

# Language variation and change

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## Examples of language change

1. Modern English (*The New English Bible*, 1961):  
Shortly afterwards the bystanders came up and said to Peter, 'Surely you are another of them; your accent gives you away!'
2. Early Modern English (*The King James Bible*, 1611):  
And after a while came vnto him they that stood by, and saide to Peter, Surely thou also art one of them, for thy spech bewrayeth thee.
3. Middle English (*The Wycliff Bible*, fourteenth century):  
And a litil aftir, thei that stoden camen, and seiden to Petir, treuli thou art of hem; for thi speche makith thee knowun.
4. Old English (*The West-Saxon Gospels*, c. 1050):  
þa æfter lytlum fyrste genēalæton þa ðe þær stodon, cwædon to petre. Soðlice þu eart of hym, þyn spræc þe gesweotolað.  
[Literally: then after little first approached they that there stood, said to Peter. Truly thou art of them, thy speech thee makes clear.]

## Examples of language change

Modern German:

*Vater unser, der du bist im Himmel, geheiligt werde dein Name.*

Middle High German:

*Got vater unser, dâ du bist in dem himelrîche gewaltic alles des dir ist, geheiliget sô werde dîn nam*

Old High German:

*Fater unser thû thâr bist in himile, si giheilagôt thîn namo*

Gothic:

*Atta unsar þu in himinam, weihnai namo þein*

further examples

# The comparative method

(from Ross and Durie 1996)

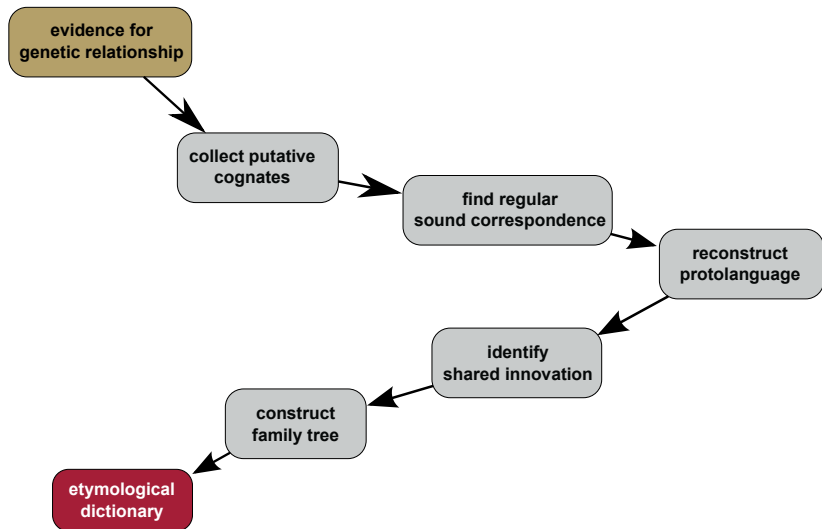
- dominant paradigm in historical linguistics
- developed during the 19th century
- originally applied mostly to Indo-European, but applicable to all language families
- central axiom:  
**Neogrammarian Hypothesis** Sound laws apply without exception.

## ● Workflow

- ① Determine on the strength of diagnostic evidence that a set of languages are genetically related, that is, that they constitute a 'family';
- ② Collect putative cognate sets for the family (both morphological paradigms and lexical items).
- ③ Work out the sound correspondences from the cognate sets, putting 'irregular' cognate sets on one side;
- ④ Reconstruct the protolanguage of the family as follows:
  - a. Reconstruct the proto-phonology from the sound correspondences worked out in (3), using conventional wisdom regarding the directions of sound changes.
  - b. Reconstruct protomorphemes (both morphological paradigms and lexical items) from the cognate sets collected in (2), using the proto-phonology reconstructed in (4a).

- 5 Establish innovations (phonological, lexical, semantic, morphological, morphosyntactic) shared by groups of languages within the family relative to the reconstructed protolanguage.
- 6 Tabulate the innovations established in (5) to arrive at an internal classification of the family, a 'family tree'.
- 7 Construct an etymological dictionary, tracing borrowings, semantic change, and so forth, for the lexicon of the family (or of one language of the family).

