг асосий қонунлари;
- замонавий табиатшуносликда олиб борилаётган изланишларнинг асосий принцип ва услублари;
- инсон фаолиятидаги мавжуд турли хил илмий принципларни қўллаш;
- ёш авлодни тарбиялашда ёш физиологияси предметининг ўқув фанлари орасидаги ўрни ва мавқеи;
- болалар ва ўсмирлар психофизиологик хусусиятларини билиш;
- ўқув жараёнига нерв системаси, физиологияси, олий нерв фаолиятида учрайдиган юқумли касалликларнинг таъсири;
- биосфера мўътадиллигида ижтимоий факторнинг роли;
- экологик муаммоларнинг келиб чиқиш сабаблари;
- ижтимоий-экологик мувозанат қоидаси;
- ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг сиёсий ва иқтисодий географияси назарий билимларини;
- хорижий Ғарб мамлакатларининг тарихий ривож ва замонавийлиги нуқтаи назаридан ижтимоий- иқтисодий, сиёсий, маданий муносабатларининг шаклланиш масалалари;
- ўрганилаётган тил мамлакатининг тарихи, географияси, иқтисодий, ижтимоий-сиёсий тизими, халқаро муносабатлари, унинг жаҳон ҳамжамятидаги геополитик ўрнини билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;
- гуманитар ва табиий-илмий маданиятни ягона тарзда синтез қила билиш;
- табиий фанлар ютуқларини эркин қўллаш олиш;
- ўз касбини тўлақонли эгаллашда ёрдам берувчи тафаккурнинг табиий-илмий усулини қўллаш билиш;
- экология қонуниятларини амалда қўллаш;
- маҳаллий ва ҳудудий экологик муаммолар келиб чиқишининг олдини олиш;
- атроф-муҳит ифлосланишининг олдини олиш;
- атлас, статистик жадваллар, сиёсий, табиий ва иқтисодий хариталар билан ишлаш;
- тили ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг тарихий ва ижтимоий-сиёсий ривожланишини таҳлил қилиш;
- тили ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг тарихий ўзаклари ҳақида тўлиқ тасаввур шакллантира олиш;
- ёш физиологияси бўйича билимларга таяниб, таълим тарбия жараёнига илмий ёндошиш; болаларнинг ақлий ва жисмоний қобилиятларини ривожлантириш;

-ўқув муассасаларида санитар гигиеник талаб ва меъёрларга таянган ҳолда меҳнат ва дам олиш тартибини самарали ташкил қилиш малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.

2.3.3 Умумқасбий фанлар бўйича талаблар

Лингвистик курс

Бакалавр:

- ўрганилаётган тилнинг морфологик тузилиши ва товуш тизими;
- ўрганилаётган тилдан ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилга таржима амалиёти спецификаси ва стилистик хусусиятлари, меъёрий грамматика асослари;
- ўрганилаётган тилнинг ривож ва тил доирасидаги асосий экстралингвистик шаклланишнинг асосий факторлари ҳамда тарихий манбалари, унинг диалектик хилма-хиллиги ;
 - мулоқотнинг оғзаки ва ёзма турлари;
 - хорижий тилларда фикрни лисоний ифода қилиш усуллари ва уларнинг нутқ оғзаки ва ёзма шаклларида қўлланилиши қонуниятлари;
 - нутқнинг диалогик ва монологик шакллари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;
 - асосий ўрганилаётган тилнинг ёзма, адабий ва турмушдаги шакллари;
 - тилнинг замонавий ҳолати тавсифи, ёзув, графика, орфография, пунктуация, лексик-грамматик туркумлар, сўз тузилиши, бошқа тиллардан сўз кириб келишининг умумий тарихини;
 - содда ва қўшма гаплар, сўз бирикмалари синтаксиси, лексика ва ёзма нутқ, диалектик лексиканинг асосий хусусиятлари;
 - хорижий тил талаффузи ва нутқининг интонацион жиҳатдан жиллолашини мукамаллаштириш;
 - ўрганилаётган тил грамматик ва синтактик хусусиятлари, матннинг пунктуацион расмийлаштирилишини эгаллаб олиш;
 - муайян бир коммуникатив ниятни ифодаловчи нутқ яратиш механизмлари ҳақида билиш, матннинг мантиқий-композицион тузилишини тушуна олиш;
 - касбий йўналиши доирасида камида 4000 лексик бирлик ҳажмидаги сермахсул ва рецептив лексикани эгаллаб олиш;
 - ўрганилаётган тил китобий-босма, оғзаки- сўзлашув ва функционал стилларда учрайдиган грамматик ҳодисалар ҳақидаги билимини кенгайтириш ва чуқурлаштириш, ўқиганда ва тинглаганда уларни таний билиш, энг кўп қўлланиладиган шаклларни оғзаки-нутқий мулоқотда қўллаш;
 - ўрганилаётган тилда сўзловчи шахсларни кенг тарқалган кундалик ва касбий вазиятларда сўзлаган нутқини тушуна олиш, эшитилаётган матнлардан (радио, телевидение, видеокассеталар) ҳамда илмий матнларни тушуна олиш ва улардан ўзи учун зарур бўлган ахборотни ола билиш;
 - диалог ва полилогнинг (муҳокама, мубоҳаса, полемика, расмий суҳбат) каби турларини эгаллаб олиш, муҳокама маданияти ва этикасига риоя қилган ҳолда монолог (сўзлаб бериш, ахборот бериш ва маъруза қилиш) турларини ўрганилган мавзу ва сўз бойлиги орқали ижтимоий- маиший, маданий, ижтимоий-сиёсий, ўқув-касбий соҳаларда турли расмий ва норасмий вазиятда қўллаш билиш;
 - турли жанрларга мансуб бўлган публицистик, бадиий, илмий-оммабоп, функционал жанрларга оид оригинал матнларни ўқиш стратегияси бўйича барча турларини ўқиш, яъни ўрганиш учун ўқиш, танишув ўқиши, ахборот қидириб ўқиш ва юзакироқ маълумот олиш учун ўқиш процедураларини амалга ошира билиши керак;
 - матнларни лингвистик жиҳатдан таҳлил қилиш (лексико-грамматик ҳодисаларни топиш, функционал ва прагматик томондан матннинг структуравий- семантик ва стилистик хусусиятларини аниқлаш мақсадида бундай стилистик таҳлил ўтказилади);
 - кундалик ҳаёт ёки касбий мулоқот вазиятларида хорижий тилда сўзловчи шахсларнинг нутқини тинглаш ва тушуниш, турли жанрларга мансуб аудио ва

видеотекстлардан зарурий ахборотни ола билиш, ўз касбий йўналиши доирасида берилган оғзаки нутқий маҳсулотдан эътиборга лойиқ ахборотни ажрата билиш;

- ёзма маълумотларни тили ўрганилаётган давлатда қабул қилинган шаклда баён қилиш, матнлардан кўчирма олиш, қайта ифодалаш, бошқача қилиб айтиш ва умумлаштириш, оғзаки ва ёзма ахборот учун тезислар тузиш, конспект, реферат тузиш, аннотация, рецензия ёзиш, шахсий, расмий ва бизнес ҳужжатлари ва хатларини расмийлаштира олиш (таклиф-хат, хабар-хат, меморандум, электрон ахборот ва ҳк.); лавҳа ёзиш, турли кўринишдаги анкета ва формулярларни тўлдириш;

- турли жанрга оид матнларни чет тилидан она тилига ва она тилидан чет тилига оғзаки ва ёзма шаклларда таржима қилиш;

- турли жанрдаги матнларни оғзаки ва ёзма таржима қилганда таржиманинг маданиятлараро мулоқот воситаси эканлигини инобатга олиш, шу билан бирга таржиманинг касбий малака эканлигини эътиборга олиш;

- ўз мамлакати ҳамда тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат ижтимоий-маданий тарзини яққол кўз олдига келтириш ва мамлакатшунослик соҳасида кенг билимга эга бўлиш. Ўз мамлакати ва ўзга давлат жамоалари ўртасидаги ўхшашлик ва фарқ томонларини чуқур ўрганиб олиш, ижтимоий жиҳатдан қийматга эга бўлган ва маданиятига кўра ўзига хос хусусиятни ифодаловчи ахборотни билиш ва бу маълумотлар талабага ўзга этно-маданий жамият вакиллари лингвокогнитив характеристикасини тушуниб олишга имкон беришини англаш, ва мулоқот учун зарур бўлган ижтимоий-маиший, маданий, ижтимоий-сиёсий ва профессионал алоқанинг зарурлигини уқтира олиш;

-жаҳоннинг турли давлатлари маданияти хусусиятларини қиёслаш, солиштириш ва таҳлил қилиш;

-лисоний ва ўлкашуносликка алоқадор билимларни кенгайтириш ва чуқурлаштириш, коммуникатив кўникмаларини фаоллаштириш учун замонавий информацион технологиялардан фойдаланишни билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;

-асосий ўрганилаётган тилдаги ҳозирги замон адабий шаклида турли ҳил мураккабликдаги матнларнинг ёзма, қатор ҳолларда ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилга таржима қила олиш;

- ўрганилаётган тилда хорижий мутахассислар ва умуман бошқа шахслар билан касбий ва маиший вазиятларда тўлақонли жонли мулоқот олиб бориш;

- ҳар хил мавзу ва мураккабликдаги матнларни ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилдан асосий ўрганилаётган тилнинг ҳозирги адабий шаклига ёзма таржима қила олиш;

- асосий ўрганилаётган тилда мулоқот олиб бориш, нутқ сўзлаш;

- асосий ўрганилаётган адабий тилдан ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилга суҳбат, нутқ ва маърузаларни оғзаки изчил ва синхрон таржима қила олиш;

- ўрганилаётган чет тили ва ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилдаги маълумотларни қўллаб аннотация, реферат, маълумотлар тўплаш, тузиш ;

- бакалавр нутқ фаолиятининг турли шакл ва усулларини (ёзма, оғзаки, паралингвистик, экстралингвистик) маданиятлараро мулоқотда ва касбий фаолиятида (педагогик, таржимонлик ва бошқа мутахассисликлар бўйича) ўз нутқида қўллаш ва тушуниш малакасига эга бўлиши;

- янги информацион технологиялардан касбга йўналтирилган мақсадларда фойдалана олиш;

- турли халқаро лойиҳалар, анжуман ва синовларда қатнаша олиш малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.

Адабиётшунослик курси

Бакалавр:

- бадий ижодиётни ўрганувчи фан, яъни адабиётшуносликнинг таркибий қисмлари;

- адабиётшуносликнинг мактаб ва йўналишлари;

- бадий адабиётнинг психологияси, бадий адабиётнинг вазифалари,

- бадий адабиётнинг борлиқ билан алоқасидаги муаммолар;
- адабий услуб, жанр ва усулларнинг муаммоли масалалари;
- Европа адабиётининг антик даврдан бошлаб ҳозирги давргача бўлган тарихи;
- адабиётдаги асосий йўналишлар, ижодий услублар ва адабий портретлар;
- ўрганилаётган адабиётнинг жаҳон адабиёти контекстидаги ўрни ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;
- таниқли адабиётшунос ва танқидчиларнинг тажрибалари;
- адабиёт тарихи, адабиёт назарияси, адабий танқид тўғрисида кенг билимни эгаллай олиш;
- Ўзбекистонда ва хорижий давлатларда нашр қилинган илмий адабиётлар билан ишлаш;
- Европа адабиёти анъаналаридан тили ўрганилаётган адабиётнинг миллий хусусиятларини ажрата олиш;
- турли адабиётнинг ўзаро таъсир шакли ва моделларини туркумларга ажрата олиш;
- ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиёти бўйича ғарб тилларида олиб борилаётган асосий изланишларни билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;
- адабий асарларни ўрганишда назарий билимларни қўллаш;
- адабий ижодга касбий нуқтаи назардан қараш;
- жаҳон адабиётидаги жараёнларни ўзаро боғлиқлик нуқтаи назаридан таҳлил қилиш;
- ўз билимларини ҳозирги замон ғарб адабиётидаги оқимларнинг тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиёти жараёнига таъсирини ўрганишда қўллаш;
- адабиётни ва унинг асосий намоёндаларини ўрганишда тарихий ва турли методологик тамойилларни қўллаш;
- турли адабиёт мактаблари ёдгорликларининг жанр ва услубий фарқларини аниқлаш;
- ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиётини унинг гуманистик вазибалари контекстида комплекс ўрганиш малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.

2.3.4 Ихтисослик фанлари бўйича талаблар

Бакалавр:

- ўрганилаётган тил фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва лексикологияси бўйича асосий илмий-тадқиқот муаммолари ва касбий ривожланиш истиқболлари, бир-бирига яқин бўлимлар билан уларнинг ўзаро алоқасини тушуниши;
- ихтисослик фанлари соҳалари бўйича ривожланиш истиқболлари билан боғлиқ асосий тушунча, объектлар, ходиса ва жараёнларни билиш ва ўз касбий фаолиятини ташкиллаштиришнинг зарурий илмий воситаларини билиши;
- амалий ва назарий ўрганилаётган тил фонетикаси, грамматикаси, лексикологияси ва стилистикаси фанларини ўрганишнинг умумий методологияси ва хусусий методлари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;
- турли шаклдаги матнларнинг фонетик, грамматик ва лексико-стилистик хусусиятларини англаши;
- ихтисослик фанларининг бакалавр тайёрлаш жараёнида тутган ўрни ва салмоғини билиши;
- ўрганилаётган тил оғзаки ва ёзма нутқ махсулотларининг фонетик, грамматик ва стилистик жиҳатдан тил нормасига мос келиши даражасини билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;
- ўрганилаётган тил фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва луғат бойлиги ҳақидаги назарий ва амалий билимларини ўз ихтисослиги доирасида қўллаш олиши;
- ўрганилаётган тил фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва луғат бойлиги ҳақидаги билим ва кўникмаларини амалиётда қўллаш билиш малакасига эга бўлиши керак.

Бакалавр ихтисослигига қўйиладиган муайян талаблар ихтисослик ўқув фанлари блокадаги ўқув фанларининг мазмуни бўйича олий таълим муассасаси томонидан ўзгартирилиши мумкин.

2.3.5 Битирув малакавий иши (лойихаси)га қўйиладиган талаблар

Бакалаврнинг мутахассислик бўйича тайёргарлигига қўйиладиган талабларни мутахассислик фанлари мазмунидан келиб чиқиб олий ўқув юрти муассасаси қўяди.

Бакалавр битирув малакавий ишида барча блокларга киритилган фанлар бўйича билимни талаб қиладиган, тугалланган касбий вазифани бажаради.

Бу иш (лойихада)да бакалавр:

- ҳал қилинаётган масала бўйича умумий маълумот олиши ва унинг ечилиш даражасини таҳлил қилиши;

- лингвистик талабларни шакллантириш, қўйилган масала вариантларини кўриб чиқиб, энг тўғри вариантни аниқлаш;

- ҳар хил назарий муаммолар бўйича қўйилган масалаларни аниқ очиб бериш ва уларни амалда қўллаш билиши;

- ечилган масала натижалари бўйича хулосалар чиқариш ва тавсиялар бериш қабиларни амалга ошириши талаб этилади.

2.3.6 Малакавий амалиёт бўйича талаблар

Педагогик амалиёт:

Бакалавр:

- талабалар мактабгача таълим муассасаси, ўрта умумтаълим мактаби, академик лицей, касб – ҳунар коллежларида педагогик амалиётни ўтай олишлари керак.

- амалиёт жараёни касбий қўникма, малакаларни шакллантириш, назарий билимларини қўллаш олиш ва уларни ўзлаштиришга имконият яратиш ва талабаларни педагогик фаолиятга мослаштиришдан иборат .

- педагогик амалиёт даврида талабалар қўйдаги касбий қўникма, малакаларни мустаҳкамлаши керак:

- турли ўқув юртларининг барча босқичларида чет тили предмети бўйича ўқув – тарбиявий жараёни ташкил қилиш ва кузатиш;

- унинг қабул қилинган қоидаларга тўғри келишини баҳолаш;

- чет тили ва бошқа фанлардан дарс таҳлил қилиш, ўқитувчиларнинг олиб бораётган ўқув – тарбиявий фаолияти ва методларининг ўқувчилар психологик ривожланишига таъсирини баҳолаш;

- дарс мақсадларига мос келадиган дидактик материаллар, инфор­мацион технологияларни тайёрлаш ва қўллаш;

- чет тили ўқув – тарбиявий жараёнини режалаштириш ва амалга ошириш;

- қўникма, малакаларни текшириш учун турли топширик, вазифаларни тузиш ва қўллаш;

- чет тили бўйича факультатив машғулотлар, синфдан ташқари ишлар ўтказиш ;

- амалиёт ўтаётган ўқув юртининг ижтимоий ишларида қатнашиш.

Малака амалиётига:

Бакалавр:

-талабалар давлат ва нодавлат ташкилотлар, муассаса, идора ва корхоналарда амалиёт ўтказиш мобайнида уларнинг ўзига хос хусусиятларини ҳисобга олган ҳолда назарий ва амалий билимларни қўллаш зарурлиги ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиши;

- танланган соҳалари бўйича фаолият юритишнинг касбий асосларини эгаллаш;

- иш фаолиятида давлат йўриқномаларини талаб даражасида билиш;

- талабаларда шахслараро мулоқот маданияти ва коммуникатив компетенцияни шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришни билиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;

- талабалар давлат ва нодавлат ташкилотлар, муассаса, идора ва корхоналарда назарий ва амалий билимларни қўллаш олиши;

- кутубхоналарда ахборот йиғиш ва гуруҳлаш технологияси бўйича амалий кўникмаларини намоёниш қилиш малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.

3 Таълим дастурининг мазмуни ва компонентлари

3.1 5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалаврлар тайёрлаш дастури таълимнинг кундузги шакли бўйича 4 йил ўқитишга мўлжалланган бўлиб, қўйидаги вақт таксимотига эга:

Назарий таълим ва амалий машғулотлар, шу жумладан оралик, якуний ва аттестациялар	136 ҳафта.
Малакавий амалиёт	24 ҳафта;
Педагогик амалиёти	8 ҳафта;
Малакавий амалиёт	8 ҳафта;
Битирув малакавий иши	7 ҳафта.
Давлат аттестацияси	1 ҳафта.
Таътиллар	36 ҳафта.
Жами	204 ҳафта.

3.2 Талаба ҳафталик ўқув юкмасининг максимал ҳажми бир ҳафтада 54 соатни ташкил қилади, шундан аудиториядаги ўқув юклама 28 соатгача белгиланади ва қолган соатлар ҳажми мустақил таълим учун ажратилади.

3.3 Жорий, оралик ва якуний аттестацияни қўшганда таълим дастурининг меҳнат сиғими тўрт йиллик ўқув даврида 9072 соатни ташкил қилади.

3.4 Таълим дастурини ўзлаштириш жараёнида яхлитлаштирилган курсларнинг айрим масала ва муаммолари аудитория вақти ҳисобидан талабалар томонидан мустақил ўрганишга тавсия этилиши мумкин.

3.5 5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) йўналиши бўйича таълим дастурининг зарурий мазмуни.

3.5.1 Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар

Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар блоки бўйича талаблар Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги тасдиқлаган «*Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар*» блоки бўйича бакалаврият тайёргарлик даражасига қўйиладиган талаблар» асосида белгиланади.

3.5.2 Математик ва табиий илмий фанлар

Математик коммуникатив курс

3.5.2.1 Олий математика. Информатик лингвистика:

Замонавий математика шаклланишидаги асосий босқичлар, замонавий математика, математик тафаккурнинг асосий қирралари, математик исботлар, тугал ва чексиз кўплик, чизикли алгебра методлари - иқтисодий вазифаларни ечувчи асосий йул сифатида, математик таҳлилнинг етакчи бўлимлари, дифференциал ва интеграл сонлар, дифференциал тенглама, ижтимоий - гуманитар фанлар ривожига математиканинг ўрни.

Информатика ва ахборот технологиялари: халқ хўжалигини юксалтиришда ЭҲМнинг ўрни ва аҳамияти, ЭҲМ даврлари, замонавий ЭҲМлар тўғрисида маълумот, операцион системалар, файллар, бейсик программалаштиришда алгоритмик тил, асосий маълумотлар: унинг алифбоси ва синтаксиси, бейсик операторлари, бейсик командалари, бейсик функционлари, алгоритм тўғрисида асосий маълумотлар, сўзли ва чизикли алгоритмнинг тузилиши, тизимли ва тармоқланган алгоритмлар.

Техник воситалар ва улардан тўғри фойдаланишни ўрганиш, тилни ўргатишда техник воситаларни ўргатишнинг аҳамияти ва ўрни.

Бакалавр лингвистик информатиканинг объекти ва предмети, информатик - лингвистиканинг бошқа фанлар орасидаги ўрни;

Информатик - лингвистика фани пайдо бўлишининг тарихий асослари, информатик – лингвистик ходисаларни англашнинг муҳим усули; ахборот технологиялари тараққиётида функционал лингвистиканинг аҳамияти; нутқни тадқиқ этишда ва унинг тил қатламлари бўйича элементларини аниқлашда лингвистик информатикадаги тизимли

ёндашув ва таҳлил методлари ҳақида; лингвистика ва информатиканинг чегарадош соҳасида кибернетикага оид интеллектуал тизимларни яратиш билан боғлиқ муаммолар ва уларнинг ечимлари: -моделлаштириш усуллари, маълумотлар структураси ва алгоритми, дастурлаш технологияси, интеллектуал тизимларнинг архитектураси, лингвистик бирликларнинг математик ифода этилиши, ахборот технологияларида лингвистик ходисаларнинг ифодаланиши, нутқни англаш тизимида товушнинг фонетик, акустик ва математик моделлари; функционал лингвистикага оид кибернетик масалалари; тил бирликларининг структураси ва алгоритми орасидаги боғлиқлик моделлари; дастурлаш учун математик моделлари; ахборот технологияларида ишлатиладиган лингвистик ходисалар; нутқда ифода этиладиган тил бирликларининг акустик хусусиятлари, тил моделларини яратиш жараёнини автоматлаштириш;

Табиий - илмий курс

3.5.2.2 Экология. Ҳозирги замон табиий билимлар концепцияси:

Биосфера ва инсон: биосфера қатлами, экотизимлар, организм ва борлиқнинг ўзаро муносабатлари, экология ва инсон соғлиғи, теварак муҳитнинг глобал тугунлари, табиатдан фойдаланиш; табиий ресурслардан оқилона фойдаланиш ва табиатни сақлаш, фан ва техника тараққиёти инсоният меҳнати самараси, унинг турмуш даражасининг яхшиланишига ижобий ва салбий таъсири, атмосфера, гидросфера, ўсимликлар ва ҳайвонот олами, тупроқдан фойдаланиш, фойдали қазилмаларни қазиб чиқариш; инсоният учун ўта хавфли ифлосланишларнинг минтақавий ва умумжаҳон даражасига кўтарилиши.

Табиий фанлар тарихидан: илмий методлар; замонавий табиий фанларнинг бугунги аҳволи ва ривожланиш тенденцияси; билимларнинг интеграцияси ва дифференциацияси, табиатдаги мувозанат, материянинг тузилиши, микро - , макро - ва мегаўлчовлар, кенглик замон ва макон, нисбийлик йўриқлари, симметрия йўриқлари, ўзаро таъсир, ҳолатлар, нисбийлик принциплари, табиатнинг динамик ва статик қонуниятлари, макроскопик жараёнда энергиянинг сақланиш қонуни, кимёвий жараёнлар, материя тузилишидаги биологик хусусиятлар, ҳаётнинг пайдо бўлиши ва у ҳақидаги замонавий концепциялар эволюцион ривожланиш йўллари, тирик организмнинг турли – туманлиги, генетика ва эволюция, инсон физиологияси, соғлиқ, тўйғу, ижод, ишчанлик, биоэтика, инсон, биосфера ва фазовий цикллари.

3.5.2.3 География. Мамлакатшунослик:

Умумий, регионал, табиий географияларнинг ўзаро алоқалари ва тафовутлари; географик қобик ривожланишининг асосий хусусиятлари ва ландшафтларнинг умумий табақаланиши, тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат физик ва иқтисодий географияси; кўл ва дарёлари табиий ресурслари, иқлими, географик ўрни, чегаралари, рельефи, фойдали қазилмалари, мамлакат аҳолиси сони, динамикаси, зичлиги, мамлакатнинг сиёсий ва иқтисодий ривожланиши, мамлакатдаги ички тафовутлар.

Сиёсий тарих: ижтимоий-иқтисодий муаммолар; дин, санъат, адабиёт, ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг ташқи ва ички сиёсати (ибтидоий жамоа тузумидан то ҳозирги замонгача бўлган вақтлар) ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг бошқа минтақалар ва чет мамлакатлар билан иқтисодий, сиёсий ва маданий алоқалари тарихий тараққиётининг қадимий замондан то ҳозирги кунгача бўлган ҳолати; ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг халқаро муносабатларидаги моҳияти ва ўрни ҳамда унинг жаҳон илми ва маданиятига кўшган ҳиссаси.

Буюк Британия, Германия, Франция, Испания мамлакатлари. Географик жойлашишлари. Маъмурий бўлиниши. Сиёсий тузумлари. Давлат тузилишлари. Конституцион ташкилотлар. Олий бошқарув органлари. Сайлов системалари. Иқтисодий тизим. Халқ хўжалиги. Саноат, транспорт. Мол ва хом ашё экспорт ва импорти.

Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-ҳунар таълими. Фан соҳалари. Ўқиш, дам олиш, ёшлар ҳаёти. Маданий ҳаёт. Тили ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг жаҳон миқёсидаги ўрни, уларнинг мустақил Ўзбекистон билан маданий, иқтисодий алоқалари. Географик ҳолатлар, аҳоли ва пул бирликлари.

3.5.3 Умумкасбий фанлар

Лингвистик курс

3.5.3.1 Герман филологиясига кириш (фонетика, грамматика, лексикология, стилистика, ўрганилаётган тил тарихи, роман- герман филологиясига кириш, ўрганилаётган чет ва она тилининг қиёсий типологияси):

Асосий ўрганилаётган тил (инглиз, немис, француз, испан тиллари)нинг шаклланиш босқичлари, қадимги давр тили, Ўрта давр тили, ҳозирги давр тили, чет тили тараққиётининг асосий қонуниятлари, тарихий фонетика, тарихий грамматика, чет тили луғат таркиби бойиб боришининг лингвистик асослари, ўрганилаётган чет тилининг шаклланиши босқичлари, тилнинг типологик тадқиқи, ҳозирги адабий тилнинг умумий ҳолати, ёзувнинг шаклланиши, миллий ёзувнинг тарихий тараққиёти, тилнинг фонетик тизими, ёзув ва товуш муносабатлари, фонетик ҳодисалар, орфоэпия, имло хусусиятлари, пунктуация, тилнинг луғат таркиби, ўз ва ўзлашган қатлам, сўз ва унинг маъноси, тилда кўп маънолик ҳодисаси, синонимия, омонимия, антонимия ҳодисалари, тилнинг морфологик қурилиши, сўз ясаиш усуллари, сўз туркумлари, уларнинг ўзига хос белгилари, грамматик категориялар, ўрганилаётган тилнинг синтактик хусусиятлари, гап қурилиши, гап бўлаклари, гап турлари, содда ва қўшма гаплар, кўчирма ва ўзлаштира гаплар, нутқ жараёнида тўлиқсиз гапларнинг туган ўрни, стилистика, оғзаки ва ёзма нутқ, ўрганилаётган тилнинг функционал услублари, тилнинг нутқ маданияти масалалари, ёзма ва оғзаки нутқда турли услубий воситалардан фойдаланиш, ўрганилаётган чет тилидан она тилига ва она тилидан чет тилига таржима йўллари, матн таржимаси асослари, талабаларда ёзма ва оғзаки нутқни ўстириш, ўрганилаётган чет тилида расмий ҳужжатлар юриши, иш ёзмаларидан фойдаланиш.

3.5.3.2 Тилшуносликка кириш:

Тилшунослик фанининг ўрганиш объекти. Тилшунослик фанининг бошқа фанлар (социология, психология, физиология, фалсафа, тарих ва бошқалар) билан муносабати; филология ва тилшунослик.

Тилнинг пайдо бўлиши ва ривожланиши: тил - ижтимоий ҳодиса; тил ва нутқ бирлиги; тил ва тафаккур бирлиги; тил ва нутқ қатламлари (яруслари).

Матн тилшунослигига кириш. Тилларнинг типологик таснифи: генетик типология; тиллар оиласи тушунчаси; қиёсий типология; тилларнинг функционал типологияси.

Лингвистик таҳлил методлари: уларнинг ўрганиш объектлари ва ўлчовлари қиёсий - тарихий, гап бўлаклари, дистрибутив, бевосита иштирокчилар ва трансформацион таҳлил.

Ёзув. Унинг адабий тил тараққиётидаги ўрни. Ёзув турлари, унинг тараққиёт босқичлари.

Адабиётшуносликка оид курс

3.5.3.3 Адабиётшуносликка кириш:

бадий адабиётнинг умумий хусусиятлари, унинг вазифаси, санъат сифатида инсоният жамияти тараққиётидаги ўрни ва вазифасини; бадий асарнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари, унинг бошқа типдаги матнлардан фарқи, асарнинг бадийлигини таъминловчи воситалар; бадий асарларнинг турлари ва жанрлари. Бадий асарларнинг мавзу хусусиятлари; асар бадийлигини таъминловчи қофия, радиф, вазн, бадий санъатлар ва улар хусусий белгиларининг адабий жараёнда қўлланилиши; миллий адабиёт ва индивидуал ижодкорнинг адабий- ижодий новаторлиги масаласи.

3.5.3.4 Тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиёти:

инглиз, немис, француз, испан адабиётидаги халқ қахрамонлик эпослари, эраизгача бўлган давр адабиёти, илк Ўрта асрлар ва Уйғониш даври гуманист ёзувчилари, классицизм, романтизм, реализм, танқидий реализм, модернизм оқимлари; тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиётининг тарихий тараққиёти. Тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиётини даврлаштириш ҳамда унинг асосий тараққиёт босқичлари; таниқли адабиёт намоёндаларининг ҳаёти ва ижоди ҳақида маълумотга эга бўлиш; ўрганилаётган

адабиётнинг жаҳон маданий ҳаётидаги ўрни ва аҳамияти. Ғарб мамлакатлари адабиётида адабий оқимлар, йўналишлар, адабий турлар ва жанрларнинг даврлараро тараққиёти, тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиётининг ўзаро адабий алоқалари миллатлараро адабий алоқаларнинг адабиёт тараққиётига таъсири; тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиётидаги йирик бадиий асарларнинг, таниқли адабиёт намоёндалари ижодига таъсири.

3.5.4 Ихтисослик фанлари

3.5.4.1 Иккинчи чет тили:

Чет тиллари бўйича мактабда олган таълимни аниқлаш ва такомиллаштириш: янги лексик ва грамматик минимумларни ижтимоий турмуш жараёнида қўллашни ривожлантириш йўллари ва уни нутқнинг барча жараёнларида қўллаш (ёзма, оғзаки, монологик ва диалогик шаклларда). Чет тилларининг бирортасида эркин сўзлашиш; ёзма ва оғзаки таржима; илмий адабиётни аннотация ва рефератлаштириш; илмий - техник таржима; илмий фаолият натижаларини чет тилида расмийлаштириш.

Юқорида келтирилган ихтисослик фанларининг рўйхати ва мазмуни кадрлар буюртмачиларининг талаблари ҳамда бакалаврлар тайёрланадиган ушбу йўналиш фани, техникаси ва технологиясидаги замонавий ютуқларни ҳисобга олган ҳолда таълим муассасаси томонидан ўзгартирилиши мумкин.

3.5.5 Малакавий амалиёт

Педагогик амалиёт:

Етакчи мактаб педагогларининг 20-25 дарсларида қатнашиб, маҳорат орттириш (пассив амалиёт)

Педагогик амалиёт 8 ҳафта (актив амалиёт).

Мактаб педагогик раҳбарлиги остида амалий ва назарий фанларнинг дастури асосида 8-10 синов дарсларини ўтказиш (актив амалиёт);

Етакчи педагог раҳбарлигида ўқувчилар орасида 2-3 тарбиявий тадбир ўтказиш маҳоратига эга бўлиш;

Мактабнинг ўқув ҳужжатлари билан танишиш.

Малакавий амалиёт:

Ўзбекистон Республикаси фанлар академияси ва бошқа илмий ташкилотларда, кутубхоналарда, малакавий- битирув иши учун материаллар йиғиш ва уларни қайта ишлаш, тилшунослик ва адабиётшунослик бўйича етакчи олим ва мутахассислар билан мулоқотларда ҳозирги замон фанининг долзарб масалалар бўйича маслаҳат олиш. Бундан ташқари хорижий мамлакат билан ҳамкорликда иш олиб борадиган ташкилот, фирма, меҳмонхона ва шу каби муассасаларда лисоний амалиёт тажрибаларига эга бўлади.

3.5.6 Битирув малакавий иши (лойихаси)

Малакавий битирув ишлари мавзулари олий ўқув юрти етакчи кафедраси томонидан замонавий фан ва техника ютуқлари ҳамда буюртмачи талаблари ҳисобга олинган ҳолда белгиланади.

Малакавий битирув иши мавзуси назарий -амалий ва илмий- тадқиқот йўналишига эга бўлиши керак.

Малакавий битирув иши вазифалари талабага, асосан 3 курс охирида берилади. Иш 4 курсда умумтаълим ва мутахассис фанларни ўрганиш жараёнида ҳамда уни ушбу стандартда белгиланган вақт давомида бажарилади.

Битирув малакавий ишининг ҳажми етакчи кафедра томонидан белгиланади.

3.5.7 Таълим дастурини амалга ошириш

5120100-Филология (*инглиз, немис, француз, испан тиллари*) таълим йўналиша бўйича бакалаврлар тайёрлашнинг таълим дастури мазкур йўналаш бўйича аккредитацияланган олий таълим муассасаларида замонавий педагогик ва ахборот-коммуникацион технологиялари асосида замонавий техника воситаларидан унумли фойдаланиб амалга оширилади.

Хорижий тилларни талабалар томонидан ўзлаштирилишига ҳамда педагоглар томонидан ўқитилишига эътибор устивор бўлмоғи ва шароит яратилиши лозим.

Малакавий амалиёт алоҳида ишлаб чиқилган амалиёт дастури асосида таълим муассасаларида, замонавий корхоналар, ташкилотлар ва ИТИларда ўтказилади. Шунингдек, амалиёт даврида ихтисослик фанларидан ҳам амалий машғулотлар ўтказилиши назарда тутилади.

Таълим мобайнида талаба Давлат аттестацияси (гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлардан ва хорижий тилдан) топширади ва битирув малакавий иш (лойиҳаси)ни бажаради ҳамда натижасига қараб давлат намунасидаги олий маълумот тўғрисидаги хужжат (диплом) берилади. Давлат аттестацияси ўқув жараёни тугашидан олдин интеграллаш курс бўйича ўтказилади.

4 Бакалаврлар тайёрлаш сифатини назорат қилиш ва баҳолаш

4.1. Бакалаврият йўналишлари бўйича кадрлар тайёрлаш сифатини назорат қилиш қуйидагилардан иборат:

ички назорат – олий таълим муассасаси томонидан амалга оширилади. Ички назорат олий таълимнинг бошқарувчи ваколатли давлат идораси тасдиқлаган Назоратнинг рейтинг тизими тўғрисидаги низом асосида ўтказилади;

якуний давлат назорати - ўз ичига фанлар бўйича давлат аттестацияси ва давлат таълим стандартига мувофиқ битирув иши ҳимоясини ўз ичига олади;

давлат-жамоат назорати - олий таълимнинг бошқарувчи ваколатли давлат идораси, жамоат ташкилотлари ва кадрларни талаб қилувчилар томонидан белгиланган тартибда ўтказилади;

ташқи назорат - Вазирлар Маҳкамаси Давлат тест маркази қошидаги Кадрлар тайёрлаш сифатини назорат қилиш, педагог кадрлар ва таълим муассасалари аттестацияси бошқармаси томонидан белгиланган тартибда амалга оширилади.

Тайёрланган кадрлар сифатини баҳолаш кадрлар истеъмолчилари томонидан меҳнат фаолияти жараёнида амалга оширилади.

4.2 Олий таълим муассасаси:

- давлат аттестацияси ва аккредитацияси ҳақидаги низомда кўзда тутилган бакалаврлар

тайёрлаш бўйича мазкур стандарт талабларига ва сифатига амал қилишга;

-профессор- ўқитувчилар таркиби ва ўқув-ёрдамчи ходимлар малакавий талабларга тўла мос келишига;

-интеграллаштириган курс фанларининг дастурларида назарда тутилган ўқув-методик адабиётлар, ўқув-услубий мажмуалар, шунингдек, яқка тартибда ишлаш ва мустақил тайёргарлик учун материаллар билан таъминланганлиги;

-ўқув жараён моддий-техникавий жиҳатдан таъминланганига тўлиқ жавобгар ҳисобланади.

5 Эслатма

5.1 Олий таълим муассасасига қуйидаги:

-курс турлари учун ўқув материалларини ўзлаштиришга ажратиладиган соатлар миқдорини 5% чегарасида, блокга кирувчи курслар учун – 10% чегарасида, мазкур стандартда кўзда тутилган минимал миқдорни таъминлаган ҳолда талаба ҳафталик максимал юкламасидан оширмаган ҳолда ўзгартириш;

-умумкасбий фанла блокига мос равишда гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий, математик ва табиий-илмий фанлар айрим қисмларини қай даражада чуқурлаштириб ўқитишни белгилаш;

- курслар мазмунини фан, техника ва технология ютуқларини ҳисобга олиб ўзгартириш ҳуқуқлари берилади

- битирув малакавий иш (лойиҳа) мавзусини белгилаш олий таълим муассасаси ректори томонидан расмийлаштирилади.

5.2 Курс ишлари (лойихалар)га фан бўйича ўқув фаолияти тури сифатида қаралади ва уни ўрганишга ажратилган соат чегарасида бажарилади.

5.3 Давлат таълим стандартларини билиш профессор-ўқитувчилар таркибини тегишли олий таълим йўналиши бўйича танлов асосида саралаш шартларидан бири ҳисобланади.

