Lecture 10 The prehistory of English: Indo-European

proto-Germania

We've already seen some examples of language families—groups of languages all descended from the same ancestral language, via different language changes acting on different regional dialects. Thus the Romance languages all descend from different dialects of Latin, and the Germanic languages from different dialects of Proto-Germanic.

Latin and Proto-Germanic both date back approximately 2000 years.

But we can trace back language families even further than those!

Germanic, Latin, Greek, and more come from an even more ancient language, which is known to us as Proto-Indo-European (PIE).

Thus Germanic, Romance, etc. are all subfamilies of the Indo-European family.

Proto-Indo-European was spoken at least 5000 years ago and was not written; we have no direct evidence of it.

Everything we know about it is by **comparing the similarities and differences** between the languages descended from it, and **reconstructing** what the ancestral language must have been like.

s so basically educated guessing

Subfamilies of Indo-European include:

- Germanic
- **Italic** (including Latin and its descendants the **Romance** languages)
- Greek (a subfamily with only one language in it)
- Celtic (Irish, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh, and a few others)
- Indo-Iranian (languages of south Asia and Iran: Hindi, Persian, etc.)
- Balto-Slavic (languages of eastern Europe: Russian, Polish, Latvian, etc.)
- Albanian
- Armenian

The English linguist William Jones was the first to propose (in 1786!) that the ancient Indian language Sanskrit was related to European languages.

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

Jones's key observations:

- Systematic similarities between languages are evidence of a common origin.
- The ancestral language might itself be unknown e.g., Latin isn't derived from Sanksrit, or vice versa.

(This way of thinking about how **languages** change and are related to each other was very influential on Charles Darwin's theories of how **animal species** evolve!)

Here are some of the similarities Jones was referring to:

	Latin	Greek	Sanskrit
'father'	pater	patēr	pitā
'is'	est	esti	asti
'two'	dиō	dиō	dvā
'three'	trēs	treis	trayas
'ten'	decem	deka	daśa

The similarities exist because these groups of words are cognates—i.e., words in related languages derived from the same word in the ancestral language.

The Proto–Indo-European word for 'father' underwent various changes as different dialects of PIE evolved into Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit—but not so many changes as to eliminate the similarity between them.

We can use similarities such as these to **reconstruct** facts about Proto–IE:
e.g., it's very likely that the PIE words for 'ten' and 'two' began with *d.
We use an **asterisk** to mark words and sounds **reconstructed** for an ancestral language, to remind us that we don't actually have direct evidence for them.

Cognates in related languages aren't necessarily as similar as those examples; e.g., although the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit 'father' cognates all start with p, the English cognate (i.e., father) starts with f. FILL TO FIELD / IT But related languages have regular patterns of sound correspondences. English words with f regularly have cognates in other IE languages with p:

English	Latin	Greek	Sanskrit
father	pater	patēr	pitā
foot	pedem	poda	padam (accusative case)
fish	piscis	•	•
five		pente	рапса
fire		pÿr	

This is because of the regularity of sound change:

When a language undergoes changes in pronunciation

the same sound in the same context changes the same way in all words.

This is **different** from semantic change, where "every word has its own history": semantic changes affecting one word may not affect similar words similarly. **Sound change only affects the sounds**, independent of what words they're in.

So patterns like the above let us say PIE **p* **regularly becomes** *f* **in English**, and so English *f* **regularly corresponds** to *p* in cognates in Latin, Greek, etc.

Proto–Indo-European is reconstructed as having 3 sets of stop consonants: voiceless, voiced, and voiced aspirate".

(Aspiration is an *h*-like puff of breath after a stop.)

	labial	alveolar	velar	labio-velar
voiceless	*p	*t	*k	*kw
voiced	*b	*d	*g	*gw
voiced aspirate	*bh	*dh	*gh	*gwh

These underwent a **distinctive series of changes** in the **Germanic** subfamily, distinguishing it from the other Indo-European families.