# Workflow



# Diagnostic evidence for genetic relatedness

- sometimes self-evident (e.g. Slavic)
- similarities in morphological paradigms (example from Clackson 2007, 124)

PIE	Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Gothic	Lith.	O.C.S.
1. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>és-mi</i>	<i>ásmi</i>	<i>eimí</i>	<i>sum</i>	<i>im</i>	<i>esmì</i>	<i>jesmǐ</i>
2. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>és-si</i> (or <i>*h<sub>1</sub>ésti</i> )	<i>ási</i>	<i>eí</i>	<i>ess, es</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>esi</i>	<i>jesǐ</i>
3. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>és-ti</i>	<i>asti</i>	<i>estí</i>	<i>est</i>	<i>ist</i>	<i>ēsti</i>	<i>jestǔ</i>
4. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>s-mé</i>	<i>smás</i>	<i>esmén</i>	<i>sumus</i>	<i>sijum</i>	<i>esme</i>	<i>jesmǔ</i>
5. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>s-té</i>	<i>sthá</i>	<i>éste</i>	<i>estis</i>	<i>sijuþ</i>	<i>este</i>	<i>jeste</i>
6. <i>*h<sub>1</sub>s-énti</i>	<i>sánti</i>	<i>eisí</i>	<i>sunt</i>	<i>sind</i>		<i>sputǐ</i>

- overwhelming lexical similarities ... ⇒



# Diagnostic evidence for genetic relatedness

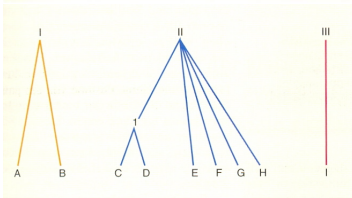
Eine Klassifikationsübung nach der vergleichenden Methode à la Merritt Ruhlen:

Sprache	zwei	drei	ich	du	wer?	nicht	Mutter	Vater	Zahn	Herz	Fuß	Maus	er trägt
A	ʔiθn-	θalāθ-	-ni	-ka	man	lā	ʔumm-	abū	sinn	lubb	rijl-	fār	yaħmil-
B	ʃn-	šaloš	-ni	-ka	mi	lo	ʔem	aβ	šen	leβ	regel	ʃakbər	nošeh
C	duvā	trāyas	mām	tuvām	kás	ná	mātár	pitár-	dant-	ħɣd-	pád	muš-	bhárati
D	duva	θrāyō	mām	tuvəm	čiš	naē-	mātar-	pitár-	dantan-	zərəd	paiðya		baraiti
E	duo	treis	eme	sú	tis	ou(k)	māter	pater	odón	kardiā	pod-	mūs	phérei
F	duo	trēs	mē	tū	kwis	ne-	māter	pater	dent-	kord-	ped-	mūs	fert
G	twai	θreis	mik	θu	hwas	ni	aiθei	faðar	tunθus	ħaírtō	fōt		baíriθ
H	dó	trí	-m	tú	kía	ní-	máθir	aθir	dēt	kríde	traig	lux	berid
I	iki	üč	ben-i	sen	kim	deyil	anne	baba	diš	kalp	ayak	sičan	tašiyor

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Klassifizieren Sie die angegebenen neun Sprachen (von A bis I) in Familien und Unterfamilien und vergleichen Sie den Wortschatz für die 13 Wörter, die hier in phonetischer Umschrift geboten werden. Lösung: Sprache A und B (Arabisch und Hebräisch) gehören zur Familie der semitischen Sprachen. Die sechs Sprachen C bis H (Sanskrit, Awestisch, Altgriechisch, Latein, Gotisch und Altirisch) sind indogermanische Sprachen. I (Türkisch) läßt sich keiner Familie zuordnen. Mit einer längeren Wortliste kann man nach demselben Verfahren die Familien wieder in Überfamilien einteilen usw. Der Stammbaum, den man so erhält, würde dann beweisen, daß alle Sprachen von einer Muttersprache abstammen.