Илова

5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши бўйича таълим дастурининг тузилиши

Т/р	Фанлар блоклари, интеграллашган курслар ва блоклар номлари	Умумий юкларнинг ҳажми Соатларда
1.00	Гуманитар ва ижтимоий-иқтисодий фанлар	1704
2.00	Математик ва табиий-илмий фанлар	598
	<i>Математик коммуникатив курс</i>	352
2.01	Олий математика. Информатик лингвистика	352
	<i>Табиий-илмий курс</i>	246
2.02	Экология. Ҳозирги замон табиий билимлар концепцияси	164
2.03	География. Мамлакатшунослик	82
3.00	Умумқасбий фанлар	3280
	<i>Лингвистик курслар</i>	2894
3.01	Герман филологиясига кириш	2812
3.02	Тилшуносликка кириш	82
	<i>Адабиётшуносликка оид курслар</i>	386
3.03	Адабиётшуносликка кириш	82
3.04	Тили ўрганилаётган мамлакат адабиёти	304
4.00	Ихтисослик фанлар	704
4.01	Иккинчи чет тили	704
5.00	Қўшимча фанлар	490
5.01	Ҳарбий тайёргарлик	490
6.00	Танлов фанлар	568
	Жами	7344
	Малакавий амалиёт	1296
	Битирув малакавий иши	378
	Давлат аттестацияси	54
	Жами	9072

Библиографик маълумотлар

УДК 4

Гуруҳ У

ОКС

Таянч сўзлар: Мутахассислик, тадқиқот, лингвистика (тилшунослик), касбий фаолият, ахборот-коммуникатив кўникма, ахборот технологияси, филология, асосий чет тили, семинар, амалий машғулот, амалиёт, мустақил иш, ўқув жараёни, бакалавр, бакалаврият, университет, ихтисослик, касбий малака ва кўникма.

ИШЛАБ ЧИҚИЛГАН:

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20__ йил « ____ » _____.

М.Ў.

КЕЛИШИЛГАН:

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М.Ў.

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

Рўйхатга олинди Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий № _____ ва ўрта махсус
таълим вазирлигининг 20__ йил “_____” _____ даги “_____” – сонли 20__ йил «__»
_____ буйруғи билан тасдиқланган

ГЕРМАН ФИЛОЛОГИЯСИГА КИРИШ

(инглиз тили)

фанининг

ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси:	200000 - Гуманитар фанлар ва санъат
Таълим соҳаси:	220000 - Гуманитар фанлар
Таълим йўналиши:	5120100 - Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича)

Тошкент – 2012

Фаннинг ўқув дастури Олий ва ўрта махсус, касб-ҳунар таълими ўқув-услубий бирлашмалари фаолиятини Мувофиқлаштирувчи Кенгашнинг 20__ йил “__” _____даги “__” – сонли мажлис баёни билан маъқулланган.

Фаннинг ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетидида ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчилар:

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Фаннинг ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетининг

Илмий кенгашида кўриб чиқилган ва тавсия қилинган. 20__ йил _____ даги “__” – сонли баённома

Кириш

Герман филологиясига кириш ихтисослик фани сифатида тилни ўрганилаётган мамлакатларнинг бадиий адабиёт намуналарини ўқиш ва мазмунини англаш, даврий матбуот нашрларда баён этилган асосий воқеа-ҳодисалар тўғрисида ўқиб, маълумотга эга бўлиши ҳамда уларни оғзаки сўзлаб бериш, мазмунни ёзма баён этишга ўргатиш кўзда тутилади. Ушбу фандан ўтиладиган амалий машғулотларда матн билан ишлаш асосида талабаларнинг нутқий малакасини ошириш орқали турли хил нутқ услубларини билиб олиш имкониятини ҳосил қилди.

Оғзаки ва ёзма нутқ амалиёти, амалий (назарий) фонетика ва грамматика, лексикология, стилистика, қиёсий типология дарсларида талабалар олган билимларини умумий тилшунослик, тил тарихи, назарий фонетика, грамматика, лексикология, стилистика, таржима, қиёсий типология, шунингдек психология, педагогика, методика соҳалари бўйича назарий курсларни ўрганиш жараёнида фойдалана билиши шарт.

Ўқув фанининг мақсади ва вазифалари

Ўқув фанининг мақсади - талабаларда лингвистик, коммуникатив ва лингво-мамлакатшунослик имкониятларни шакллантиришдир. Лингвистик компетентлик тил тизими ҳақидаги билим ва унинг хорижий тилда коммуникация жараёнида амал қилиш қоидаларини ўз ичига қамраб олади. Коммуникатив компетентлик нутқий коммуникация шартларига биноан хорижий тилда коммуникация жараёнини назарда тутати. Муомала (нутқ) вазияти мурожаат кимга қаратилгани ва суҳбатдошларнинг ўзаро муносабати коммуникация жиҳатдан ўта муҳимдир. Лингво-мамлакатшунослик компетенцияси тили ўрганилаётган мамлакатнинг айна пайтдаги ижтимоий-иқтисодий ва маданий ривожини ва шунга мос тарзда нутқ муомала маданиятини назарда тутати. Оғзаки ва ёзма нутқ амалиёти фанининг касбий педагогик мақсади эса ўрганилаётган тилни адаптив даражада конкрет педагогик муомала малакаларини эгаллашни (ўқувчиларнинг интеллектуал фаолиятини бошқариш, нутқ фаолиятини муайян мақсадга йўналтириш, нутқ фаолиятини ташкил этиш, уни назорат қилиш ва х.к.) ўз ичига қамраб олади.

Фанининг вазифаси – нутқ амалиёти талабаларнинг мантиқий тафаккурини, чет тилидаги нутқий қобилиятини, хотирлаш турлари, фикрлари, умумнутқий ва умумтаълимий йўриқларни, тил бўйича мустақил ишлаш малакаларини ривожлантиради. Асосий чет тили дарсларида амалий ва назарий грамматика, мамлакатшунослик, лексикология, тил тарихи, стилистика, шунингдек, психология, методика ва бошқа фанларда ўзлаштирган билим ва малакаларни қўлланилиши кўзда тутилади.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билимига, кўникма ва малакасига қўйиладиган талаблар

“Герман филологиясига кириш (инглиз тили)” ўқув фанини ўзлаштириш жараёнида бакалавр:

- ўрганилаётган тилнинг морфологик тузилиши ва товуш тизими; ўрганилаётган тилдан ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилга таржима амалиёти спецификаси ва стилистик хусусиятлари, меъёрий грамматика асослари;
- ўрганилаётган тилнинг ривожини ва тил доирасидаги асосий экстралингвистик шаклланишнинг асосий факторлари ҳамда тарихий манбалари, унинг диалектик хилма-хиллиги;
- мулоқотнинг оғзаки ва ёзма турлари;
- хорижий тилларда фикрни лисоний ифода қилиш усуллари ва уларнинг нутқ оғзаки ва ёзма шаклларида қўлланилиши қонуниятлари;
- нутқнинг диалогик ва монологик шакллари ҳақида **тасаввурга эга бўлиши**;
- тилнинг замонавий ҳолати тавсифи, ёзув, графика, орфография, унқуация, лексик-грамматик туркумлар, сўз тузилиши, бошқа тиллардан сўз кириб келишининг умумий тарихини;
- содда ва қўшма гаплар, сўз бирикмалари синтаксиси, лексика ва ёзма нутқ, диалектик лексиканинг асосий хусусиятлари;

- ўрганилаётган тилда сўзловчи шахсларнинг кенг тарқалган кундалик ва касбий вазиятларда сўзлаган нутқини тушуна олиш: эшитилаётган матнлардан (радио, телевидение, видеокассеталар) ҳамда илмий матнларни тушуна олиш ва улардан ўзи учун зарур бўлган ахборотни ола билиш;

- матнларни лингвистик жиҳатдан таҳлил қилиш, турли жанрга оид матнларни чет тилидан она тилига ва она тилидан чет тилига оғзаки ва ёзма таржима қилиш;

- жаҳоннинг турли давлатлари маданияти хусусиятларини қиёслаш, солиштириш ва таҳлил қилиш;

- лисоний ва ўлкашуносликка алоқадор билимларни кенгайтириш ва чуқурлаштириш, коммуникатив кўникмаларини фаоллаштириш учун замонавий инфор­мацион технологиялардан фойдаланиш малака­сига эга бўлиши ва улардан фойдалана олиши;

- асосий ўрганилаётган чет тилдаги ҳозирги адабий шаклида турли хил мураккаб­лиг­даги матнларнинг ёзма таржима қилиш;

- ўрганилаётган тилда хорижий мутахассислар билан касбий ва маиший вазиятларда жонли мулоқот олиб бориш;

- ҳар хил мавзу ва матнларни ўқитиш олиб борил­фётган тилга суҳбат, нутқ ва маърузаларни оғзаки изчил ва синхрон таржима қила олиш;

- ўрганилаётган чет тили ва ўқитиш олиб борилаётган тилдаги маълумотларни қўллаб аннотация, реферат, маълумотлар тўплаш ва тузиш;

- янги инфор­мацион технологиялардан касбга йўналтирилган мақсадларда фойдалана олиш кўникмасига эга бўлиши зарур.

Фаннинг ўқув режадаги бошқа фанлар билан ўзаро боғлиқлиги ва услубий жиҳатдан узвий кетма – кетлиги

Асосий ўрганилаётган чет (инглиз) тили фани айниқса, амалий фонетика ва амалий грамматика, инглиз адабиёти фанлари билан бевосита боғлиқ бўлиб, ушбу дарсларда талабалар олган билимларини умумий тилшунос­лик, тил тарихи, назарий фонетика, грамматика, лексикология, стилистика, таржима, қиёсий типология, шунингдек, психология, педагогика, методика фанлари бўйича назарий курсларни ўрганиш жараёнида фойдалана билишлари шарт. Бу инглиз тили фанининг ушбу фанлар билан алоқадорлигини ва мазмуний узвийлигини таъминлайди.

Фаннинг амалиётдаги ўрни

Хорижий филология таълим йўналиши бўйича бакалавр тайёрлаш босқичининг ажралмас бўғини сифатида асосий ўрганилаётган чет (инглиз) тили умум­касбий фан ҳисобланиб, талаба-бакалаврларнинг умумий ўрта таълим мактаблари, академик лицейлар ва касб-хунар коллежларида фаолият кўрсатишга ёрдам беради. Бу эса талабаларнинг касбий фаолиятида инглиз тилини амалий қўллаш малакасини ҳосил қилади.

Фанни ўқитишда замонавий ахборот ва педагогик технологиялар

Талабаларнинг Герман филологиясига кириш (инглиз тили) фанини ўзлаштиришлари учун ўқитишнинг илғор ва замонавий усуллари­дан фойдаланиш, янги инфор­мацион-педагогик технологияларни тадбиқ қилиш муҳим аҳамиятга эгадир. Фанни ўзлаштиришда дарслик, ўқув ва услубий қўлланмалар, маъруза матнлари, тарқатма ва электрон материаллардан фойдаланилади. Ушбу фанни ўрганишда таълимнинг замонавий методларидан, яъни электрон почта, чат каналлар ва виртуал ҳақиқийликни ўзида жамлаган интернетдан фойдаланиш лозим, яъни электрон ўқув адабиётлар ва маълумотлар банки билан ишлаш интернет тармоғидан мақсадли фойдаланиш бу каби билим ва кўникмаларни ҳосил қилиш ва ривожлантиришда катта самара беради.

Асосий қисм

Фаннинг амалий ва назарий машғулоти мазмуни

Ўрганилаётган тилнинг нутқий ва ўзаро мулоқот юрита олиш малакаси ва маҳоратини лингвистик, коммуникатив, тил, ижтимоий-маданий билимлар воситасида шакллантиришдан иборатдир. Бу ўзга тил маданиятини ўрганиш бўлиб, унинг таркибига:

Ўқиш, билим олиш, тарбия ва ривожланиш нуқтаи назаридан чет тилини коммуникатив ўқитиш жараёнида берилиши мумкин бўлган маънавий бойликлар киради. Ўзга тил маданиятини ўқитиш учун фаолият турлари: сўзлашув, тинглаш, ўқиш ва ёзув бўйича меъёрий жиҳатидан тўғри ва функционал муқобил нутқий кўникма ва маҳоратга эга бўлиш керак бўлади. Билим олиш жиҳати талабалар томонидан мамлакатнинг ижтимоий-сиёсий ҳаёти тўғрисида, ўз мамлакати ҳамда тили ўрганилаётган мамлакатдаги моддий ва маънавий ишлаб чиқариш соҳалари тўғрисидаги маълумотларни ўзлаштиришдан иборатдир.

Ўзга тил маданиятининг тарбиялаш жиҳати таркибига сўзлашув маданиятида маданиятлараро муносабатни таъминлай оладиган, маданиятлараро алоқаларда ўз мамлакати номидан вакиллик қила оладиган, ўз маданияти ва бошқа маданиятларнинг маънавий бойликларига ҳурмат билан муносабатда бўладиган коммуникатив фаол шахсни тарбиялаш киради.

Ўзга тил маданиятининг ривожлантирувчи жиҳати нутқий ва коммуникатив қобилиятлар, жумладан, фонетик эшитиш, фарқлаш, ўхшатиш, мантиқий баён этиш, тилни сезиш, нутқ фаолиятининг турли шакллари ва усулларидан (ёзма ва оғзаки, паралингвистик, экстралингвистик ва бошқалар) фойдаланиш қобилияти; нутқ фаолияти билан боғлиқ руҳий функциялар (фикрлаш, хотирлаш, эътибор қилиш, тасаввур қилиш, интеллект-ақл-идроқ, таҳлил қилиш, синтез қилиш, умумлаштириш); феъл-атвор хусусиятлари: меҳнатсеварлик, иродалилик, собитқадамлик, фаоллик ва бошқалар; маданиятлараро ўзаро муносабатга асосланиш; мустақил фаолият юритишга тайёр бўлиш. Мазкур ўқув фани ўз хусусиятига кўра ижтимоий ҳаёт билан бевосита ва билвоста боғлиқ ҳолда жамиятнинг турли соҳаларида учрайдиган мавзуларни қамраб олишга ҳаракат қилади. Шунга кўра мавзулар кўлами кенг ва рангбаранг. Умумлашган ва жамланган шаклда асосий чет тили бўйича бакалаврият йўналишининг барча тўрт босқичи учун қуйидаги мавзулар тавсия этилади:

1. Ўзбекистон ва тили ўрганилаётган давлатларда олий таълим.
2. Болалар тарбияси муаммолари.
3. Келажакдаги мутахассислик (касбий фаолият ва бизнесда қандай қилиб муваффақиятга эришиш мумкин)
4. Ўзбекистон ва тили ўрганилаётган давлатларда суд ва суд амалиёти
5. Адабиёт, мусиқа ва ижодий фаолиятнинг бошқа турлари.
6. АҚШ, Буюк Британия ва Ўзбекистон халқлари урф-одатлари
7. Ўзбекистон иқтисодиётини қайта қуриш тамойиллари.
8. Дўстлик, муҳаббат, оила муаммолари;
9. Радио, телевидение ва матбуот (тижоратда рекламанинг роли)
10. Маиший хизмат кўрсатиш.
11. Ўзбекистон Республикасининг миллий рамзлари.
12. Замонавий жамиятда оиланинг ўрни.
13. Талабаларнинг ҳаёти ва ўқиш тарзи.
14. Мода ва харид қилиш (ўзбек халқи ва инглиз тилида гапирувчи халқларнинг миллий кийимлари).
15. Ўзбекистон ва инглиз тилида сўзлашувчи мамлакатларнинг миллий таомлари.
16. Телефон орқали мулоқот.
17. Об-ҳаво, табиат манзаралари, табиий офатлар. Ўзбекистон ва инглиз тилида сўзлашувчи мамлакатларнинг миллий байрамлари. Театрга ташриф Шоу-бизнес. Замонавий инсон қиёфаси (инсон ва жамият, инсон ва табиат).

Грамматика

Грамматиканинг тил аспекти орасидаги ўрни. Морфология. Синтаксис. Грамматик категория. Грамматик маъно ва грамматик шакл. Грамматик алоқани ифода қилишнинг усуллари. Синтетик шакл. Аналитик шакл. Супплетивизм. Тилнинг асосий бирликлари. Сўз. Морфема. Сўз бирикмаси. Гап.

От

Сўз туркумларига ажратишнинг асосий тамойиллари. Отнинг асосий белгилари. Отларнинг семантик таснифи. Отларнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Отнинг грамматик категориялари. Сон категорияси. Бошқа тиллардан кирган отларда кўплик шаклининг ясалиши. Киши номлари ёки фамилияларнинг кўплик шакли. Ўзгармас шаклдаги отлар. Фақат бирликда ишлатиладиган отлар. (*Singularia Tantum*) Фақат кўпликда ишлатиладиган отлар (*Pluralia Tantum*). Келишик категорияси. Бош ва қаратқич келишик шаклларининг функционал тавсифи. Отнинг гапдаги вазифалари. Отларда род категориясининг муаммолари. От яшаш. Абстракт отлар ясовчи суффикслар. Кичрайтириш ва эркалатиш маъносини ифодаловчи суффикслар. Кўшма отларнинг ясалиш усуллари. Кўшма отларнинг структураси.

Сифат

Сифатнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Аслий ва нисбий сифатлар. Сифат даражалари. Сифат даражаларини яшаш усуллари: Синтетик усул, аналитик усул, супплетив усул. Сифат маъноларини кўчайтириш ва кучсизлантириш. Сифатларнинг отлашиши. Отлашган сифатларнинг маъносига кўра турлари. Сифатнинг гапдаги вазифаси. Сифат воситасида ясаладиган бирикмалар. Сифат яшаш. Суффикслар ёрдамида сифат яшаш. Кўшма сифатлар.

Олмош

Олмошларнинг умумий классификацияси. Олмошларнинг шахс кўрсатишига кўра турлари. Олмошларнинг лексик-грамматик турлари. Кишилик олмошлари. Кишилик олмошларининг грамматик категориялари. Эгалик олмошлари. Эгалик олмошларининг боғлиқ шакли. Эгалик олмошларининг мустақил (абсолют) шакли. Ўзлик олмошлари. Ўзлик олмошларининг грамматик категориялари. Эмфатик (кучайтирувчи) олмошлар. Кўрсатиш олмошлари. Биргалик олмошлари. Сўроқ олмошлари. Нисбий олмошлар. Боғловчи олмошлар. Гумон олмошлари. Шахс билдирувчи гумон олмошлари. Белгилаш олмошлари. Бўлишсизлик (инкор) олмошлари. Олмошларнинг синтактик вазифалари.

Сон

Соннинг структурасига кўра турлари. Соннинг умумий классификацияси. Санок сонлар. Тартиб сонлар. Каср сонлар. Хронологик сонлар. Соннинг гапдаги вазифалари. Сонларнинг отлашуви.

Равиш

Равишнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Равишларнинг маъносига кўра турлари. Ўрин равиши. Пайт равиши. Ҳолат равиши. Такрорий равишлар. Даража, миқдор ва ўлчов равишлари. Сўроқ равишлари. Сабаб ва натижа равишлари. Равиш даражалари. Равишларнинг гапдаги ўрни. Ҳолат категориясини билдирувчи сўзлар.

Феъл

Феълларнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Содда феъллар. Ясама феъллар. Кўшма феъллар. Мураккаб (ёки таркибли) феъллар. Феълларнинг асосий шакллари. Тўғри ва нотўғри феъллар. Супплетив феъллар. Ўтимли ва ўтимсиз феъллар. Икки хил маъноли феъллар.

Феълнинг функционал турлари

Феълларнинг синтактик функциясига кўра турлари. Мустақил (маъно билдирувчи) феъллар. Боғловчи феъллар, Ёрдамчи феъллар, Модаль феъллар. **То be феъли.** *To be* феълнинг мустақил феъл, боғловчи, модаль ва ёрдамчи феъл тарзида ишлатилиши. *To have* феълнинг асосий функциялари (асосий феъл, ёрдамчи, модаль феъл). *To do* феълнинг функциялари (асосий феъл ва ёрдамчи феъл). Боғловчи феъл вазифасида ишлатилувчи феъллар, *to be, to become, to feel, to get, to grow, to remain, to keep, to seem, to look, to go, to fall, to come, to appear, to sit, to lie* феъллари. **Модал феъллар:** *Can (would)* ва унинг эквиваленти *to be able (to), May (might)* ва унинг эквиваленти *to be allowed (to), Must* ва унинг эквиваленти *To have (to), to be (to), Need* феъли, *Dare* феъли, *Ought* феъли. *Shall* феъли, *Should* феъли, *Will* феъл, *Would* феъли.

Феълларнинг грамматик категориялари

Нисбат категорияси. Майл категорияси. Шахс ва сон категорияси. Замон ва аспект категориялари. Ноаниқ (оддий) замонлар группаси. Ҳозирги ноаниқ замон (Оддий ҳозирги замон) Ноаниқ ҳозирги замоннинг ишлатилиши. Оддий ўтган замон. Оддий ўтган замоннинг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Оддий келаси замоннинг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Оддий келаси замоннинг функционал вариантлари (*to be going to*). Давомли замонлар гуруҳи. Ҳозирги давомли замоннинг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Давомли замонларда ишлатилмайдиган феъллар. Ўтган давомли замоннинг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Келаси давомли замоннинг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Перфект замони шакллари. Ҳозирги замон перфект шаклининг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Ўтган замон перфект шаклининг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Келаси замон перфект шаклининг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Перфект давомли замон шаклининг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Нисбат категорияси. Аниқ нисбат. Мажхул нисбат. Мажхул нисбатда турли замон шаклларининг ишлатилиши. Мажхул нисбатда ўтимлилик ва ўтимсизлик. Пассив шакли ва кўшма от кесим. Иш-ҳаракат пассиви. *Get* ёрдамчи феъли ёрдамада ясаладиган мажхул структуралар. Бир объектли ва икки объектли мажхул қурилмалар. Мажхул нисбат маъносини ифодаловчи конструкциялар. Каузатив маъносини ифодаловчи конструкциялар. Ўзлик маъносини ифодаловчи конструкциялар. Биргалик маъносини ифодаловчи конструкциялар *With* –ли фраза, *by* ли фразаларнинг ишлатилиши.

Майл категорияси

Аниқлик майли, Буйруқ майли. Шарт майли. Майл шаклларининг ясалиши ва ишлатилиши. Шарт майлининг синтетик ва аналитик шакллари. Ҳозирги замон ва ўтган замон синтетик шакллари. Майл ёрдамчи феъллари ва уларнинг функционал характеристикаси. Шарт майли шаклларининг содда гапларда ишлатилиши. Шарт майлининг шарт эргаш гапли кўшма гапда ишлатилиши. Шарт майлининг мақсад ва натижа эргаш гапда ишлатилиши. Пайт ва ўрин эргаш гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Тўсиқсизлик ва қиёс эргаш гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Эга ва кесим эргаш гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Тўлдирувчи ва аниқловчи эргаш гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Изоҳловчи эргаш гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Ҳис–ҳаяжон билдирувчи гапларда шарт майлининг ишлатилиши. Феълнинг тусланмаган (шахсиз) шакллари.

Сифатдош

Сифатдошда перфект категорияси. Сифатдошда нисбат категорияси. Сифатдош I нинг гаптаги синтактик функцияси. Сифатдош II нинг гаптаги синтактик функцияси. Сифатдошли предикатив конструкциялар. Сифатдошли объектив конструкция. Сифатдошли субъектив конструкция. Сифатдошли номинатив абсолют конструкция. Сифатдошли предлогли абсолют конструкция.

Герундий

Герундийда перфект категорияси. Герундийда нисбат категорияси. Герундийнинг гаптаги синтактик функцияси. Герундийли предикатив конструкция. Герундий, сифатдош ва отлашган феъл.

Инфинитив

Инфинитивда перфект категорияси. Инфинитивда нисбат категорияси. Инфинитивда аспект (тарз) категорияси. Инфинитивнинг гаптаги синтактик вазифаси. Инфинитивли объектив конструкция. Инфинитивли субъектив конструкция. *For-to-Inf* конструкция. Инфинитивнинг “*to*” сиз қўлланилиши.

Модал сўзлар

Модал сўзларнинг семантик гуруҳланиши. Ёрдамчи сўз туркумлари.

Кўмакчи

Кўмакчиларнинг маъносига кўра турлари. Предлогнинг гаптаги ўрни. Предлогларнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Предлог ва равишлар ўртасидаги омонимик алоқалар.

Боғловчи

Боғловчиларнинг гапдаги вазифасига кўра турлари.

Юкламалар

Юкламаларнинг маъноларига кўра турлари.

Ундов сўзлар. Артикль

Ноаниқ артикль. Ноаниқ артикльнинг ишлатилиши. Аниқ артикль. Аниқ артикльнинг ишлатилиши. Артикльнинг ишлатилмаслиги, тушиб қолиш ҳолатлари.

Синтаксис. Сўз бирикмаси

Сўз бирикмасининг компонентлари орасидаги синтак-тик муносабатлар. Бошқарув. Мослашув. Битишув.

Гап

Гап турлари. Дарак гаплар. Дарак гапда сўз таркиби. Дарак гапда инкорнинг ифодаланиши. Сўроқ гаплар. Сўроқ гапининг турлари. Умумий сўроқ гаплар. Махсус сўроқ гап. Альтернатив сўроқ гап. Ажратилган сўроқ гап. Риторик сўроқ гап. Буйруқ гаплар. Эмоционал гаплар. Гапларнинг структурасига кўра турлари. Содда гап. Икки таркибли гап. Бир составли гаплар. Тўлиқсиз гаплар. Шахсиз гаплар. Гап бўлаклари. Гапнинг бош бўлаклари. Эга. Эганинг ифодалиши. Эганинг It сўзи билан ифодаланиши. There+to be билан бошланадиган гаплар. Кесим. Кесимнинг турлари. Кесимнинг ифодаланиши. Кесимнинг эга билан мослашуви. Гапнинг иккинчи даражали бўлаклари. Тўлдирувчи. Тўлдирувчининг ифодаланиши йўллари. Тўлдирувчининг турлари. Воситасиз тўлдирувчи. Воситали тўлдирувчи. Предлогли тўлдирувчи. Мураккаб тўлдирувчи. Ўзакдош тўлдирувчи. Аниқловчи. Аниқловчининг турлари. Аниқловчининг ифодаланиш йўллари. Аниқловчининг турлари. Изоҳловчи. Ҳол. Ҳолнинг ифодаланиш йўллари. Ҳолнинг мазмун жиҳатдан турлари. Гапнинг уюшиқ булаклари. Гапларнинг ажратилган бўлаклари. Киритма элементлар.

Кўшма гап

Боғланган кўшма гап. Эргашган кўшма гап. Эга эргаш гап. Кесим эргаш гап. Аниқловчи эргаш гап. Аниқловчи эргаш гапнинг турлари. Тўлдирувчи эргаш гап. Ҳол эргаш гапли кўшма гап. Пайт эргаш гап. Ўрин эргаш гап. Сабаб эргаш гап. Мақсад эргаш гап. Натижа эргаш гап. Тўсиқсиз эргаш гап. Шарт эргаш гап. Равиш эргаш гап. Қиёс эргаш гап. Кириш гаплар. Аралаш кўшма гап ёки боғланган эргашган кўшма гап. Замонларнинг мослашуви. Кўчирма ва ўзлаштирма гаплар. Кўчирма гап таркибининг дарак гапларда ўзлаштирма гапга айлантеририлиши. Буйруқ ва илтимос маъноларини билдирувчи гапларнинг ўзлаштирма гап таркибида берилиши. Кўчирма гапдаги ундов гапларнинг ўзлаштирма гапда ўзгариши. Саломлашиш ва хайрлашиш пайтида қўлланиладиган ибораларни ўзлаштирма гапда берилиши. Фокус, тема ва эмфаза. Информацион фокус. Нисбат ва ўзгартиришлар. Тема ва инверсия. Экзистенциал гаплар.

Пунктуация

Нукта. Сўроқ белгиси. Ундов белгиси. Икки нукта. Кўп нукта. Кўштирноқ. Вергул. Нуктали вергул. Тире.

Фонетика

Фонетиканинг тилшуносликда тутган ўрни. Фонетика нутқ товушлари ҳақидаги фан сифатида. Нутқ товушларининг ҳосил бўлиш қонуниятлари. Фонетикада адабий талаффуз нормаси. RP (Received Pronunciation) (Англия адабий талаффуз нормаси) - ўқув нормаси сифатида. Инглиз тилининг халқаро тил даражасига кўтарилиши ва талаффуз турлари. Британия инглиз тили (BE) ва Америка инглиз тили (AE) талаффузи ўртасида мавжуд фарқлар. Адабий талаффузнинг функционал-стилистик хусусиятлари. Инглиз тили фонетик қурилишининг қисмлари. Сегмент фонемалар: унли ва ундош товушлар, уларнинг бир биридан фарқи, товушлар дистрибуцияси ва бирикиши ва улар ўртасидаги артикуляцион ўзгаришлар. Инглиз тилининг бўғин қурилиши: бўғин ясаилиши ва бўғин ажратилиши. Инглиз тилида сўз урғуси, унинг ўрни, даражаси, вазифалари. Инглиз тили интонацияси ва унинг ташкилий қисмлари-нутқ мелодикаси, гап урғуси, темпорал ва

тембрал бўлақларнинг яхлитлиги ва уларнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари. Интонациянинг нутқдаги ўрни ва вазифалари.

Ҳозирги инглиз тилида сегмент фонемалар

Сегмент фонемаларнинг артикуляцион томони: товушлар ҳосил бўлишининг тўрт механизми (куч, тебраниш, резонаторлик ва тўсиқни енгиш), уларга алоқадор бўлган нутқ органлари. Нутқ органларининг тузилиши, фаолияти ва вазифалари. Унли товушларни тасниф қилишда ўзбек, рус, инглиз ва америка олимларининг фикрлари. Унлиларнинг талаффуз турғунлигига кўра (монофтонг, дифтонг, дифтонгоид), тилнинг горизонтал ва вертикал ҳаракатига кўра, лабларнинг ҳолатига кўра, тарихий чўзиқлигига кўра, нутқ органларининг таранглашувига кўра таснифи. Инглиз тили унлиларини рус ва ўзбек тили унлилари билан қиёслаш. Ундош товушларни тасниф қилишда рус, ўзбек, инглиз ва америка олимларининг фикрлари. Ундош товушларни товуш пайчаларининг иштирокига кўра ва талаффуз кучига кўра; фаол ва пассив нутқ органларига кўра, товуш ҳосил бўлишида тўсиқнинг турига кўра ва шовқиннинг характерига кўра, кичик тилнинг фаолиятига кўра таснифи. Инглиз тилида аффрикат товушларининг сони ҳақида фикрлар. Инглиз тили ундошларини рус ва ўзбек тили ундошлари билан қиёслаш. Унли ва ундош товушларнинг ҳосил бўлишида асосий фарқлар. Турли тилларда мавжуд бир хил товушларнинг сифат жиҳатидан фарқланиши. Артикуляцион база тушунчаси. Сегмент фонемалар ҳосил бўлишининг акустик томони: нутқ товушларининг, физик хусусиятлари (товуш тебраниши, чўзиқлиги, овоз тони), уларнинг артикуляцион шакли. Сегмент фонемаларнинг фонологик томони: фонемага таъриф бериш муаммоси. Фонеманинг уч хусусияти яхлитлигидан иборатлиги: 1) унинг материал (талаффуз) томони; 2) абстрактлиги, умумийлиги ва 3) функционал, яъни маъно фарқлай олиш хусусияти. Фонема ва унинг вариантлари (аллофонлари). Сегмент фонемаларнинг конститутив ва дистинктив вазифалари. Инглиз тилида урғусиз унлилар ва уларнинг таснифи. Транскрипция ва унинг турлари. Инглиз тилида нутқ товушларининг ўзгариши ва уларнинг турлари. Бу ҳақида Москва ва Санкт олимларининг қарашлари. Ассимиляция, аккомодация ва элизия каби товуш ўзгариши хусусиятлари.

Инглиз тилида бўғин қурилиши

Бўғин фонетиканинг талаффуз бирлиги сифатида. Бўғиннинг нутқдаги вазифалари. Инглиз тилида бўғин ҳосил қилувчи товушлар. Бўғиннинг таркибий қисмлари ва турлари. Бўғин бошида ва охирида унли ва ундошларнинг бирика олиши. Ҳозирги инглиз тилида бўғин ажратиш қоидалари. Бўғин ҳақида мавжуд назариялар. Бўғиннинг вазифалари.

Инглиз тилида сўз урғуси

Сўз урғуси тушунчаси, уларнинг турлари (динамик, мусиқий, сифат ва миқдор урғулари). Инглиз тилида сўз урғусининг хусусиятлари. Урғунинг ўрни ва даражаси. Урғу ўрнини белгиловчи омиллар (рецессив, ритмик, грамматик ва семантик), уларнинг ўзаро муносабати. Инглиз тилида сўз урғусининг вазифалари.

Инглиз тилида интонация

Интонация таърифи. Тор ва кенг таъриф. Интонациянинг ташкилий қисмлари ва уларнинг вазифалари. Интонация ва просодия. Интонациянинг мелодик компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Текст ҳосил қилишда мелодик компонентнинг роли. Мелодик компонентнинг турлари. Интонациянинг гап урғуси компоненти, унинг таърифи ва вазифалари. Гап урғусининг турлари. Гап урғуси ва сўз урғуси муносабати. Инглиз тилида гап урғусининг матн тузишда ритмик ва интонацион гуруҳлар ҳосил қилишдаги роли. Гап урғусининг мелодик компонент билан ўзаро муносабати ва гапнинг коммуникатив марказини ҳосил қилиш қобиляти. Гап урғусининг вазифалари. Интонацияни ёзма ифодалаш турлари (Л. Армстронг ва И. Уорд системаси ва Р. Кингдон методи). Америкалик дискриптивистлар томонидан интонациянинг рақамли ва поҳонали ифодаланиши. Интонацияда нутқ тезлиги (темп), овоз бўёғи (тембр), пауза (тўхтама) ва ритм (урғули ва урғусиз бўғинлар кетма-кетлиги) каби бирликларнинг вазифалари.

Интонациянинг фонологик вазифаси. Интонация тушунчаси. Интонациянинг матн ҳосил қилиш вазифаси.

Нутқнинг фоностилистик хусусиятлари

Фоностилистиканинг асосий ўрганиш объектлари. Талаффуз нормаси ва унинг стилистик фарқланиши масаласи. Фонетик услубларни ифодалашда экстралингвистик ва паралингвистик воситалар. Товуш ва интонация стилистикаси. Интонацион услуб турлари. Фонетик синонимия масаласи. Товушлар символикаси тушунчаси.

Фойдаланиладиган асосий дарсликлар ва ўқув қўлланмалар рўйхати

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

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

«ТАСДИҚЛАЙМАН»

Ўқув ишлари бўйича проректор

Н.О.Ортиқов

«__» _____ 20__ й.

ГЕРМАН ФИЛОЛОГИЯСИГА КИРИШ

фанидан

ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУР

Билим соҳаси:	200000	– гуманитар фанлар ва санъат
Таълим соҳаси	220000	– гуманитар фанлар
Таълим йўналиши:	5120100	– Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш (тиллар бўйича)

Умумий ўқув соати - 68

Маъруза: 18

Семинар машғулоти - 20

Мустақил таълим соати - 20

Тошкент – 2012 й

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети 1-инглиз филологияси факультети Илмий кенгашининг 20__ йил _____даги мажлисида муҳокама этилди ва маъқулланди.

Филология (тиллар бўйича) таълим йўналиши ўқув дастури ва ўқув режасига мувофиқ ишлаб чиқилди.

Тузувчи:

Филология фанлари номзоди, доцент

Қўлдошев А. М.

Такризчи:

Филология фанлари номзоди, доцент

Жўраев Б.

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури 1-инглиз филологияси факультети Илмий кенгашининг 20__ йил _____даги 1-сонли мажлис баёни билан тасдиққа тавсия этилди.

20__ йил _____

Илмий кенгаш раиси:

Т.А.Мадрахимов

20__ йил _____

Келишилди:

Кафедра мудири:

А. Қўлдошев

Ишчи ўқув дастур 1-инглиз филологияси факультети Илмий кенгашида муҳокама этилди ва маъқулланди (2012 йил _____даги ___-сонли баённома).

Илмий кенгаш раиси: _____ Т.А.Мадрахимов

АННОТАЦИЯ: Герман филологиясига кириш фани бўйича ўқув-услугий мажмуа инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи кафедраси томонидан яратилди ва ушбу ўқув-услугий мажмуа иккинчи курс талабалар учун мўлжалланган. Мазкур курсни ўзлаштирган талаба герман филологияси бўйича ўқилган маърузанинг мазмунини тушуниб етарлича билимга эга бўлиш, тилшуносликда тил ва унинг пайдо бўлиши, тил оилалари, тилларнинг ўзгаришининг асосий факторлари, тилларининг ҳозирги даврдаги ривожланиши ва уларнинг ўрни ҳақида тушунчага эга бўлади. Герман филологиясига кириш фани бўйича яратилган ушбу ўқув-услугий мажмуа олий ўқув юртлари факультет ва бўлимларда инглиз филологияси бакалавриат йўналиши бўйича мутахассислар тайёрлашга мўлжалланган.

1. Сўз боши

Курснинг мақсад ва вазифалари

Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг мақсади ва вазифаси университетлар ва педагогика институтлари филология факультет талабаларини Хинд-Европа тиллари оиласига кирувчи герман тиллари гуруҳининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари билан таништиришдан иборатдир. Шу билан бирга герман қабилаларининг Европа бўйлаб тарқалиши, уларнинг қабилалари ва қабила гуруҳлари биринчи қиролликларнинг пайдо бўлиши ҳақида маълумотлар берилади. Кейинги бўлимларда эса, тилшуносликнинг тарихи ва унда муҳим роль ўйнаган киёсий-тарихий метод ҳақида гапирилиб, ушбу методнинг герман тилларининг бошқа хинд-европа тиллари ичидаги ўрни, уларнинг бири-бирига бўлган муносабатлари ҳақида маълумот берилади. Герман тилларида яратилган ёзма ёдгорликлар ҳақида гапирилади. Герман тилларининг ривожланиш қонуниятлари ва бу ривожланишнинг тил ички ва ташқи манбаларига қандай боғлиқлигини кўрсатиб бериш, талабаларни ҳар бир герман тилининг тарихини батафсил ўрганиб чиқишга қизиқтириш ва тайёрлаш мақсад ва вазифаларидан бирини ташкил этади.

Бакалаврлар учун мўлжалланган билим, кўникма ва малакаларга қўйилган талаблар:

- инглиз тили фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва луғат таркибидаги турли изоҳталаб ҳодисалар сабабини изоҳлай олиш:

- инглиз тилидаги мавжуд сўзларда хинд-европа ўзакларини таний билиш;

- ҳозирги замон герман тилларидаги инглиз тилига ўзакдош бўлган сўзларни тушуна олиш;

- ҳозирги замон инглиз тилида содир бўлаётган тараққиёт тенденцияларининг герман тилларидаги қуринишлариини изоҳлаш йўли орқали инглиз тили тараққиётининг умумий йўналишини аниқлай олиш:

- ҳозирги замон герман тилларидаги матнларни ўқиб, уларнинг қайси тилга мансуб эканлигини аниқлай олиш.

2. Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан ўтиладиган мавзулар ва улар бўйича машғулот турларига ажратилган соатларнинг

ТАҚСИМОТИ

№	Фаннинг бўлими ва мавзуси маъруза мазмуни	Соатлар		
		Маъруза	Семинар машғулотлари	Жами
1	Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети	2	2	4
2	Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари	2	2	4
3	Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари	2	2	4
4	Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби	2	2	4
5	Шарқий герман тиллари	2	2	4
6	Шимолий герман тиллари	2	2	4
7	Шимолий герман тиллари	2	2	4
8	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2	2	4
9	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2	4	6
	Жами:	18	20	38

3. Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан семинар машғулоти мавзуси ва мазмуни

№	Семинар мавзулари ва уларнинг мазмуни	Соат	Муддат	Мустақил ўрганишга тавсия этиладиган мавзулар
1	Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети		Февраль	Ундошларнинг I на II кўчиши
2	Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари			
3	Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари		Март	Гот тилининг герман тарихида туган ўрни
4	Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби			
5	Шарқий герман тиллари		Апрель	Скандинав тилларини умумий характеристикаси
6	Шимолий герман тиллари			
7	Шимолий герман тиллари		Май	Немис тилининг тарихи
8	Ғарбий герман тиллари			
9	Ғарбий герман тиллари		Июнь	Герман тилларининг грамматик хоссалари
10	Ғарбий герман тиллари			

4. Талабалар мустақил таълимнинг мазмун ва ҳажми

№	Ишчи ўқув дастурнинг мустақил таълимга оид бўлим ва мавзулари	Мустақил таълимга оид топшириқ ва тавсиялар	Бажарилиш муддати
1	Герман тиллари тараққиётининг асосий қонуниятлари. Фонетик жараёнлар	Мавзу атрофлича ўрганилиб кўриб чиқилган адабиётлар бўйича мавзудан реферат тайёрлаш 4-6 бетли	Таълимнинг биринчи ҳафтаси
2	Гот тили	Мавзу атрофлича ўрганилиб кўриб чиқилган адабиётлар бўйича мавзудан реферат тайёрлаш 4-6 бетли	Таълимнинг иккинчи ҳафтаси
3	Швед, норвег ва исланд тилларининг асосий хусусиятлари	Мавзу атрофлича ўрганилиб кўриб чиқилган адабиётлар бўйича мавзудан реферат тайёрлаш 4-6 бетли	Таълимнинг учинчи ҳафтаси
4	Немис, инглиз ва фаранс тилларининг асосий хусусиятлари	Мавзу атрофлича ўрганилиб кўриб чиқилган адабиётлар бўйича мавзудан реферат тайёрлаш 4-6 бетли	Таълимнинг тўртинчи ҳафтаси
5	Голланд. Арфканс ва идиш тилларининг асосий хусусиятлари	Мавзу атрофлича ўрганилиб, кўриб чиқилган адабиётлар бўйича мавзудан реферат тайёрлаш 4-6 бетли	Таълимнинг бешинчи ҳафтаси
	Жами		

Эслатма:

1. Ҳар бир фан хусусиятларидан келиб чиқиб, баҳолаш мезонлари кафедра томонидан намунавий мезон шаклида ишлаб чиқилади.
2. Ёзма иш ҳажми кафедра томонидан белгиланади ва факультет кенгашида тасдиқланади.
3. Муайян фан бўйича талабанинг семестр давомидаги ўзлаштириш кўрсаткичи 100 баллик тизимда баҳоланади. Ушбу 100 балл баҳолаш турлари бўйича қуйидагича тақсимланади:

жорий баҳолашга 40 балл

оралиқ баҳолашга 30 балл

якуний баҳолашга 30 балл

МУСТАҚИЛ ИШЛАРНИ БАҲОЛАШ МЕЗОНИ

Мустақил ишлар учун ўқув йили давомида 16 балл ажратилган бўлиб, улар ойлик рейтинг варақасида ўз аксини топган.

Жорий назорат – 4 балл

Оралик назорат – 3 балл

Якуний назорат – 3 балл

Юқорида таъкидланганидек, талабаларнинг фаоллигини янада ошириш мақсадида мустақил ишларини баҳс, айлана стол муҳокамаси, сахна кўринишлари, тақдимот, кўргазмали куруллар, ёрдамида ёритиб бериш назарда тутилган.

ТАЛАБАЛАР БИЛИМИНИ БАҲОЛАШ МЕЗОНИ

Балл	Баҳо	Талабаларнинг билим даражаси
10-9	Аъло	Мавзу бўйича ижодий фикрлай олиш. Мавзу ҳақида мустақил мушоҳада юритиш. Мавзунинг моҳиятини тушуна олиш. Муҳокамада фаол қатнашиш. Равон сўзлашиш. Кўргазмали куруллардан унумли фойдаланиш.
8	Яхши	Мавзу бўйича мустақил мушоҳада юритиш. Мавзунинг моҳиятини тушуна олиш. Кўргазмали куруллардан унумли фойдаланиш. Муҳокамада иштирок этиш.
6-7	Қониқарли	Мавзу моҳиятини тушуниш. Мавзу ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлиш. Мавзуни баён қилишдаги муаммолар.
0 – 5	Қониқарсиз	Мавзу ҳақида мустақил мушоҳада юрита олмаслик. Муҳокамада иштирок этмаслик. Мавзу ҳақида тасаввурга эга эмаслик.
9 – 10 балл	“аъло”	6 – 7 балл “қониқарли”
8 балл	“яхши”	0 – 5 балл “қониқарсиз”

3. Ўқув юкларининг ҳажми

Семестр	Ўқув юкларининг ҳажмининг машғулотлар кўринишида тақсимланиши			
	Амалий машғулотлар	Жами	Мустақил иш	Жами
I	160	320	144	288
II	160		144	

4. Фойдаланинадиган ўқув -услубий адабиётлар, электрон таълим ресурслари ва дидактик воситалар рўйхати

Асосий адабиётлар

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. Пизани В. «Общее и индоевропейское языкознание» М., 1960
7. Климов В.Г., Гамкрелидзе В.А. «Индоевропейцы и индоевропейские языка» М., 1994

Қўшимча адабиётлар

1. Гухман М.М. «Готский язык» М, 1957
2. Общее языкознание. Методы лингвистических исследований М.Изд. 1973.318 ст

3. Принципы описания языков мира (Под. Ред. Б.А.Серебренникова) М. Изд. Наука 1976, 400 ст
4. Миронов С.С. «Нидерландский язык» М., 1968
5. Языки народов мира. Том 1. индоевропейский языки. М., 1968
6. Сравнительная грамматика германских языков. В 4 томах. Наука. 1959-1963.
7. Кафедрадаги услубий ишланмалар

Электрон таълим ресурслари:

1. www.ziyonet.uz
2. www.edu.uz
3. www.pedagog.uz
4. www.teachingenglish.org.uk

Дидактик воситалар:

- жиҳозлар ва ускуналар, мосламалар: электрон доска, LCD монитор.
- видео-аудио ускуналар: видео ва аудио магнитофон;
- компьютер ва мультимедиа воситалар: компьютер, проектор.

5. Талабалар билимини баҳолаш турлари

ЖОРИЙ БАҲОЛАШ (ЖБ) – 40 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1.	Reading Skills	4	2	8
2.	Listening Skills	4	2	8
3.	Writing Skills	4	2	8
4.	Speaking Skills	4	2	8
5.	Presentations (Self-directed Study)	4	2	8
Жами		20	10	40

ОРАЛИҚ БАҲОЛАШ (ОБ) – 30 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1.	Essay	2	15	30
Жами		2	15	30

ЯКУНИЙ БАҲОЛАШ (ЯБ) – 30 балл

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1.	Essay	1	15	15
2.	Oral check	1	15	15
Жами		2	30	30

ТАЛАБАЛАР БИЛИМИНИ БАҲОЛАШ МЕЗОНИ

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
86 – 100	Аъло	86-100 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси куйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг назарий материалларига оид хулоса ва қарор қабул қилиш; - мазкур фан мавзулари юзасидан ижодий фикрлай олиш; - Герман филологиясига кириш фанидаги баҳс ва мунозараларга бой бўлган мавзулар юзасидан мустақил мушоҳада юрита олиш; - мазкур фан орқали эришилган кўникма ва малакаларни амалда қўллай олиш; - муҳокама қилинаётган мавзу моҳиятини тушуниш, билиш, айтиб бериш; - мазкур фанга оид долзарб масалалар ҳақида тўла тасаввурга эга бўлиш;
71 – 85	Яхши	71-85 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси куйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг долзарб масалалари ҳақида мустақил мушоҳада юритиш; - ўрганилаётган малака кўникмаларини амалда қўллаш; - муҳокама қилинаётган мавзулар моҳиятини тушуниш; - муҳокама қилинадиган мавзуни билиш, айтиб бериш ва тасаввурга эга бўлиш;
55 – 70	Қониқарли	55-70 балл учун талабанинг билим даражаси куйидагиларга жавоб бериши лозим: - Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг моҳиятини тушуниш; - мазкур фанининг энг долзарб масалалари тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш, билиш, айтиб бериш;
0 – 54	Қониқарсиз	Қуйидаги ҳолларда талабанинг билим даражаси 0-54 балл билан баҳоланиши мумкин: - Герман филологиясига кириш фанидаги энг муҳим масалалар ҳақида аниқ тасаввурга эга бўлмаслик; - мазкур фандаги долзарб муаммоларни билмаслик.

МУНДАРИЖА

1. Аннотация
2. Сўзбоши
3. Оғзаки ва ёзма нутқ амалиёти аспекти бўйича мавзулар
4. Мустақил иш мавзулари
5. Мустақил ишларни баҳолаш мезони
6. Ўқув юкларининг ҳажми
7. Асосий адабиётлар
8. Электрон таълим ресурслари
9. Талабалар билимини баҳолаш турлари
10. Талабалар билимини баҳолаш мезони
11. Иншо ёзишга қўйиладиган талаблар
12. Иншо мавзулари

ДАСТУР БАЖАРИЛИШИНИНГ КАЛЕНДАРЛИ РЕЖАСИ
 (маъруза, амалий машғулотлар, курс ишлари)

Факультет _____ I - инглиз филологияси _____ Курс 2
 Академик гуруҳ _____
 Фаннинг номи _____ Герман филологиясига кириш _____
 Амалий машғулотларни олиб боради _____

№	Машғулот турлари	Мавзу номи ва назоратлар турлари	Ажратилган соат	Бажарилганлиги ҳақида маълумот		Ўқитувчи имзоси
				ой ва кун	соатлар сони	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	назарий	Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети	2			
2.	назарий	Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари	2			
3.	назарий	Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари	2			
4.	назарий	Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби	2			
5.	назарий	Шарқий герман тиллари	2			
6.	назарий	Шимолий герман тиллари	2			
7.	назарий	Шимолий герман тиллари	2			
8.	назарий	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2			
9.	назарий	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2			
10.	амалий	Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети	2			
11.	амалий	Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари	2			
12.	амалий	Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари	2			
13.	амалий	Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби	2			
14.	амалий	Шарқий герман тиллари	2			
15.	амалий	Шимолий герман тиллари	2			
16.	амалий	Шимолий герман тиллари	2			
17.	амалий	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2			
18.	амалий	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2			
19.	амалий	Ғарбий герман тиллари	2			

Ўқитувчи _____
 (имзо)

**“Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети” мавзуси бўйича ўқув
машғулотнинг**

ТЕХНОЛОГИК КАРТАСИ

Иш босқичлар вакти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Таълим берувчи А. Қўлдошев	Таълим олувчилар Талабалар
1 - босқич	Талабаларнинг ва аудиториянинг маърузага тайёрлиги текширилади, талабаларнинг дарсга келган келмаганлиги белгиланади.	Дарсга тайёрланадилар, маъруза дафтари ва бошқа зарур нарсаларни тайёрлаб, маърузанинг бошланишини кутадилар.
2 – босқич	Маъруза талабаларга маърузанинг режаси билан таништиради. <i>Lecture I.</i> <i>1. Introductory notes</i> <i>2. Linguistic map of the world</i> <i>3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world</i> <i>4. General principles of the development of languages</i> <i>5. The Place of the Germanic Languages among the languages of the world</i> <i>6. General approaches and methods for language study</i> Мавзу экранга ёзилади ёки постер сифатида доскага осилади. Агар проектор ёки постер бўлмаса, доскага бўр билан ёзилади.	Талабалар маъруза мавзусини ёзиб оладилар.
3 – босқич	Маъруза мазкур маърузада киритиладиган асосий термин ва тушунчаларни киритади. <i>Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, language situation, language policy, endemic, pandemic, factors of language change, integration, differentiation, stylization, generalization, etc.</i>	Талабалар таянч сўз ва ибораларни дафтарларига ёзиб оладилар.
4 – босқич	Маърузага мазкур маърузада муҳокама қилинган мавзуларни ўрганиш учун тавсия қилинадиган адабиётлар рўйхатини беради. Асосий адабиётлар А.С. Соловьева, Н.В. Арсеньева и др. Введение в германскую филологию, М. 1982, 10-32	Талабалар бу рўйхатни дафтарларига ёзиб оладилар.
5 - босқич	Маърузачи маърузани ўқийди: Керакли ўринларда постерлардан, экранга тушурилган жадвал, граф, сурат ва карталарни изоҳлаб тушунтириб беради. Бу босқични энг муҳим моменти шундаки, ўқитувчи cross-questions, spontaneous questions, brainstorming ёрдамида талабаларнинг берилган материални	Талабалар маърузани диққат билан тинглайдилар ва энг муҳим моментларни ёзиб борадилар ва маърузачитомонидан берилган саволларга жавоб беришга оракат қиладилар.

	тушуниб бораётгани ёки тушунмаётгани текшириб боради.	
6 – босқич	Маъруза тугагач ўқитувчи талабалар томонидан бериладиган саволларга атрофлича жавоб беради.	Талабалар ўзларини қизиқтирган тушунмай қолган нарсалар бўйича саволлар берадилар.
7 - босқич	Маърузачи навбатдаги маърузанинг номини айтади ва фаол қатнашган талабаларга қўйилган балларни эълон қилади.	Талабалар кейинги маъруза мавзусини ёзиб оладилар.
8 - босқич	Дарс тугайди	Талабалар аудиторияни тарк этади.

“Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети” мавзуси бўйича маърузанинг таълим технологияси модели

Мавзу 1. Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети

Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони - 75 та
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Кириш, визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	1. Дунёнинг лингвистик харитаси 2. Жаҳон тилларнинг социолингвистик таҳлили 3. Тиллар ривожланишнинг умумий тамойиллари 4. Герман тилларининг жаҳон тиллари орасида тутган ўрни 5. Тилларни ўрганишининг асосий қонуниятлари тамойиллари ва методлари билан таништиришдир.
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади:	Ушбу маърузадан мақсад талабаларни ГФК фанини асосий қонуниятлари тамойиллари ва методлари билан таништиришдир.
Педагогик вазифалар: Талабалар диққатига қобилияти ва хотирасини курснинг мазмунини бошқаларга тушунтириб бера оладиган даражада ўрганиб олишга эришиш. Амалай олган назарий билимларини аввалдан эгаллаган амалий фанларга ўрганишга, изоҳлай олишга ўргатиш.	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Бу мавзунини ўрганган талаба қуйидагиларни эгаллаб олади. 1. Дунё тилларини генеологик жиҳатдан гуруҳлай билади. 2. Герман тиллари гуруҳининг асосий хоссаларини билиб олади. 3. Герман тилларини социолингвистик жиҳатдан ўрганиб олади. 4. Тиллар таракқиётини белгилаб берадиган асосий ыамойиллари билиб олади.
Таълим усуллари	Муаммоли маърузи
Таълим шакли	Интерактив таълим
Таълим воситалари	А) Дарсликлар Б) Ўқув қўлланмалар В) Тарқатма материаллар Г) Постерлар Д) ДВД форматидаги қўшимча материаллар
Таълим бериш шароити	Маъруза зали
Мониторинг ва баҳолаш	Маърузада талабанинг фаоллиги ва

Lecture I. *The subject matter of the Introduction to the English Philology*

1. Indo-European family of Languages
2. Common Germanic languages
3. The ancient Germans
4. Classification of Germanic Languages
5. Modern Germanic Languages

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Language situation can be of three types:

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

2) Bilingual language situation.

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

There are two of BLS:

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

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

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

3) Polylingual (multilingual) language situation

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

Language Policy can be of two types:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Forms of Existence of the language

Language functions in the following forms:

- 1) **Literary language.** This has two forms: **a)** Literary bookish and **b)** Literary colloquial
- 2) **Vernacular speech**
- 3) **Dialect**

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

Linguistic changes

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

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

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

Causes of language changes

There are two types of factors of language change:

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

2) Intra linguistic factors:

Intra linguistic factors of language change include:

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

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

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

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

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

Rate of linguistic changes

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

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

Different parts or levels of language develop at different rates.

Mechanism of language change

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

Variation may have the following stages:

Table 1

Stages	Form A	Form B
1.	An Element of the Norm.	It does not exist.
2.	An Element of the Norm.	An Element of the Substandard Speech.
3.	An Element of the Norm.	An Element of the Norm.
4.	An Element of the Substandard 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, it has got its birth, maturity, old age and decay”.

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

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

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

Intra linguistic causes of language change

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

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

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

3. Tendency to express similar meanings with one form (the 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.

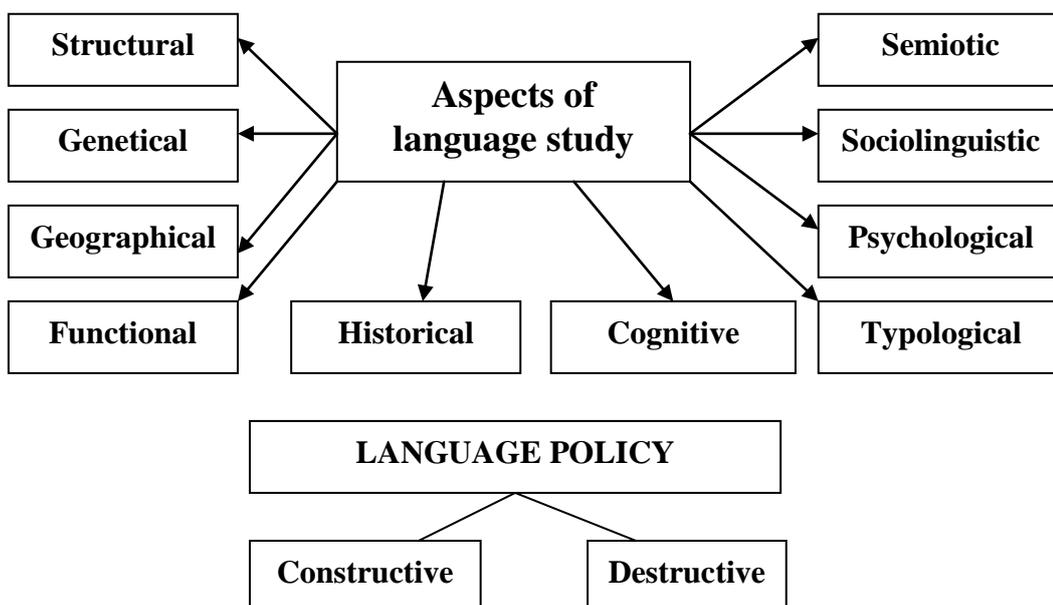
8. Notional words become suffixes in OE ere – meant – a man → now suffix - teacher.

9. Cases of interrelation of processes.

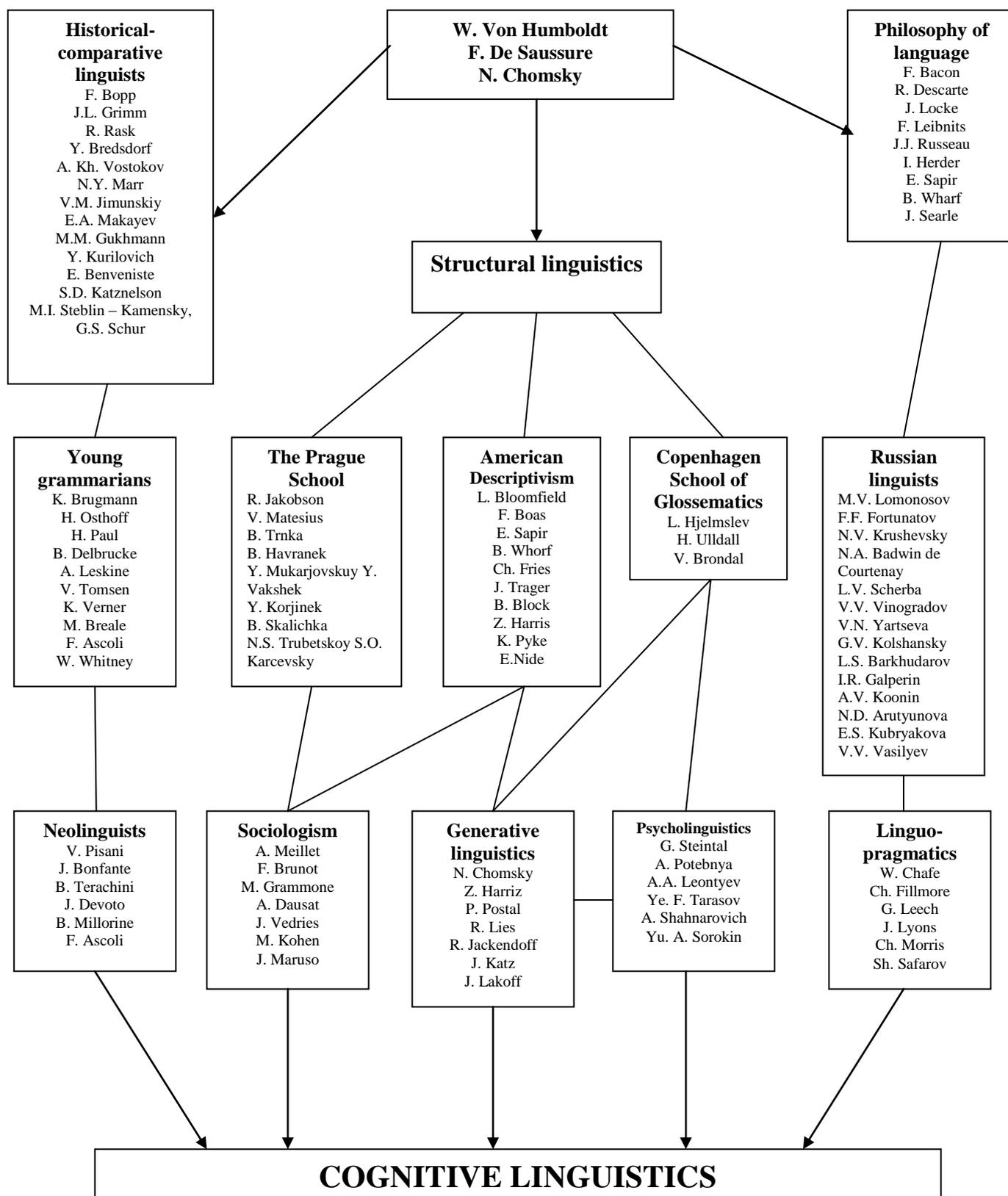
There are two main factors of language change:

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

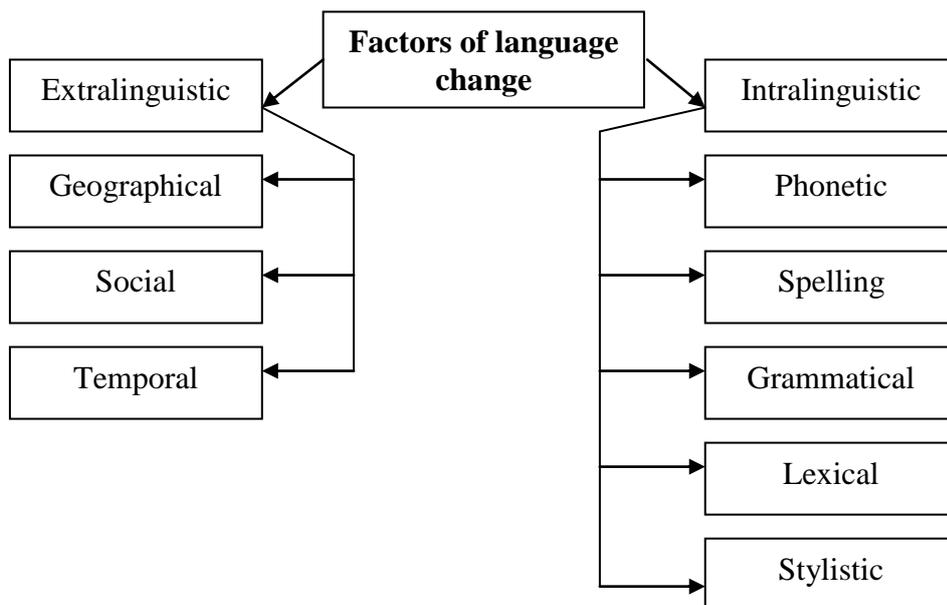
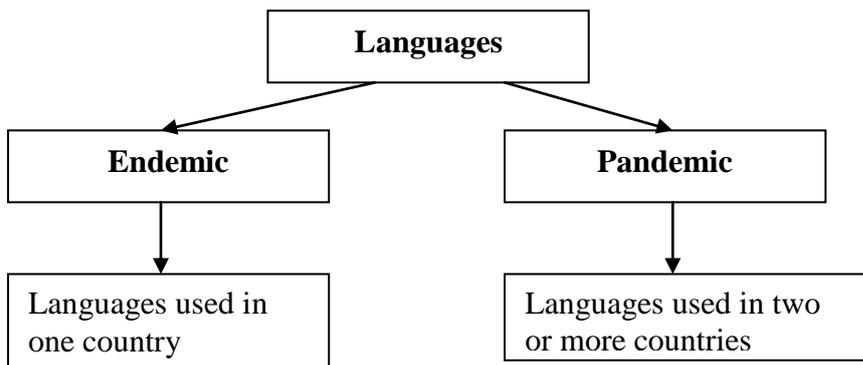
Causality (причинность, сабабийлик) French Influence on English, 1066, Norman Conquest.



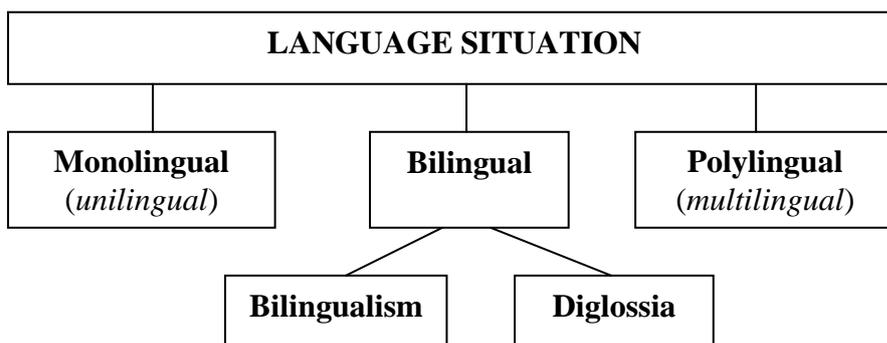
The Greatest Linguists of the World



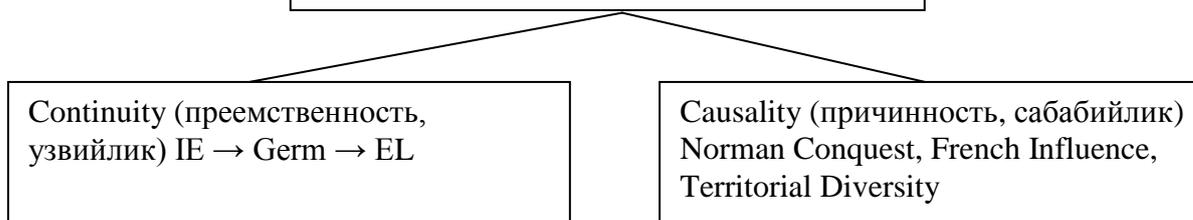
Geographical types of languages

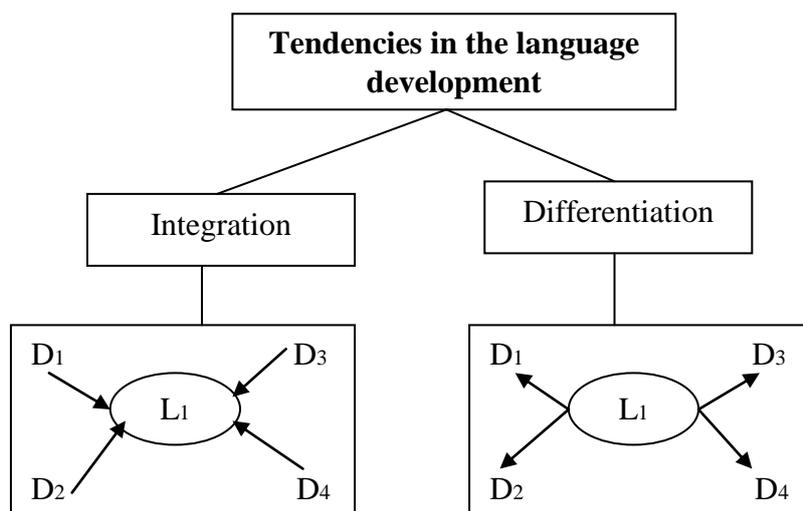


Essential notions of sociolinguistics



The principles of language development





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Test №1.

- 1. Who was the first to recognize the relationship between the language now called Germanic?**
 A) R. Rask B) J. Grimm C) K. Verner D) A. Scaliger
- 2. Who proclaimed the principle that phonetic laws admit of no exceptions.**
 A) Traditionalist B) Structuralism C) Young grammarians D) Rationalists
- 3. The work (Essay) which was supported to be the beginning of comparative grammar belonged to :**
 A) J. Grimm B) F. Bopp C) H. Paul D) B. Delbrucke
- 4. Who established close ties between Baltic and Slavic languages?**
 A) M.V. Lomonosov B) A.K. Vostokov C) V. Buslaev D) F.F. Fortunatov
- 5. Who translated the Hitite cuneiforms found in Boghazkoy in Asia Minor?**
 A) F. De Saussure B) A. Meillet C) E. Benvenist D) B. Hrozny
- 6. Who is the founder of glottochronology in linguistics?**
 A) M. Swadesh B) F. De Saussure C) A.V. Baudoin de Courtenay D) N.Y. Marr
- 7. When did the occupation of France and the British Isles by Celts from Central Europe take place?**
 A) about 1st century B) about 500 c. BC C) the 5th century BC D) the 10th century BC
- 8. Who was the author of the book “Commentaries on the Gallic war”?**
 A) Pliny the Elder B) J. Caesar C) Strabo D) Platon
- 9. Who was the author of the book “De situ moribus et populis Germania”?**
 A) Tacitus B) Pliny the Elder C) Strabo D) Julius Caesar
- 10. Who was the author of the Gothic Translation of the Bible?**
 A) King Arthur B) King Alfred C) Ulfilas D) Pliny the Elder

**Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг
Рейтинг назорати**

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантиқий ноизчилликлар кўп

"Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети" мавзуси бўйича семинарнинг таълим технологияси модели

Мавзу. 1. Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети

Вақти 2 соат	Талабалар сони -75та
Ўқув машғулотларнинг шакли ва тури	Кириш маърузаси
Семинар режаси	1. Дунёнинг лингвистик харитаси 2. Жаҳон тилларининг социолингвистик таҳлили 3. Тиллар ривожланишининг умумий тамойиллари 4. Герман тилларининг жаҳон тиллари орасида тутган ўрни 5. Тилларни ўрганишининг асосий метод ва йўналишлари
Семинарнинг мақсади	Ушбу семинардан мақсад талабаларни ГФК фанини асосий қонуниятлари тамойиллари ва методлари билан таништиришдир.
Педагогик вазифалар Талабалар диққатига қобилияти ва хотирасини курснинг мазмунини бошқаларга тушунтириб бера оладиган даражада ўрганиб олишга эришиш. Амалий олган назарий билимларни аввалдан эгаллаган амалий фанларни ўрганишга, изоҳлай олишга ўргатиш.	Ўқув фаолияти натижалари Бу мавзунини ўрганган талаба қуйдагиларни эгаллаб олади. 1)Дунё тилларини генеологик жихатдан гуруҳлай билади. 2) Герман тиллари гуруҳининг асосий хоссаларини билиб олади. 3) Герман тилларини социолингвистик жихатдан ўрганиб олади. 4) Тиллар тараққиётини белгилаб берадиган асосий тамойиллари билиб олади.
Таълим усуллари	Муаммоли семинар
Таълим шакли	Интерактив таълим
Таълим воситалари	А) Дарсликлар Б) Ўқув кўлланмалар В) Таркатма материаллар Г) Постерлар Д) ДВД форматдаги қўшимча материаллар
Таълим бериш шароити	Семинар хонаси
Мониторинг ва баҳолаш	Семинарда талабанинг фаоллиги ва ёзиб олинган матннинг тўлиқлиги ва ҳажмига қараб 2 баллгача баҳоланади.

"Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети" мавзуси бўйича ўқув машғулотнинг

ТЕХНОЛОГИК ХАРИТАСИ

Иш босқичлари ва вақти	Фаолият	
	Таълим берувчи	Таълим олувчилар
1-босқич	А. Қўлдошев Талабаларнинг ва аудиториянинг амалий семинарга тайёрлиги	Талабалар Дарсга тайёрландилар,

	текширилади, талабаларнинг дарсга келган келмаганлиги белгиланади.	семинарлар дафтари ва бошқа зарур нарсаларни тайёрлаб, маърузанинг бошланишини кутадилар.
2-босқич	Маъруза талабаларга маърузанинг режаси билан таништиради. Seminar I <i>1. Introductory notes</i> <i>2. Linguistic map of the world</i> <i>3. Sociolinguistic analysis of the languages of the world</i> <i>4. General principles of the development of languages</i> <i>5. The Place of the Germanic languages among the languages of the world</i> <i>6. General approaches and methods for language study</i> Мавзу экранга ёзилади ёки постер сифатида доскага осилади. Агар проектор ёки постер бўлмаса, доскага бўр билан ёзилади.	Талабалар семинар мавзусини аввалроқ ёзиб олган.
3- босқич	Ўқитувчи мазкур семинарда киритиладиган асосий термин ва тушунчаларни киритади. <i>Philology, linguistic, language family, language group, language situation, language policy, endemic, pandemic, factors of language change, integration, differentiation, stylization, generalization etc.</i>	Талабалар таянч сўз ва ибораларни дафтарларига ёзиб оладилар.
4 босқич	Ўқитувчи мазкур семинарда муҳокама қилинган мавзуларни ўрганиш учун тавсия қилинадиган адабиётлар рўйхатини беради. Асосий адабиётлар А.С. Соловьева, Н.В. Арсеньева идр. Введения в германскую филологию, М. 1982, 10-32 С.А.	Талабалар бу рўйхатни дафтарларига ёзиб оладилар.
5-босқич	Керакли ўринларда Постерлардан, экранга тушурилган жадвал, граф, сурат ва карталарни изохлаб тушунтириб беради. Бу босқични энг муҳим момент шундаки, ўқитувчи Cross — questions, spontaneous, questions, brain - storming ёрдамида талабаларнинг семинарда берилган материални тушуниб бораётгани ёки тушунмаётгани текшириб боради.	Талабалар семинар материалларнидиққат билан тинглайдилар ва энг муқим моментлари ёзиб борадилар ва ўқитувчи томонидан берилган саволларга жавоб беришга ҳаракат қиладилар.
6.- босқич	Семинар тугагач ўқитувчи талабалар томонидан бериладиган саволларга атрофлича жавоб беради.	Талабалар семинарда ўзларини қизиқтирган тушунмай қолган нарсалар бўйича саволлар берадилар.
7- босқич	Ўқитувчи навбатдаги семинарнинг номини айтади ва фаол катнашган талабаларга қўйилган балларни эълон қиладди.	Талабалар кейинги семинар мавзусини ёзиб оладилар.
8-босқич	Дарс тугайди	Талабалар аудиторияни тарк этади.

THE GOTHIC LANGUAGE

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

For a time the Goths ruled a great kingdom north of the Danube river and the Black Sea. Then, in A.D. 315, the Huns, a savage people, swept into Europe from Asia. They conquered the Ostrogoths and forced the Visigoths to seek refuge across the Danube within the boundaries of the Roman Empire. In a battle fought near the city of Adrianople, in 378, the Visigoths defeated and slew Emperor Valens. For a time they lived peaceably on Roman territory. In 395 they rose in rebellion under their ambitious young king Alaric and overran a large part of the Eastern Empire. In 410 Rome fell into the hands of the Visigoths. Alaric led the attack.

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

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

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

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

THE GOTHIC WRITTEN LANGUAGE AND MONUMENTS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

All these manuscripts were first published in 1819-1839.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Principal features of Gothic

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

Noun and Adjectives: Gothic has five cases:

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

Nominative).

Nouns: The inflectional ending depends on:

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

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

▪whether the word is singular or plural.

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

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

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

Articles and demonstrative pronouns

The definite article is an important new development in Germanic.

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

The indefinite article does not yet exist.

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

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

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

Verbs

The form of the verb indicates:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

References

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Gothic language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Gothic language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Gothic language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Gothic language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Gothic language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Gothic language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Gothic language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Gothic language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Gothic language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Gothic language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Gothic language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Gothic language?

**Герман филологиясига Кириш фанидан 2 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Маърузачи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	2.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	2.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) What is the number of the languages existing in the world?</p> <p>B) How many Indo-European languages are there in the world?</p> <p>C) How many Germanic languages are there in the world?</p> <p>D) What groups of Germanic languages do you know?</p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Қиёсий-тарихий тилшуносликга ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) Historical-comparative method in linguistics.</p> <p>B) Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages.</p> <p>C) The First Consonant Shift.</p> <p>D) Verner’s Law.</p> <p>E) Rhotacism</p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади.</p> <p>2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади.</p> <p>3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди	Ҳинд - Европа тиллари , Герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.

Мавзу 2. Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	<p>1. Historical – comparative method in linguistics.</p> <p>2. Stages in the development in the history of HCM.</p> <p>3. Linguistic features of Germanic Languages.</p>

Ўқув машҳулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга қиёсий – тарихий тилшунослик ва герман тилларини ўрганиш тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - қиёсий – тарихий тилшуносликни тушунтириш; - Ҳинд – Европа тиллари билан таништириш; - Ҳинд –Европа тилларидаги гуруҳларни тавсифлаш; - Герман тилларни гуруҳлаш; - Герман тилларини ўзига хос хусусиятларини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Қиёсий – тарихий тилшуносликнинг асосий мақсади, вазифаси ва тарихи ҳақида маълумотга эга бўлади. 2) Ҳинд – Европа тиллари ўртасидаги умумий хусусиятларни ўрганиб олади. 3) герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятларининг билиб олади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGES

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

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

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

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

Indo- Iranian, which was later, subdivided into:

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

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

other modern languages.

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

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

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

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

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

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

V. Germanic has three distinct groups:

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

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

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

VI. Italo-Celtic with two large groups:

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

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

VII. Greek, with numerous dialects, such as Ionic-Attic, Achaean, Aeolic, Doric, etc. The literature begins with Homer's poems the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, dating from the 8th century B.

