

**МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ**  
**ДОНБАСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**  
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**Методичні рекомендації**  
**до самостійної роботи з навчальної дисципліни «Історія германських**  
**мов» для здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти**  
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## ЗМІСТ

Передмова .....	5
Завдання для самостійної роботи .....	6
Список рекомендованої літератури .....	83

## ПЕРЕДМОВА

Сучасний етап розвитку мовознавства позначений посиленням інтересом науковців до вивчення природи мовних явищ та їх витоків. Серед необхідних лінгвістичних дисциплін, які закладають основи підготовки філологів-германістів, особливе місце належить «Історії германських мов». Головна мета курсу – сформувати у здобувачів вищих навчальних закладів ґрунтовні знання з германістики як важливої складової історичної лінгвістики. Він охоплює такі ключові питання порівняльно-типологічного та історичного мовознавства, як походження, структура та закономірності розвитку германських мов, фонетичні, морфологічні і лексичні особливості давніх і сучасних західно-, північно- і східногерманських мов, методи дослідження мовного матеріалу. Курс передбачає розширення лінгвістичної підготовки аспірантів, а також поглиблене вивчення проблем сучасного порівняльно-типологічного та історичного мовознавства.

У посібнику розглянуті ключові поняття порівняльно-історичного методу – потужного інструменту вивчення процесу еволюції мов та їх спорідненості. Студенти отримають відомості про побут та культуру давніх германців, їх писемність, релігію і міфологію. Висвітлені основні принципи фонетичної та граматичної будови германських мов та особливості їх розвитку в різні історичні періоди. Вивчення лексичного складу германських мов супроводжується значною кількістю прикладів, зокрема семантичні процеси в англійській лексиці досліджуються на тлі розвитку номінативних одиниць на позначення інструментальності (зброя, знаряддя виробництва, медичні інструменти, засоби пересування тощо) в писемних пам'ятках VII–XVII ст.

Матеріал рекомендацій поділено на теоретичний і практичний блоки. Кожен з теоретичних розділів містить список літератури. Практичну частину посібника складають тестові або практичні завдання до кожної з тем.

1. Language Constantly Changing

2. Dialectal Differentiation

3. The Indo-European Family

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



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

**1.** The study of human records, the establishment of their authenticity and their original form and determination of their meaning. **2.** Linguistics. This word is from Greek and it means “love of learning and literature”. **Linguistics** is the branch of Philology which deals with the study of the theoretical and practical problems of language functioning: system, structure and usage. **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 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 overdialectal norm used in its territory of functioning. *Forms of Existence of the language*

Language functions in the following forms: **1) Literary language.** This has two forms: a) Literary bookish and b) Literary colloquial **2) Vernacular speech** **3) Dialect** Functional-pragmatic variety is a variety which serves the aims of this or that communicative act or has obtained corresponding structural features.

### *Linguistic changes*

There are two tendencies in the process of *a language development*: **1) Integration.** (Convergence) In integration dialects or languages develop towards obtaining common features in phonetic, grammatical structures and vocabulary. **2) Differentiation (or divergence).** In differentiation dialects or languages develop towards obtaining different features in phonetic, grammatical structures and vocabulary to form new languages. *Causes of language changes*

There are two types of factors of language change: **1) Extra linguistic factors:** Extra linguistic factors of language change include: a) Geographical factors; b) Social factors; c) Temporal factors. **2) Intra linguistic factors:** Intra linguistic factors of language change include: **1) Phonetic changes** Phonetic changes include all kinds of changes taking place in the phonetic structure of a language like consonant and vowel changes, qualitative and quantitative changes, positional and independent changes. **2) Spelling changes** Spelling changes include all changes taking place in the writing of words in different varieties of the language, like honour – honor, colour – color etc.

**3) Grammatical changes** Grammatical changes include all changes taking place in the grammatical structure of the language; like using one form instead of another: have got – have, in the street – on the street. **4) Lexical changes** Lexical changes include all changes taking place in the vocabulary of the language. They are: widening, narrowing, metaphorical use, connotative use, occasionalisms.