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# Example

	<i>two</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>tooth</i>	<i>foot</i>	<i>heart</i>	<i>skin</i>
<b>Ancient Greek</b>	dýo	treis	odús	pu:s	kardía:	dérma
<b>Dutch</b>	twe	dri	tant	vut	hart	hœyt
<b>Latin</b>	'duo	treis	dens	pe:s	kor	'kutis
<b>Old Church Slavonic</b>	dŭva	trĭje	zŏbŭ	noga	sŕj'dits'je	kŏza
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- identify cognates

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<b>Russian</b>	dva	tri	zub	noga	šerdtse	'koza

- establish **regular**, i.e. recurrent, sound correspondences  
Greek, Latin, OCS, Russian [d] ~ Dutch, Norse [t]

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Greek, Latin, OCS, Russian [d] ~ Dutch, Norse [t]

Greek, Latin, OCS, Russian [t] ~ Dutch [d] ~ Norse [θ]



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- identify cognates

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- establish **regular**, i.e. recurrent, sound correspondences

Greek, Latin, OCS, Russian [d] ~ Dutch, Norse [t]

Greek, Latin, OCS, Russian [t] ~ Dutch [d] ~ Norse [θ]

Greek, Latin [k] ~ Dutch, Norse (?) [h] ~ OCS, Russian [s]

## Example

- reconstruct proto-forms and directionality of changes

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  - PIE [*\*d*] → Germanic [*t*]

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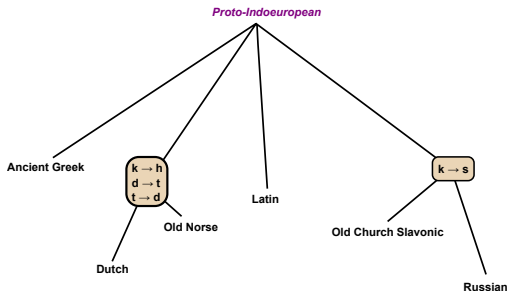
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  - PIE [ $*t$ ] → Germanic [d/θ]

# Example

- reconstruct proto-forms and directionality of changes
  - PIE [ $*d$ ] → Germanic [t]
  - PIE [ $*t$ ] → Germanic [d/θ]
  - PIE [ $*k$ ] → Germanic [h], PIE [ $*k$ ] → Slavic [s]

# Example

- reconstruct proto-forms and directionality of changes
  - PIE [ $*d$ ]  $\rightarrow$  Germanic [ $t$ ]
  - PIE [ $*t$ ]  $\rightarrow$  Germanic [ $d/\theta$ ]
  - PIE [ $*k$ ]  $\rightarrow$  Germanic [ $h$ ], PIE [ $*k$ ]  $\rightarrow$  Slavic [ $s$ ]
- construct family tree based on *shared innovations*



# Example

## ● compile etymological dictionary

here: Köbler, Gerhard, Indogermanisches Wörterbuch, (5. Auflage) 2014, <http://www.koeblergerhard.de/idgwbhin.html>