C. Modern Greek is spoken in continental Greece, on the islands of the Ionian and Aegean Seas and by Greek settlements.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Schleicher's theory was so unsatisfactory even to his contemporaries that they tried for a long time to correct his shortcomings and to put forward other theories, among which the "wave" theory should be mentioned. The founder of this theory, Iohannes Schmidt (1843-1901) argued in his book *Die Verwandtschaftsverhältnisse 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

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

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

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

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

XIV. Illyrian, with its South Italian offshoot Messapian.

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

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

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

Linguistic evidence shows that close contact existed between the dialects of Indo-European. From the point of view of vocabulary, for instance, Indo-Iranian shared with Baltic and Slavonic a considerable number of words which may be found only in these languages and they supply important clues of the connection between these two linguistic families: the Sanskrit word *suit* "to be bright, white" has its cognate in the Old Slavonic language in the form of *suitliti* "to dawn".

Slavonic and Indo-Iranian coincide in changing *s* to *ś* 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 *uliikomū*, Gothic *wulfam* "with wolves") while in Sanskrit the element *bh* appears here (Sanskrit *urkebhyaś* 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.

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 (COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO) Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes - the Suevians - who bordered on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. The tribal names *Germanians* 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 GERMANIA and THE ORIGIN OF THE FAMILY, PRIVATE PROPERTY AND THE STATE. Having made a linguistic analysis of several Germanic dialects of later ages F. Engels came to the conclusion that Pliny's classification of the Teutonic tribes accurately reflected the contemporary dialectal division. In his book on the ancient Teutons F. Engels described the evolution of the economic and social structure of the Teutons from Caesar's to Tacitus's time.

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

The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications. The development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally PG split into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

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

East Germanic

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations.

Around 200 A. D. they moved south-east and 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. 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 in 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 *bokmål*) 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 200,000 people.

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

West Germanic

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

Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Federal Republic of Germany (hence the name *High Germans* as contrasted to *Low Germans*- a name applied to the West Germanic tribes in the low-lying northern areas. The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are known since the early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, the Thuringians and others.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Another offshoot of High German is Yiddish. It grew from the High German dialects

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

At the later stage of the great migration period - in the 5th c. - a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxons and Frisians, and, probably, the 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-land (the Federal Republic of Germany). It has both an oral and written form, the earliest records dating from the 13th c.

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

**Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар
билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати
ЖАДВАЛИ**

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантикий ноизчилликлар кўп

"Герман филологиясига кириш фанининг предмети" мавзуси бўйича семинарнинг таълим технологияси модели

2 – мавзу. Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар
Семинар машғулотининг режаси	A) Historical – comparative method in linguistics B) Stages in the development in the history of HCM B) Linguistic features of Germanic Languages
Семинар машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга қиёсий тирахий тилшунослик ва герман тилларини ўрганиш тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Қиёсий тарихий тилшуносликни тушунтириш; - Ҳинд - Европа тиллари билан таништириш; - Ҳинд - Европа тилларидаги гуруҳларни тавсифлаш; - Герман тилларни гуруҳлаш; - Герман тилларни изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Қиёсий - тарихий тилшуносликнинг асосий мақсади, вазикаси ва тарихи ҳақида маълумотга эга бўлади. 2) Ҳинд - Европа тиллари ўртасидаги умумий хусусиятларни ўрганиб олади. 3) Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятларини изоҳлаб бера олади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 2 семинар машғулотининг Технологик Картаси

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>A) What is the number of the languages existing in the world?</i> <i>B) How many Indo-European languages are</i>	1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради. 2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.

	<p><i>there in the world?</i> <i>B) How many Germanic languages are there in the world?</i> <i>D) What groups of Germanic languages do you know?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Талаблар жавоблари қиёсий-тарихий тилшуносликга ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) Historical-comparative method in linguistics</i> <i>B) Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages</i> <i>C) The First Consonant Shift</i> <i>D) Verner's Law</i> <i>E) Rhotacism</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди ўртоқлари томонидан берилган жавобларни баҳолайди.</p>	<p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
<p>3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)</p>	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади талабалар билими ва жавоблари баҳоланади.</p>	<p>Ҳинд - Европа тиллари, Герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

Geographic distribution

German is spoken primarily in Germany. Austria. Liechtenstein. Luxembourg, in two-thirds of Switzerland, in two-thirds of the South Tyrol province of Italy (in German, *Siidtirol*), in the small East Cantons of Belgium, and in some border villages of the South Jutland County (in German. *Nordschleswig*, in Danish, *Senderjylland*) of Denmark.

In Luxembourg (in German. *Luxemburg*), as well as in the French *regions* of Alsace (in German. *Elsass*) and parts of Lorraine (in German. *Lolhringen*). 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 U.S., 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 (where Aleman Coloneiro developed). South Africa, Thailand, and Australia. See also Plautdietsch.

In the USA, the largest concentrations of German speakers are in Pennsylvania (Amish, Hutterites and some Mennonites speak Pennsylvania German and I luttcrite German), Texas (Texas German), Kansas (Mennonites and Volga Germans), North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Wisconsin and Indiana. Early twentieth century immigration was often to St. Louis, 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 (where Riograndenser Hunsriickisch was developed), 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.

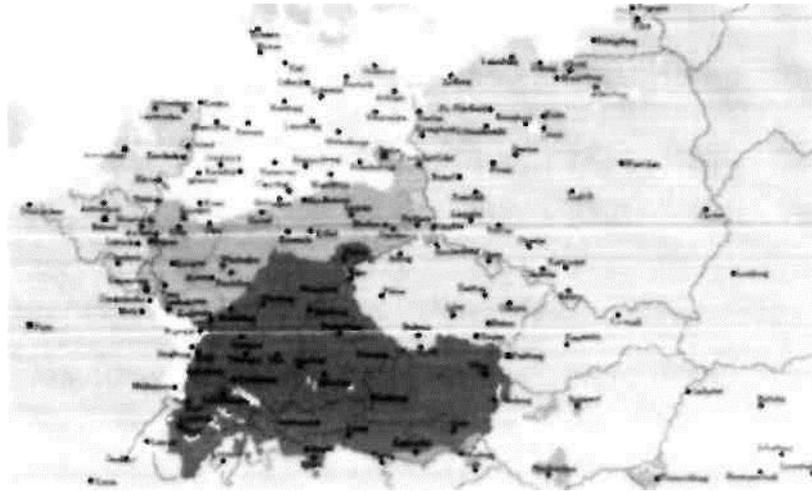
German is the main language of about 100 million people in Europe (as of 2004), or 13.3% of all Europeans, being the second most spoken native language in Europe after Russian, above French (66.5 million speakers in 2004) and English (64.2 million speakers in 2004). German is the third most taught foreign language worldwide, also in the USA (after Spanish and French); it is the second most known foreign language in the EU (after English; see III) It is one of the official languages of the European Union, and one of the three working languages of the 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 Germanic dialects from common West Germanic. The earliest testimonies of Old High German are from scattered Elder Futhark inscriptions, especially in Alemannic. From the 6th century, the earliest glosses (*Ahroaans*) date to the 8th and the oldest coherent texts (the *Hildebrandslied*, the *Muspilli* and the Merseburg Incantations) to the 9th century. Old Saxon at this time belongs to the North Sea Germanic 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.

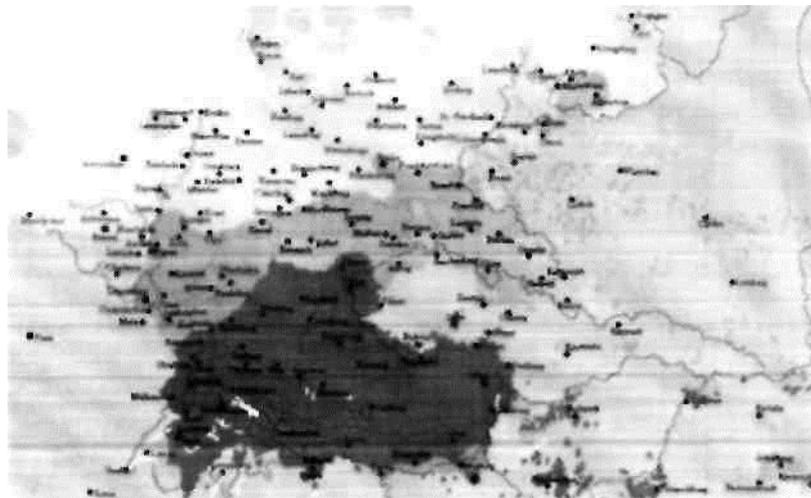
When Martin Luther translated the Bible (the New Testament in 1522 and the Old Testament, published in parts and completed in 1534) he based his translation mainly on this already developed language, which was the most widely understood language at this time. This language was based on Eastern Upper and Eastern Central German dialects and preserved much of the grammatical 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 (*gemeines Deutsch*) — 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.

Distribution of native speakers of a continental West Germanic language/dialect on the 31/12/1937



Today's distribution of native speakers of German dialects, in central Europe

German used to be the language of commerce and government in the Habsburg Empire, which encompassed a large area of Central and Eastern Europe. Until the mid-19th century it was essentially the language of townspeople throughout most of the Empire. It indicated that the speaker was a merchant, an urbanite, not their nationality. Some cities, such as Prague (German: *Prag*) and Budapest (Buda. German: *Oferi*), were gradually Germanized in the years after their incorporation into the Habsburg domain. Others, such as Bratislava (German: *Pressburg*), were originally settled during the Habsburg period and were primarily German at that time. A few cities such as Milan (German: *Mai/and*) remained primarily non-German. However, most cities were primarily German during this time, such as Prague, Budapest, Bratislava, Zagreb (German: *Agram*), and Ljubljana (German: *Laibach*), though they were surrounded by territory that spoke other languages.



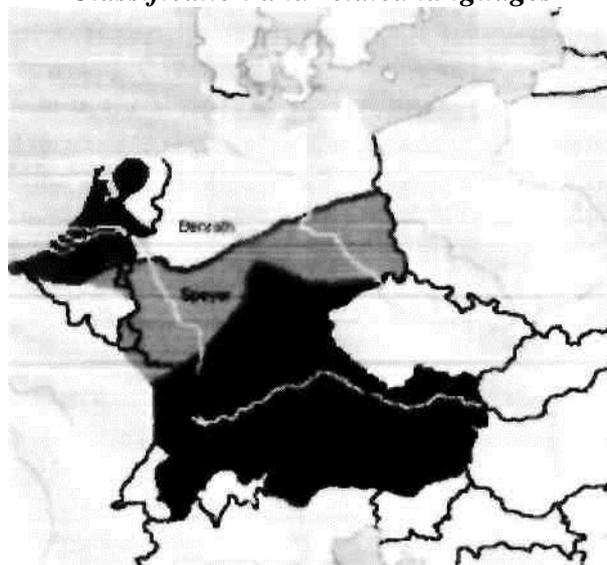
Until about 1800, standard German was almost only a written language. At this time, people in urban northern Germany, who spoke dialects very different from Standard German, learnt it almost like a foreign language and tried to pronounce it as close to the spelling as possible. Prescriptive pronunciation guides used to consider northern German pronunciation to be the standard. However, the actual pronunciation of standard German varies from region to region.

Media and written works are almost all produced in standard German (often called *Hochdeutsch* in German) which is understood in all areas where German is spoken, except by pre-school children in areas which speak only dialect, for example Switzerland. However, in this age of television, even they now usually learn to understand Standard German before school age.

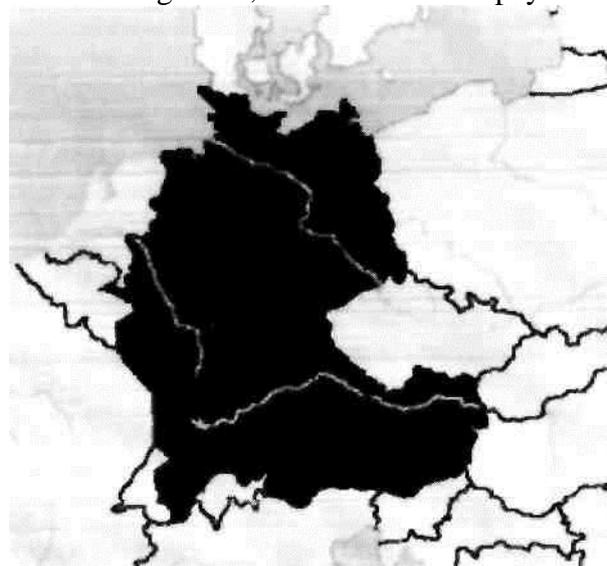
The first dictionary of the Brothers Grimm, the 16 parts of which were issued between 1852 and 1860, remains the most comprehensive guide to the words of the German language. In 1860, grammatical and orthographic rules first appeared in the *Ducien Handbook*. In 1901, this was declared the standard definition of the German language. Official revisions of some of these

rules were not issued until 1998, when the German spelling reform of 1996 was officially promulgated by governmental representatives of all German-speaking countries. Since the reform, German spelling has been in an eight-year transitional period where the reformed spelling is taught in most schools, while traditional and reformed spelling co-exist in the media. See German spelling reform of 1996 for an overview of the heated public debate concerning the reform.

Classification and related languages



By the High German consonant shift, the Dutch-German dialect continuum is divided into Franconian / Low Prankish (Brown), Upper German (blue) and Central German (green), and the Low German (yellow). The main isoglosses, the Benrath and Speyer lines are marked in red.



The German and Dutch standard language language border.

German is a member of the western branch of the Germanic family of languages, which in turn is part of the Indo-European language family.

Neighboring languages

In these modern days Germany is surrounded by language borders, in the north by the Frisian and Danish; in the east Polish, Sorbian, Czech, Slovak, and Hungarian; in the south Slovenian, Italian, Friulian, Ladin, and Romansh; in the west French and Dutch. Except for Frisian and Dutch, none of these languages are West Germanic, and so they are clearly distinct from German. Frisian, after Scots, the closest related living language to English; and Dutch, the closest related living language to German are generally considered not to be mutually intelligible with German. Although a dialect continuum still exists at certain places along the Dutch-German

language border this is fading away because of standardisation in both countries, as can be seen in the pictures to the right in which the dialectal borders and the standard borders can be seen.

While German is grammatically quite similar to Dutch in many ways, it is very different in speech. Speakers of one, especially Germans, require practice to effectively understand a speaker of the other. Compare, for example:

De kleinsle kameleon is volwassen 2 cm groot, de grootste kan wel 80 cm lang worden. (Dutch)

Das kleinste Chamdleon ist ausgewachsen 2 cm grofi, das grofite kann gut 80 cm lang werden. (German)

(English: "The smallest chameleon is fully grown 2 cm long, the longest can easily attain 80 cm.")

Dutch speakers are generally able to read German, and German speakers who can speak Low German or English are generally able to read Dutch, but have problems understanding the spoken language. Germans who speak High German, or, even better, Low German, can cope with Dutch much better than people from Southern Germany, Switzerland and Austria who have grown up with the Alemannic or Bavarian dialects.

Standard German is the only official language in Germany, Liechtenstein, and Austria; it shares official status in Switzerland (with French, Italian and Romansh), and Luxembourg (with French and Luxembourgish). It is used as a local official language in German-speaking regions of Belgium, Italy, Denmark, and Poland. It is one of the 20 official languages of the European Union.

It is also a minority language in Poland, Canada, France, Russia, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Romania, Togo, Cameroon, the USA, Namibia, Brazil, Paraguay, Hungary, Slovakia, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Croatia, Ukraine, Argentina, and Australia.

German was once the lingua franca of central, eastern and northern Europe, but first Russian and now English have assumed much of this role. However, German remains one of the most popular foreign languages taught world-wide, and is more popular than French as a foreign language in Europe. 8% of citizens of the EU-15 countries say they can converse in German, in addition to the 24% who speak German as a mother tongue.[2] This is assisted by the availability of German TV by cable or satellite, where series like Star Trek are shown dubbed into German.

German is also the second language of the Internet. More than 8% of websites are written in German, English 50%, French 6%, Japanese 5%, Spanish 3% and Portuguese 2%.

Dialects

German and Germanic

The term "German" in German dialects is not to be mistaken by "Standard German". German, in this context refers to the ancestor of all continental West Germanic languages (excluding Frisian), it is just coincidence that "Standard German" and German in the sense as described above share the same name. A little known fact by most non-linguists is that not High German (and its Upper and Central dialects) but Low German dialects and the Dutch language are the closest related languages to this 'German' language as they did not participate in the High German consonant shift. "Germanic" is used, to help non-linguists grasp this tricky concept. Not that the term is false in any sense though. High and Low German languages are the only Germanic language capable to be identified as such. 'German' as explained previously could also be described as "The ancestor of all West Germanic languages excluding the Anglo-Frisian group".

Dialects in Germany

The variation among the German dialects is considerable, with only the neighbouring dialects being mutually understandable. Some dialects are not understandable for someone who knows standard German. However, all German dialects belong to the dialect continuum of High German and Low German (Platt) languages. In the past (roughly till the end of the second world war) there was a dialect continuum of all the continental West Germanic languages because nearly any pair of neighbouring dialects were perfectly mutually intelligible.

Distribution of the native speakers of major continental West Germanic dialects today

The dialect continuum of the continental West Germanic languages is typically divided into Low Germanic languages and High Germanic languages.

Low Germanic / Low German

Low Germanic is defined as the varieties that were not affected by the High German consonant shift. They consist of two subgroups, Low Franconian and Low German. Low Franconian includes Dutch and Afrikaans, spoken primarily in the Netherlands, Belgium, Surinam and South Africa; Low German includes dialects spoken primarily in the German Lowlands and in the eastern Netherlands. The Low German varieties (spoken on German territory) are considered dialects of the German language by some, but a separate language by others; the Low Franconian varieties are not considered a part of the German language (see above for a detailed 'discussion' of the distinction between German and Dutch).

High Germanic / High German

High Germanic is divided into Central German and Upper German. Central German dialects include Riparian, Moselle Franconian, Rhine Franconian, Hessian, Thuringian and Upper Saxon. It is spoken in the southeastern Netherlands, eastern Belgium, Luxembourg, parts of France, and in Germany approximately between the River Main and the southern edge of the Lowlands. Modern Standard German is mostly based on Central German, but it should be noted that the usual German term for modern Standard German is Hochdeutsch, that is, High German.

The Moselle Franconian varieties spoken in Luxembourg have been officially standardized and institutionalized and are therefore usually considered a separate language known as Luxembourgish.

Upper German dialects include Alemannic (for instance Swiss German), Swabian, East Franconian, and Austro-Bavarian. They are spoken in parts of the Alsace, southern Germany, Liechtenstein, Austria, and in the German-speaking parts of Switzerland and Italy.

The High German varieties spoken by Ashkenazi Jews (mostly in the former Soviet Union) have several unique features, and are usually considered as a separate language, Yiddish. It is the only Germanic language that does not use the Latin alphabet as its standard script.

The dialects of German which are or were primarily spoken in colonies or communities founded by German speaking people resemble the dialects of the regions the founders came from. For example, Pennsylvania German resembles dialects of the Palatinate, and Hutterite German resembles dialects of Carinthia, while Venezuelan Aleman Crolonero is a Low Alemannic variant.

In Brazil the largest concentrations of German speakers (German Brazilians) are in Rio Grande do Sul, where Riograndenser Hunsrückisch was developed, especially in the areas of Santa Catarina, Paraná, and Espírito Santo.

In the United States, the teaching of the German language to latter-age students has given rise to a pidgin variant which combines the German language with the grammar and spelling rules of the English language. It is often understandable by either party. The speakers of this language often refer to it as Amerikanisch or Amerikanischdeutsch, although it is known in English as American German. However, this is a pidgin, not a dialect.

Standard German

Main article: Standard German

In German linguistics, only the traditional regional varieties are called dialects, not the different varieties of standard German.

Standard German has originated not as a traditional dialect of a specific region, but as a written language. However, there are places where the traditional regional dialects have been replaced by standard German (especially in major cities of Germany, and to some extent in Vienna).

Standard German differs regionally, especially between German-speaking countries, especially in vocabulary, but also in some instances of pronunciation and even grammar. This variation must not be confused with the variation of local dialects. Even though the regional

varieties of standard German are to a certain degree influenced by the local dialects, they are very distinct. German is thus considered a pericentric language.

In most regions, the speakers use a continuum of mixtures from more dialectal varieties to more standard varieties according to situation.

In the German-speaking parts of Switzerland, mixtures of dialect and standard are very seldom used, and the use of standard German is almost entirely restricted to the written language. Therefore, this situation has been called a medial diglossia. Standard German is rarely spoken, for instance when speaking with people who do not understand the Swiss German dialects at all, and it is expected to be used in school.

Grammar

German nouns inflect into:

- **one of four declension classes**

- **one of three genders:** *masculine, feminine, or neutral.*

Word endings indicate some grammatical genders; others are arbitrary and must be memorised.

- **two numbers:** *singular and plural*

- **four cases:** *nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative case.*

Although German is usually cited as an outstanding example of a highly inflected language, it should be noted that the degree of inflection is considerably less than in Old German, or in Icelandic today. The three genders have collapsed in the plural, which now behaves, grammatically, somewhat as a fourth gender. With four cases and three genders plus plural there are 16 distinct possible combinations of case and gender/number, but presently there are only six forms of the definite article used for the 16 possibilities. Inflection for case on the noun itself is required in the singular for strong masculine and neuter nouns in the genitive and sometimes in the dative. This dative ending is considered somewhat old-fashioned in many contexts and often dropped, but it is still used in sayings and in formal speech or written language. Weak masculine nouns share a common case ending for genitive, dative and accusative in the singular. Feminines are not declined in the singular. The plural does have an inflection for the dative. In total, six inflectional endings (not counting plural markers) exist in German: -s, -es, -n, -en, -ns, -e

In the German orthography, nouns and most words with the syntactical function of nouns are capitalized, which makes it quite easy for readers to find out what function a word has within the sentence. On the other hand, things get more difficult for the writer. This spelling convention is almost unique to German today (shared perhaps only by the closely related Luxembourgish language), although it was historically common in other languages (e.g., Danish), too.

Like most Germanic languages, German forms left-branching noun compounds, where the first noun modifies the category given by the second, for example: Hundehütte (eng. doghouse). Unlike English, where newer compounds or combinations of longer nouns are often written in open form with separating spaces, German (like the other German languages) always uses the closed form without spaces, for example: Baumhaus (eng. tree house). Like English, German allows arbitrarily long compounds, but these are rare. {See also English compounds.) The longest official German word is Rindfleischetikettierungsüberwachungsaufgabenübertragungsgesetz. There is even a child's game played in kindergartens and primary schools where a child begins the spelling of a word (which is not told) by naming the first letter. The next one tells the next letter, the third one tells the third and so on. The game is over when the a child can not think of another letter to be added to the word (see Ghost).

Verb inflection

Standard German verbs inflect into:

- **one of two conjugation classes,** *weak and strong* (like English).

(Note: in fact there is a third class, called "gemischte Verben", which can be either weak ("active meaning") or strong ("passive meaning"). There are about 200 strong or irregular verbs.)

- **three persons:** 1st, 2nd, 3rd.
- **two numbers:** singular and plural
- **three moods:** Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative
- **two general verb:** active and passive; the passive being composed and dividable into static and dynamic.
- **two non-composed tenses** (Present, Preterite) and **four composed tenses** (Perfect, Plusquamperfect, Future I, Future II)
- **no distinction between grammatical aspects** (in English, perfect and progressive; in Polish between completed and incompleted form; in Turkish between first-hand and second-hand information)

There are also many ways to expand, and sometimes radically change, the meaning of a base verb through several prefixes. Examples: *haften*=to stick, *verhaften*=to imprison; *kaufen*=to buy, *verkaufen*=to sell; *horen*=to hear, *aufhoren*=to cease.

The word order is much more flexible than in English. The word order can be changed for subtle changes of a sentence's meaning. In normal positive sentences the verb always has position 2, in questions it has position 1.

Most German vocabulary is derived from the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family, although there are significant minorities of words derived from Latin, French, and most recently English (which is known as Germish).

Writing system

German is written using the Latin alphabet. In addition to the 26 standard letters, German has three vowels with Umlaut, namely a, o and ii, as well as a special symbol for "ss", the Es/.ett or Scharfes-S (sharp "s")J. In traditional German spelling,/l replaces inseparable "ss" before consonants, word-, or partial-word-endings, while it appears only after long vowels or diphthongs in reform spelling, that is. in places, where it originally replaced sz.fi is not used at all in Switzerland.

Until the early 20th centurv. German was mostly printed in blackletter typefaces (mostly in Iraktur. but also in Schwabacher) and written in corresponding handwriting (for example Kurrent and Siitterlin). These variants of the Latin alphabet are very different from the serif or sans serif antiqua typefaces used today, and particularly the handwritten forms are difficult for the untrained to read. The printed forms however are claimed by some to be actually more readable when used for printing Germanic languages. The Nazis initially promoted Fraktur and Schwabacher since they were considered Aryan., although they later abolished them in 1941 by claiming that these letters were Jewish.

Phonology

Cognates with English.

There are many German words that are cognate to English words. Most of them are easily identifiable and have almost the same meaning.

German	Meaning of German	English cognate
<i>Bub (regional)</i>	<i>Best</i>	<i>Best</i>
<i>Bett</i>	<i>Bed</i>	<i>Bed</i>
<i>Essen</i>	<i>To eat</i>	<i>To eat</i>
<i>Finger</i>	<i>Finger</i>	<i>Finger</i>
<i>haben</i>	<i>To have</i>	<i>To have</i>
<i>Haus</i>	<i>House</i>	<i>House</i>
<i>Katze</i>	<i>Cat</i>	<i>Cat</i>
<i>Laus</i>	<i>Louse</i>	<i>Louse</i>
<i>Lause</i>	<i>Lice</i>	<i>Lice</i>
<i>Butter</i>	<i>Butter</i>	<i>Butter</i>
<i>Milch</i>	<i>milk</i>	<i>milk</i>
<i>lachen</i>	<i>to laugh</i>	<i>to laugh</i>

<i>Maus</i>	<i>mouse</i>	<i>mouse</i>
<i>Mausc</i>	<i>mice</i>	<i>mice</i>
<i>Nacht</i>	<i>night</i>	<i>night</i>
<i>Pfeife</i>	<i>pipe</i>	<i>pipe</i>
<i>Schitt</i>	<i>ship</i>	<i>ship</i>
<i>Singen, sang</i>	<i>sing, sang, sung</i>	<i>sing, sang, sung</i>
<i>sincken, sank</i>	<i>sink, sank, sunken</i>	<i>sink, sank, sunken</i>
<i>fallen, fiel, gefallen</i>	<i>fall, fell, fallen</i>	<i>fall, fell, fallen</i>
<i>horen</i>	<i>to hear</i>	<i>hear</i>
<i>schwimmen</i>	<i>to swim</i>	<i>swim</i>
<i>Tag</i>	<i>day</i>	<i>day</i>
<i>Wetter</i>	<i>weather</i>	<i>weather</i>
<i>Wille</i>	<i>will (noun)</i>	<i>will</i>
<i>Sommer</i>	<i>summer</i>	<i>summer</i>
<i>Winter</i>	<i>winter</i>	<i>winter</i>

There are cognates whose meanings in either language have changed through the centuries. It is sometimes difficult for both English and German speakers to discern the relationship. On the other hand, once the definitions are made clear, then the logical relation becomes obvious.

German	Meaning of English	Comment
<i>Baum</i>	<i>tree</i>	<i>Both derive from Old High German bourn meaning "tree", beam it is tree English one which, in Anglo-Saxon and Old English, has radically changed its meaning several times.</i>
<i>bekommen</i>	<i>to get</i>	<i>to become</i>
<i>drehen</i>	<i>to turn</i>	<i>to throw</i>
<i>ernten</i>	<i>to harvest</i>	<i>to earn</i>
<i>fechten</i>	<i>to fence</i>	<i>to fight</i>
<i>Gift</i>	<i>poison</i>	<i>Gift</i>
<i>kaufen</i>	<i>to buy</i>	<i>cheap</i>
<i>Knabe</i>	<i>boy</i>	
<i>Knecht</i>	<i>knave</i>	<i>knight</i>
<i>Kopf</i>	<i>servant</i>	<i>Latin cuppa 'bowl'; cf. French tele, from Latin testa Cup 'shell/bowl'</i>
<i>nehmen</i>	<i>head</i>	<i>numb sensation has been "taken away"; cf. German benommen, 'dazed'</i>
<i>raten</i>	<i>to guess,</i>	<i>to read</i>
<i>rilzen</i>	<i>to scratch</i>	<i>to write</i>
<i>Schmerz</i>	<i>pain</i>	<i>Smart</i>
<i>rachen</i>	<i>to take</i>	<i>to reak</i>
<i>Tisch</i>	<i>table</i>	<i>dish, desk Latin discus</i>
<i>Wald</i>	<i>forest</i>	<i>Weald</i>
<i>werden</i>	<i>to become weird</i>	

German and English also share many borrowings from other languages, especially Latin, French and Greek. Most of these word have the same meaning, while a few have subtle differences in meaning. As many of these words have been borrowed by numerous languages, not only German and English, they are called internationalisms in German linguistics.

German	Meaning of German	Word language of origin
<i>Armee</i>	<i>army</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Arrangement</i>	<i>arrangement</i>	<i>French</i>

<i>Chance</i>	<i>opportunity</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Courage</i>	<i>Courage</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Chuzpe</i>	<i>chutzpah</i>	<i>Yiddish</i>
<i>Disposition</i>	<i>Disposition</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Feuilleton</i>	<i>feuilleton</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Futur</i>	<i>future tense</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Genre</i>	<i>Genre</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Mikroskop</i>	<i>microscope</i>	<i>Greek</i>
<i>Partei</i>	<i>political party</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Position</i>	<i>Position</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>positiv</i>	<i>positive</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Prestige</i>	<i>prestige</i>	<i>French</i>
<i>Psychologie</i>	<i>psychology</i>	<i>Greek</i>
<i>Religion</i>	<i>Religion</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Tabu</i>	<i>taboo</i>	<i>Tongan</i>
<i>Zigarre</i>	<i>cigar</i>	<i>Spanish</i>
<i>Zucker</i>	<i>sugar</i>	<i>Sanskrit, via Arabic</i>

Examples of German

Translation	Phrase
<i>German</i>	<i>Deutsch</i>
<i>Hello</i>	<i>Hallo</i>
<i>Good morning</i>	<i>Guten Morgen</i>
<i>Good day</i>	<i>Guten tag</i>
<i>Good evening</i>	<i>Guten Abend</i>
<i>Good night</i>	<i>Gute Nacht</i>
<i>Good-bye</i>	<i>Auf Wiedersehen</i>
<i>Please</i>	<i>Blue</i>
<i>You are welcome</i>	<i>Bitte</i>
<i>Thank you</i>	<i>Danke</i>
<i>That</i>	<i>Das</i>
<i>How much?</i>	<i>Wie viel?</i>
<i>Yes</i>	<i>Ja</i>
<i>No</i>	<i>Nein</i>
<i>Where is the toilet?</i>	<i>Wo ist die Toilette?</i>
<i>Generic toast</i>	<i>Prosit</i>
<i>Do you speak English?</i>	<i>Sprechen Sie Englisch?</i>
<i>I do not understand</i>	<i>Ich verstehe nicht</i>
<i>Excuse me</i>	<i>Entschuldigung</i>

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke German language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the German language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the German language?

4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the German language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the German language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in German language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the German language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the German language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the German language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the German language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the German language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the German language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the German language?
14. What can you say about the future of the German language?

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 3 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	3.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	3.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>A) How can explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?</i> <i>B) How does a language change?</i> <i>C) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?</i> 2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади 2.3 Герман тиллари тарихига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади 2.4 кўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади <i>A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic</i> <i>B) The first consonant shift of PG Period</i> <i>C) The Second Consonant Shift.</i> <i>D) High German Dialects and their features.</i> 2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди	1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади. 2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади. 3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади. Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ундошлар бирлиги ва иккинчи кўчиши. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди	Дифференциация, Интеграция тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.

Мавзу 3. Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	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.
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Герман тилларида содир бўлган биринчи ва иккинчи ундошлар кўчиши тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Прото – герман атамасини тушунтириш; - Мутация тушунчаси билан таништириш;	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Прото-герман ҳолати ҳақида маълумот олади. 2) Ундошларнинг биринчи ва иккинчи кўчиши содир бўлишининг тарихий ва ижтимоий шарт-шароатларинини билиб олади.

- Ундошлар биринчи кўчишини тавсифлаш; - Юқори немис тилини гуруҳлаш; - Иккинчи ундошлар кўчишини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	3) Ҳинд-Европа ва герман тилларидаги товушлар мунтазам мос тушиш ҳолатлари изоҳлаб бера олади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ҳа - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, таркатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жупликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic.

The Germanic group acquired their specific distinctive features after the separation of the ancient Germanic tribes from other IE tribes and prior to their further expansion and disintegration that is during the period of the PG parent-language. These PG features inherited by the descendant languages represent the common features of the Germanic group. Other common features developed later, in the course of the individual histories of separate Germanic languages, as a result of similar tendencies arising from PG causes. On the other hand, many Germanic features have been disguised, transformed and even lost in later history.

PHONETICS

Word Stress

The peculiar Germanic system of word accentuation is one of the most important distinguishing features of the group; it arose in PG, was fully or partly retained in separate languages and served as one of the major causes for many linguistic changes.

It is known that in ancient IE, prior to the separation of Germanic, there existed two ways of word accentuation: musical pitch and force stress. The position of the stress was free and movable, which means that it could fall on any syllable of the word—a root-morpheme, an affix or an ending - and could be shifted both in form-building and word-building. Both these properties of the word accent were changed in PG. Force or expiratory stress (also called dynamic and breath stress) became the only type of stress used. In Early PG word stress was still as movable as in ancient IE but in Late PG its position in the word was stabilized. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable, which was usually the root of the word and sometimes the prefix; the other syllables - suffixes and endings were - unstressed. The stress could no longer move either in form-building or word-building.

These features of word accent were inherited by the Germanic languages, and despite later alterations are observable today. In Mod E there is a sharp contrast between accented and unaccented syllables due to the force of the stress. The main accent commonly falls on the root-morpheme, and is never shifted in building grammatical forms. The following English and German words illustrate its fixed position in grammatical forms and derived words:

English: *be'come, be'coming, over'come; 'lover, 'loving, be'loved,*

German: *'Lie be, 'lie ben 'liebte, ge'liebt, 'lieberhaft, 'Liebling.*

(Cf. these native words with words of foreign origin which move the stress in derivation, though never in form-building: *exhibit v, exhibition n*).

The heavy fixed word stress inherited from PG has played an important role in the

development of the Germanic languages, and especially in phonetic and morphological changes. Due to the difference in the force of articulation the stressed and unstressed syllables underwent widely different changes: accented syllables were pronounced with great distinctness and precision, while unaccented became less distinct and were phonetically weakened. The differences between the sounds in stressed position were preserved and emphasized, whereas the contrasts between the unaccented sounds were weakened and lost. Since the stress was fixed on the root, the weakening and loss of sounds mainly affected the suffixes and grammatical endings. Many endings merged with the suffixes, were weakened and dropped. Cf., e.g., the reconstructed PG word 'fish', with its descendants in Old Germanic languages:

PG *fiskaz, Gtjisks, O Icel jiskr, OE jisc.

(The asterisk * is placed before reconstructed hypothetical forms which have not been found in written records; the words may be pronounced exactly as they are written; spelling in Old Germanic languages was phonetic).

Vowels

Throughout history, beginning with PG, vowels displayed a strong tendency to change. They underwent different kinds of alterations: *qualitative* and *quantitative*, *dependent* and *independent*. *Qualitative* changes affect the quality of the sound, e.g.: [o>a] or [p>f]; *quantitative* changes make long sounds short or short sounds long, e.g.: [i>i:]; *dependent* changes (also *positional* or *combinative*) are restricted to certain positions or phonetic conditions, for instance, a sound may change under the influence of the neighboring sounds or in a certain type of a syllable; *independent* changes - also *spontaneous* or *regular* - take place irrespective of phonetic conditions, i.e. they affect a certain sound in all positions.

From an early date the treatment of vowels was determined by the nature of word stress. In accented syllables the oppositions between vowels were carefully maintained and new distinctive features were introduced, so that the number of stressed vowels grew. In unaccented positions the original contrasts between vowels were weakened or lost; the distinction of short and long vowels was neutralized so that by the age of writing the long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped in unstressed final syllables.

Strict differentiation of long and short vowels is commonly regarded as an important characteristic of the Germanic group. The contrast of short and long vowels is supported by the different directions of their changes. While long vowels generally tended to become closer and to diphthongize, short vowels, on the contrary, often changed into more open sounds. These tendencies can be seen in the earliest vowel changes which distinguished the PG vowel system from its PIE source. IE short [ɔ] changed in Germanic into the more open vowel [a] and thus ceased to be distinguished from the original IE [a]; in other words in PG they merged into [ɔ]. The merging of long vowels proceeded in the opposite direction: IE long [a:] was narrowed to [ɔ:] and merged with [ɔ:]. The examples in table illustrate the resulting correspondences of vowels in parallels from Germanic and non-Germanic languages (more apparent in Old Germanic languages than in modern words, for the sounds have been modified in later history).

In later PG and in separate Germanic languages the vowels displayed a tendency to positional assimilative changes: the pronunciation of a vowel was modified under the influence of the following or preceding consonant; sometimes a vowel was approximated more closely to the following vowel. The resulting sounds were phonetically conditioned allophones which could eventually coincide with another phoneme or develop into a new phoneme.

The earliest instances of progressive assimilation were common Germanic mutations; they occurred in Late PG before its disintegration or a short time after. In certain phonetic conditions, namely before the nasal [n] and before [i] or [j] in their next syllable the short [e], [i] and [u] remained or became close (i.e. appeared as [i] and [u], while in the absence of these conditions the more open allophones were used: [e] and [ɔ], respectively. Later, these phonetic conditions became irrelevant and the allophones were phonologised.

After the changes, in Late PG, the vowel system contained the following sounds:

SHORT VOWELS: **i** **e** **a** **o** **u**

LONG VOWELS: **i:** **e:** **a:** **o:** **u:**

It is believed that in addition to these monophthongs PG had a set of diphthongs made up of more open nuclei and closer glides: [Ei], [ai], [eu], [au] and also [iu]; nowadays, however, many scholars interpret them as sequences of two independent monophthongs.

CONSONANTS. PROTO-GERMANIC CONSONANT SHIFT

The specific peculiarities of consonants constitute the most remarkable distinctive feature of the Germanic linguistic group. Comparison with other languages within the IE family reveals regular correspondences between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. Thus we regularly find [f] in Germanic where other IE languages have p; cf. e.g., E *full*, R *HOJHUU*, Fr *plein*; wherever Germanic has [p], cognate words in non-Germanic languages have [b] (cf. E *pool*, R *60-Jiomo*). The consonants in Germanic look 'shifted' as compared with the consonants of non-Germanic languages. The alterations of the consonants took place in PG, and the resulting sounds were inherited by the languages of the Germanic group. The changes of consonants in PG were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th c. and are often called Grimm's Law. It is also known as the *First* or *Proto-Germanic*. 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).