These patterns were formulated as a rule by Jakob Grimm in 1819, and are collectively known as Grimm's Law:

- voiceless stops become voiceless fricatives
 voiced stops become voiceless stops
 voiced aspirated stops become normal unaspirated voiced stops

Proto-	-Indo-E	uropean			Germanic	
*p	*t	*k	becomes	f	θ	h
*b	*d	*g	becomes	p	t	k
*bh	*dh	*gh	becomes	b	d	g

The results of Grimm's Law are most visible at the beginnings of words; in other contexts, other sound changes often interfere with or obscure its results.

- The discovery of Grimm's Law was very influential in the listory of many

 It demonstrated Germanic was part of the Indo-European family

 It showed that family relationships could be established not just by direct similarity but by consistent correspondences between different sounds

 It showed that sound change is regular, affecting all words in which a

In Greek and Latin, the voiceless and plain voiced stops remained unchanged, so the correspondences with English are easy to see:

> Latin Greek trēs treis tenu-is hound can-is kyōn heart kard-iā cor dиō two dyo deka ten decem kind genus genos graph-ein ('write')

(Examples of English f corresponding to Latin/Greek p are on the previous page. There aren't a lot of good examples of English *p* corresponding to Latin/Greek *b*; The sound *b seems to have been very rare in Proto–Indo-European for some reason.) tes Latin & Greek)

The PIE voiced aspirates changed to other sounds in Latin and Greek as well: in Greek, they became voiceless aspirates; in Latin they became fricatives. (Well, that's what happened at the beginning of a word, anyway.)

PIE	*bh	*dh	*gh
Germanic	b	d	g
Latin	f	f	h
Greek	ph	th	ch

Cognates demonstrating these correspondences:					
have is no ognates exceptions	English have and Labut via Grimm's so the two morp (Have is actually cognative the Common through the control of the control o	do dusk gold garden ook like cognated by the regulation hab-both is Law, German bhemes can't attempt of the with cap-'take	frāter faci-ō fusc-us 'dark' helv-us 'yellow' hort-us ates aren't necess ar correspondence mean 'have' and nic h and Latin h actually be cognate', and Latin hab- is co	look very similar, don't correspond to each o tes. ognate with <i>give</i> ,	
and more officer hand the other hand	On the other hand, might look very Greek <i>kannabis</i> (bor English <i>hemp</i> , re	the correspore different are crowed into Exercise to the	ndences can also o actually quite cl o nglish as <i>cannabis</i> same plant, have	demonstrate how words thosely related: , meaning 'marijuana') andenosounds in common,	

but via Grimm's Law, Germanic h and Latin h don't correspond to each other,

Greek kannabis (borrowed into English as cannabis, meaning 'marijuana') and English *hemp*, referring to the same plant, have **no sounds in common**, but they are **exact cognates** of each other.

Recognizing that English h and p correspond to Greek k and b via Grimm's Law makes this cognate relationship easier to understand.

Obviously the English word hemp has experienced more sound changes that just Grimm's Law vowel shifts and deletions occurred, and also **place assimilation** of * $n \rightarrow m / _p$.

This is also one of the **few good examples** of Indo-European *b **becoming** p in Germanic. *Kannabis itself was probably a loanword in Proto-Indo-European demonstrating that borrowing has been part of language as far back as we can reconstruct.

By knowing the sound changes and correspondences, it is often possible to **deduce** which of two morphemes is native and which is borrowed.

E.g., consider the **doublets** *foot* and *ped-* (as in *pedal* and *pedicure*).

We see a correspondence between f and p, and between t and d; these are the correspondences we'd expect to see under Grimm's Law, if *foot* is a **Germanic** words and *ped-* a cognate from some other IE branch.

So we can infer that *foot* is the native Germanic word for 'foot', and *ped-* is **borrowed** into English.

Grimm's Law is a type of sound change known as a **chain shift**: a series of sound changes where one change leaves a **gap** in the system, and then another sound moves to **fill** that gap, and so on.