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

### *Rate of linguistic changes*

Language changes are usually slow and gradual. They proceed in minor, imperceptible steps unnoticed by the speakers. The rate of the language change is restricted by the communicative function of language for a rapid change would have disturbed communication between speakers of different generations. Unlike human society, language undergoes no revolutions or sudden breaks. The slow rate of linguistic change is seen in the gradual spread of new features in language space. Different parts or levels of language develop at different rates. *Mechanism of language change*

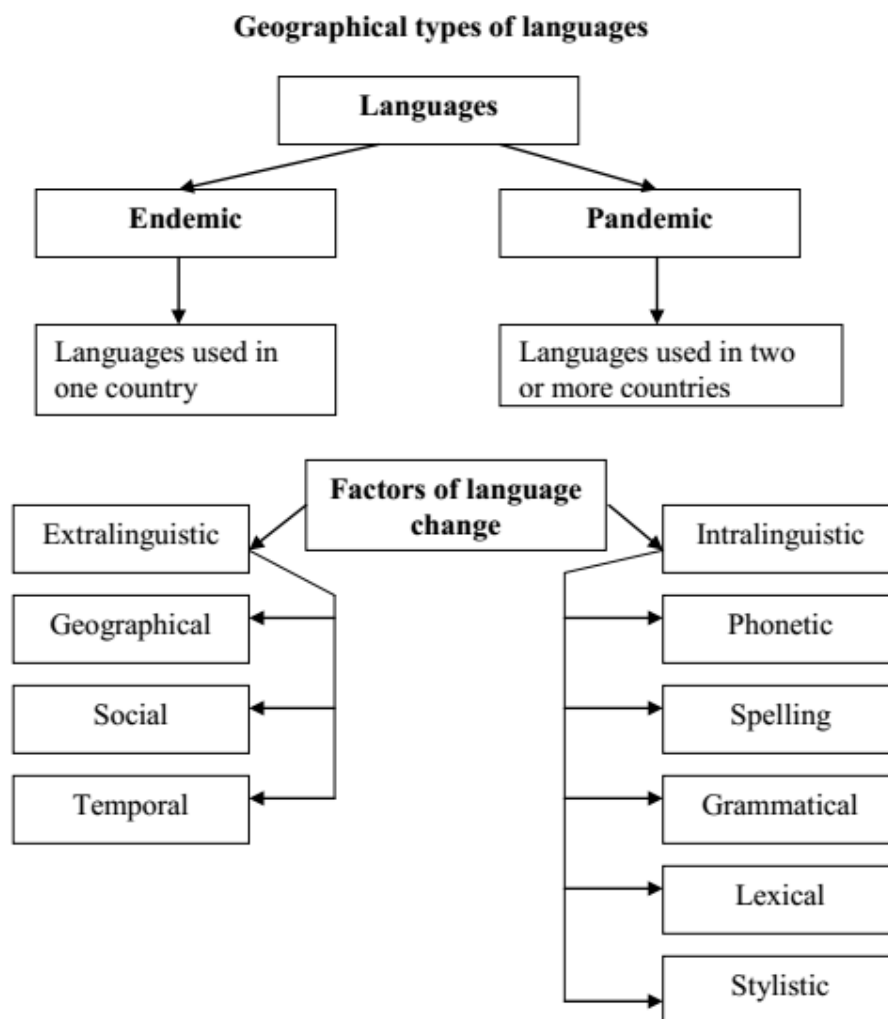
Any language change begins with the synchronic variation. Alongside with the existing language units – words, forms, affixes, pronunciation patterns, spelling norm, syntactic constructions – there spring up new units. They may be similar in



meaning but slightly different in form, stylistic connotation, social values, distribution in language space, etc.