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19th c. by a Danish scholar, Carl Verner. They are known as Verner's Law. Verner's Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. According to Verner's Law all the early 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. The voicing occurred in early PG at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme. The process of voicing can be shown as a step in a succession of consonant changes in Prehistorically reconstructed forms; consider, e.g. the changes of the second consonant in the *wordfather*:

PIE - *pa'ter

Early PG - *fa'ðar

***fa'ʒar**

Late PG - *faðar

Verner's Law accounts for the appearance of voiced fricative or its later modifications [d] in place of the voiceless which ought to be expected under Grimm's Law. In late PG, the phonetic conditions that caused the voicing had disappeared: the stress had shifted to the first syllable. As a result of voicing by Verner's Law there arose an interchange of consonants in the grammatical forms of the word, termed *grammatical interchange*. Part of the forms retained a voiceless fricative, while other forms - with a different position of stress in Early PG - acquired a voiced fricative. Both consonants could undergo later changes in the OG languages, but the original difference between them goes back to the time of movable word stress and PG voicing. The interchanges can be seen in the principal forms of some OG verbs, though even at that time most of the interchanges were leveled out by analogy.

Simplification of Word Structure in Late Proto-Germanic.

Role of Stem-suffixes in the Formation of Declensions

Some changes in the morphological structure of the word in Late PG account for the development of an elaborate system of declensions in OG languages, and for the formation of grammatical endings. Originally, in Early PG the word consisted of three main component parts: the root, the stem-suffix and the grammatical ending. The stem-suffix was a means of word derivation, the ending - a marker of the grammatical form. In Late PG the old stem-suffixes lost their derivational force and merged with other components of the word, usually with the endings.

The word was simplified: the three morpheme structure was transformed into a two-morpheme structure. The original grammatical ending, together with the stem-suffix formed a new ending.

The simplification of the word structure and the loss of stem-suffixes as distinct components was facilitated - or, perhaps, caused - by the heavy Germanic word stress fixed on the root. Most nouns and adjectives in PG, and also many verbs, had stem-forming suffixes; according to stem-suffixes they fell into groups, or classes: a-stems, i-stems, o-stems, etc. This grouping accounts for the formation of different declensions in nouns and adjectives, and for some differences in the conjugation of verbs. Groups of nouns with different stem-suffixes made distinct types of declension. The original grammatical endings were alike for most nouns, e.g. Nom, sg -z, Dat. -i, Ace. -rn. When these endings fused with different stem-suffixes, each group of nouns acquired a different set of endings. The division of nouns into declensions resting on the stem-suffixes is not peculiar to Germanic alone; it is also found in other IE languages (some types of declensions in Germanic correspond to certain declensions in non-Germanic languages, e.g. 6- stems correspond to the first declensions in Latin and Russian (their stem-suffix is -a: Germanic -o has developed from IE -a; Germanic a-stems correspond to the second declension in Latin and in Russian (o-stems in both these languages, since IE [o] became [a] in Germanic). The Germanic languages preserved the old classification of nouns with great accuracy, added other distinctive features to the noun paradigms and, as a result, had a complicated system of noun declensions in the early periods of history.

Strong and Weak Verbs

The bulk of the verbs in PG and in the OG languages fall into two large groups called *strong* and *weak*. The terms strong and weak were proposed by J. Grimm; he called the verbs *strong* because they had preserved the richness of form since the age of the parent-language and in this sense could be contrasted to *weak* verbs lacking such variety of form. From the verbs the terms were extended to noun and adjective declensions. The main difference between these groups lies in the means of building the principal forms: the Present tense the Past tense and Participle II. The strong verbs built their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings; they made use of IE ablaut with certain modifications due to phonetic changes and environment.

Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантикий ноизчиликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 3 семинар
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>A) How can you explain the facts of regular correspondence between languages?</i> <i>B) How does a language changes?</i> <i>B) What is the essence of the First consonant shift?</i> 2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади 2.3 Герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади 2.4 кўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади <i>A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic</i> <i>B) The first consonant shift of PG Period</i> <i>B) The Second Consonant Shift</i> <i>Г) High German Dialects and their features</i> 2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди ўртоклари томонидан берилган жавобларни баҳолайди.	1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради. 2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади. 3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради. 4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади. 5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, 6. Эслаб қолади.
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ундоўлар биринчи ва иккинчи кўчиши. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади талабалар билими ва жавоблари баҳоланади.	Дифференция, интеграция тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.

**3 – мавзу. Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятлари
Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси**

Вақти – 4 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар
Семинар машғулотининг режаси	A) Mutation of vowels in Proto-Germanic B) The first consonant shift of PG Period B) The Second Consonant Shift Г) High German Dialects and their features
Семинар машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга герман тилларида содир бўлган биринчи ва иккинчи ундошлар кўчиши тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни	

шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Прото герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Мутация тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Ундошлар биринчи кўчишини тавсифлаш; - Юқори немис тиллани гуруҳлаш; - Ундошлар иккинчи кўчишини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Прото-герман ҳолати ҳақида маълумот олади. 2) Ундошларнинг биринчи ва иккинчи кўчиши содир бўлишининг тарихий ва ижтимоий шартшароитларини билиб олади. 3) Ҳинд - Европа ва герман тилларидаги товушлар мунтазам мос тушиш ҳолатлари изоҳлаб бера олади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

THE HISTORICAL COMPARATIVE METHOD IN LINGUISTICS

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 - *śaś, sapta, aṣṭā, nava*. 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), *gott* (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. (see Berezin F.M., 1969)

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 Armenian; 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, *Über 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 philologist 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.

These shifts may be shown by the following chart: *Indo-European* becomes in *Low German* and in *High German*:

<i>Bh</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p(b)</i>
<i>dh</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>t</i>
<i>gh</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>k(g)</i>
<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>ff(f)</i>
<i>d</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>zz(z)</i>
<i>g</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>hh(h)</i>
<i>P</i>	<i>f</i>	
<i>t</i>	<i>th</i>	
<i>k</i>	<i>h</i>	

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. (see Berezin F.M., 1969)

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 *fæther*, *mōthor*, *brōthor*, since the Latin *pater*, *māter*, *frāter* have, as middle consonant *t*, which should give *th*. Why, then, has Anglo-Saxon only *brōthor* where the *th* is regular; why are the other forms (*fræder*, *mōdor*) missing? Why does Anglo-Saxon show, instead of "fæther", *fæder*: 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: *pitár*, *mātár*, *bhrátar*. In the first two words the accent comes after the *t*; in *bhrátar* it comes before. The development of *bhrátar* was therefore regular: *t* shifted to *th*

(Anglo-Saxon *brothor*, English *brother*). In cases where the accent occurred *after* the *t*, however, a further shifting took place; the *t* became *d* instead of *th*, giving the Anglo-Saxon *fæder* 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. Vostokov (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 have 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 **māter* (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 *māthir* or the Slavonic *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 *mōdor* respectively. So modern equivalents of "mother", like the French *mère*, 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 *khorooshiy* 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 (see Berezin F.M., 1969):

Periods in the History of English

VI –XI Old English (OE)	XI –XV Middle English (ME)	XVI –XVII Early New English (ENE)	XVIII –XXI New English (ModE)
Old English is represented by: Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (VII -IX), Beowulf (VII –X), Cura Pastoralis, King Alfred’s translations and others	Middle English is represented by the works of: G.Chaucer “Canterbury tales”, Layaman, Brut Ormurlum, Morte d’Arthur and others	Early New English is represented by the works of: W.Shakespeare, Ch. Marlowe, W.Caxton, E.Spenser, Ph.Massinger, J.Fletcher, B.Johnson	

		and others
		Early New English + New English =Modern English
Old English was the period of full endings : Eg: <u>singan</u> , <u>sunu</u>	Middle English was the period of leveled endings : Eg: <u>singen</u> , <u>son</u>	Modern English is the period of lost endings : sing, son

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4 – мавзу. *Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби*

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 4 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Кириш, визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби Вернер қонуни
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Герман тилларининг луғат таркибини тушунтириш; - Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби билан таништириш; - Герман тилларининг луғат таркибини тавсифлаш; - Герман тилларининг луғат таркибини гуруҳлаш; - Вернер қонунини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: - Герман тилларининг луғат таркибини ўрганади - Вернер қонуни ўрганади
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 4 маъруза машғулотининг Технологик Картаси

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзунининг мақсади, ўқув машғулотида кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>A) What do you know about the relationship between English, German and Dutch.</i> <i>B) What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i> <i>B) What language is the closest to the English Language?</i> <i>Г) What can you say about the Dutch</i>	1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади. 2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади. 3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади. Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.

	<p><i>language?</i> <i>Д) What can you say about the Afrikaans and Yiddish?</i> 2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган холда маърузани баён этишда давом этади 2.3 Герман тилларининг луғат таркибига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади 2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган холда мавзу ёритилади <i>А) What can you say about the High German dialect?</i> <i>Б) What is common with English and Frisian?</i> <i>В) Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i> <i>Г) What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i> 2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.</p>
<p>3 – босқич. Якуний (15 мин.)</p>	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. <u>Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби ва Вернер қонуни тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди</u></p>	<p>Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

VOCABULARY

Until recently it was believed that the Germanic languages had a large proportion of words, which have no parallels in other groups of the IE family. Recent research, however, has revealed numerous non-Germanic parallels for words formerly regarded as specifically Germanic. It appears that Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels.

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

VERNER'S LAW

This is phonetic principle formulated by the Danish philologist Karl Adolph 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 Indo-European 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 **s** and **r**. Verner's law states that with respect to the 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 proves both 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**, ***þ** (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.

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 difference between **phate:r* and **bhra:te:r* was therefore one of second-syllable 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' < PG mc. **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* < **kius* **kuz-* < **gêus* -**gûs-* 'taste, try'. We would have *coren* for *chosen* in Modern English if the consonantal shell of *choose* and *chose* had not been generalized. 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.

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Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар ақс этирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар ақс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар ақс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантикий ноизчилликлар кўп

Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби мавзуси бўйича семинарнинг таълим технологияси модели

4 – мавзу. Герман тилларининг луғат таркиби

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар
Семинар машғулотининг режаси	А) Historical – comparative method in linguistics Б) Stages in the development in the history of HCM В) Linguistic features of Germanic Languages
Семинар машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга қиёсий тирахий тилшунослик ва герман тилларини ўрганиш тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Қиёсий тарихий тилшуносликни тушунтириш; - Ҳинд - Европа тиллари билан таништириш; - Ҳинд - Европа тилларидаги гуруҳларни тавсифлаш; - Герман тилларни гуруҳлаш; - Герман тилларни изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Қиёсий - тарихий тилшуносликнинг асосий мақсади, вазикаси ва тарихи ҳақида маълумотга эга бўлади. 2) Ҳинд - Европа тиллари ўртасидаги умумий хусусиятларни ўрганиб олади. 3) Герман тилларининг фонетик хусусиятларини изоҳлаб бера олади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 4 семинар машғулотининг Технологик Картаси

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>А) What is the number of the languages existing in the world?</i> <i>Б) How many Indo-European languages are there in the world?</i>	1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради. 2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.

	<p><i>B) How many Germanic languages are there in the world?</i></p> <p><i>D) What groups of Germanic languages do you know?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Талаблар жавоблари қиёсий-тарихий тилшуносликга ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) Historical-comparative method in linguistics</i></p> <p><i>B) Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic languages</i></p> <p><i>C) The First Consonant Shift</i></p> <p><i>D) Verner's Law</i></p> <p><i>E) Rhotacism</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди ўртоклари томонидан берилган жавобларни баҳолайди.</p>	<p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
<p>3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)</p>	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади талабалар билими ва жавоблари баҳоланади.</p>	<p>Ҳинд - Европа тиллари, Герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

GERMANIC ALPHABETS

Germanic tribes used 3 (three) different alphabets for their writings. These alphabets partly succeeded each other in time.

The earliest of these was the runic alphabet, each separate Letter being called Rune. Runes have a very peculiar look for eyes accustomed to modern European alphabets.

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

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

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

Modern linguists think that runes posses another kind of meaning, which we cannot find in ideograms, hieroglyphs or in modern exotic alphabets - this meaning exists in subconsciousness level. Runes were the personification of the surrounding world, essence of

outlook. With the help of special links between runes a man could express nearly everything, compiling them (so called combined runes). In different times runes could change their meaning, so we can say this adjusting system created dozens of meanings of one and the same symbol. (Linguists find confirmation of this theory in the following example - every rune in different languages had separate and original meaning, which didn't fully coincide with another one in the second language.

Like all 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", modern German "raunen"). The last 1000 years in Iceland runes have been used for divination. In Anglo-Saxon England the hours of king council were called "runes".

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

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

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

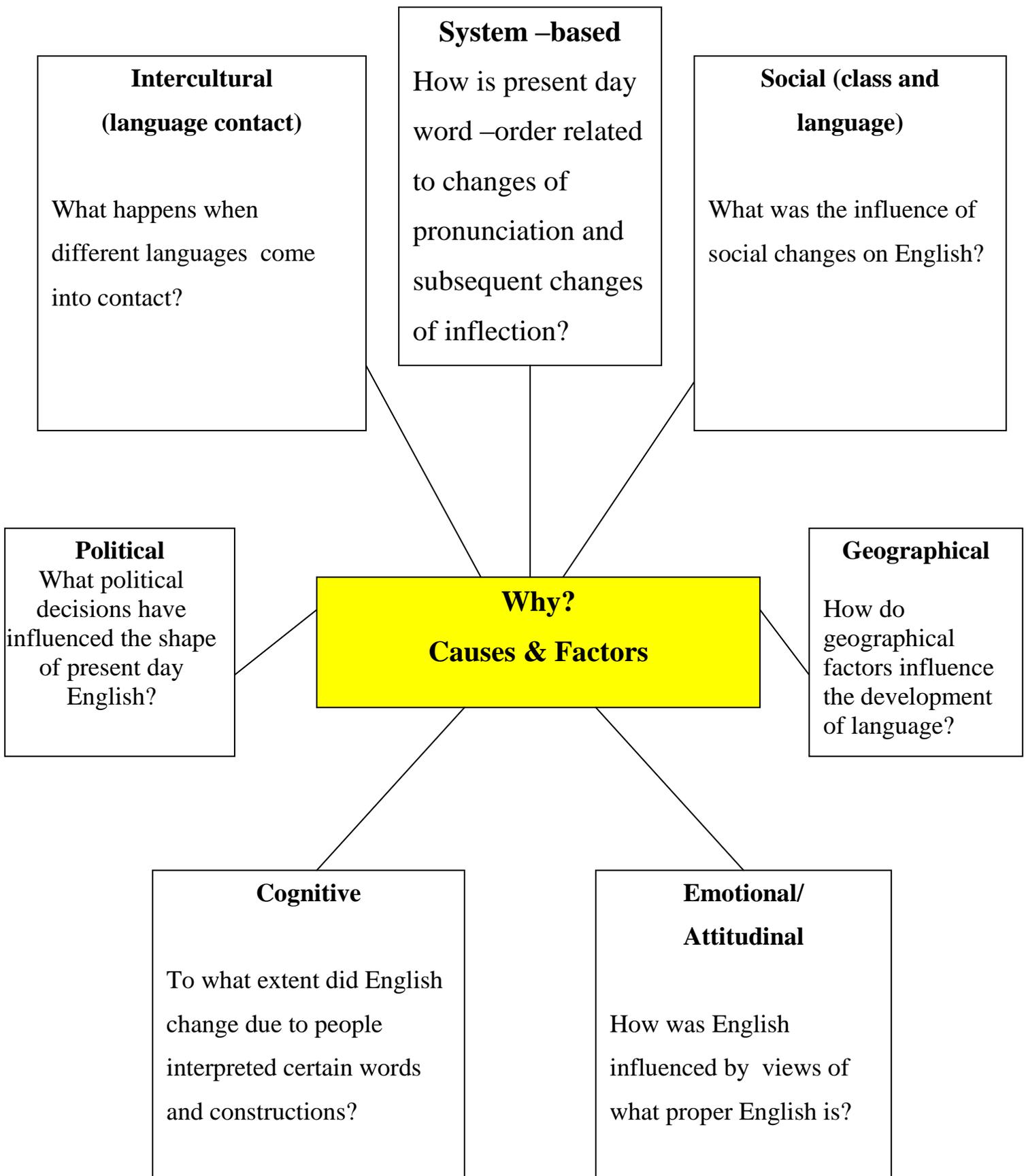
The number of runes in alphabet varied in the course of time. 28 signs appeared in the middle of the 6-th c. In Britain where German runes penetrated in the 5-th c. with Anglo-Saxon invasion, Frisian futark was improved by the some additions and changes (mostly combined runes) and numbered 29 units.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

The next step in development of RA took place in the middle of the 12-th c. by adding dots to 16 sign system (dotted alphabet). It was used along with Latin one till the 16-th c. We can find its variants in Slavonic manuscripts. Ripped and branchy RA weren't alike to dotted one. Combined (constrained) runes. They attract attention by their unusual form - it is too difficult to regard it as ordinary symbol. Their use is quite miscellaneous: in amulets, braketats, 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 signs, which existed already, with the aim to paint them with brush. During 5 following centuries it was used by west Goths in Spain and in the South of France. But in 1018 Toledian counsel decreed to prohibit all runic alphabets as vane and pagan ones. It is clear from Letter names and their order that UA is younger than other RA. So we can trace Greek and Latin influence in the system. For example, futark structure was changed by adding 2 symbols to the first att. So UA contains 12 signs, which do not have analogs in Old Gothic: Q, D, A, B, G, and E, X, K, L, N, P, and T.

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

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



**Intercultural
(language contact)**

What happens when different languages come into contact?

System –based

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

Social (class and language)

What was the influence of social changes on English?

Why?

Causes & Factors

Political

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

Geographical

How do geographical factors influence the development of language?

Cognitive

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

**Emotional/
Attitudinal**

How was English influenced by views of what proper English is?

5 - мавзу. Шарқий герман тиллари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 4 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Кириш, визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	1. Шарқий герман тиллари 2. Гот тили
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Шарқий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Шарқий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Шарқий герман тиллари билан таништириш; - Шарқий герман тилларини тавсифлаш; - Шарқий герман тилларини гуруҳлаш; - Шарқий герман тилларда ёзилган матнларни изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: - Шарқий герман тиллари хақида маълумотга эга бўлади. - Шарқий герман тиллари билан танишиб чиқади. - Шарқий герман тилларда ёзилган матнларни таний олади ва таржима қила олади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, таркатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 5 маъруза машғулотининг Технологик Картаси

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзунининг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади <i>A) What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i> <i>B) What can you say about the Gothic language?</i> 2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади	1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади. 2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади. 3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.

	<p>2.3 Шаркий герман тилларига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намойиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 Қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>1. <i>What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Gothic language?</i></p> <p>2. <i>Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Gothic language was used?</i></p> <p>3. <i>What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Gothic language?</i></p> <p>4. <i>What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Gothic language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>Эслаб қолади.</p>
<p>3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)</p>	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди.</p>	<p>Шаркий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

THE GOTHIC LANGUAGE

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

For a time the Goths ruled a great kingdom north of the Danube river and the Black Sea. Then, in A.D. 315, the Huns, a savage people, swept into Europe from Asia. They conquered the Ostrogoths and forced the Visigoths to seek refuge across the Danube within the boundaries of the Roman Empire. In a battle fought near the city of Adrianople, in 378, the Visigoths defeated and slew Emperor Valens. For a time they lived peaceably on Roman territory. In 395 they rose in rebellion under their ambitious young king Alaric and overran a large part of the Eastern Empire. In 410 Rome fell into the hands of the Visigoths. Alaric led the attack.

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

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

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

Gothic which have come down to us written.

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

THE GOTHIC WRITTEN LANGUAGE AND MONUMENTS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

All these manuscripts were first published in 1819-1839.

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

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

At the same time there appeared some innovations characteristic of the Gothic language only, such as Class IV of weak verbs in -non, the optative and imperative forms in -au. On the other hand, the Gothic language has lost some forms retained by other Old Germanic languages, among them the Instrumental case, the declension in considerable changes appeared in different word-former under the influence of reduction of unstressed syllables; the beginning of this process goes back to the period of Common Germanic. This accounts for the absence of the personal index-p in the 3 person singular optative (nimai), of the personal index -e in the 3 person singular preterit indicative (nam), of the Dative case ending -i (gumin* guminii) .which

were lost in Common Germanic or probably when Old Germanic languages only began to separate from one another. The reduction of unstressed syllables caused the three-part structure of the word (root + stem-forming suffix + ending) to be brought to two parts (root + ending) or even to one part only (cf. the Dat. sing. of degs. "day" :dag: * a3-a-a).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Principal features of Gothic

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

Noun and Adjectives: Gothic has five cases:

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

Nominative).

Nouns: The inflectional ending depends on:

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

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

▪whether the word is singular or plural.

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

- **The stem** to which the adjective belongs (as for the nouns above).
- **Inflection:** weak inflection (for the vocative and after a definite article) and strong inflection (in all other situations).

Articles and demonstrative pronouns

The definite article is an important new development in Germanic.

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

The indefinite article does not yet exist.

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

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

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

Verbs

The form of the verb indicates:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

References

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Gothic language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Gothic language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Gothic language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Gothic language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Gothic language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Gothic language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Gothic language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Gothic language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Gothic language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Gothic language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Gothic language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Gothic language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Gothic language?

Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантиқий ноизчилликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 5 семинар машғулотининг
Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p><i>A) What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i></p> <p><i>B) What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p><i>B) What can you say about the Icelandic language?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Swedish language?</i></p> <p><i>Д) What can you say about the Danish language?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шарқий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) History of Gothic language.</i></p> <p><i>B) Phonetic structure of Gothic languages.</i></p> <p><i>B) Grammar of Gothic Language.</i></p> <p><i>Г) Vocabulary of Gothic Language.</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади.</p> <p>Шарқий герман тиллари.</p> <p>Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.</p>	<p>Шарқий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

5 Семинар мавзуси: Шарқий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотивнинг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотивнинг шакли	визуал семинар
Семинар машғулотивнинг режаси	1) Шарқий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари 2) Гот тили
Семинар машғулотивнинг мақсади: Талабаларга Шарқий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Шарқий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Шарқий герман тилларининг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Шарқий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Шарқий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Шарқий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Гот тилининг фонетик, грамматик, ва лексик хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Шарқий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Principal features of Gothic

Pronunciation

Some letters are pronounced differently in Gothic from their pronunciation in Dutch, for example the <u> is pronounced like the Dutch <oe> in "**boek**" (like English "soon"), but it can be either short or long.

Furthermore there are sounds which are no longer found in Dutch, for example the letter <d> is pronounced like the voiced <th> in English "**then**" (*egpiudinassus* = 'kingdom'), the like the unvoiced <th> in English "thin" (*egpata* = 'the' or 'that') or the <q> like a sort of "ku", ie a/k/ with simultaneous lip-rounding (eg *qimai* = 'come').

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

Nouns 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-, o-, i-, u- and n-stems. These terms refer to the reconstructed Primitive Germanic (eg bird: "*fugls*" is **an a-stem**, of the Primitive Germanic word: *fuglaz).

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

whether the word is **singular** or **plural**.

Adjectives

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

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

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

Articles and Pronouns

Articles and demonstrative pronouns

The definite article is an important new development in Germanic. It arose from the demonstrative pronoun and still has the same form in Gothic (*sa* = 'the' or 'that' masculine, *þata* neuter, *so* feminine). It is only the context which enables its use as an article to be recognised. The indefinite article does not yet exist.

Possessive pronouns

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

Personal pronouns

Gothic uses the 1st, 2nd and 3rd person and a three-fold number division. Alongside singular and plural there is also a dual which indicates two people (eg *wit* = 'the two of us'). The familiar and polite forms of "you" use the same form of the second person, as in English, but unlike most other modern Germanic languages.

Verbs

The form of the verb indicates:

- the person (1st, 2nd, 3rd) and the number (singular, dual, plural)

A personal pronoun is used when needed for emphasis or contrast. In other cases Gothic suffices 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:

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

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

by reduplication, eg sleep: *slepan* - va/slep - ля'/slepum).

Strong and weak verbs are a typical feature of all modern Germanic languages.

- 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 *wairpun* = 'become') and a perfect participle (eg *daupips was* = 'he was baptised'). Here we can see the beginnings of the development from a synthetic to an analytical language, which is typical of all West-Germanic languages.

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

The Gothic Bible translation

The Goths came from Scandinavia to eastern Europe, where they played an important role within the east Germanic tribes.

In the fourth century the Western Goths were to be found on the Balkan peninsula, and the Eastern Goths to the north of the Black Sea. During the Wandering of the Nations in the fifth century the Western Goths moved on to the southern France and Spain, where they established an empire which lasted until the eighth century. The Eastern Goths set up their own empire in Italy in 493 under king **Theoderic the Great (born 455, reigned 493-526)** which lasted until the sixth century. In both empires the Gothic tongue gradually disappeared and the languages of the original inhabitants prevailed.

In the Crimea a form of Gothic was still spoken until the 18th century by the remnants of the Eastern Goths, but since then the language has died out completely.

Apart from numerous runic inscriptions the oldest preserved Gothic text - in fact the oldest in any Germanic language - is the "**Wulfila Bible**" from the fourth century.

Wulfila (311-383), also known as *Ulfilas*, was a Western Gothic bishop who translated the bible from Greek for the benefit of his converted Goths. Only part of this bible translation has survived, comprising three quarters of the *New Testament* and part of *Nehemia* from the *Old Testament*, both in manuscripts from the sixth century. The most important and attractive of these manuscripts is the Codex Argenteus, with lettering in silver and gold, which was probably created in northern Italy for Theoderic the Great. At present it is preserved in the University Library in Uppsala, Sweden.

Wulfila was perhaps the first person to put any Germanic language, let alone Gothic, into writing. To this end he compiled an alphabet with letters which he borrowed mainly from Greek. He also used some Germanic runic letters and some Latin letters.

One problem for Wulfila was that there simply did not exist Gothic words for some of the biblical terms and concepts. He therefore extended the **vocabulary** in several ways:

semantic loans: existing Gothic words gained a new, Christian content; eg *galga*, formerly 'pole' gained the meaning 'cross'

new compounds and derivatives: eg the word 'altar' was translated with the compound *liunslastaps* (ie 'place of sacrifice')

loan words: Wulfila took words from Greek and Latin, eg *praufetus* = 'prophet', *aiwaggeljo* - 'evangelia' ("gospel")

As far as **syntax** is concerned, Wulfila was strongly influenced by Greek, as a result of which we can learn hardly anything about Gothic syntax.

Gothic, in fact, followed its own developmental path and cannot therefore be equated with Common Germanic, but it is certainly a good representative of its principal features. We can use Gothic to understand better how the Germanic languages, in this case Dutch, developed.

As example of the Gothic language (literal translation alongside):

Atta unsar

Atta unsar bu in himinam,
weihnai namo bein
qimai biudinassus peins.
wairbai wilja beins,
swe in himinajah ana airbai.
hlaif unsarana bana sinteinan gif
uns himma daga.
jah aflet uns batei skulans sijaima,
swaswe jah weis afletam
bairn skulam unsaraim.
jah ni briggais uns
in fraistubnjai,
ak lausei uns af bamma ubilin.

Our Father

Father ours thou in heaven be hallowed name
thine come kingdom
thine occur will
thine as in heaven also on earth.
bread ours the daily give us this day.
and forgive us that sinners we are
as also we forgive
the sinners ours.
and not bring us
in testing
but deliver us from the wicked one.

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 6 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	4.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	4.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) <i>What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i> B) <i>What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i> C) <i>What can you say about the Icelandic language?</i> D) <i>What can you say about the Swedish language?</i> E) <i>What can you say about the Danish language?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) <i>History of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Icelandic languages.</i> B) <i>Phonetic structure of Norwegian languages.</i> C) <i>Grammar of North GL.</i> D) <i>Vocabulary of North GL.</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади.</p> <p>2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади.</p> <p>3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади.</p> <p>Шимолий герман тиллари.</p> <p>Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди</p>	<p>Шимолий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

Мавзу 6. Шимолий герман тиллари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	<p>A) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари.</p> <p>B) Норвег тили.</p> <p>C) Дания тили.</p> <p>D) Швед тили.</p> <p>E) Исланд тили.</p>
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга шимолий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - шимолий герман тилларини тушунтириш;	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари

- шимолий герман тилларини тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларини тавсифлаш; - шимолий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - шимолий герман тилларининг фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Норвег, Швед, Исланд ва Дания тилларининг фонетик, грмматик ва лексик хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Шимолий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуптликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Afrikaans

Afrikaans is a contemporary West Germanic language developed from seventeenth century Dutch. It is one of the eleven official languages of the Republic of South Africa. "Although Afrikaans derives from Dutch, it was also influenced by Malay (spoken by the slaves in the 17th century) and the indigenous African languages. The first recognizable form of Afrikaans was apparently spoken by the Malay people of the Cape in the 17th/18th century." - Johan Viljoen. Number of speakers (1988): 10 million.

Burgundian

Burgundian was the East Germanic language of the Germanic speaking people who ultimately settled in southeastern Gaul (Southeastern France, Western Switzerland, and Northwestern Italy) in the fifth century C.E. It is extinct.

Dutch- Flemish

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

East Germanic

The East Germanic branch of the Germanic languages was spoken by the Germanic speaking people who, in the second through fourth centuries C. E., migrated first to the Danube and Black Sea areas from the Germanic homeland. The languages of these people, which are poorly attested except for West Gothic, show characteristic differences from West and North Germanic branches. The East Germanic Languages were Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian, Lombardic, Rugian, Herulian, Bastarnae, and Scirian. It is said that the East Germanic languages were probably all very similar. All of the East Germanic languages are extinct.

Faroese

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

Frisian

Frisian is a contemporary West Germanic language spoken in the Netherlands and Germany. It is one of the two official languages of the Netherlands. Of all Germanic languages, Frisian is most closely related to English. Frisian from the earliest records of about 1300 until about 1575 is called Old Frisian. Subsequently Frisian is known as New Frisian. Some Frisian scholars also identify a Middle Frisian period from about 1600 to about 1800. Frisian exists in three major divisions, each of which is subdivided into dialects. The two dialects of East Frisian

have been largely replaced by dialects of New Low German which are called East Frisian. North Frisian is divided into about ten dialects. Nearly all modern Frisian literature is in West Frisian which has about six dialects. About 80 percent of Germanic roots are non-Indo-European.

Living Germanic Languages

Afrikaans	High German
Danish	Gutnish
Danish-Flemish	Icelandic
English	Low German
Faroese	Norwegian
Frisian	Swedish

Extinct Germanic Languages

Bastarnae	Lombardic
Burgundian	Norn
Frankish	Rugian
Gothic	Scirian
Herulian	Vandalic

Gothic

Gothic was the East Germanic language of the Germanic speaking people who migrated from southern Scania (southern Sweden) to the Ukraine. From there the West and East Goths migrated to southern Gaul, Iberia, and Italy in the fifth and sixth centuries C. E. The Gepids were overcome by the Lombards and Avars in the fifth century and disappeared. Gothic is recorded in translations of parts of the Bible into West Gothic in the fourth century C. E. and by names. Gothic is extinct. The last Gothic speakers reported were in the Crimea in the sixteenth century C. E.

Gutnish

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

Icelandic

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

Lombardic

Lombardic was the East Germanic language of the Germanic speaking people who invaded and settled in Italy in the sixth century C. E. It is said that Lombardic was the East Germanic language of the Germanic speaking people who invaded and settled in Italy in the sixth century. Lombardic participated in the so-called *second* sound shift which is primarily attested in High German. Lombardic is extinct.

Middle English

Middle English was the descendent of Old English. English after about 1100 C. E. had changed enough to warrant a different designation. Middle English had about five major dialects, Northern, West Midlands, East Midlands, Southwestern, and Kentish. Middle English is characterized by the reduction and loss of inflectional endings and the introduction of a large number of words derived first from Latin through Norman or Middle French and subsequently from Middle Dutch. By the late fifteenth century, East Midlands Middle English, the language of London, had acquired enough changes to be designated Early New English, the language of Malory (*Le Morte d'Arthur*).

New Danish

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

New English

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

New High German

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

New Low German (Plattdeutsch)

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

New Swedish

New Swedish is a contemporary Eastern North Germanic language, a descendent of Old Swedish. It is the official language of Sweden and is spoken in Finland. Number of Speakers (1988): 9 million

Norn

Norn was a mixed language of Old Norse and Irish spoken in the Shetland Islands. It is extinct. There is extant an entire ballad text in Norn, *Hildina-kvadet*. It is described in an article: *Hildina-kvaedet. Ein etteroeknad og ei tolking.* by Eigil Lehmann. It is printed in: *Fra Fjon til Fusa 1984. Arbok for Hordamuseet og for Nord- og Midhordland sogelag. Hildina-kvadet* was written down in 1774 by the Scot George Low. He got it from a farmer - Guttorm - at the Shetland island Foula. Low did not understand the language, so the song will have to be "translated" into - well, whatever. What Lehman does, is to try to reconstruct the Norn version of the song. Lehmann's preface contains a bibliography, translated here by Reidar Moberg: "The song was printed as early as 1808 by James Headrick, in 1838 by the Norwegian P.A. Munch. Others, who have been working on this kvad, are the Dane Svend Grundtvig, the Norwegian Sophus Bugge, and Jakob Jakobsen from the Faeroe Islands, the Norwegian Moltke Moe and the Dane Axel Olrik. These have mostly tried to bring the kvad back to Old Norse. Such a reconstruct from Axel Olrik from 1898 could be found in a work on the kvad of the Dane Hakon Grtiner-Nielsen in the honour book to Gustav Indrebo 1939. The most thorough work is done by the Norwegian Marius Haegstad in the book *Hildina-kvadet* from 1900."

North Germanic

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

Norwegian

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

Old English

Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) is the oldest recorded form of English. It is said to be the language of the three tribes (Angles, Saxons, and Jutes) of West Germanic speaking people who invaded and occupied Britain in the fifth century C. E. It is very closely related to Old Frisian. Old English developed four major dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish. The majority of recorded Old English is in the West Saxon dialect. Old English is characterized by phonetic spelling, a moderate number of inflections (two numbers, three genders, four cases, remnants of dual number and instrumental case), a syntax somewhat dependent on word order, and a simple two tense, three mood, four person (three singular, one plural) verb system. Old English is recorded from the late seventh century onwards. By about 1100 C. E. enough changes had accumulated so that the language is designated Middle English.

Old Danish

Old Danish was an Eastern North Germanic language, spoken in Denmark, the ancestor of New Danish and Bokmal.

Old Low German

Old Low German consisted of a pair of West Germanic languages, spoken along the North Sea coast and somewhat inland, Old Saxon and Old Franconian. Old Saxon was the ancestor of Middle Low German and New Low German. Old Franconian was the ancestor of Middle Dutch and Dutch-Flemish. Old Franconian is probably a lineal or collateral descendent of the collections of ancient West Germanic dialects called Frankish.

Old Norse

Old Norse was a Western North Germanic language used in Iceland, Ireland, Norway, the Hebrides, Orkney, Shetland, and the Faroe Islands from approximately the tenth to thirteenth century. It started diverging from common North Germanic about 800 C. E. It is the language of the Norse Eddas and Sagas. Its living descendents are Norwegian, Icelandic, and Faroese. Terminology for varieties of Norse is vexed. Old Icelandic & Old Norwegian are sometimes called Old West Norse, with Danish East Norse. Other folks refer to Old Norse Icelandic, excluding Norwegian. (Paul Acker).

Old Swedish

Old Swedish was an Eastern North Germanic language attested in about 2000 runic inscriptions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries C. E. Its contemporary descendant is New Swedish.

Vandalic

Vandalic was the East Germanic language of the Germanic speaking people who invaded Gaul, Iberia, and Africa. They founded a kingdom in Africa in the fifth century C. E. Vandalic is extinct.

West Germanic

The West Germanic branch of the Germanic languages is spoken by the Germanic speaking people who occupied the southwestern part of the Germanic homeland. The languages of these people show characteristic differences from the East and North Germanic branches. The West Germanic Languages are Afrikaans, Dutch-Flemish, English, Frisian, Low German, and High German. Groupings of the West Germanic Languages vary. The grouping shown in the tree is derived from Campbell, wherein Old English, Old Frisian, and Old Saxon are grouped as Ingaevonic languages and Old High German is shown separated. Baldi groups English and Frisian as Anglo-Frisian and High and Low German as German. In any case English and Frisian are agreed to be very closely related. English and Frisian share sound changes which do not occur in German. The Ingaevonic languages do not partake of the High German or *second* sound shift.

The whole West Germanic language area, from the North Sea far into Central Europe, is really a continuum of local dialects differing little from one village to the next. Only after one has traveled some distance are the dialects mutually incomprehensible. At times there are places where this does not occur, generally at national borders or around colonies of speakers of other

languages such as West Slavic islands in eastern Germany. Normally the local national language is understood everywhere within a nation. The fact of this continuum makes the tracing of the lines of historical development of national languages difficult, if not impossible.

The Gothic Language

The Gothic language, now dead, was spoken by a group of Old Germanic tribes, known in history as Gothic tribes. Where the Goths first came from is not definitely known. There were stories told by their old men of a time when their people had dwelt far to the north, on the shores and islands of what is now Sweden. Then had come long, slow wanderings through the forests of western Russia, until they reached the shores of the Black Sea. In time they overran the once mighty Roman Empire to the south. The first of these northern barbarians to conquer Rome were the 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 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. 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 were written. After his death in 526 the generals of the Eastern Empire reconquered Italy. After fighting a last battle near Mount Vesuvius in 553, the Ostrogoths marched out of Italy. They merged with other barbarian hordes north of the Alps and disappeared as a people from history. The 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 changes appeared in different word-forms under the influence of reduction of unstressed syllables; the beginning of this process goes back to the period of Common Germanic. This accounts for the absence of the personal index -p in the 3 person singular optative (nimai), of the personal index -e in the 3 person singular preterit indicative (nam), of the Dative case ending -i (gumin* .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 even to one part only (cf. the Dat. sing. of degs. "day" :dag: * a3-a-a). Dead language belonging to the now extinct East Germanic group of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family

of languages (*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.

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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 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); *møller* (mill) - *Møller* (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 language 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 pronunciation (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 ecletic. 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 boghandlEren* (the book is sold by the bookseller).

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Маъруза машгулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантиқий ноизчилликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 6 семинар машғулотининг
Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>А) <i>What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i></p> <p>Б) <i>What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p>В) <i>What can you say about the Icelandic language?</i></p> <p>Г) <i>What can you say about the Swedish language?</i></p> <p>Д) <i>What can you say about the Danish language?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>А) <i>History of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Icelandic languages.</i></p> <p>Б) <i>Phonetic structure of Norwegian languages.</i></p> <p>В) <i>Grammar of North GL.</i></p> <p>Г) <i>Vocabulary of GL.</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Шимолий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.	<p>Шимолий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

6 Семинар мавзуси: Шимолий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар

Семинар машғулотиинг режаси	1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари 2) Норвег тили 3) Швед тили 4) Исланд тили
Семинар машғулотиинг мақсади: Талабаларга шимолий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Шимолий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Шимолий герман тилларининг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларини тавсифлаш; - Шимолий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Шимолий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларинининг фонетик, грамматик, ва лексик хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Шимолий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

THE DANISH LANGUAGE

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. Nordic (North Germanic) is distinguishable from other Germanic languages from around 200 AD and documented in for instance many runic inscriptions. During the Viking Age (750-1100) and early Middle Ages, the Nordic-speaking area included various dialects rather than different languages. This area extended to parts of Ireland, the British *Isles*, the Shetlands, the Orkneys and Normandy. Icelandic is the language which in its written form is closest to the ancient language. From the end of the 9th century up towards 1000 it can be regarded as a West Norwegian emigrant language, but today it is structurally different from Norwegian, especially Norwegian 'Bokmal's which developed on the basis of written Danish. The Norwegian and Icelandic sagas, many of which takes place around 900-1100, were written down a couple of centuries later, but reflect the long communication radius of the Nordic speakers.