**penk<sup>u</sup>e\*\*\***, idg., Num. Kard.: nhd. fünf; ne. five; RB.: Pokorny 808 (1398/40), ind., iran., arm., gr., alb., ital., kelt., germ., balt., slaw., toch., heth.; Hw.: s. \*penk<sup>u</sup>tos, \*penk<sup>u</sup>ēkōta, \*pñksti-? (?), \*penk<sup>u</sup>tos; W.: vgl. gr. πεντηκοστη (pentekoste), Num. Ord., fünfzigster Tag; ae. pent-e-costen, M., Pfingsten; W.: vgl. gr. πεντηκοστη (pentekoste), Num. Ord., fünfzigster Tag; afries. pink-ost-r-a 1 und häufiger?, pinxt-e-r-a, pinst-er, Sb. (Pl.), Pfingsten; W.: s. gr. πεντηκοστη (pentekoste), Num. Ord., fünfzigster Tag; as. pinkoston\* 2, sw. F. (n), Pfingsten; W.: vgl. gr. πεντηκοστη (pentekoste), Num. Ord., fünfzigster Tag; mlat. pentecoste; mnd. pinkestēn, pinxten: an. pik-is-dag-r, pikk-is-dag-r, st. M. (a), „Pfingsten“, Weißer Sonntag; W.: lat. quīnque, Num. Kard., fünf; W.: s. lat. quīntus, quīntus, Num. Ord., fünfte; W.: vgl. lat. Quīnticius, M.=PN, Quīnticius (Name einer römischen Gens); W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; got. fimf 23, kringot. fynf\*, fyuf, Num. Kard., indekl., fünf (, Lehmann F55); W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; an. fim, fim-m, Num. Kard., fünf; W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; ae. fif, Num. Kard., fünf; W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; afries. fif 14, Num. Kard., fünf; W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; as. fif 17, Num. Kard., fünf; mnd. vif, Num. Kard.; W.: germ. \*femf, \*femfe, Num. Kard., fünf; ahd. fimf 90, Num. Kard., fünf; mhd. vūnf, Num. Kard., fünf; nhd. fünf, Num. Kard., fünf, DW 4, 548; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; got. \*fimf-t-a, Num. Ord., fünfte; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; an. fim-t-i, Num. Ord., fünfte; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; ae. fif-t-a, Num. Ord., fünfte; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; afries. fif-ta 14, Num. Ord., fünfte; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; as. fif-to\* 1, Num. Ord., fünfte; mnd. vifte, vifte, Num. Ord.; W.: s. germ. \*femftō-, \*femftōn, \*femfta-, \*femftan, Num. Ord., fünfte; ahd. fimfto 14, Num. Ord., fünfte; mhd. vūnfte, Num. Ord., fünfte; nhd. fünfte, Num. Ord., fünfte, DW 4, 572; W.: vgl. germ. \*femti-, \*femtiz, st. F. (i), Fünzfahl; an. fim-t, st. F. (i), Fünzfahl; W.: vgl. germ. \*fengra-, \*fengraz, \*fingra-, \*fingraz, st. M. (a), Finger; got. figg-r-s\* 1, st. M. (a), Finger (, Lehmann F47); W.: vgl. germ. \*fengra-, \*fengraz, \*fingra-, \*fingraz, st. M. (a), Finger; an. fing-r, st. M. (a), später st. N. (a), Finger; W.: vgl. germ. \*fengra-, \*fengraz, \*fingra-, \*fingraz, st. M. (a), Finger; ae. fing-er, st. M. (a), Finger; W.: vgl. germ. \*fengra-

# Exercise

(from Crowley and Bowers 2010, 80)

	Tongan	Samoaan	Rarotongan	Hawaiian
1.	tapu	tapu	tapu	kapu <i>forbidden</i>
2.	pito	pute	pito	piko <i>navel</i>
3.	puhi	feula	puʻi	puhi <i>blow</i>
4.	tafaʻaki	tafa	taʻa	kaha <i>side</i>
5.	taʻe	tae	tae	kae <i>feces</i>
6.	taŋata	taŋata	taŋata	kanaka <i>man</i>
7.	tahi	tai	tai	kai <i>sea</i>
8.	malohi	malosi	kaʻa	ʻaha <i>strong</i>
9.	kalo	ʻalo	karo	ʻalo <i>dodge</i>
10.	aka	aʻa	aka	aʻa <i>gall</i>
11.	ʻahu	au	au	au <i>gall</i>
12.	ʻulu	ulu	uru	poʻo <i>head</i>
13.	ʻufi	ufi	uʻi	uhi <i>yam</i>
14.	afi	afi	aʻi	ahi <i>fire</i>
15.	faa	faa	ʻaa	haa <i>four</i>
16.	feke	feʻe	ʻeke	heʻe <i>octopus</i>
17.	ika	iʻa	ika	iʻa <i>fish</i>
18.	ihu	isu	putaŋio	ihu <i>nose</i>