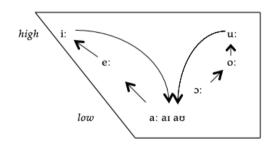
So in Grimm's law...

- voiceless stops become fricatives, leaving a gap for the voiceless stops;
- the voiced stops become voiceless and fill that gap, leaving a new gap;
- the **voiced aspirates** become plain **voiced stops**, and fill **that** gap.

f	θ	h	1
р	t	k	
b	d	8	
bh	dh	gh	

The **Great Vowel Shift** between Middle and Early Modern English was **also** a **chain shift**:

- long high vowels become diphthongs;
- long mid vowels become high;
- and long low and lowish vowels become mid.



It's also ... filling the gap ..

Many more changes occurred between Proto–Indo-European and Germanic; Grimm's Law is just the most sweeping and most distinctive.

Latin and Greek also obviously underwent many sound changes, differentiating them from Proto–Indo-European and each other.

The **different sets of sound changes** they experienced led Latin and Greek to have somewhat **different overall inventories of sounds**.

This often allows us to tell which language a morpheme was borrowed from.

Greek **developed** sounds represented by *ph*, *th*, *ch*, *y*, *z* through sound change; it **lost** the sounds represented by *j*, *qu*, *v* (actually [w]), which existed in PIE; and **unlike** Latin, ancient Greek **never developed** *f*.

So borrowed morphemes containing *j*, *qu*, *v*, and *f* are generally **from Latin** and those containing *ph*, *th*, *ch*, *y*, *z* are very likely to be **from Greek**. (Well, not counting ones borrowed from sources **other** than Latin or Greek, of course.)

This is helpful to know because **most of the time**, English prefers to combine Greek morphemes with other Greek morphemes, and Latin with Latin.

Thus we have words like *metaphor* and *transfer*, not "*metafer*" and "*transphor*": *meta-* and *-phor* are **Greek** for 'beyond' and 'carry'; *trans-* and *-fer* are Latin. (Exceptions exist, though; *television* and *monolingual* are recognizable ones.)

Very little is known about the **people** who spoke Proto–Indo-European; the best guess is that they **lived** somewhere near the present-day Ukraine, and their **language** spread out from there over several millennia.

But it's possible to get some clues about where and how they lived based on the words of their language we can reconstruct.

E.g., we can reconstruct morphemes for 'snow', 'salmon', and 'birch tree', so it's likely they lived in a part of the world where those could be found. (Those are *sneigwh-, *laks-, and *bherəg-, if you're interested.)

The words *kwekwlos 'wheel', *arətrom 'plow', and *dyeus 'god', among others, tell us something about their technology, agricultre, and religion.

The Proto–Into-European **language** appears to have been heavily **inflected**— with several **verb tenses** inflected for subject agreement, two or three **genders**, and eight or nine **noun cases**— and to have had relatively **free word order**.

Earlier descendants of PIE, such as Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, tend to **share** many of these features; later descendants may have lost many of them.

E.g., modern **English** is very **weakly** inflected, with no grammatical gender, no case, and only one subject-agreement affix.

Some **morphological** and **allomorphic** patterns that were **productive** in PIE leave only a few **relics** hanging on in English.

These include some we've seen before—

nasal infixation seems to have been a **usual** way to mark the present tense, and $e \sim o \sim \text{zero-grade}$ **ablaut** was quite regular as well.

In English, these exist in only a **few** morphemes—some borrowed from Latin and/or Greek (*tag-~tang-*; *gen-~gon-~gn-*), a few native (*stood~stand*; *sing~sang~sung*).

Note that PIE (and other reconstructed ancient proto-languages) are **neither more simple nor more sophisticated** than modern languages.

When we look deep into the past, we see **neither** a more primitive stage of evolution **nor** some ideal linguistic situation that we have degenerated from.

All languages, present and past, are equally sophisticated in their structure and capacity to communicate; they're all manifestations of the same basic human cognitive capability to use language.