The language had no established name, but Danish tongue was used in Sweden as late as the 13th century. This language is related to Old English, which it strongly influenced during the Viking Age. Words such as *fellow, husband, they, them, their, sky, window, live, die* were introduced into English from Scandinavia and hundreds of English place names have the same origin. The main reason why Danish came to influence English was that the Vikings conquered and settled in three of four Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the second half of the 9th century and later conquered the whole country after new Viking raids. Since the Middle Ages, the Nordic languages have been affected by broadly similar influences from other European languages, from the Classical languages and especially German in the Middle Ages and subsequently to a Lesser extent French and Italian. From the second half of the 20th century all the languages have mainly been influenced by English. Among the languages in the geographic North, Finnish, Samian and

Greenlandic are not Indo-European. Danish has found its form through interaction; its vocabulary contains centuries of material and cultural deposits which capture the meeting of native and foreign, old and new. Many words are historically related to words in the other Indo-European languages: *mand, sove, æde, drikke, far, mor, øje, hoved, finger, jord, hus*, etc (*man, sleep, eat, drink, father, mother, eye, head, finger, earth, house*). Some Danish words are only shared with one or more Nordic languages: *bonde, skov, fattig, elske, han, hun* etc (*peasant, wood, poor, love, he, she*). The introduction of Christianity resulted in new expressive needs - and thus in new words, often from Old Saxon or Old English, such as *kristen, kirke* and *kloster* (Christian, church, monastery).

Danish was subject to the strongest external influence in the period 1200-1500. 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, lykke, magt, blive, straks, jo* (fear, happiness, power, become, immediately, after all). Danish has adopted at Least 1500 words from Middle Low German alone. After the Reformation 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 *ge* and *er-* such as *gespenst, gemen, erfare, erhverve* (ghost, vile, 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, dæk, fartøj*, etc (able seaman point, deck vessel). 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, konkurrence, chef, direktør, fabrik, industri, patrulje, korps, ammunition, korset, klinik, ambulance, karantæne, bandage, kaffee, dessert, souper, bouillon, bet kotelet, kompot, garderobe, toilet, alkove, salon, sekretær, avis, redaktør, 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* (ruin, debt, collections, balance, account, bankruptcy, andante, piano, cello). Italian also provided *kartoffel* (potato).

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Danish language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Danish language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Danish language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Danish language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Danish language can you name?

6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Danish language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Danish language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Danish language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Danish language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Danish language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Danish language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Danish language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Danish language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Danish language?

THE SWEDISH LANGUAGE

The national language of Sweden is Swedish. It is the native tongue of some 90 per cent of the country's almost 9 million. **Swedish** is a language spoken in Sweden and England. Swedish is one of the Scandinavian languages, a sub-group of the Germanic group of the Indo-European language family. 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 defined 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 Ngrmland - 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 spoken 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 the spelling *Jamska* is sometimes used.

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Swedish language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Swedish language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Swedish language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Swedish language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Swedish language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Swedish language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Swedish language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Swedish language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Swedish language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Swedish language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Swedish language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Swedish language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Swedish language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Swedish language?

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 7 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	4.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	4.1 эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) <i>What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i> B) <i>What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i> C) <i>What can you say about the Icelandic language?</i> D) <i>What can you say about the Swedish language?</i> E) <i>What can you say about the Danish language?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) <i>History of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Icelandic languages.</i> B) <i>Phonetic structure of Norwegian languages.</i> C) <i>Grammar of North GL.</i> D) <i>Vocabulary of North GL.</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади.</p> <p>2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади.</p> <p>3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	<p>Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади.</p> <p>Шимолий герман тиллари.</p> <p>Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди</p>	<p>Шимолий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

Мавзу 7. Шимолий герман тиллари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	A) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари. B) Норвег тили. C) Дания тили. D) Швед тили. E) Исланд тили.
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга шимолий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - шимолий герман тилларини тушунтириш;	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба:

- шимолий герман тилларини тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларини тавсифлаш; - шимолий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - шимолий герман тилларининг фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Норвег, Швед, Исланд ва Дания тилларининг фонетик, грамматик ва лексик хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Шимолий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

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 wished. 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.

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The German Language

German (Deutsch) is a member of the western group of the Germanic 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 Pennsylvania 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 St. Louis, 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, Paraná, and Espírito 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 of the 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 Germanic dialects from common West Germanic. 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 Germanic 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 inflectional 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.

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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."

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The Swedish language

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

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

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) (figures according to official statistics for 2001).

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

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

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

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.

Standard Swedish-the normalized national language developed on the basis of the language spoken in the Lake Manlaren region of Central Sweden and around Stockholm, the capital of Sweden. The national administration was located there, and there was a vigorous ruling class language. Stabilization was greatly promoted by the first complete Bible translation into Swedish (Gustav Vasa's Bible, 1541) and by another consequence of the Reformation, a comparatively high Level of public literacy-from the end of the 17th century onwards, the clergy were obliged to ensure that their parishioners were acquainted with important passages from the Bible and knew the Lutheran catechism.

In the 18th century an educated middle class arose, and with it the beginnings of the fairly

straightforward and conversational Swedish used in the press. At the same time Swedish was being developed into a scientific language by such internationally renowned figures as Carl von Linné and Anders Celsius and their popularizers.

The development of a national language continued apace with urbanization, the growth of the press, universal schooling (the compulsory elementary school system was introduced in 1842 with Swedish as a separate subject), a vigorous national literature for the educated public that boasted such international stars as August Strindberg and Selma Lagerlöf, and the mass educational and cultural movements of the folk high schools and the popular grass-roots movements (temperance, trade unions, sport, self-improvement via study circles, etc) and the Labour Movement where generations of politicians learned to speak in public and write for a broad audience, all followed more recently by radio and television. Norms of spelling were standardized by the Swedish Academy.

There is no longer any attempt to maintain a solemn style of Swedish with archaic words and forms and complicated syntax. The distinctive but archaic biblical style disappeared with the new Bible translation that was published in 2000, allowing the character of the original texts to emerge instead.

In the Nordic countries official language planning is well established. The Swedish Language Council is a public-service institution. High standards in terminology are maintained by the Center for Terminology (*TNC*). The Swedish Broadcasting Corporation and television and some leading morning papers have their own language advisors, and so do state agencies.

A good deal of effort has been put into taking the gobbledygook out of the language of public administration to make it more accessible for ordinary citizens. The tangled, Byzantine language promoted by the EU is perceived as a threat to the democratic values of modern public Swedish, and the head of language usage guidance for Swedish with the EU Commission in Brussels has a hard struggle to get translations put into good, comprehensible Swedish that is not polluted by the source language (usually French or English). Sweden is one of the most active countries in "fighting the linguistic fog". Letters *E, e, p, a* and *L, l, f* - *E* is pronounced like the vowels in more and hot, *a* like in care and best, and *f* like in the French words *bleu* and *bluf*.

The various plural forms of nouns are still very much alive: *man-man* [man-men], *hund-hundar* [dog-dogs], *gäst-gäster* [guest-guests], *kyrka-kyrkor* [church-churches], *apple-pie* [apple-pie], *hus-hus* [house-houses].

The Swedish system of word formation favors easy compounding, creating long and sometimes clumsy words that replace whole phrases or even sentences. Words like *resursallokering* (resource allocation), *stendpunktstagande* (adopting a standpoint), *kvittblivningsproblematiken* (the set of problems related to disposal), and *könsloidentifikation* (emotional identification) tend to flourish in official and technical settings.

On the other hand, compounds are capable of creating whole new concepts with unique expressive value, such as *asfullfl* (cheap and nasty beer, lit. ugly beer), *kramgo* (cuddly, lit. hug-good), *skepsupa* (indulge in secret drinking, lit. to cupboard-booze), *strulputte* (mess er-upper, lit. confusion-tiddler), *raknenisse* (bean-counter, lit. counting-gnome). A good deal of Swedish poetry relies on the impact of unique compounds. And it is difficult for any translation to adequately capture the tone of such everyday Swedish expressions as *solvarma smultron med kylskepskallfil*, sun-warmed wild strawberries with chilled fill (a popular kind of thick curdled milk).

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Faroese language

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

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

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

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

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Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалқаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантиқий ноизчилликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 7 семинар машғулотининг
Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) <i>What groups and subgroups of GL do you know?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What can you say about the Icelandic language?</i></p> <p>Г) <i>What can you say about the Swedish language?</i></p> <p>Д) <i>What can you say about the Danish language?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) <i>History of Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Icelandic languages.</i></p> <p>B) <i>Phonetic structure of Norwegian languages.</i></p> <p>B) <i>Grammar of North GL.</i></p> <p>Г) <i>Vocabulary of GL.</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабаларв эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Шимолий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.	<p>Шимолий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

7 Семинар мавзуси: Шимолий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар

Семинар машғулотивинг режаси	1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари 2) Норвег тили 3) Швед тили 4) Исланд тили
Семинар машғулотивинг мақсади: Талабаларга шимолий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Шимолий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Шимолий герман тилларининг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларини тавсифлаш; - Шимолий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Шимолий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Шимолий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Норвег, Швед, Исланд, Дания тилларинининг фонетик, грамматик, ва лексик хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Шимолий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

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 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 wished. 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 halt 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.

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Norwegian language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Norwegian language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Norwegian language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Norwegian language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Norwegian language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Norwegian language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Norwegian language reconstructed?

8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Norwegian language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Norwegian language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Norwegian language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Norwegian language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Norwegian language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Norwegian language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Norwegian language?

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.

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Questions and tasks for discussion

1. What can you say about the prehistory of the tribes or peoples who spoke Icelandic language?
2. Describe the borders of the linguistic space where the Icelandic language was used?
3. What are the main features of the phonetic structure of the Icelandic language?
4. What are the essential features of the grammatical structure of the Icelandic language?
5. What main events in the social history of the peoples speaking the Icelandic language can you name?
6. What can you say about the earliest written records in Icelandic language?
7. How are the linguistic data belonging to the earliest stages of the Icelandic language reconstructed?
8. What phonetic laws can you illustrate from the linguistic facts of the Icelandic language?
9. What can you say about the chronological limits of the periods in the history of the Icelandic language?
10. What can you say about the features of the periods in the history of the Icelandic language?
11. What are the main principles of the periodisation of the history of the Icelandic language?
12. Name the authors whose works made a great contribution to the development of the literary norm of the Icelandic language?
13. Give instances illustrating the processes of integration and differentiation in the development of the Icelandic language?
14. What can you say about the future of the Icelandic language?

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 8 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	5.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	5.1ни эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) <i>What can you say about the relationship between English, German and Dutch?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What language is the closest to the English Language?</i></p> <p>C) <i>What can you say about the Dutch? Africans and Yiddish?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Ғарбий герман тиллари тарихи ва ишлатилишига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, конун қоидалари намойиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) <i>What can you say about the High German dialect?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What is common with the English and Frisian?</i></p> <p>C) <i>Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i></p> <p>D) <i>What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади.</p> <p>2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади.</p> <p>3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич, Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ғарбий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди	Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.

Мавзу 8. Ғарбий герман тиллари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	A) Ғарбий герман тилларини умумий хоссалари. B) Немис тили. B) Африкаанс. Г) Голланд тили. Д) Идиш тили. E) Инглиз тили.
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий ва хусусий хоссалари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Ғарбий герман тиллари	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: A) Ғарбий герман тилларини умумий хоссалари билан

атамасини тушунтириш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Немис, англиз, фриз, Голланд, Идиш тилларини тавсифлаш; - Ғарбий герман тилларини гуруҳлаш; - Ғарбий герман тилларининг ишлатилишини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	танишади. В) Немис, англиз, африкаанс, идиш тилларининг тарихи фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва луғат таркибининг умумий хоссалари билан танишади. С) Ғарбий герман тилларда ёзилган матнларни таний олади ва таржима қила олади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

The German Language

German (Deutsch) is a member of the western group of the Germanic 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 Pennsylvania 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 St. Louis, 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 of the 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 Germanic dialects from common West Germanic. 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 Germanic 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 inflectional 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.

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Frisian language

Frisian (varyingly *Frysk*, *Frasch*, "Fresk", or "Friisk") is a language spoken by a small ethnic group living in the northwestern part of Europe. In origin, the Frisian language is Germanic, the ancient Frisian community figuring prominently in North European history. They were especially noted as traders and raiders during Viking times.

Frisian language - member of the West Germanic group of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages. It has a number of dialects and is spoken by more than 300,000 people, most of whom speak West Frisian and live in Friesland, a province of the Netherlands. North Frisian is spoken along the North Sea coast of Germany and on the Frisian Islands, and East Frisian is spoken farther inland in NW Germany. Speakers of various dialects are also found in the United States. Frisian is a subject of instruction in the schools of Friesland and also has a literature of its own. Of all foreign languages, it is most like English.

Frisian consists of several dialects, which are very often mutually unintelligible. At their most basic, there are 3 dialectal divisions, West Lauwers Frisian 'Frysk', Saterland Frisian 'Seeltersk', and North Frisian. The North Frisian language is however further segmented into several additional strongly unique speech forms.

The northern dialects include Mainland dialects, Island Dialects, and the Heligoland dialect, Heligoland or 'Halund' also an island. There is such a strong difference between the island and mainland forms of the North Frisian language that it has been speculated that the mainland and insular areas may have been originally populated by two separate waves of ancient Frisian colonizers, these migrations occurring in entirely different eras.

Frisian is distinct from *East Frisian Low Saxon*.

Most Frisian speakers live in the Netherlands, primarily in the province of Friesland (*Fryslan* in Frisian) where their number about 440,000. In Germany there are about 2,000 speakers of Frisian.

While many of these Frisians live on the mainland, most are found on the islands, notably SyJJ, Fohr, Affiruffi and HeligoJ The local corresponding Frisian dialects are still in use.

Frisian is officially recognized and protected as minority language in Germany and the Netherlands.

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The Dutch Language

Dutch is a West Germanic language spoken worldwide by around 20 million people. The variety of Dutch spoken in Belgium is also informally called **Flemish**. The Dutch name for the language is *Nederlands* or Less formally *Hollands* and Dutch is sometimes called **Netherlandic** in English. Some speakers resent the name "Dutch", because of its deceptive similarity to *Deutsch* (German for 'German') and its resemblance to *Diets*, a term which was abused by Nazi collaborators 1940 - 1945.

Dutch devoices all consonants at the ends of words (e.g. a final *d* sound is shifted to a *t* sound; to become 'ents ofworts'), which presents a problem for Dutch speakers when Learning English.

The final 'n' of the plural ending -en is often not pronounced (as in Afrikaans), except in the North East and the South West where the ending becomes a syllabic n sound.

Dutch did not participate in the second (High German) sound shifting compare German *machen* I-x-I Dutch *maken*, English *make*.

German *Pfanne* Ipf-I, Dutch *pan*, English *pan*, German *zwei* its-I, Dutch *twee*, English *two*.

Like all other continental West Germanic languages, Dutch has a rather complicated word order that is markedly different from English, which presents a problem for Anglophones Learning Dutch. Dutch is also known for its ability to glue words together (like: 'derandjongerenhangplekkenbeleidsambtenarensalarisbesprekingsafspraken' which means 'the agreements for the salary of public servants which decide the policy for areas where unemployed

youth is allowed to hang out.' Though grammatically correct, it is never done to this extent; at most two or three words are glued together.)

The Dutch grammar has simplified a lot over the past 100 years: cases are now only used for the pronouns (for example: ik = I, me = me, mij = me, mijn = my, wie = who, wiens = whose, wier = whose). Nouns and adjectives are not case inflected (except for the genitive of masculine and neuter nouns: - (e) s).

Inflection of adjectives is a little more complicated: -e with 'de' or 'het', -e with 'een' or with nothing for masculine, feminine and plural. (And with the genitive: '-en' for masculine and neuter, -er for feminine and plural.) (This genitive, however, belongs to 'form language' and normally it is simulated by use of 'van de I het I een'. When that construction is used, no inflection for the nouns and -e for the adjective.)

Dutch nouns are, however, inflected for size: -(e)(t)je for singular diminutive and -(e)(t)jes for plural diminutive.

Dutch has more French loanwords than German, but fewer than English. The number of English loanwords in Dutch is quite large, and is growing rapidly. There are also some German loanwords, like *überhaupt* and *sowieso*. Dutch also has a lot of Greek and Latin loanwords.

See also: List of English words of Dutch origin.

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Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг Рейтинг назорати

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантикий ноизчилликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 8 семинар
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p><i>A) What do you know about the relationship between English, German and Dutch.</i></p> <p><i>B) What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p><i>B) What language is the closest to the English Language?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Dutch language?</i></p> <p><i>Д) What can you say about the Afrikaans and Yiddish?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) What can you say about the High German dialect?</i></p> <p><i>B) What is common with English and Frisian?</i></p> <p><i>B) Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясади ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ғарбий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.	<p>Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

8 – мавзу. Ғарбий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг	визуал семинар

шакли	
Семинар машғулотининг режаси	1) Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари 2) Немис тили 3) Африкаанс 4) Голланд тили 5) Идиш тили 6) Инглиз тили
Семинар машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга ғарбий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Ғарбий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Ғарбий герман тилларининг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларини тавсифлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларининг тарихи, фонетикаси, грамматикаси, ва лексикаси хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Ғарбий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Characterisation of the Germanic language family

The pre-history of the Germanic language family, and therefore also of Dutch, is the subject of comparative historical linguistics. The aim of this branch of linguistics is to show relationships between languages and to reconstruct proto-languages. The method used for this is the investigation of regular correspondences in the sounds of the central vocabulary. An example of one of these sound correspondences is provided by the following small sample:

Dutch	<i>vader</i>	<i>vier</i>	<i>vol</i>	<i>huis</i>	<i>bruin</i>	<i>uit</i>	<i>muis</i>
German	<i>Vater</i>	<i>vier</i>	<i>voll</i>	<i>Haus</i>	<i>braun</i>	<i>aus</i>	<i>Maus</i>
English	<i>father</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>full</i>	<i>house</i>	<i>brown</i>	<i>out</i>	<i>mouse</i>
Frisian		<i>fjouwer</i>	<i>fol</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>bran</i>	<i>lit</i>	<i>mus</i>
Swedish	<i>fader</i>	<i>fyra</i>	<i>full</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>brun</i>	<i>ui</i>	<i>mus</i>
Danish	<i>fader</i>	<i>fire</i>	<i>fuld</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>brun</i>	<i>ud</i>	<i>mus</i>
Norwegian	<i>far</i>	<i>fire</i>	<i>full</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>brun</i>	<i>ut</i>	<i>mus</i>
Icelandic	<i>fair</i>	<i>fjorir</i>	<i>fullur</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>briinn</i>	<i>ut</i>	<i>mus</i>

It is obvious that the words shown from the above languages show similarities. Differences between languages are often not just coincidences, but are systematic. For example

the Dutch sound [ocy] - written - in these words corresponds systematically with an [au] in German. The study of comparative historical linguistics has succeeded in finding a number of this sort of regular sound correspondences, which could be described as "sound laws".

On the basis of such similarities and systematic correspondences we can conclude that certain languages are related to each other and go back to a common source language. Comparative historical linguistics has even managed in this way to reconstruct a common proto-language (an "ancestor") for some of the European and Indian languages, known as Indo-European (or "Indogermanic"). However we have to bear in mind that nothing has come to us directly from such proto-languages, they are purely hypothetical.

The renowned pioneers of comparative historical linguistics were Rasmus Kristian Rask (1787-1832), Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) and Franz Bopp (1791 -1867). August Schleicher (1821 -1868) developed the "family tree model", which later gained some competition from the "wave model" ("Wellentheorie") developed by Johannes Schmidt in 1872. The family tree model makes it possible to show in summary form the relationships between languages.

The first or "Germanic" sound shift

There are a number of ways in which Germanic differs systematically from the other Indo-European languages. The main difference lies in systematic sound changes which are grouped together under the term "Germanic sound shift". This development took several centuries, and was probably complete by about the second century BC.

In 1875 the Dane Karl Verner succeeded in formulating an exception to these correspondences in a rule which later became known as "Verner's Law". He established that the unvoiced fricatives which arose as a result of the Germanic sound shift would become voiced in some circumstances, i.e. when the main stress did not fall on the immediately preceding syllable.

This also affected the existing unvoiced fricative [s], which similarly changed to [z] in these circumstances.

In later times, however, the stress relationships changed, and the variable stress of Indo-European became fixed: in Germanic the main stress always came to fall on the first syllable of the word.

The second, or "High German" sound shift

Later on in the development of West-Germanic (5th - 8th century) there was a second sound shift, which is of less relevance for the development of Dutch but which does explain many of the differences between Dutch and German.

The sound shift began in the south of the German-speaking areas, and spread north as far as the so-called "Benrather Line".

The West-Germanic area was divided in two by the High German sound shift: the southern High German area, and the northern Low German and Dutch area which did not take part in this sound shift.

Area of the continental Germanic dialects

A second contrast within the West-Germanic area concerns the so-called "coastal features". Systematic differences can be shown to exist between Old English, Old Frisian and Old Saxon on the one hand, and Old High German on the other. These coastal features are also sometimes called Ingvaeonic ("North Sea Germanic").

This term should be used with caution as it suggests a link with the three-way division of the West Germans by the classical historians of the first century AD (Pliny, Tacitus), who divided them into three groups called Hennioncs, Istvaeones and Ingvaeones; the latter referred to the tribes who lived along the coast from Gaul to Denmark.

Examples of Ingvaeonic features which can be traced in Dutch:

'Ersatzdehnun□ [compensatory lengthening]: the loss of a nasal and lengthening of a vowel before a fricative: Dutch *vijf*, English *five*, Frisian *fijf* (cf German *ft i/if*)

lack of final -/ in the third person singular *ofzijn*, ie *is* (cf German *is!*)

Dutch *eiland*, Frisian *eilan*, English *island* (cf German /use/ which is etymologically different) - note: the <s> in the English word is not etymologically correct, it is a contamination from *isle* which is derived from Latin *insula* not from Germanic.

the personal pronoun for the 3rd person singular has a different root: Dutch *hij*, English *he* (cf German *er*)

loss of the difference between dative and accusative singular of the personal pronouns: Dutch *mij*, English *me*, but German *mir I mich*

Within West Germanic, Dutch has a distinctive place, not least because of the above developments and features. Dutch has, however, gone its own way in a manner which has made it distinctive from the other West Germanic languages. The oldest phase of the history of Dutch in the strict sense comprises Old Dutch.

The Netherlands between the Romans and the year 1000

Celts, Romans and Germans

The presence of Germanic tribes has been attested in the area covered by the Netherlands since the second century before Christ, when they were taking part in a migration towards the west. This was part of the so-called "Wandering of the Nations" which reached its peak between the third and fifth centuries AD.

The first written source to cover the area of the modern Netherlands and Belgium is the book *De bello gallico* ["*On the Gallic Wars*"] by Julius Caesar. Caesar and the Romans invaded Gaul in 57 BC and then went on to conquer the provinces of the Netherlands. For 500 years this region was an outpost of the Roman Empire; Caesar met mostly Celtic tribes here.

With the Romans rose towns and a network of roads. The Romanisation continued systematically, but the Romans never managed to impose their culture completely on the indigenous Germanic tribes.

From 47 AD the Rhine formed the border between the Roman Empire and the Germans. On one side of the river there was a well-organised but ethnically very divided state, and on the other side a conglomeration of tribes with a common language, culture and religion but without overarching institutions.

The Wandering of the Nations, which began in this period and which in the Netherlands affected the Saxons, Frisians and Franks, signified the end of the "pax romana". The Netherlands were gradually Christianised and the Germanic colonisation gained pace. Large parts of Gaul now consisted of a mixture of Romans and Germans. At the end of the Roman Empire, c 400 AD, chaos reigned in large parts of Europe. Tribal migrations increased and expanded into the great Wandering of the Nations. The Franks emigrated to the south in the direction of Gaul. The Angles and Saxons left for Britain. The Frisians spread their area of influence to the north of the Rhine. The part of the Saxons who stayed behind made Westphalia their centre. The Alcmanni left for south Germany, and the west Goths (Visigoths) for Spain, while the east Goths (Ostrogoths) settled in Italy.

The Merovingian Period (5th - 8th century)

In the year 406 AD the Germans invaded Gaul. The Franks followed the river Scheldt towards the south. As a result there was an extensive bilingual area occupied by Gallo-roman natives and Frankish invaders. After the collapse of the Roman Empire (476 AD) there rose a number of tribal empires, of which the Frankish Empire became the most important. This was the work of Clovis (Chlodwig) from the dynasty of the **Merovingians**. He moved the borders of his empire to the south of France and made Paris his capital. Map The Netherlands under the Merovingians.



Clovis's empire was later shared between his four sons, but in about 630 AD it was reunited. The Netherlands at that time consisted of two parts: Neustria (between the Seine and the Scheldt) and Austrasia (in the basins of the Rhine and the Meuse).

The Carolingian Period (8th and 9th century)

The so-called "mayors", ruling in the name of the kings, gained more power now and knew exactly how to use it to their own advantage. One of the most powerful of such families were the **Pippins**. When, in 751 AD, the pope was threatened by the Langobards (Lombards), Pippin (Pepin) III came to his aid and was rewarded by being crowned "King of the Franks".

The Netherlands under the Carolinians

The empire of his son **Charles the Great (Charlemagne)** spread from the Pyrenees to the Danube, and from Friesland to the middle of Italy. Charlemagne was crowned "Roman Emperor" in 800 AD. In economic and cultural terms the basins of the Meuse and the Rhine were the centre of his empire. The administrative language of the Frankish empire was still Latin, but in the vernacular Old French took over from Gallo-Roman. Latin became unintelligible to the Romance-speaking population (because of the restoration of classical Latin: see also the section on the influence of Latin and French on Middle Dutch)

This also formed the end of multilingualism in the area between the Seine and the Rhine. A language boundary running from west to east now separated the two monolingual areas with Germanic in the north and Romance in the south. Charlemagne's son **Louis the Pious** followed him to the throne in 814 AD, and immediately found problems with the administration of this great empire. As a solution he chose to introduce the feudal system, but the heritability of tenure also took power away from the king.

In the **Treaty of Verdun** (843 AD) Louis's empire was split between his sons. Lothair I received the title of emperor, the Italian possessions and the area between the Scheldt, Meuse, Saone, Rhone and Rhine, which was known as *Middle Francia*. Charles the Bald was granted the area of *West Francia*, and the third brother Louis the German gained *East Francia*. Lothair died in 855 AD and his empire in turn was also divided into three parts, of which his son Lothair received the northern part (between Friesland and the Jura mountains), the area which later became known as "*Lotharingia*" (Lorraine).

The tenth century

The Scheldt boundary, which since 925 AD separated West and East Francia, was already by that time the boundary between the Celtic tribes and the Roman *civitates*. West Francia rapidly disintegrated, thanks to the increasing feudal powers. From the ninth century onwards it was no longer the Carolingians who were crowned as king but the dukes of Francia. At the same time the power of the counts of Flanders increased.

In the German Empire, in the meantime, the Carolingians had died out and in 919 AD the empire passed into the hands of Henry I (Duke of Saxony). Under his successors Otto I, II and III (until 1002 AD) the **Holy Roman Kmpire** was restored here. Emperor Otto the Great (936-973 AD) managed to establish his authority and set up bishops as his tenants; since, in the normal course of events, bishops were not allowed to inherit anything, they formed reliable pillars of support for his authority.

Between 800 and 1100 AD the recognition of a common "German" language grew within the East-Frankish empire. The Franks, who had a dominant position in the empire, had been able to raise their own language to the status of leading language right from the eighth century. The "**theodisca lingua**" is first mentioned in texts in 788 AD, and was also spoken in the Netherlands.

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 9 маъруза
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	5.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, ўқув машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	5.1ни эшитади, ёзиб лади
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p>A) <i>What can you say about the relationship between English, German and Dutch?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What language is the closest to the English Language?</i></p> <p>C) <i>What can you say about the Dutch? Africaans and Yiddish?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда маърузани баён этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Ғарбий герман тиллари тарихи ва ишлатилишига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, конун қоидалари намойиш қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p>A) <i>What can you say about the High German dialect?</i></p> <p>B) <i>What is common with the English and Frisian?</i></p> <p>C) <i>Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i></p> <p>D) <i>What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб олади.</p> <p>2. Ўйлайди ва ёзиб олади.</p> <p>3. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>Саволлар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади.</p> <p>Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради, Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич, Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясайди ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ғарбий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайди	Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади. Уйга вазифа олади.

Мавзу 9. Ғарбий герман тиллари

Маъруза машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 75-80 нафар
Ўқув машғулотининг шакли	Визуал маъруза
Маъруза машғулотининг режаси	A) Ғарбий герман тилларини умумий хоссалари. B) Немис тили. B) Африкаанс. Г) Голланд тили. Д) Идиш тили. E) Инглиз тили.
Ўқув машғулотининг мақсади: Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий ва хусусий хоссалари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: Ғарбий герман тиллари атамасини тушунтириш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаси билан	Ўқув фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: A) Ғарбий герман тилларини умумий хоссалари билан танишади. B) Немис, инглиз, африкаанс, идиш тилларининг тарихи

таништириш; - Немис, англиз, фриз, Голланд, Идиш тилларини тавсифлаш; - Ғарбий герман тилларини гуруҳлаш; - Ғарбий герман тилларининг ишлатилишини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	фонетикаси, грамматикаси ва луғат таркибининг умумий хоссалари билан танишади. С) Ғарбий герман тилларда ёзилган матнларни таний олади ва таржима қила олади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал маъруза, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Маърузалар матни, проектор, таркатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Yiddish

Yiddish {Yid. *yidish*, = n. & adj. "Jewish") is a nonterritorial Germanic language spoken throughout the world and written with the Hebrew alphabet. It originated in the Ashkenazi culture that developed from about the 10th century in central and eastern Europe, and spread via emigration to other continents. In the earliest surviving references to it, the language is called *loshn-ashkenaz* (n. "language of the Ashkenazi") and *taytsh*, a variant of *tiutsch*, the contemporary name for the language otherwise spoken in the region, now called Middle High German; compare the modern *Deutsch*). In common usage, the language is called *mameloshn* (n. "mother tongue"), distinguishing it from biblical Hebrew and Aramaic which are collectively termed *loshn-koydesh* (n. "holy tongue"). The term *Yiddish* did not become the most frequently used designation in the literature of the language until the 18th century, but for a significant portion of its history it was the primary spoken language of the Ashkenazi Jews. The word *yidish* means Jewish both as a noun and as an adjective. Anglophone members of the Ashkenazi community also use the words Yiddish and Jewish synonymously, in both senses. The two terms thus interchangeably designate not only the language, but also other attributes of Ashkenazi culture. (For example, in general English language discussion of Yiddish culture reference is frequently made to such things as Yiddish cooking and Yiddish music.)

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The English language

English is a West Germanic language that originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic settlers and Roman auxiliary troops from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the Northern Netherlands. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms of England. One of these dialects, Late West Saxon, eventually came to dominate. The original Old English language was then influenced by two waves of invasion. The first was by language speakers of the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic family; they conquered and colonized parts of Britain in the 8th and 9th centuries. The second was the Normans in the 11th century, who spoke Old French and ultimately developed an English variety of this called Anglo-Norman. These two invasions caused English to become "mixed" to some degree (though it was never a truly mixed

language in the strict linguistic sense of the word; mixed languages arise from the cohabitation of speakers of different languages, who develop a hybrid tongue for basic communication). Cohabitation with the Scandinavians resulted in a significant grammatical simplification and lexical enrichment of the Anglo-Frisian core of English; the later Norman occupation led to the grafting onto that Germanic core of a more elaborate layer of words from the Romance branch of the European languages. This Norman influence entered English largely through the courts and government. Thus, English developed into a "borrowing" language of great flexibility and with a huge vocabulary.

Latin influence

A large percentage of the educated and literate population (monks, clerics, etc.) were competent in Latin, which was the scholarly and diplomatic *lingua franca* of Europe at the time. It is sometimes possible to give approximate dates for the entry of individual Latin words into Old English based on which patterns of linguistic change they have undergone. There were at least three notable periods of Latin influence. The first occurred before the ancestral Saxons left continental Europe for Britain. The second began when the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity and Latin-speaking priests became widespread. The third and largest single transfer of Latin-based words happened after the Norman invasion of 1066, after which an enormous number of Norman words entered the language. Most of these Old language words were themselves derived from Old French and ultimately from classical Latin, although a notable stock of Norse words were introduced, or re-introduced in Norman form. The Norman Conquest approximately marks the end of Old English and the advent of Middle English. One of the ways the influence of Latin can be seen is that many Latin words for activities came to also be used to refer to the people engaged in those activities, an idiom carried over from Anglo-Saxon but using Latin words. This can be seen in words like *militia*, *assembly*, *movement*, and *service*. The language was further altered by the transition away from the runic alphabet (also known as *futhorc* or *futhorc*) to the Latin alphabet, which was also a significant factor in the developmental pressures brought to bear on the language. Old English words were spelt as they were pronounced; the "silent" letters in many Modern English words, such as the *k* in *knight*, were in fact pronounced in Old English. For example, the *c* in *cniht*, the Old English equivalent of *knight*, was pronounced. Another side-effect of spelling words phonetically was that spelling was extremely variable – the spelling of a word would reflect differences in the phonetics of the writer's regional dialect, and also idiosyncratic spelling choices which varied from author to author, and even from work to work by the same author. Thus, for example, the word *and* could be spelt either *and* or *ond*. Old English spelling can therefore be regarded as even more jumbled than modern English spelling, although it can at least claim to reflect *some* existing pronunciation, while modern English in many cases cannot. Most present-day students of Old English learn the language using normalised versions and are only introduced to variant spellings after they have mastered the basics of the language.

Viking influence

The second major source of loanwords to Old English were the Scandinavian words introduced during the Viking invasions of the 9th and 10th centuries. In addition to a great many place names, these consist mainly of items of basic vocabulary, and words concerned with particular administrative aspects of the Danelaw (that is, the area of land under Viking control, which included extensive holdings all along the eastern coast of England and Scotland). The Vikings spoke Old Norse, a language related to Old English in that both derived from the same ancestral Proto-Germanic language. It is very common for the intermixing of speakers of different dialects, such as those that occur during times of political unrest, to result in a mixed language, and one theory holds that exactly such a mixture of Old Norse and Old English helped accelerate the decline of case endings in Old English. Apparent confirmation of this is the fact that simplification of the case endings occurred earliest in the North and latest in the Southwest, the area farthest away from Viking influence. Regardless of the truth of this theory, the influence

of Old Norse on the English language has been profound: responsible for such basic vocabulary items as *sky*, *leg*, and the modern pronoun *they*, among hundreds of other words.

Celtic influence

Traditionally, many maintain that the influence of Celtic on English has been small, citing the small number of Celtic loanwords taken into the language. The number of Celtic loanwords is of a lower order than either Latin or Scandinavian. However, distinctive Celtic traits have been argued to be clearly discernible from the post-Old English period in the area of syntax.

Dialects

To complicate matters further, Old English had many dialects. The four main dialect forms of Old English were Mercian, Northumbrian (known collectively as Anglian), Kentish, and West Saxon. Each of these dialects was associated with an independent kingdom on the island. Of these, all of Northumbria and most of Mercia were overrun by the Vikings during the 9th century. The portion of Mercia and all of Kent that were successfully defended were then integrated into Wessex. After the process of unification of the diverse Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in 878 by Alfred the Great, there is a marked decline in the importance of regional dialects. This is not because they stopped existing; regional dialects continued even after that time to this day, as evidenced both by the existence of middle and modern English dialects later on, and by common sense – people do not spontaneously develop new accents when there is a sudden change of political power. However, the bulk of the surviving documents from the Anglo-Saxon period are written in the dialect of Wessex, Alfred's kingdom. It seems likely that with consolidation of power, it became necessary to standardise the language of government to reduce the difficulty of administering the more remote areas of the kingdom. As a result, paperwork was written in the West Saxon dialect. Not only this, but Alfred was passionate about the spread of the vernacular and brought many scribes to his region from Mercia in order that previously unwritten texts be recorded. The Church was affected likewise, especially since Alfred initiated an ambitious programme to translate religious materials into English. In order to retain his patronage and ensure the widest circulation of the translated materials, the monks and priests engaged in the programme worked in his dialect. Alfred himself seems to have translated books out of Latin and into English, notably Pope Gregory I's treatise on administration, "Pastoral Care". Because of the centralisation of power and the Viking invasions, there is little or no written evidence for the development of non-Wessex dialects after Alfred's unification.

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**Маъруза машғулоти бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг
Рейтинг назорати**

ЖАДВАЛИ

№	Назорат шакли	Назорат сони	Назорат учун балл	Йиғилган балл
1	Маъруза матнининг ёзма тезисини яратиш	1	2	2
	Жаъми	1	2	2

Талабалар билимини баҳолашнинг намунавий мезони

Балл	Баҳо	Талабанинг билим даражаси
1.7 – 2.0	Аъло	Матн тезислари ҳажм жиҳатдан тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс эттирилган, деталлар унутилмаган
1.5 – 1.6	Яхши	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ, асосий моментлар акс этган, аммо айрим муҳим деталлар унутиб қолдирилган
1.2 – 1.4	Қониқарли	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар акс этмаган, деталлар чалкаштирилган, хатолар бор
0 – 1.1	Қониқарсиз	Матн ҳажми тўлиқ эмас, асосий моментлар берилмаган. Грамматик, услубий хато ва мантиқий ноизчилликлар кўп

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 9 семинар
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p><i>A) What do you know about the relationship between English, German and Dutch.</i></p> <p><i>B) What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p><i>B) What language is the closest to the English Language?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Dutch language?</i></p> <p><i>Д) What can you say about the Afrikaans and Yiddish?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) What can you say about the High German dialect?</i></p> <p><i>Б) What is common with English and Frisian?</i></p> <p><i>В) Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясади ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ғарбий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.	<p>Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

8 – мавзу. Ғарбий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг шакли	визуал семинар

Семинар машғулотивинг режаси	1) Ғарбий герман тилларивинг умумий хоссалари 2) Немис тили 3) Африкаанс 4) Голланд тили 5) Идиш тили 6) Инглиз тили
Семинар машғулотивинг мақсади: Талабаларга ғарбий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Ғарбий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Ғарбий герман тилларивинг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларини тавсифлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятивинг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Ғарбий герман тилларивинг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларивининг тарихи, фонетикаси, грамматикаси, ва лексикаси хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Ғарбий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

Old Dutch - the surviving texts

Old Dutch comprises the historical language forms of Dutch from before 1150 AD.