	Tongan	Samoaan	Rarotongan	Hawaiian
19.	hau	asu	ʻau	hau <i>dew</i>
20.	tafuafi	siʻa	ʻika	iʻa <i>firemaking</i>
21.	hiku	siʻu	ʻiku	hiʻu <i>tail</i>
22.	hake	aʻe	ake	aʻe <i>up</i>
23.	huu	ulu	uru	komo <i>enter</i>
24.	maŋa	maŋa	maŋa	mana <i>branch</i>
25.	maʻu	mau	mau	mau <i>constant</i>
26.	maa	mala	mara	mala <i>fermented</i>
27.	naʻa	faʻaŋa	maninia	naa <i>quieten</i>
28.	nofo	nofo	noʻo	noho <i>sit</i>
29.	ŋalu	ŋalu	ŋaru	nalu <i>wave</i>
30.	ŋutu	ŋutu	ŋutu	nuku <i>mouth</i>
31.	vaka	vaʻa	vaka	waʻa <i>canoe</i>
32.	vaʻe	vae	vae	wae <i>leg</i>
33.	laho	laso	raʻo	laho <i>scrotum</i>
34.	lohu	lou	rou	lou <i>fruit-picking pole</i>
35.	oŋo	loŋo	roŋo	lono <i>hear</i>
36.	ua	lua	rua	lua <i>two</i>

- 1 Where do we find non-cognate words within the same row?
- 2 Which regular sound correspondences do we observe?
- 3 How do you reconstruct the proto-sounds?
- 4 What family tree best explains the observed patterns?



# Guidelines for reconstruction

- Only establish sound correspondences if you are reasonably sure the words are cognate
- Assume sound shifts that are plausible (are known to occur frequently)
- Assume as few sound changes as possible for reconstructing a proto-language
- The reconstructed proto-language should have a typologically plausible sound system

# Polynesian example

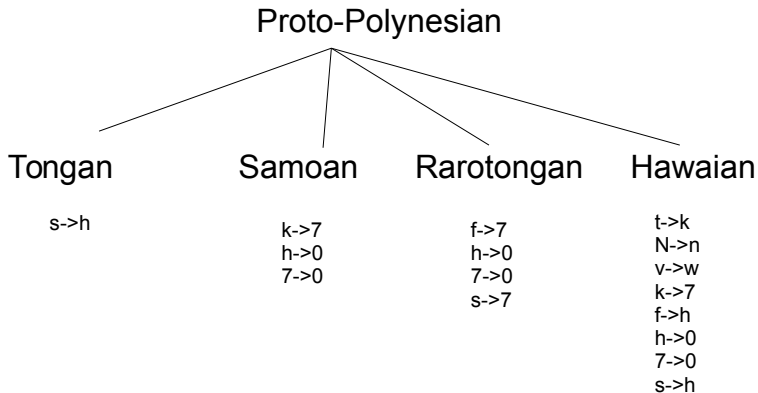
- Vowels in Proto-Polynesian are unchanged in daughter languages (otherwise we would stipulate unnecessary sound shift)
- Likewise, *p*, *m* and *n* are unchanged
- Majority rule:
  - pp. *\*t*, *\*N*, *\*v* → hw. *k*, *n*, *w*
- lenition is more likely than fortition
- also, Proto-Polynesian has *p* and *t*, so it should also have a *k*, hence:
  - pp. *\*k* → sm., hw. *ʔ* (rather than *\*ʔ* → tg./rg. *k*)

# Polynesian example

- majority rule:
  - pp.  $*f \rightarrow$  rg. 7, hw.  $h$
- not enough data to reconstruct the  $l$  and  $r$
- majority rule:
  - pp.  $*h, *ʔ \rightarrow$  sm., rg., hw.  $0$
- change  $s \rightarrow h$  is known to be more common than  $h \rightarrow s$ , hence (against majority rule):
  - pp.  $*s \rightarrow$  tg./hw.  $h$ , rg. 7