**Causes of Language evolution**

The scholars give different explanations of the causes of language evolution. **1.** J.G. Herder and W. Grimm show the Romantic tendencies as the principal causes of the language development. **2.** A. Schleicher proposed a naturalistic explanation of the language development saying that “As the language is a living organism, 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.



In the mind of the average person language is associated with writing and calls up a picture of the printed page. From Latin or French as we meet it in literature we get an impression of something uniform and relatively fixed. We are likely to forget that writing is only a conventional device for recording sounds and that language is primarily speech. Even more important, we tend to forget that the Latin of Cicero or the French of Voltaire is the product of centuries of development and that language as long as it lives and is in actual use is in a constant state of change. Speech is the product of certain muscular movements. The sounds of language are produced by the passage of a current of air through cavities of the throat and face controlled by the muscles of these regions. Any voluntary muscular movement when constantly repeated is subject to gradual alteration. The fact that this alteration takes place largely without our being conscious of it does not change the fact or lessen its effects. Now any alteration in the position or action of the organs of speech results in a difference in the sound produced. Thus each individual is constantly and quite unconsciously introducing slight changes in his or her speech. There is no such thing as uniformity in language. Not only does the speech of one community differ from that of another, but the speech of different individuals of a single community, even different members of the same family, also is marked by individual peculiarities. Members of a group, however, are influenced by one another, and there is a general similarity in the speech of a given community at any particular time. The language of any district or even country is only the sum total of the individual speech habits of those composing it and is subject to such change as occur in the speech of its members, so far as the changes become general or at least common to a large part of it. Although the alteration that is constantly going on in language is for the most part gradual and of such nature as often to escape the notice of those in whose speech it is taking place, after a period of time the differences that grow up become appreciable.



## The language family metaphor

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

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

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

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

### **Self-control questions:**

1. What is the relation between Sanskrit and Germanic languages?

2. What is the importance of the Discovery of Sanskrit in learning the development of Germanic languages?
3. What is the essence of Grimm's Law?
4. What hypothesis does Grimm's explanation for the correspondence of consonants prove?
5. Give more examples for the correspondence of consonants [p-f, t-th, k-h] in Germanic and non-Germanic languages.
6. What is the essence of Verner's Law? Search and find more examples for Verner's Law.
7. What were East Germanic languages?
8. What is the earliest record of a Germanic language came to our days?
9. What parts of the world are the North Germanic languages spoken?
10. To what branch of the Germanic languages does English belong?
11. What is the difference between Germanic and German?

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## THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES AND THEIR FORMATION

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

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

### THE EARLIEST PERIOD OF GERMANIC HISTORY

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans moved further North than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea (the most probable original home of the Germans).

 MyShared

It has been estimated that there are more than 5,700 distinct languages to be found in the world today, and all these fall into linguistic groups which are part of linguistic families which may have appeared in different parts of the globe simultaneously. It should be borne in mind that when people speak of linguistic families they do not use the term "family" in the genetic sense of the word. The fact that people speak the same, or related, languages does not mean that there is a link of race or blood. It is therefore completely unscientific to establish any connection between racial origin and language. It is often possible to show that languages are historically or genetically related, i.e. they descend from a common source, but when it comes to races we have no such evidence. We cannot say, for instance, that the Mongolian race means the same as the Mongolian languages.

Furthermore, it is quite probable that no such thing as an Indo-European race ever existed. In the course of the migrations of ancient peoples, numerous linguistic and racial mixtures took place. The linguistic map of the world shows that many non-Indo-European peoples of Europe and Asia abandoned their own languages and adopted the Indo-European. The Basque language, which is spoken in the north of Spain and the south of France, resisted the assimilation of Indo-European in the past and is not genetically related to the Indo-European languages. On the other hand there is no racial difference between the Estonians, for instance, who speak a Finno-Ugric language, and the Letts, 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 58 other modern languages. III. Baltic, which is divided into Lithuanian (the language spoken by some three million people in the Lithuania the old texts of which go back to the 16th century, and Latvian, 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)