But where does Dutch begin? In general the search for a language starts in the oldest texts which have survived. In the case of Dutch, however, there is no continuous transmission of writing in the way the we know, for example, with Latin. The earliest Dutch texts date from the eleventh century though there could well have been earlier texts than these. Moreover the existence of a first text does not mean that the language was not spoken in earlier times.

In linguistic terms the Old Dutch period is defined as running from c 700 AD to the start of the Middle Dutch period. This assumes that important differences within continental West Germanic were present from 700 AD onwards, so (hat the beginning of Old Dutch can be placed there. The scope of Old Dutch includes, alongside Old Lower Frankonian, also the other language forms of the historical Netherlands. It describes a language area closed off by the North Sea in the west and by the Romance-speaking language border in the south. In the east and north the border runs along the Meuse as far as the Lower Rhine and the Zuiderzee (the modern Usselmeer). Along this border we can determine an extensive transitional area towards the modern German-speaking area.

The first texts

The first Old Dutch texts which have survived are actually not texts as we would know them today, but short phrases or fragments from direct translations of biblical texts.

It all begins with love - the "probatio pennae"

In the Middle Ages, when pens were still made from feathers, scribes used to test their new quills on the pages of the book on which they were working at the time.

In 1932 an English academic in an Oxford library found a loose piece of parchment which had been used to reinforce the binding of a book, and on which, alongside a Latin inscription, a verse in Old Dutch has been immortalised as the so-called "probatio pennaë".

This short text was written in around 1100 by a monk from West Flanders, living at that time in Rochester Abbey in the county of Kent in England. It would appear that he took up his new pen and wrote down the first thing that occurred to him. To make his text intelligible to others he wrote, word for word, the Latin translation above it:

hebban alia vogala nestas hagunnan kinase hi(c) (e)iula tint uu(at) unbida(n) (un)e nit

"All the birds have started their nests except me and you. What are we waiting for now?"

So the history of Dutch begins with a love poem. The letters in brackets are reconstructions made with the help of a blue filter and a strong lamp, making the faded old ink visible. The author is unknown, but from the spelling we can see that he came from West Flanders since he had "problems" with the sound /h/ (eg *hie* instead of *ic*). This is still a feature of West Flanders. Rochester Abbey can be identified as the place of writing by the fact that this abbey had intensive links with the nobility of West Flanders at that time.

An adapted copy - the Leiden Willeram

The "Leiden Willeram" ("*Leidse Willeram*") is an adaptation made by a scribe in Holland province, based on the paraphrase of the Song of Solomon by Willeram, abbot of Ebersburg. The original was written in eastern Lower Franconian, but it is now lost.

The copyist adapted the text to his own language in about 1100 in the abbey at Egmont. He replaced High German words with words from the north western Netherlands, turned prefixes and suffixes into their Dutch equivalents, and adapted the inflection and spelling of the words.

A lost manuscript - the Wachtendonck Psalms

The Wachtendonck psalms ("*Wachtendonckse Psalmen*") are an Old Dutch translation of the psalms from the tenth century. The unknown translator wrote under every line of Latin its translation in Dutch. For the most part he kept to the Latin word order in a direct translation, so we can unfortunately draw hardly any conclusions about the normal syntax of Old Dutch.

Forchta in biuonga quamon oner mi in bethecoda mi thuisternussi

In ic quad uuie sal geuan mi fet heron also duuon in icfliugon sal in raston sal

"Fear and trembling came over me and darkness covered me And I said: Who shall give me the feathers of a dove, so that I fly away and find a resting place "

The history of this manuscript is mysterious and a little criminal. Not only have all the examples of the Old High German translation disappeared, but so too has the Old Dutch adaptation itself. In the 16th century the manuscript was still in the possession of Arnold Wachtendonck, a canon in Liege. When the famous Brabant humanist Justus Lipsius saw these psalms there he had them copied in their entirety, but this copy too has disappeared. How then do we know part of it? Lipsius himself wrote out a small piece of the psalm translation in a letter which he sent to a friend - and this is the fragment that is known to us.

Noble and beautiful - the Munsterbilzen eulogy

Finally we also know a sentence from the cloisters of Munsterbilzen in Limburg. At the bottom of a list of thirty names of those living in the cloisters there can be seen, half in Old Dutch and half in Latin, the proud observation:

tesi samanunga was edele uncle scona & omnium virtulem pleniter plena

"What a noble and beautiful collection - and moreover so virtuous"

Main features of Old Dutch

Old Dutch sound laws

Old Dutch shows developments in its sounds which did not take place in the other Germanic languages:

- The consonant cluster *-ft-* became Old Dutch *-cht-*:

Modern German: *sti/ten* Old Dutch: *sti/i/an*, Modern Dutch: *stic/i/cn*

- In *-chs-* an assimilation took place, becoming *-ss-*

Modern German: *Füchse*, English: *fox* Old Dutch: *vu.v.vo*, Modern Dutch: *vossen*

The Old Dutch cluster *-ol + d/t-* was diphthongised to *-ou + d/t-*: Modern German: *alt*, English: *old* Modern Dutch: *oud*, Modern German: *Gold*, English: *gold* Modern Dutch: *goud*;

The lengthening of short vowels in open syllables bearing the stress led to a vowel difference between singular and plural which is still present in Modern Dutch: *spel - spelen, vat - vaten*

The Germanic diphthongs *ai* and *au* turned into monophthongs in Old Dutch: Modern German: *Baum* Modern Dutch: *boom*;

Modern German: *Baum* Modern Dutch: *boom*;

Because the Germanic stress shifted to the first syllable the unstressed suffixes gradually weakened. This ends up as a muted <e> - the so-called "schwa" - in unstressed syllables in Middle Dutch:

Old Dutch Middle Dutch

hebbanhebben "have"

unbidan ontbiden "wait for"

(no longer current: compare also English *abided*)

vogala voegele "Birds" singil singet "sing"

Morphological features

The erosion of the unstressed syllables led to a reduction in the suffixes. The case differences in Gothic and in the oldest stages of the West Germanic languages are present in nouns, adjectives and pronouns, with the suffixes also depending on gender and number.

Using the example of Old Saxon we can see that different noun stems, distinct in Gothic, became confused because of the reducing of the suffixes. In Middle Dutch the nouns are divided into only two groups (strong and weak). The verb endings in Old Dutch show the person, number, mood and tense. The dual, the indication of two people, which we find in Gothic, is no longer present.

Syn tactic feat u res

Whereas Gothic only used two tenses, i.e. present and preterite, Old Dutch already appears to know a construction for the future tense using *zullen*, and also the past participle:

Gan zal ic

hebban olla vogala nestas hagunnan

The surviving Middle Dutch texts

In contrast to Old Dutch, a large number of Middle Dutch texts have survived. Even from the time before 1300 more than 2000 texts have been preserved. This shows that Dutch had become an independent cultural language, which, unlike Low German, has not let itself be swamped by High German. A large number of these texts are to be found in the *Corpus Gysseling*. This *Corpus Gysseling* is a standard edition of Middle Dutch texts from the period before 1300. It is divided into two types of source: literary and official texts.

As examples of a literary source we can name texts such as "*Van den vos Reynaerde*" ["Reinard the Fox"], Hendrik van Veldeke's "*Sint Servaes*", Melis Stokc's "*Rijmkroniek*" ["Rhyme Chronicle"], "*Elckerlijc*" ["Everyman"], and "*Marieken van Nieuwmeghen*". Examples of official manuscripts include the "*Stadsrekening Maastricht*" (1399), the "*Schepenbrief van Oldenzaal*" (1351), or the "*Ambtelijke tekst uit Breda*" (1269). In the 13th century Flanders dominated Dutch-language literature. The most brilliant literary work of this period is probably Jacob van Maerlant's "*Der Naturen Bloeme*".

In the 14th century Flanders was followed, both in time and in quality, by the county of Holland-Zeeland, with Dordrecht as a notable centre.

About two thirds of all Middle Dutch official texts from the 13th century were written in Bruges. There are important differences between these two sorts of text. In the first place most official texts are precisely dated, whereas literary texts are not. Secondly official texts are mostly original copies, whereas almost all the literary texts that we have are copies. In linguistic terms there is also a third difference: official texts are mostly written in dialect. Literary texts were

meant to address a broad public and were therefore written in the sort of language which could be understood by different dialect groups.

At that time such copies were written by so-called copyists in specially set-up scriptoria (scriptorium = writing workshop). A manuscript that is written by the author personally, or which the author commissioned, is called an autograph. Such a manuscript was then copied, and copies were made of the copies themselves. The manuscript which served as the example for the copyist is known as the standard. Of course mistakes, both large and small, sometimes happened during the copying: the copyist could misread the original, exchange words in the sentence, or turn over two pages at once so that part of the text is lost. Sometimes the copyist also adapted the text of his source to fit the target public: old fashioned words were replaced, or the text was translated into a different dialect.

It is clear that all these changes led to irregularities in a text, which can be particularly annoying in rhymed works. Later copyists sometimes spotted these mistakes and tried to correct them. Words or passages for which, after comparison with other editions, internal evidence shows that they were not written in this form by the author, are known as corrupt. If the autograph of a text has not survived, we can try to reconstruct the original text using the various readings. Such a reconstructed edition is known as an archetype.

In a scriptorium people could order deeds, charters or books, both in Latin or in the vernacular. Usually only one copy of a book was made for a personal library. Sometimes one extra copy was made for presentation, for example, to a newly established religious house. There were a large number of commercial scriptoria, but also a number of scriptoria in abbeys. After 1450 the significance of writing workshops declined: book printing entered the scene. Books, published in relatively large editions, could now also become cheaper (also helped by the replacement of parchment by paper).

Many medieval manuscripts were written on parchment (animal skins prepared for use as a writing material). A number of sheets (often four) were laid on each other and folded in two, so that there was a sort of notebook, which is known as a section. Many sections were bound together into a codex.

Middle Dutch Diversity

When speaking about Middle Dutch we must not forget that the term is no more than a collective name for dialects which were spoken and written between about 1150 and 1500 in the present-day Dutch-speaking region. There was at that time as yet no overarching standard language.

Within Middle Dutch we can distinguish five large dialect groups: Flemish, which is sometimes subdivided into West and East Flemish, was spoken in the modern region of West and East Flanders (Ghent, Bruges, Courtray); Brabants was the language of the area covered by the modern Dutch province of North Brabant and the Belgian provinces of Brabant and Antwerp; Hollands was mainly used in the present provinces of North and South Holland and parts of Utrecht, whilst the people in the district of modern Dutch and Belgian Limburg communicated in Limburgs dialect. The final dialect group - East Middle Dutch - was spoken in the area of the modern provinces of Gelderland, Overijssel, Drenthe and parts of Groningen.

The last two of the Middle Dutch dialects mentioned above show features, respectively, of Middle High German and Middle Low German, since these two areas border directly onto the German language-area, as can be seen from a historical map of the regions of that time.

The search for dialect features starts in the texts whose place and time of origin are known. Local official documents are particularly suitable for this, as they are mostly written in the local dialect. Unfortunately not all surviving texts have a clearly identifiable place of origin. A single manuscript can often show features of several dialects. One reason for this can be that the copyist may speak a different dialect and so allows features of "his own" dialect, as it were, to slip in, or even that he is making a conscious adaptation of the text into his own dialect. A further possibility is that words are borrowed from another dialect for the sake of preserving a rhyme. Sometimes marked dialect features are consciously avoided, for example if the text is

aimed at a wider audience. Or it can simply be the influence of the Flemish-Brabants tradition - in the 13th and 14th centuries the cultural and literary centre of gravity lay in Flanders.

The date of origin can also sometimes be difficult to establish. Literary texts in particular, which are very often copies of copies of copies, show archaic characteristics alongside newer features from the same dialect; dialects too, of course, also change with the passage of time.

Some features can spread to another dialect region, and there displace other characteristics which in turn sometimes even disappear completely. Responsibility for these changes is shared between increasing mobility and advancing urbanisation. As travel became easier and towns grew there was increasing contact with other dialects or even foreign languages. The need for a unified language arose. The invention of printing also led to an avoidance of dialect idiosyncrasies, because the texts were now aimed at a wider public. That is one of the first steps in the direction towards developing a standard language.

Dialect maps must therefore be drawn not only for each feature but also for each century at the very least.

Differences between dialects

Dialects can differ from each other in several aspects. On the lexical level, for example, one dialect may have a different word for the same concept, or the same word may have a different meaning in another dialect. Sometimes the texts themselves include explicit comments over differences in word usage, for example: *Een eghel heet ment in Dietscher tale, in Vlaemsche een heertse, dat wetic wale* ["In Diets it is called an 'eghel', but a 'heertse' in Flemish, that I know well"] from Jacob van Maerlant's *Der Naturen Bloeme*

As regards the use of the word "Diets" here, it is worth noting that several meanings were attached to this word in Middle Dutch. When it was a matter of distinguishing between southern and northern dialects, *Dietsch* means southern language usage whilst for northern features the term *Duutsch* was used. However, in other contexts these words were used as synonyms. They can stand equally well for Middle Dutch in general as for Germanic contrasted with Romance languages.

On the morphological level - ie inflection and word formation - variations can arise in the use of different affixes. For example for female designations the suffixes *-inne* and *-es* (gravinne, abdesse, ["countess", "abbess"]) are generally used, whereas *-egge* and *-nede* (spinnegge, vriendnecle ["spinster", "friend"]) are a distinctly Flemish feature. In Brabants we can also find the suffix *-erse* (burgersche, hooierse ["citizen", "haymaker"]) and in the east *-ske* is used. The suffix *-ster* (melcster ["milkmaid"]) only arises north of the great rivers Rhine and Meuse.

Differences at the syntactic level - ie word order - have, unfortunately, been investigated little.

The greatest differences are of course to be found in the areas of spelling and pronunciation, the phonological level. A typical feature of Flemish is for example the unexpected presence or absence of the letter *h* at the start of a word which begins with a vowel: *hute. hesele* (uit, ezel ["out", "ass"]) and *ondert, ant* (hondert, hand ["hundred", "hand"]). An important feature of the dialect of Holland province are the relics from Old Dutch shown in the combination *-ft-* for *-cht-* (gecoft, after ["bought", "behind"]), and the diminutive forms using *-gen/-gien* (huysgen ["little house"]). Limburgs and eastern dialects still preserve the combination *old* instead of *oud* (wolde, soldo ["would", "should"]), and in Brabant texts there is often an *o* instead of *u* (dos, vrocht ["thus", "fruit"]).

Spelling and pronunciation in Middle Dutch

Middle Dutch spelling is, in many respects, more phonetic (or rather phonological) than in modern Dutch; ie the spelling is guided by the sound. For example we find <hanf> and <coninc> but <handen> and <coninghe>. The differing sounds in two forms of the same word are what is referred to by the German term Auslautverhartung ["final hardening"], whereby voiced occlusives at the end of a word or syllable are pronounced unvoiced. In modern Dutch this phenomenon is not expressed in the spelling. This principle is known in Dutch as the rule of

"gelijkvormigheid" ["uniformity" or "conformity"] because the words <hand> and <handen> are both spelled with <d> despite the difference in pronunciation.

A second rule which is preserved in modern Dutch is the principle of analogy. Thus we write <hij \vordt> and <zij rijdt> which keep the <d> by analogy with the <d> in <worden>, <rijden> and add the -I- ending for the 3rd person singular by analogy with what happens in other verbs such as ■ hij kom-t>. In Middle Dutch however we find these words only in the form wort • and <rijt>; this can sometimes lead to confusion.

Apart from these deviations with respect to modern Dutch there are also of course a great many variants within Middle Dutch itself. In the various scriptoria and chancelleries the spelling conventions employed could often be quite divergent, and would also continue to change over time. An example of this can be seen in the spelling of long vowels. In very early texts these were still represented by a single letter, which can lead to confusion with the short vowels. In slightly later texts we often find <e> used as a sign of length, or sometimes an <i>. The modern habit of doubling the vowel arises in the 15th century. A special case concerns the representation of the long *HI*. Whilst the various spelling conventions of Middle Dutch texts can give us *jaer* in alternative forms such as *jair* or *juar* (where the <a> is lengthened by <e> or <i> or doubling), and *poeri* as *poirt* or *poort*, the two graphemes <ie> and <ij>, which represent a long *I'll*, are not interchangeable. Thus in a text which uses <i> as a sign for the lengthening, we find words such as *niedich* [desiring, keen] or *ries* [silliness] written mostly with <ie>, whilst *dijc* [dyke] or *nijt* [passion, hate] are found in all texts with an <ij> spelling; the character <j> has developed from an earlier <i>. However this phenomenon most probably also reflects a difference in pronunciation.

Because of the absence of a standard language, dialect differences are particularly liable to show up in texts.

But even within a single text there can often be inconsistencies. This may not be so surprising in literary texts, since, after all, the surviving texts are mostly copies carried out in turn by a series of copyists. However in official texts too, even though written by a single writer, we can often find different forms for the same word. These equivalent forms, occurring alongside each other, are known as doublets, or "pseudo-doublets" if they can be assigned to different dialects or periods. Punctuation, scarce as it is in Middle Dutch manuscripts, does not correspond with modern practice. For example a point is added at the end of a line of verse if it runs on to the next line rather than forming a syntactic unit in itself. If rhyming texts (fairly uncommon anyway) are written continuously (*scriptura continua*), the lines of verse are separated from each other by points.

Points are also used to identify Roman numerals, and distinguish them from the same letters used normally (eg *Ende ,LX. daghe so ist bekent* ["And sixty days, as is known,..."] from *Per Natwen Bloeme* by Jacob van Maerlant;

In Middle Dutch we may find a number of features which still occur in modern Dutch but which are now only accepted in the spoken language. The most obvious of these are assimilation, reduction and clisis.

The term assimilation means "making the same", ie the adaptation of a sound to its surroundings. This occurs mainly at word boundaries (a feature called "external sandhi") or parts of words (internal sandhi). For example the word *ontbieden* is often pronounced as *ombieden*. In this case we have the total assimilation of the /t/, whereas the /n/ has been modified by the /b/ only in terms of the place of articulation, and so changes from an alveolar dental into a bilabial; this is a case of partial assimilation. However, despite this pronunciation, the spelling of <ontbieden> is not changed in modern Dutch. In Middle Dutch on the other hand we can often also find this word written as <ombiden>. The mutual influence of Auslaut (final sound) and Anlaut (initial sound) in spelling can also be seen to affect consecutive words, ie at word boundaries. For example <op die> is often spelt as <optie>, where the voiced *Id/* has lost its voicing under the influence of the unvoiced */pi*.

This example also shows us that word division in Middle Dutch texts is not as fixed as in modern Dutch. Unstressed particles especially (ie words which primarily have a grammatical meaning:

articles, prepositions, pronouns etc) are often written attached to the start of the following word (eg *biderschepenen wille* - "bi der schepenen wille" ["with agreement of the Schepenen - sheriff, magistrate"], *teseggene* "te zeggen" ["to say"]).

A phenomenon which is closely related to this is known as clisis. Here too we are concerned with two or more words being written together - however this is linked with loss of sounds. Weakly stressed words - mostly particles - attach themselves to a strongly stressed word at the expense of part of their sound. Depending on whether the inclination (process of clisis) appears at the start or end of the word this is called proclisis and enclisis respectively.

Examples of proclisis are:

darme man = die arme man "the poor man"
tien tiden = te dien tiden "at that time"
harentare = hare ende dare "here and there"

Examples of enclisis are:

hi cussesc = *hi cusscde se* "he kissed her"
gaedi = *gaet ghi* "doe you go"
kindine = *kindc hi hem* "he knew him"

Such enclitic forms can sometimes be ambiguous. For example *hoordi* can be from *hoort ghi* "hoort u" ["do you hear"], *hoordet ghi* "hoordet u" ["did you hear"], *hoorde hi* "hoorde hij" ["did he hear"], or in exceptional cases even from *hore di* "(ik) hoor jou" ["I hear you"]. The correct interpretation can only be deduced from the context.

This phenomenon also occurs in modern Dutch of course, but it isn't reflected in the spelling (compare for example the spoken form *khebbem* and the written form *ik heb hem* [I have him]).

Another feature which we find in Middle Dutch spelling is known as reduction, which manifests itself primarily in unstressed syllables, and is closely related to assimilation. Within this term we include the disappearance of sounds and the shortening of vowels or their weakening to an unstressed "e" - the so-called schwa.

Depending where the sound disappears from, we refer to it as procope (loss at the start of the word: eg *ebben* instead of *hebben*), syncope (loss in the middle of a word: eg *hoetbant*, *te rekene* and *sire* instead of *hovetbant*, *te rekenene* and *sinere*), or apocope (loss at the end of a word: eg *nach* and *vrou* instead of *ofnacht* and *vrouwe*). Apocope of a final schwa is particularly common in Middle Dutch, and is closely connected to the reduction of case endings and the accompanying loss of inflection. This phenomenon is still to be found in modern Dutch. In many dialects and even in the standard language, for example, <n> is not pronounced at the end of a word (eg *Om dit te schrijve*, *heb ik zeve boeke moete leze*), **but of course it is still written there.**

But sounds don't only disappear, sometimes an extra one creeps in. This phenomenon is called epenthesis. An example of a consonantal slide - ie a parasitically introduced consonant which cannot be explained etymologically - is the <s> in *kunst* ("art" from *kunnen* ["to be able"]). This also includes the so-called paragogical /, a /t/ added at the end of a word. Compare the Middle Dutch word *nieman* with the modern *niemand*.

The most frequent epenthetic vowel is known as **svrabhakti**. This term, taken from Sanskrit, refers to a vowel introduced to facilitate pronunciation before consonants. This is why, for example, the West Germanic word **fugl* gave rise to the Dutch word *vogel*. Other examples are words such as <arm> and <Hoorn>, which are often pronounced as *arem* and *Hooren*. In contrast with modern Dutch where a clearly heard svarabhakti vowel is regarded as sloppy, in Middle Dutch it is also reflected in the spelling (eg *waremhede* [warmth]).

Finally we must mention **metathesis**. This term refers to the swapping of consonants within a word. This occurs mostly in connection with the liquid /r/. Compare for example the

Middle Dutch word *bernen* with the German *brennen* and English *burn*. Alongside the normal Middle Dutch *treden* there exists the form *terden*. If we compare the word *vruchten* ["fear"] with the German *furchten* we can see that the <r> can also "jump" in the other direction. In this same word, indeed, a metathesis of the r has occurred: compare the English noun *fright*, Danish *frygt*, Norwegian *frykt* and Swedish *fruktan* with German *Furcht* and **Old Dutch** *forchta*

Pronunciation

No matter how varied Middle Dutch spelling might be, it is still an important means of helping us to understand the pronunciation. For in general it is true to say that a difference in the spelling points to a difference in the sound. Alongside this the rhymes can sometimes be of great value in the search for the correct phonological realisation of the characters. We must always bear in mind however that any reconstruction of the pronunciation is always speculative. Our pronunciation of Middle Dutch is certainly not "correct" (ie authentic): it is very close to the current normal Dutch pronunciation and is heavily influenced by it.

To give one example: we know for certain that Middle Dutch <ij> was not yet a diphthong but was still a long monophthong. That is why we always give the same pronunciation to Middle Dutch <ij> as in <pijn>, and <ie> as in <niet>, viz a long [i:]. Yet these two sounds never rhyme with each other in Middle Dutch, nor do they generally alternate in individual words. This suggests that <ie> must really have represented a different pronunciation from that given by </>. There must have been a difference which we can no longer deduce.

The spelling of the sound for which modern Dutch uses the spelling <eu> has numerous possibilities in Middle Dutch. It can be written as <oe>, <o>, <ue> but also as <w>. At the same time the spelling <u> can be used for the same sound as it has in modern Dutch. The same applies to <oe> which, as well as [o], can also represent [u] and even [o].

Unfortunately it is not possible to give here a complete survey of the different spelling variations and the corresponding sound values.

The Low Countries in the Middle Ages

Survey of the Dutch-speaking areas in the Middle Ages

It is true of the whole Dutch-speaking region in the Middle Ages that language borders were not political borders. Nonetheless the regions where the "dietsche" languages were spoken increasingly developed an outlook of their own which was clearly distinct from that of the French-dominated culture. One reason for this was the growth and prosperity of the great civic communities, which made a certain individualism possible.

The political, cultural and economic centres of the Dutch-speaking region in the Middle Ages were the County of Flanders and the Duchy of Brabant, under the rule of Floris V, and also the County of Holland.

Flanders (West, East, Zeeland, and French regions) had arisen from some of the the Carolingian territories and in the Middle Ages belonged to the French crown. In this region lay rich industrial towns such as Ghent, Bruges and Ypres, which possessed great power and amongst whose occupants flourished an extensive cultural life. In this county Dutch was heavily influenced by French, and Latin was supplanted as the language of administration.

In the course of the Middle Ages the Duchy of Brabant also increased in power: Antwerp, North-Brabant and Limburg were soon added to the original core of the County of Leuven [Louvain]. In Brabant any Romance influence on the language was very weak, and even in Brussels all the inhabitants spoke Dutch dialects.

The County of Holland (with the bishopric of Utrecht and the West-Frisian regions) was strongly oriented towards France. The modern northern provinces of the Netherlands were of little importance in European power struggles, as they had a very agrarian infrastructure.

With the increasing power of the Dukes of Burgundy, who were adept at profiting from the weaknesses of the French kings and the Emperors of the German Empire, more and more parts of the Dutch-speaking regions came under their control. In the times of Philip the Good (born 1396, ruled 1419-1467) and Charles the Bold (born 1433, ruled 1467-1477), Burgundy *wasting* political and cultural power of western Europe. After the death of Charles his daughter

Maria (who had inherited all his possessions) married Maximilian of Austria, and the region was annexed to the Habsburg Empire.

From 1150 to 1300

In Middle Dutch, assumed to have begun between 1150 and 1200, scarcely any documents have survived from the period before 1200, as Latin was used as the written language. The few people who could read and write were predominantly ecclesiastical officials. Dutch regional tongues were only transmitted orally. This position changed radically with the rise of the towns, which had an enormous influence on Middle Dutch. The burghers used their own vernacular - even in written documents such as laws and contracts; this language was always the particular dialect of their region. One of the principal documents from the period between 1200 and 1260 is the tale *Van den Vos Reynaerde* ["Reinard the Fox"], written in a Flemish dialect.

In the 11th and early 12th century Europe was heavily preoccupied with the crusades, which were being carried out by the whole European nobility as a battle by the various nationalities to "save" the "holy land of Palestine" from Islamic domination. The crusades were initiated and supported by the Roman Catholic Church.

This period also saw the rise, in northern Italy and southern France, of the so-called "poverty movements" of the Middle Ages, the best known of which is that of Francis of Assisi (1181-1226). But the Waldensian, Cathar and similar movements, which were fiercely persecuted by the church, also contributed greatly to the socio-cultural circumstances of the time. These times also saw the rise of the money-based economy, leading to early forms of capitalism, and of the "money aristocracy".

Another important development was that, when the Concordat of Worms in 1122 brought an end to the battles over investiture, the princes could win increasing power for themselves, and bought"]. However, this is not yet acceptable in written Dutch; for this reason this construction is often widely criticised in reference books.

Syntactical changes

In the syntactic field there is some increase in the use of *om* to introduce infinitive constructions:

ik heb het besluit genomen om to blijven ["I have taken the decision to stay"]

Originally *om* was used as an introductory word only for short subordinate clauses with a definite aim:

zij gcutt naar de winkel om melk le kopen
["she's going to the shop to buy milk"]

Furthermore there is a clear shift from *hebben* to *zijn* as auxiliary verb for the formation of the perfect tense:

ik ben geweest originally: *ik heb geweest*

ik ben vergeten ik heb vergeten

ik ben iets verloren ik heb iets verloren

["I have been, I have forgotten, I have lost something"]

Alongside the forms *ik hen vergeten* and *ik ben iets verloren* the older forms with *hebben* are still used. However it is not clear whether there is a semantic difference between the two forms.

A shift in the other direction also occurs, ie from *zijn* to *hebben*:

ik heb de hele avond opgetreden ["I have been on stage all evening"] *ik heb diegevallen nagegaan* ["I have investigated the cases"]

Lexical changes

These days new words are quickly spread via the mass media, and end up in the standard language. Another source of lexical change is the enormous speed of development in many areas. New concepts are introduced into the language to cope with new processes and entities (eg in computer terminology: *hardware*, *software*, *save*, *tekstverwerker* ["wordprocessor"] etc).

The changed social concepts of (for example) women, ethnicity, old people, also bring changes in vocabulary:

gekkenhuis > *psychiatrische inrichting* > *sanatorium voor zenuwlijders*
["mad house, psychiatric institution, sanatorium for nervous conditions"]

Loan words

Borrowings from English

At the time of writing most loan words come from English. This is not just a matter of new technical concepts, but also of loans in all sorts of areas of life (eg *image*, *showroom*, *tram*, etc).

In many cases the spelling and pronunciation of the English words are adapted to fit Dutch usage.

Borrowings from German

Many German words also end up as loan words in Dutch. Some of them are already so old, and so adapted to Dutch usage, that most people do not even realise that the words are German in origin (eg *voorlopig*, *tijdschrift*, *ontwikkeling* ["provisional, newspaper, development"] etc).

Other German loan words have managed to keep their original sound and spelling, eg *uherhaup!* ["at all"] and *sowieso* ["anyway"]. In recent times the influence of German has suffered a clear decline because of the strong influence of English.

Borrowings from French

Alongside many French loan words there are Dutch words with the same meaning. The French loans were unable to drive out the Dutch equivalents completely and they are now used side by side. However, the French word is often preferred:

visite - *bezoek* ["visit"]

jus d'orange - *sinaasappelsap* ["orange juice"]

s.v.p. - *a.u.b.* ["please", ie "*s'il vousplait*", "*alstublieft*"]

All living languages change in the course of time. That is understandable, since as a means of communication the language must be able to adapt itself to the changing demands of the users.

From 1300 to 1500

In this period the political unity of the Dutch-speaking regions increased. Many districts were combined through advantageous marriages and conquests, and expanded themselves to form greater and more powerful counties and duchies. But the power of towns and their burghers also increased enormously. In 1302 the "Battle of the Golden Spurs" took place at Kortrijk [Courtray], and for the first time an aristocratic cavalry army was beaten by burghers (from Bruges), which of course gave a tremendous boost to the self-confidence of the citizens.

Trade between the towns and regions increased, and with it contact between the inhabitants of different areas. At first the dialect with the greatest prestige was that of Flanders, then that of Brabant, followed later by the dialect of Holland province. The people whose poor position in society deprived them of the chance to see other regions or communicate with strangers, nevertheless did their best to imitate those who were better off. In this way the regional languages were increasingly put on the same level as each other.

In about 1450 the use of printing using movable type was invented. It now became possible to print many more books much more quickly, which contributed to the development of a standard language, particularly in writing. It was now possible not only to reach a much larger readership in one's own region, but also to provide books for other regions. For the benefit of these "foreign language" readers the authors avoided the use of words which would be unknown in the other regions. Book printing was therefore of great importance in the development of a general language. The Middle Dutch printing centres were Utrecht, Gouda, Delft, Leiden, Haarlem and Zwolle.

At the end of the 13th century western Europe had developed an independent culture of its own, and the economic situation was excellent, particularly in the rich industrial regions of

Flanders and Brabant. Administration was carried out by cultured laity, those who could read and write were no longer only to be found in clerical circles. Yet education was still carried out by the church: the 12th century onwards saw the rise of the so-called "church-schools". Some church-schools grew to become the first universities (eg Leuven 1425). Before this any "Netherlanders", *i* who wished to enjoy higher education had to go to Paris or some other European metropolis.

The 14th and 15th centuries were heavily influenced by rising crisis and economic stagnation. Bad harvests and diseases such as the plague took many lives. Many magnificent works of art from the religious domination of artistic style of the Middle Ages - Gothic - are still to be found in many parts of Europe: cathedrals, altars, paintings etc. For the Netherlands in this time we can mention artists such as Jan van Eyck, Hieronimus Bosch, Claus Sluter etc.

The influence of Latin and French on Middle Dutch

Under Charlemagne the area which is now the Netherlands and Belgium was part of a larger multilingual region.

On one side of the region Germanic dialects were being spoken which were still very similar to each other, so that people could still understand each other; on the other side a sort of Latin was being used. This had the consequence that everybody who carried out business or was in the service of the (local) authorities, or who was a clerk or cleric, had to be bilingual.

In France, from the 9th century onwards, Latin was accompanied by a vernacular, known as Old French, which had arisen from Latin in the course of the centuries. "Standard Latin" continued to be important for centuries as a "lingua franca" for Christian Europe, run as it was from Rome. Throughout Europe teaching was carried out in Latin in universities and the so-called Latin schools.

Although there continued to be great interest in Latin right up to the Enlightenment, people in most countries gradually started using the vernacular for administrative purposes. In the Netherlands this started in the 13th century.

However, the influence of Latin on vernacular languages was quite strong. In the Netherlands words were borrowed even before 1150, still in the Old Dutch period, from classical Latin (especially for physical objects and the new Christian religion), and from vulgar Latin, influenced by Celtic languages, or Old French (especially for physical objects and emotions).

This means that in Middle Dutch we meet words like *strate* (< "via strata" ["street"]), *wal* (< "vallum" ["wall"]), *wijn* (< "vinum" ["wine"]) of *munte* (< "moneta" ["coin, money"]). These expressions for things acquired from Roman civilisation were borrowed from Latin at an early stage (4th/5th century).

Alongside direct borrowings from Latin or French, Dutch also introduced loan translations ("omni-potens" > *al-machtig* ["almighty"]), and there are also instances of semantic extension (*i/open* for "to baptise", originally just "immerse") or replacement of a native word by a loan word (*camp* < Latin "campus" instead of *ofwijnch* ["camp, settlement"]).

From the 12th century onwards the influence of Old and Middle French on vocabulary was especially strong, particularly in border regions, trade centres and aristocratic circles (as is testified by 13th century texts with large numbers of French loan words).

Both influences, French and Latin, are in any case present before the beginning of written sources, so that it is often now impossible to establish whether a word, at the time of its borrowing, was still Vulgar Latin or the newly developed Old French, and exactly when the borrowing occurred.

Sometimes it is possible, with the help of the sound laws and analysis of the accent or spelling, to track down the time of borrowing: the word "altare" in Middle Dutch is (amongst other forms) also found as *outaer* - it had clearly already been taken from Latin in the Old Dutch period as it has taken part in the development *alt* > *olt* > *out*.

Furthermore French probably also exercised some influence on the grammar and spelling of Middle Dutch.

There is, for example, debate amongst linguists as to whether the Dutch plural using *-s* arose from French influence. On one side this plural form also exists in German and English but not in the Scandinavian languages, which makes an origin in Common Germanic improbable (ie strengthens the argument for a borrowing from French). On the other hand the plural with *-s* is already found in the very earliest texts, which argues against the "loan theory".

The spelling in Middle Dutch was in any case strongly influenced by French writers. In old texts we can, for example, often find *-ghe-* or *-ghi-* instead of the modern *-ge-* or *-gi-*. This means that the letter *-g-* must have been pronounced [x] as in modern Dutch (ic like the <ch> in Scottish "loch"), and not like the French <g> which had changed to voiced <zj> in front of *Id* and /i/ (as in the English word "leisure").

Moreover French loan words often brought with them French suffixes, such as *-ier*, *-ie* or *-age*. Some of these suffixes are still active in word formation.

It also occurred that a borrowing which had already taken place in the Old or Middle Dutch stage was "reborrowed" later, as in the example of the Latin "solarium", which already existed in Middle Dutch as *solre* (> "/.older" ["loft"]) and recently joined the language again via English "solarium" to indicate a technical apparatus. Another example is the word "altarc" which, after the borrowing into Old Dutch mentioned above was taken over again into Middle Dutch, this time as *altaar*.

The Netherlands in the 16th and 17th century

The blossoming of the 16th century

The marriage between Maximilian of Austria and Maria of Burgundy formally attached the Netherlands to the house of Habsburg. Maximilian was crowned as Holy Roman Emperor in 1486. By his marriage politics ("tu felix Austria nube") Maximilian managed to bring many regions into the house of Habsburg, not least Spain. His grandson **Charles V** followed him to the throne and became Holy Roman Emperor, King of Spain, and lord of the Netherlands. The economic situation in the Netherlands at that time was very favourable. The textile sector in particular was growing strongly. From the 15th century onwards Antwerp was the economic centre. In cultural terms the Netherlands in the 16th century counted amongst the best in Europe.

The crisis

At the end of the 16th century the crisis broke. There were economic problems such as bad harvests, low wages and the English trade embargo. Secondly the new religious movements were becoming more important. Turning away from Catholicism also meant rejecting the established order. The followers of Protestantism were pursued by the Spanish. Thirdly the independent thinking Dutch burghers were strongly opposed to such absolute government. Also problematic was the great distance between the King (Philip II) and his lands. This offered many opportunities for opposition forces.

In this tense situation some of the nobility turned to the governess Margaret of Parma, to find relief from the actions against the heretics. During their visit they were introduced to the governess by her adviser Cardinal Granvelle in French as "geux" (beggars); as a result they subsequently referred to themselves as "Geuzen".

The situation escalated and the so-called Iconoclasm began in the churches. The king sent an army, but it did not arrive until a year later, when all was quiet once more. This was naturally felt to be provocative. Along with the Spanish army came the **Duke of Alva**, a representative of the "hard line" who set up the so-called Bloody Council.

With the attempt by William of Orange to occupy Brabant the 80-Years' War started in 1568.

There were indeed moves for peace, but without success (eg the Pacification of Ghent, 1576). On 6th January 1579 the Walloon provinces of Artesia [Artois], Hainault, Namur, Luxemburg and Limburg founded the "**Union of Atrecht**" [Arras] in which they proclaimed a break with the uprising against the Spanish king. Barely three weeks later, in the "**Union of Utrecht**", the provinces of Brabant, Flanders, Holland, Zeeland and Gelderland promised not to sign a separate peace deal with Philip II.

In 1581, in the "**Edict of Delay**", the States-General spelt out the points by which Philip had violated the treaty with his subjects. Philip was no longer regarded as the sovereign.

The fall of Antwerp

In 1585, during the 80-Years' War, the Spanish under the leadership of Alessandro Farnese conquered Antwerp. In retaliation the northern provinces closed the River Scheldt. This marked the definitive partition of the Netherlands.

As a result of these conflicts ever more people emigrated from the south. Within this mass emigration many highly qualified professional artisans, merchants, intellectuals and artists left their homes in the south and moved to the north. This was an important stimulus for the later Republic of the Seven United Netherlands, set up in the northern provinces in 1588.

The republic of the Seven United Netherlands

The dream of a single great "Netherlands" was over, and the 17 provinces divided into two parts. These emigrations, together with the political situation, led to economic life shifting to the rebellious provinces.