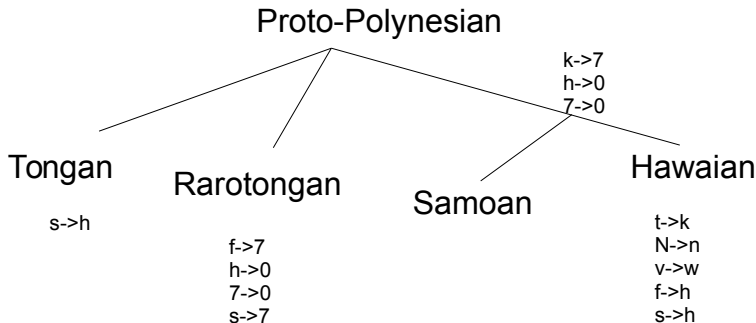
# Polynesian example

- constructing a tree

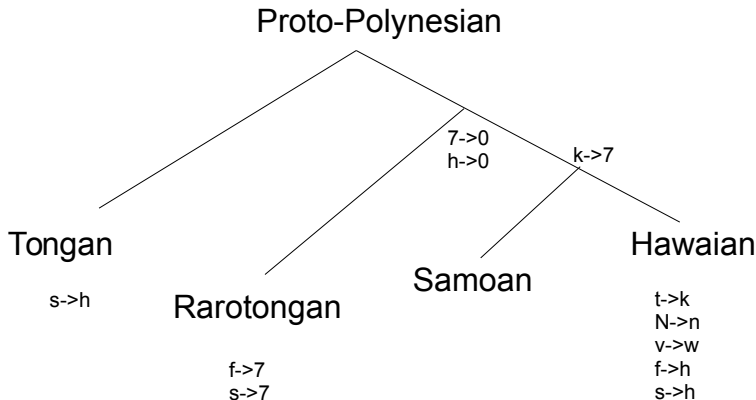


# Polynesian example

- constructing a tree



# Polynesian example

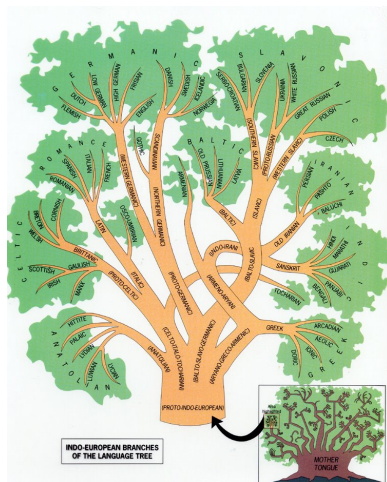


# Polynesian example

- reconstruction seems reasonable because
  - only one shift is assumed twice (s->ʔ), and this type is known to occur frequently
  - reconstruction assumes (pull-) chain shifts
    - Rarotongan and Proto-Samoan/Hawaiian restore the lost ʔ
    - Hawaiian additionally restores the lost k and h
- this procedure started from a reconstructed proto-language; usually tree construction and reconstruction of ancestral forms go hand in hand

# Language trees

- comparative method gives rise to phylogenetic trees of historic development

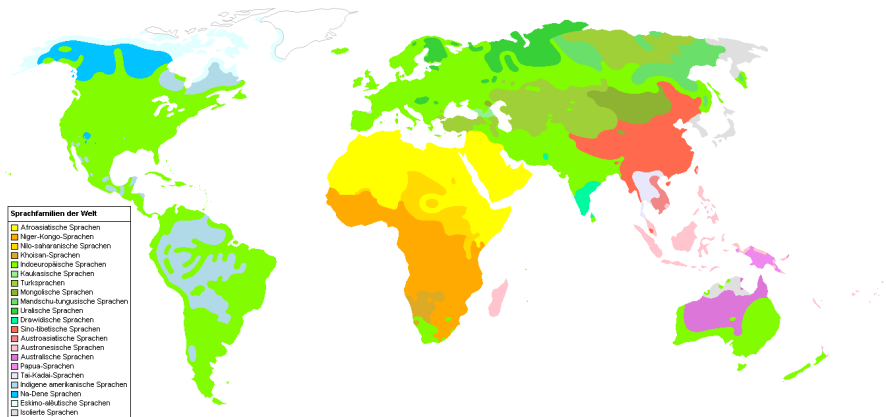




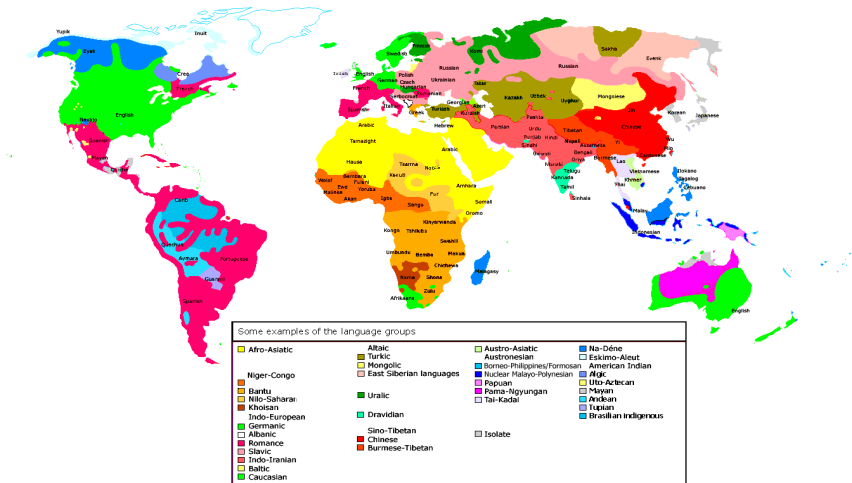
# Language families

- Language family: group of genetically (i.e. historically) related languages
- Descent from a common proto language
- Descent has to be established via generally accepted methods
- Classification is (unavoidably) variable and sometimes subjective
- Ethnologue counts more than 100 language families

# Language families



# Language families



# Language families

- **Afro-Asiatic**

- Also called „Hamito-Semitic“ (obsolete)
- subgroups:
  - Semitic (Arabic, Hebrew, Amharic, ...)
  - Berber (Tuareg, ...)
  - Egyptian (extinct)
  - Cushitic (Somali, Oromo, ...)
  - Chadic (Hausa, ...)

# Language families

- **Nilo-Saharan**
  - Comprises about 200 African languages
  - Nubian, Fur, ...



# Language families

- **Niger-Congo languages**
  - Most important subgroup: Bantu languages
  - Swahili, Rwanda, Zulu, Yoruba



# Language families

- **Khoisan languages**

- Languages of the bushmen in Southern Africa
- Use click sounds (which are typologically uncommon)



# Language families

- **Uralic**

- subgroups

- Finno-ugric: Hungarian, Estonian, Sami, Karelian
    - Samoyedic (< 30,000 speaker in Northern Eurasia)



# Language families

- **Altaic**

- subgroups

- Turkic: Turkish, Turkmen, Kyrgyz, Kazakh
    - Mongolic
    - Tungusic (Northern China, East Siberia)
    - Korean
    - Japanese

- Partially controversial, especially the inclusion of Korean and Japanese

# Language families

- **Dravidian**

- Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, ...
- Spoken mainly in Southern India and Sri Lanka

# Language families

- **Sino-Tibetan**

- subgroups

- Sinitic (chinese languages)
- Tibeto-Burman (spoken in Myanmar, Northern Thailand, Nepal, Bhutan, parts of China, India and Pakistan): Tibetan, Brahmaputran, ...

# Language families

- **Austro-Asiatic**

- Vietnamese, Khmer, Santali
- Spoken in South-East Asia and Northern India

# Language families

- **Austronesian**

- Family with the largest geographical expansion (from Madagascar in the West until Hawaii in the East)
- Malagasy, Javanese, Bahasa Indonesian, Tagalog, Taiwanese languages, Maori (language of the aborigines of New Zealand), polynesian languages, ...