In the south there was no longer any support for rebellion. The closure of the Scheldt blocked off the Flemish ports.

The war continued, interrupted only by the Twelve-Years' Truce (1609-21). In the meantime religious belief split the whole continent into two parts. In the Netherlands a new religious conflict broke out between the followers of Arminius (the **remonstrantii**) and of Gomarus the **contraremonstranten**). The Golden Age had passed and from 1618 the Dutch war merged into the 30 Years' War in Europe. The whole of Europe was now one great theatre of battle and the conflicts were not resolved until 1648 at the **Peace of Munster**. In this treaty, amongst other things, the Republic was recognised by Spain as a sovereign nation and the closure of the Scheldt was confirmed.

In the middle of the 17th century the conflicts resumed with the trade wars between England and the Netherlands ("Navigation Act", 1651). France also invaded the Netherlands again and began a war with England. The appearance of William II as the new regent of the Netherlands changed the situation and a year later the French withdrew again.

The great time was now in the past, prosperity ceased and the Netherlands were no longer the principal trade power.

The Spanish and the Austrian Netherlands

Philip II ceded the Netherlands to the archduchy of Isabella and Albrecht, but Spanish troops remained in the land and freedom was therefore limited. The Habsburgs tried to use absolute government to hispanise the Netherlands. The administration was staffed with Spanish officials, and in the area of religion the Habsburgs dealt forcibly with the counter-reformation and reintroduced Catholicism. With the Peace of Munster Spain recognised the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands, and the separation was confirmed definitively. When the Spanish king Charles II died without issue in 1700 France and Austria both claimed the throne. France won and their candidate Philip of Anjou became king of Spain. In the Peace of Utrecht (1713) the Spanish Netherlands passed to the Austrian Habsburgs, where they stayed until 1794. As regards the Southern Netherlands, the migrations between 1540 and 1630 were a great loss. Epidemics (the plague), wars and famine thrust the region into a crisis and the economy declined.

Diphthongisation and the Holland Expansion

A sound shift of crucial importance in the development of Dutch marks the transition from Middle Dutch to modern Dutch: the diphthongisation of [i:] (spelt <ij>) and of [y:] (spelt <uu>). As can be deduced from comments in 16th century grammars (as well as other indications) the Middle Dutch monophthongs [i:] and [y:] gradually changed to [ei] and [oey]. This sound change first showed itself in the dialect of South Brabant, followed a short time later by the lower class dialect in Holland province. In both language communities the [i:] and [y:] gradually became pronounced as [ai] and [oi]. This process of diphthongisation did not, however, entail any increase in the number of phonemes - in both language systems the

diphthongs [ei] and [oey] were already present in their variant pronunciations of [ai] and [oi]. The diphthongisation of [i:] and [y:] led to a merging of sounds as can be seen in this table:

Middle Dutch	Modern Dutch		
dialects of Brabant and lower class	<ei> [ai]	<ei>	<-heit> [ai]
Holland province	<uy> [oi]	<uy>	<fluyt> [oi]
	<ij> [i:]	<ij>	<tijt> [ai]
	<uu> [y:]	<uy>	<huys> [oi]

The penetration of the new diphthongs into later Standard Dutch was completed by their adoption into the prestige language of the upper classes of Holland province. As to why they finally found a place there, historical linguistics offers three different solutions: The linguist Kloeke proposes that the diphthongs were borrowed from Brabant dialect, basing his theory *on* a "sociolinguistic" argument, explaining the borrowing of these diphthongs by the contact between inhabitants of towns in Holland and the influential South Netherlander who had emigrated there in the 16th century as a result of the counter-reformation. The view that this diphthongisation is an indigenous feature restricted to Dutch is taken by Hellinga (amongst others, see Van der Wal 1992: 445): the diphthongs are supposed to have arisen in "uncultured Dutch" and penetrated into the "civilised Dutch" of the upper class circles. An intermediate position is taken by Caron amongst others: he proposes that an existing indigenous development might have been reinforced by the immigrants from the Southern Netherlands. Whichever is the case, the new diphthongs took their place in the "upper class" Dutch of Holland province. However they did this in the form of the pronunciation variants considered "civilised" by the elite of the province, viz [ei] and [oey], in contrast to [ai] and [oi] as used in Brabant and the Dutch used by the "lower classes" of the province. Yet the diphthongisation did not occur in all positions: the old monophthongs were preserved before /r/. Since sound changes spread word by word (a principle referred to as "lexical diffusion"), the diphthongisation also did not reach every potential word in the language, eg words such as *scharensliiep* ["knife-grinder"] and *duvelstoejager* ["jack of all trades"]. With the increasing influence of the district of Holland in the Republic of the United Netherlands its language, and particular sounds within the language (such as the "new" diphthongs), also "expanded" to other regions of the Netherlands, a feature that Kloeke called the "Holland expansion".

The diphthong [ei] spread from the towns of Holland province to the surrounding regions, and from the province itself into other districts. However, some dialect areas (eg parts of Zeeland and Limburg) remained outside the reach of this expansion. The spread of [oey] was also made more complicated by the fact that in the 16th and 17th centuries there were some eastern regions where the palatalisation of Old Dutch [u:] into Middle Dutch [y:] had still not taken place. Whilst seamen from Holland province were presumably still busy spreading [y:] to the [u:] regions along the Zuiderzee, in the towns of the province the diphthongisation of [y:] to [oey] was already complete, and this diphthongisation began to spread gradually into other areas. This part of the history of Dutch has therefore left fairly clear traces behind in modern Dutch: the many ij/ei homonyms (such as *lijden/leiden*) in modern Dutch can be explained from the merging of the sounds as a result of diphthongisation; furthermore the long i's and u's in some Modern Dutch dialects bear witness to the partial "failure" of the Holland expansion in the 17th century.

Dutch in Brussels

The language laws of the 1930s, which were not refined until the 60s, led to the following regional divisions in Belgium: Flanders monoglot Dutch, Wallonia monoglot French, and Brussels bilingual. Only the official delimitation of the language border and a fixed ruling for the capital were lacking in the 30s. In 1963 definitive solutions were found for these too; however some corrections to the border were still needed in the Voer region, near Moeskroen and in the Komen district. There was also the question of Brussels itself. The bilingualism which was introduced into Brussels only applied to the so-called "buitendienstr" ["external affairs"]. In

other words: bilingualism became compulsory in communications with officials, and in official life in general. Announcements, official notices, posters etc had to be formulated in both French and Dutch. There was a free choice for internal affairs, for example for contact between individual officials. Since January 1995 a further province has been added, since Brabant was split into two: Flemish-Brabant with Leuven as its capital, and Walloon-Brabant with Wavre (Waver) as its capital. The Metropolitan Area of Brussels therefore lost its function as a provincial capital, but preserved its functions as capital of Belgium and capital of Flanders.

Tweetalig Brussel

The Belgian capital was originally a Dutch-speaking town. The inhabitants spoke a dialect of Dutch. In the course of history more and more people started using French, as they saw it presenting advantages to their careers. French was after all the language of status. Already in the 18th century, even before the French occupation, there were complaints about the decline of Dutch, which had acquired the status of a street-language (for a similar topic see also **language purification / purism**). The French occupation (1794-1814) naturally led to Dutch going even further into decline. French now became the definitive language of public life, and of economic, political and social power in the land. Dutch would keep this stigma of poverty and illiteracy for a long time, right until late in the 20th century. The frenchification increased in pace particularly after 1890. in part because of the expansion of education. Whoever wanted to have the chance of a good job had to turn to French. The town expanded greatly, and in due course the perimeter districts of Brussels were incorporated into the capital to create a single city, the Brussels agglomeration. The inner city full of office buildings was gradually depopulated. More and more people, especially innumerable immigrants from Wallonia, ensured that the 'Brusselse olievlckr ["Brussels oil-spot"] - a French-speaking area in the middle of a Flemish province - got larger and larger. After the Second World War many migrant workers and employees of the EEC/EU institutions came to live in Brussels. They usually chose French as their working language. From the 1930s onwards children were required to follow their education in their mother tongue. In mixed marriages the parents had to choose which of the two languages was the mother tongue of the child. In the 50s and 60s the Flemish made many protest marches in Brussels. Nevertheless Brussels became increasingly French-speaking until well into the 1960s.

However, from the 60s and 70s more and more immigrants arrived from Africa in Belgium, predominantly into Brussels, and the situation gradually began to change. Employees of the EEC/EU institutions and immigrants from the Mediterranean now form about a quarter of the population of Brussels. The alien versions of French did not increase the standing of the language. French-speaking inhabitants of Brussels feared that standards in French-speaking schools would decline if more and more non-native pupils arrived. As a result the prestige of Dutch-language education increased. Since the 70s the head of the family has been able to have a free choice in the language of education for their children. Dutch-language schools are now becoming more attractive to French pupils, partly helped by the fact that the Flemings had smaller classes, newer schools, kindergartens and day residences. The economic growth of the formerly agrarian Flanders led to the rise of the Flemish middle classes, and thereby also a rise in the prestige of their language. Conversely the loss of industry in Wallonia led to a lessening of prestige for French. The French-speaking inhabitants of Brussels had to realise that the best-paid jobs in Brussels were going to be allocated to bilingual personnel. Indeed most inhabitants of Brussels are now bilingual: they have French or Dutch as their mother tongue and speak, to a greater or lesser extent, the other language too. At the international level, however, it is French which has the greater prestige.

Language of status and solidarity

If you live in Brussels and go to a doctor, buy a train ticket or have a friendly drink with a friend in a cafe, you always have a choice between the two languages and a number of different varieties of each. It is not just a choice between French and Dutch: if you choose Dutch you also have a choice between the domestic dialect of Flemish immigrants, cultivated dialect, native Brabant dialect, "Cultivated Belgian" or standard Dutch; if you choose French you have a similar

range of varieties (Brussels French, Belgian French, standard French and numerous dialects). People adapt themselves to the conversational situation. They will often ask themselves how their choice of language will be valued. In the whole language area a dialect "*scoort [...] hoog op de solidariteitsschaal: dialectsprekers worden als aardig, betrouwbaar en openhartig beschouwd*" ["scores highly on the solidarity scales: dialect speakers are seen as friendly, reliable and open"]. On the other hand the use of the standard language "*scoort hoog op de statusschaal: de sprekers ervan wordt zelfvertrouwen, ambitie, intelligentie en bekwaamheid toegeschreven*" ["scores highly on the status scales: its speakers are credited with self-confidence, ambition, intelligence and competence"]. It is well known that Flemish has been strongly influenced by the proximity of a large French-speaking population. However, in a bilingual situation borrowings from the neighbours' language do not take place in just one direction. From the following dialogue in Belgian-French it can be seen that this language too is strongly influenced by Dutch

Jean-Pol knocks on his neighbour's door. The latter calls:

'Entrez seulement' kom maar binnen

Entrez come in

After the greeting the visitor says:

'J'ai prêté cent francs de vous' ik heb honderd frank van u geleend

je vous ai emprunté cent francs I have borrowed Fr 100 from you

et je veux les donner de retour en ik wil ze teruggeven

et j'aimerais les rendre and I want to pay it back

mais j'ai vingt francs trop court maar ik kom twintig frank te kort

mais il m'en manque vingt but I'm twenty short

So he hands over the eighty francs with a polite

's'il vous plaît' alstublieft

voilà "please", ie: here you are

(French people never say "s'il vous plaît" when they hand something over; in Dutch, as in German and several other languages, you say the equivalent of "please").

'Ca cloppe, j'ai done encore vingt' Dat klopt, ik heb dus nog twintig

francs de bon frank te goed;

(V) voila, vous me devez done encore that's right, so I have another twenty

vingt francs. francs to come

Language change **in the 19th and 20th century**

After the process of standardisation of Dutch since the 17th century, it is relatively easy now to make a clear distinction between the standard language and the dialects. The development of the standard language, like that of the dialects, is still continuing in the 20th century however. The standard language is changing under the influence of the dialects as much as from other languages such as English, German or French. The development of the dialects takes place largely under the influence of the standard language. In the comments below we draw attention to some tendencies which can be seen in the development of Dutch in the 19th and 20th centuries.

Changes in pronunciation

The voiceless pronunciation of <v> as [f], <z> as [s] and <g> as [x] (a sound as in Scottish *loch*), is trying to penetrate the standard language. This feature derives from the dialect of Holland province. As in many other languages (notably excluding English) there was and is a desire in Dutch for a spelling which is as phonological as possible. This means that each sound is represented by a single letter and conversely that each grapheme can only be realised acoustically in a single way. Alongside some rules and principles of the modern Dutch spelling system - such as the principles of uniformity ("*gelijkvormigheid*"), analogy and etymology - which can lead to exceptions to these correspondences, the devoicing of the consonants <v>, <z> and <g> is making for a greater difference between the written image and the actual pronunciation.

Polder-Dutch

In the last quarter of the 20th century the development of ABN has taken an unexpected turn, at least according to the Amsterdam linguist Dr Jan Stroorj (1998). The pronunciation of the three Dutch diphthongs *ei*, *ui*, and *ou*, which has been constant for centuries, is now racing in the direction of *aai*, *ou* and *aa*: *klaain maarfaain, vraauwen, houswerk* ["small is beautiful, women, housework"]. This change, which Stroop dubs "Polder-Dutch", was first noticed amongst older well-educated women from the upper middle classes, including women working in universities, in politics, as artists or as authors. Since then the phenomenon has rapidly become more widespread, still predominantly amongst women, but it is now heard more commonly amongst men too. It is also widespread amongst children under the age often from all backgrounds. The change can be found in the whole of the Netherlands, interestingly enough also amongst ambitious young women of Moroccan or Turkish origin. This rapid spread is not surprising for a change which is as "natural" as this lower or broader articulation of the diphthongs *ei*, *ui* and *ou*, when it is no longer held back by "language culture" (compare in this context the pronunciation of the counterparts of these sounds in English and German).

Morphological change

In the area of morphology there is a notable extension in the use of the plural ending *-s* for nouns. This mostly affects words ending in *-e*, such as *de hoogte - de hoogtes* instead *oihogten* ["heights". The suffix *-baar* is becoming more productive in modern Dutch (eg neologisms such as *opbelbaar* ["telephonable"]), whilst the suffix *-(e)lijk* is losing some of its productivity in turn, and is sometimes even replaced by *-baar* (eg *onnoembaar* instead of *onnoeinelijk* ["unnameable"]). Furthermore in modern Dutch there is an increase in the tendency towards "concentration", as can be seen predominantly in multi-part compound nouns:

beroepsofficiersopleiding ["career officer training"] *arbeidersjeugdeenirale* ["workers youth centre"]

Pronouns

Personal pronouns

In Flanders there is still a clear distinction between three genders - masculine, feminine and neuter.

de stoel > hij ["the chair"] *de tafel > zij* ["the table"] *het boek > het* ["the book"]

In the northern regions however most "□<?-words" are referred to with *///*"; the form *zij* is rarely used.

de tafel > hij ["the table"] *de taal > hij* ["the language"]

In the written language however *zij* and *haar* ["she, her"] are also used to refer to collective nouns relating to people:

de regering > zij ["the government"]

de regering in haar vergadering ["the government in its assembly"]

A second change in the area of pronouns concerns the forms of address *gij/ge* which are still common in the south but which in the north in the course of time were replaced, first in the spoken language and eventually also in the written language, by the form *jij/je*. The way of addressing women - *mevrouw, mejuffrouw* and *vrouw* ["Mrs, Miss" etc] - has also shifted. In the 19th century *mevrouw* was the form of address for ladies of high standing; *mejuifvrouw* was the norm for ladies of the middle classes, and *vrouw* referred to women of the lower classes. The form *vrouw* has now completely disappeared, and *mevrouw* is now almost the only term in use. *Me/uffrouw* was used for some time for unmarried ladies, but in recent times it has largely fallen into disuse. The changes in the forms of address take place under the strong influence of changing social concepts of the person and the relationship between the sexes.

The relative pronoun

In the spoken language the relative pronoun is often replaced by an interrogative pronoun (eg *het boek wat ik heb gekocht* instead of *het boek dot ik heb gekocht* ["the book what/that I have])

**Герман филологиясига кириш фанидан 10 семинар
машғулотининг Технологик Картаси**

Босқичлар, вақти	Фаолият мазмуни	
	Ўқитувчи	Талаба
1 - босқич, Кириш (5 мин.)	1.1 мавзуни, унинг мақсади, семинар машғулотидан кутиладиган натижаларни маълум қилади	1.1 эшитади, ёзиб олади, тайёрланади.
2 – босқич, Асосий (60 мин.)	<p>2.1 Талабаларнинг дарсга тайёргарлик даражасини аниқлаш учун тезкор савол – жавоб ўтказилади</p> <p><i>A) What do you know about the relationship between English, German and Dutch.</i></p> <p><i>B) What do you know about the Norwegian language?</i></p> <p><i>B) What language is the closest to the English Language?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Dutch language?</i></p> <p><i>Д) What can you say about the Afrikaans and Yiddish?</i></p> <p>2.2 Ўқитувчи визуаллардан фойдаланилган ҳолда семинарни бошқаришда назорат этишда давом этади</p> <p>2.3 Шимолий герман тиллари тарихи ва ҳозирги ҳолатига ёндашиш йўллари, тамойиллари, қонун қоидалари намоён қилинади</p> <p>2.4 қўйидаги саволлардан фойдаланилган ҳолда мавзу ёритилади</p> <p><i>A) What can you say about the High German dialect?</i></p> <p><i>Б) What is common with English and Frisian?</i></p> <p><i>В) Why is the German Grammar conservative?</i></p> <p><i>Г) What can you say about the Afrikaans language?</i></p> <p>2.5 талабаларга мавзунинг асосий тушунчаларига диққат қилишларини ва ёзиб олишларини таъкидлайди</p>	<p>1. Талабалар саволларга бирин – кетин жавоб беради.</p> <p>2. Схема ва жадваллар мазмунининг муҳокама қилади.</p> <p>3. Саволларга жавоблар бериб асосий жойларини ёзиб олади, жавоб беради.</p> <p>4. Ҳар бир саволга жавоб ёзишга ҳаракат қилади.</p> <p>5. Таърифини ёд олади, мисоллар келтиради,</p> <p>6. Эслаб қолади.</p>
3 – босқич. Яқуний (15 мин.)	Мавзу бўйича яқун ясади ва талабалавр эътиборини асосий масалаларга қаратади. Ғарбий герман тиллари. Тушунчаларига кластер тузишини вазифа қилиб берилади, текширилади ва баҳолайдию Талабалар жавоблари баҳоланади.	<p>Ғарбий герман тиллари тушунчаларига кластер тузади.</p> <p>Уйга вазифа олади.</p>

8 – мавзу. Ғарбий герман тиллари

Семинар машғулотининг ўқитиш технологияси	
Вақти – 2 соат	Талабалар сони 25-30 нафар
Семинар машғулотининг	визуал семинар

шакли	
Семинар машғулотининг режаси	1) Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари 2) Немис тили 3) Африкаанс 4) Голланд тили 5) Идиш тили 6) Инглиз тили
Семинар машғулотининг мақсади: Талабаларга ғарбий герман тиллари тўғрисида билимларни ҳамда тўлиқ тасаввурни шакллантириш	
Педагогик вазифалар: - Ғарбий герман тилларини тушунтириш; - Ғарбий герман тилларининг тушунчаси билан таништириш; - Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларини тавсифлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари хоссаларини гуруҳлаш; - Ғарбий герман тиллари фонетика ва грамматикасини изоҳлаш ва тасаввур ҳосил қилиш	Семинар фаолиятининг натижалари: Талаба: 1) Ғарбий герман тилларининг умумий хоссалари ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 2) Немис тили, африкаанс, голланд тили, идиш тили, инглиз тили тилларинининг тарихи, фонетикаси, грамматикаси, ва лексикаси хусусиятларини ўрганиб чиқади. 3) Ғарбий герман тилларини функционал қўлланиш ҳақида тасаввурга эга бўлади. 4) Талабалар билими баҳоланади.
Ўқитиш услуби ва техникаси	Визуал семинар, блиц – сўров, баён қилиш, кластер, “ха - йўқ” техникаси
Ўқитиш воситалари	Семинар матни, проектор, тарқатма материаллар, график органайзерлар
Ўқитиш шакли	Жамоа, гуруҳ ва жуфтликда ишлаш
Ўқитиш шарт - шароити	Проектор, компьютер билан жиҳозланган аудитория

The Faroese Language

Population and Settlement.

The Norwegian colonisation which, probably in the 8th or 9th century replaced an earlier Celtic settlement, was to have a lasting importance, also linguistically. The Norwegian population which settled in the Faroe Islands has had contact with Celtic-speaking people. This is shown by the words of Gaelic origin which can be demonstrated in the Faroese language today.

The Norwegian colonisation brought the Norwegian language to the Islands in the same way as in the other areas which were populated from Norway. In the Norse period i.e. -the time from about 800 to 1300-1400 - the Norse language was spoken relatively uniformly in these countries.

Faroese has always been closely related to West Norwegian and today it is still most closely related to West Norwegian and to Icelandic. At an early point in time, the geographic separation led to a development of dialect differences which were further developed and which form the basis of the present language.

Faroese became an independent language with characteristics of its own, be it as regards sound, inflection or vocabulary.

But where as we have good possibilities of studying the Norwegian and Icelandic languages of an older time, thanks to the large written material which is available, the lack of linguistic sources is a major obstacle to the study of the earliest forms of the Faroese language.

Earliest Language Sources.

The earliest language records are a couple of runic stones. However, compared to runic findings in Scandinavia, these are not old.

The Faroese law supplement Seydabreevid with statutory provisions for sheep-breeding on the islands, dates from 1298.

Besides being preserved in the version from the year of issue, it has also been preserved in its entirety in another manuscript from the same period (c. 1310). This manuscript, which is found in the university library in Lund, Sweden, is considered to be written by a Faroese, and it is thus the oldest manuscript with Faroese text that we know. The manuscript shows special Faroese features and the statutory provisions contain special Faroese linguistic matter.

But otherwise the language is Norse as it is known from Iceland and Norway at that time. From the Middle Ages also some certificates (letters) have been handed down, concerning wills or other legal matters. They date from the time shortly after 1400. Here the Faroese language features are so distinct that Faroese must be considered to be developing into an independent language.

Politically and linguistically, the Faroe Islands share the fate of Norway, as the Islands, which constitutionally were a part of Norway, came under the Danish Crown in 1380. and at the Reformation Danish was introduced as the language of the church and the administration. Thus, Faroese ceased to exist as a written language. Danish Bible and hymn book were introduced, and the clergymen became Danish to a great extent. The judicial system became Danish, whereby the Records of the Courts and other official documents were drawn up in Danish, also by officials who were natives of the Faroe Islands.

This left its mark on the written sources from post-Reformation time. These sources consist first and foremost of cadastres (court rolls) and registers of mortgages. But as the contents concern special Faroese conditions the temptation frequently becomes too strong, and terms from the Faroese everyday language (which did continue to live on) crept into the written sources. **This** showed itself in the representation of the forms of names, place names as well as personal names, which were, of course, abundant in sources of this nature. Attempts were made, as far as possible, to reproduce these names with Danish spelling, and often in partly Danish forms. In this way a lot of peculiar hybrid forms occurred. And these hybrid forms have characterised the Faroese naming custom even up to our time and in a sense, in part still do. The predominant position which Danish obtained in this period was bound to have a far-reaching influence on the entire language. As regards vocabulary in particular, the Faroese language in this period absorbed an abundance of Danish words, which left its mark on the spoken language system as regards sound and inflection.

The Restoration of the Language.

Jens Chr. Svabo (1746-1824) must be mentioned as the one who laid the foundation stone to the exploration and restoration of the language. His work did not so much aim at adopting Faroese as the official language again, as at preserving for posterity the last "corrupted remainders" of the language.

In 1781-82 Svabo undertook his well-known journey to the Faroe Islands to collect material for a description of the Islands and here he had excellent opportunity to increase his collections of Faroese vocabulary and ballads.

In his notes, Svabo had to start from the very beginning. He had no tradition of written language on which to build. In other words, he had to make his own written language, his own orthography. This he did with amazing consequence. He chose - not unexpectedly to bring his orthography close to the pronunciation, and consequently this followed the pronunciation of his own dialect from the island of Vagar rather closely.

Svabo's opinion of the possibilities of the survival of the language was pessimistic. In the light of the puristic ideas (both Danish and Icelandic) of that time, he regarded Faroese as a corrupted variety of the old Norse language, which through the negligence of centuries had been mixed with Danish.

In his opinion there were two possibilities: either to go back to the ancient language in order to restore the language to its "lost purity" or to introduce Danish into the Faroese Islands. He considered the first possibility to be impracticable. The most obvious solution would be to give up Faroese and adopt Danish, so that all the King's subjects would speak the same language. However, things were to turn out differently from what Svabo had imagined. At this point, we are approaching the age of romanticism and with it the interest in antiquity and its records awakens, and together with this also the interest in the languages of the peoples.

The collecting of the great treasure of folk songs and legends which lived still on the lips of the people, was started. But as the various recorders according to Svabo's example each followed their own orthography, more depending on the dialect they spoke, it was not long before a need arose for a fixed norm of writing which could include all the dialects.

The Written Language.

The problem was solved by dean V.U. Hammershaimb (1819-1909). In 1846 he elaborated that which (with some later adjustments) was to become the modern Faroese written language. In the planning of his written language, Hammershaimb builds on the so-called etymological principle, i.e., he goes back to the ancient language, making it the basis of the present written form.

Many of the phonetic changes which have taken place in the language in the course of time, thus do not appear in the visual picture of the words. The same applies in the case of the many dialectic differences which had emerged. In this way, the written language was to become the common denominator that could unite the dialects. The consequence of this was, of course, also a wide difference between pronunciation and writing.

This led to criticism, as many people considered the new spelling to be too difficult to learn - a problem which obviously exists - and in the late 19th century other proposals for an orthography were produced, introduced by the philologist Jakob Jakobsen (1864-1918). This led in the 1890s to a vehement orthography dispute, the outcome of which was, however, that the Hammershaimb-normal was maintained.

With the new written language as a basis and concurrent with the national revival in the late 19th century, a modern Faroese literature grew up. Of special importance is the fact that the first newspaper printed in Faroese "Foringatidindi" appeared in 1890. This was one of the first tangible results of a popular meeting in Torshavn at Christmas-time 1888, at which a programme was laid down for the restoration and development of the language. The greatest importance was attached to introducing Faroese into the schools, the church and the administration. The efforts to restore "Faroese language to its former position", as it was stated after the Christmas meeting, were to cause bitter dispute, politically and culturally, before it was acknowledged officially in 1938 as the language of instruction on the Islands.

With the "Home Rule Act" of 1948 it was legalised as the principal language of the Islands, but in public affairs Danish has the same status as Faroese, and in the schools Danish has to be studied thoroughly. As the language of the church it gradually became more common as the texts of the Bible and the rituals were also translated. The builder first and foremost of a Faroese church language was the dean Jakup Dahl (1878-1944), whose translation of the New Testament was published in 1937 (the official church bible was available in a complete translation in 1961). Before then, however, the Plymouth Brethren had a translation made of the Bible into Faroese by the preacher Victor Danielsen (1894-1961) (the New Testament in 1937 and the Bible in 1949). The language of the courts, however, is still mainly Danish, and the laws of the Løgting (the Faroese Parliament) are published with a Danish parallel text.

Some Characteristics of the Faroese Language.

A brief survey of some of the characteristics of Faroese will be given here. As a principal rule in Faroese words, the stress falls on the first syllable. There are a few exceptions in words beginning with a prefix. For foreign words and loanwords the stress often falls on a later syllable, usually as in the original language, e.g. studentur (student), banan (banana), motorur

(engine), betala (pay), fortelja (tell). Faroese has to a great extent preserved the system of inflection which was found in Norse, however with some simplifications.

A distinction is made between the three genders. Words have four cases: nominative, accusative, dative and genitive, and singular and plural; and thus, theoretically, a noun can have 8 inflected forms, and if the definite forms are included there are 16 theoretical possibilities (in practice, however, many forms are similar). Of the four cases, the genitive case has a very limited application, especially in the spoken language, where it is usually replaced by paraphrases with prepositions. For example, "The man's house" is *Husid hja manninum*.

However, in the written language, and in particular the more elevated style, e.g. scriptural style, the genitive case is often used, and purists have done much to reintroduce the genitive forms.

The Vocabulary.

The nucleus of the Faroese vocabulary is of Norse origin and has parallels in the neighbouring languages. As mentioned before, a small number of words (and place-names) are of Celtic origin and testify to an early connection with Gaelic-speaking people in the British Isles. In the late Middle Ages and after the Reformation. Faroese received a large addition of Danish and Low German words (the latter usually through Danish), not least in religious usage (e.g. *begynna* (begin), *betala* (pay), *bevara* (preserve), *forrada* (betray), *gemeinur* (common), *sannheit* (truth), *kerligheit* (love)).

With the national movement and its efforts to raise Faroese to the status of official language of the islands there was also a puristic tendency which considered that it had to "weed out" undesirable foreign elements from the language. This work has been continued to the present time and is regarded by purists as not less important today than it was then. The puristic activities have to a high degree been modelled on similar efforts in Icelandic and, to some extent, in Norwegian, and have been inspired by these. Words have been taken directly from Icelandic, or new words have been formed according to the Icelandic models (e.g. *utvarp* "radio"), but words have also been designed within the country, or old and partly repressed words have been revived.

The Dialect Norm.

The scattered settlement which is a natural consequence of the geographic conditions has, as mentioned already, led to Faroese being split up into a number of dialects at an early stage. This was indeed a stumbling-block when the necessity of creating a common standard of the written language was faced. The archaic spelling allows the various dialect areas to keep their local pronunciation to a large extent. The development within population and settlement in our century, especially after the war, with people moving from the villages to the capital, and the consequent concentration of population in the Torshavn area, has given this central area a strong position in setting the standard in linguistic respects. The concentration of the higher schools and the mass media in this region contributes to the consolidation of this position, so that there is some tendency towards regarding the Central Faroese pronunciation as a sort of norm, which is often used as a normal reading.

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МУСТАҚИЛ ИШ МАВЗУЛАРИ

1. The Gothic language
2. The Swedish language
3. The Norwegian language
4. The Danish language
5. The Icelandic language
6. The Faroese language
7. The German language
8. The Dutch language
9. The Frisian language
10. The Afrikaans language
11. The Yiddish language
12. The English language

ОРАЛИҚ ВА ЯКУНИЙ НАЗОРАТ САВОЛЛАРИ

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.

TECTJAP

Test 1

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

- A) R. Rask B) J. Grimm C) K. Verner D) A. Scaliger

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

- A) Traditionalist B) Structuralism C) Young grammarians D) Rationalists

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

- A) J. Grimm B) F. Bopp C) H. Paul D) B. Delbrucke

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

- A) M.V. Lomonosov B) A.K. Vostokov C) V. Buslaev D) F.F. Fortunatov

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

- A) F. De Saussure B) A. Meillet C) E. Benvenist D) B. Hrozný

6. Who is the founder of glottochronology in linguistics?

- A) M. Swadesh B) F. De Saussure C) A.V. Baudoin de Courtenay D) N.Y. Marr

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

- A) about 1st century B) about 500 c. BC C) the 5th century BC D) the 10th century BC

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

- A) Pliny the Elder B) J. Caesar C) Strabo D) Platon

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

- A) Tacitus B) Pliny the Elder C) Strabo D) Julius Caesar

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

- A) King Arthur B) King Alfred C) Ulfilas D) Pliny the Elder

Тест 2

1. Find the line where the centum languages are mentioned:

- a) Germanic. Romance, Albanian, Indian c) German. Slavonic, Romance. Celtic, Iranian
b) Germanic, Baltic. Romance, Albanian, Indian d) German. Iranian, Celtic, Greek

2. Find the line where the satem languages are mentioned:

- a) Slavonic Germanic Indian. Celtic, Baltic b) Slavonic Indian, Iranian, Baltic
c) Celtic, Germanic. Baltic Indian d) Germanic, Celtic. Romance, Baltic Iranian

3. When did the great migration of nations take place?

- a) 8-11 c AD b) 1-5cc BC c) 2-7 c AD d) 10-5 c BC

4. What languages belong to the West Germanic group'?

- a) English, Norwegian. Danish. Icelandic b) English, Swedish, Faroese Icelandic
c) English, German, Dutch. Frisian d) English. Dutch Finnish, Icelandic

5. Who was the author of the famous specimens of the “History of English”?

- a) IP Ivanova b) BA Ilyish c) T.A. Rastorgueva d) F I Smirnitsky

6. Endemic language is a language spoken in

- a) three or more countries b) two countries c) one - country d) many countries

7. Wundt and H Paul belong to the linguistic school called

- a) sociological b) psychological c) transformational d) glossmatics

8. I. Veardryea and A Mallei belong to the linguistic school, called

- a) Sociological b) naturalism c) cognitive d) functional

9 Who announced the relationship between Sanskrit, Greek and Latin?

- a) J Grimm b) W. Von Humboldt c) W. Jones d) F deSaussure

10. The diasintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after

- a) 11th century b) 10th century c) 9th century d) 12th century

Test 3

- 1. What phonemes tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped in unstressed final?**
a) short vowels b) long vowels c) plosive stops d) voiced fricatives
- 2. While long vowels generally tended to become closed and to diphthongize short vowels on the contrary often changed into**
a) back vowels b) more open sounds c) diphthongs d) long vowels
- 3. In later Proto – Germanic and in separate Germanic languages the vowels displayed a tendency to**
a) be lengthened b) be diphthongized
c) positional assimilative changes d) change its quality
- 4. As a result of voicing by Verner's Law there arose**
a) Additional endings b) Ablaut
c) Variability of endings d) An interchange of consonants
- 5. Some linguists suggested that the articulation of consonants in Germanic was marked by**
a) lack of energy or tension b) the greater degree of tension
c) forceful articulation d) emotional power
- 6. Common Germanic consonant shift was caused by**
a) need to show exclusiveness of the Germanic people
b) need to improve the pronunciation
c) need to economize the energy
d) Internal requirements of the language system,
- 7. In the early periods of the history the grammatical forms in Germanic were built in**
a) ablaut b) the analytic way c) the synthetic way d) suppletive way
- 8. Ablaut was inherited by Germanic from ancient**
a) Indo- European b) Greek c) Aramaic d) Sumerian
- 9. The Germanic branch of Indo-European is a**
a) developed language b) satem language
c) centum language d) undeveloped language
- 10. The manner of speech varying within the social group is called**
a) dialect b) sociolect c) slang d) jargon

Test 4

- 1. Linguistically Icelandic is most closely related to**
a) Dutch and Frisian b) English and German
c) Faroese and Norwegian d) Danish and Swedish
- 2. Linguistically English is most closely related to**
a) Dutch b) Germans c) Afrikans d) Frisian
- 3. The most influential dialects Dutch were**
a) Flanders and Brabant b) Burgundian and Digve
d) The dialect of Amsterdam c) The Northern territories
- 4. The earliest songs and poems in Yiddish were written by**
a) Sholim Aklechem b) Menahem ben Naphtali Oldenderf
c) Mendele Mocher Sforim d) Issac Bjshevis Singer
- 5. Yiddish is widely spoken in smaller Haredi communities in such the ones as**
a) Washington. Boston. New-York b) Warsaw, Moscow. Odessa
c) London. Antwerp. Montreal d) Budapest, Prague. Wienns
- 6. Find the tribes who gave rise to the English language**
a) Latin. Greek Normands Britts Wellens b) Germans, Low Saxons, Bavarians. Heruls
c) Angles Celts Jutes Natuegans Franks d) Angles Saxons Jutes Frisians, Franks
- 7. The New English is characterized by a very large**
a) Territory of functioning b) Number of speakers

c) Number of dialects

d) Vocabulary

8. The remarkable regularity of sound changes and the principle that phonetic laws have no exceptions were proclaimed by

a) Rask and Schleicher

b) J Grimm and C Verner

c) B Delbrücke and Brugmann

d) A Meillet and J Vendryes

9. The rate of change in language, 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 is analyzed in

a) Diachronic linguistics

b) Glottochronology

c) Lexicostatistics

d) History of the language

10. The statement "The relationship between Indo-European languages could not be portrayed by means of a family tree" was made by

a) Schmidt

b) J Grimm

c) K Verner

d) A Meillet

GLOSSARY

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 John Stuart Mill, and it underlies behaviorism and much of connectionism

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 has or does rather than by what he is. *flatfoot. four-eyes, cutthroat*.

behaviorism. A school of psychology, influential from the 1920s to the 1960s, that rejected the study of the mind as unscientific, and sought to explain the behavior of organisms (including humans¹ with laws of stimulus-response conditioning. Usually associated with the psychologist B. F. Skinner

blocking. The principle that forbids a rule to apply to a word if the word already has a corresponding irregular form, for 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, grammar, 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-term memory

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

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

CAT scan. Computerized Axial Tomography. The construction of a cross-sectional picture of the brain 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/childes>), developed by the psycholinguists Brian MacWhinney and Catherine Snow.

classical category. A 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, pomp*

cognitive neuroscience. The study of how cognitive processes (language, 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 originally borrowed the word from the other.

collocation. A string of words commonly used together: *excruciating pain: in the line of fire-*

compound. A word formed by 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 with a blockage or constriction of the vocal tract.

conversion. The process of deriving a 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* (noun).

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 main site of neural computation underlying the higher cognitive, perceptual, and motor processes

declension. The process of 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, the local area code will be used as the default

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

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

diphthong. A vowel consisting of two vowels pronounced in quick succession, *bite: /aɪ/; milk: /ɪk/.*

Early Modern English. The English of Shakespeare and the King James Bible, spoken from around 1450 to 1700.

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 over 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 Chomsky 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 given off by the brain.

Middle English. The language spoken in England from shortly after the Norman 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. A technique that constructs pictures of cross-sections of the brain or body.

neural network. A 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 and 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 called Old Saxon, after the Anglo-Saxons speaking the language that invaded Britain around 450

onset. The consonants at 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 EATEN* (perfect participle); *He was EATEN* (passive participle); *He is EATING* (progressive participle).

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

pattern associator memory. A common kind of neural network or connectionist 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 hidden layers of units. Pattern associator memories are designed to memorize the output for each of a set of inputs, and to generalize from similar inputs to similar outputs

perfect. A 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 *I* (first person), *you* (second person), and *he/she/it* (third person)

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

phoneme. A vowel or consonant, one of 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 the 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, suits, 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: *The gerbil ATE THE PEANUT.*

preposition. A part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to a spatial 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 is 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 of 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 "that undergo umlaut (or that underwent it in earlier" historical periods) are indicated by two dots: *a, ö, ü.* verb. The part-of-speech category comprising words that typically refer to an action or state: **hit, break, run.** *know **beem***

weak verbs. In the Germanic languages, the verbs that form the past tense or participle by adding t or d. They include weak irregular verbs such as *sleep-slept, hit-hit*, and *bend-bent*, and all the regular verb-.wug-test. A test of linguistic productivity in which a person is given a novel word and encouraged to use it in some inflected form. Here is a wug, Now there are two >f them: there are two ..."