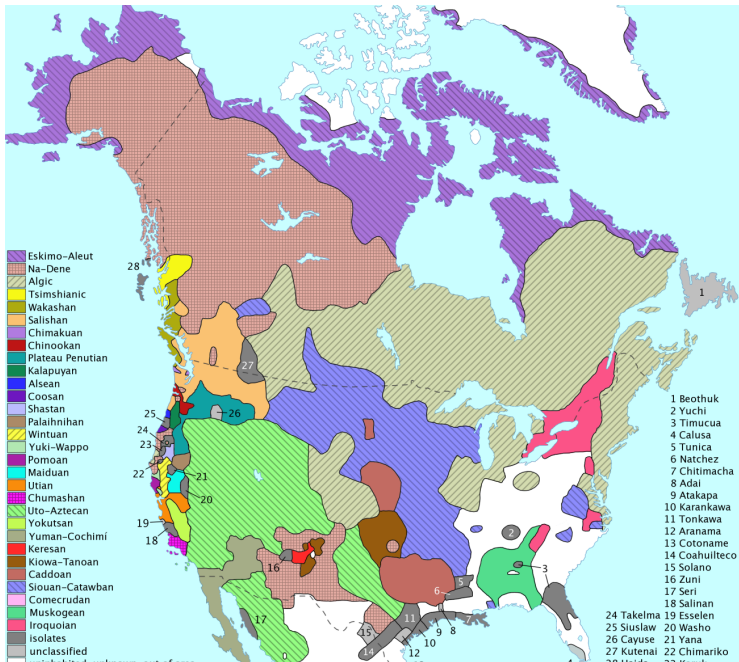
# Language families

- **Tai-Kadai languages**

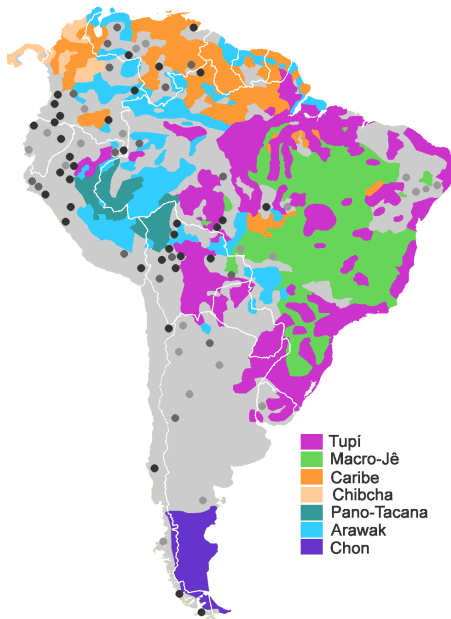
- Thai, Isan, Lao, ...
- Speculations, that Austronesian and Tai-Kadai form a single family („Austro-Thai“)

# Paleo-American language families

- Classification according to Greenberg:
  - Eskimo-Aleut
  - Na-Dene (Northern and Western North-America)
  - Amerindian (rest of North-America and South-America)
- „Amerindian“ is heavily contested
- Using traditional methods, only many much smaller families can be established







# Language families

- In many cases, it is impossible to come up with a clear classification
  - 700 languages in Papua-New Guinea, often unrelated to each other
  - Several hundred languages of Australian aborigines; genetic classification is unclear
  - Many „isolated“ language (i.e. no genetic relationship to any other language can be established), for instance Basque

## Limits of the comparative method

- Similarities between languages may be due to horizontal transfer (loans)
- limited time depth ( $\leq 10,000$  years)

Hock & Joseph (1996):

*Let us pursue this issue a little further by taking a closer look at the relationship between Modern Hindi and English – pretending that we do not yet know that they are related, and trying to establish their relationship by vocabulary comparison. This is actually more difficult than it appears. It is all too easy to be influenced by one's knowledge of the historical relationship between the two languages and therefore to notice the genuine cognates, or even to underestimate the effects of linguistic change on the recognizability of genuine cognates.*

## Limits of the comparative method

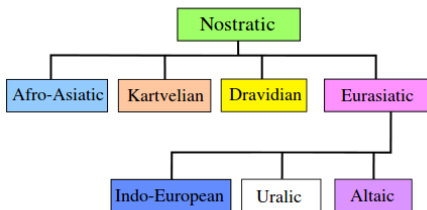
- Similarities between languages may be due to horizontal transfer (loans)
- limited time depth ( $\leq 10,000$  years)

Hock & Joseph (1996):

*Clearly, one correspondence is not enough; nor are twenty. And just as clearly, a thousand correspondences with systematic recurrences of phonetic similarities and differences would be fairly persuasive. Are 500 enough, then? And if not, are 501 sufficient? Nobody can give a satisfactory answer to these questions. And this is no doubt the reason that linguists may disagree over whether a particular proposed genetic relationship is sufficiently supported or not.*

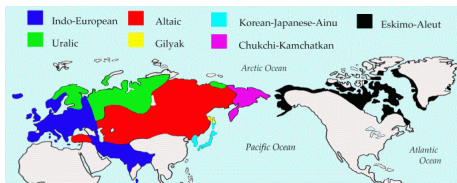
# Deep genetic relationships

- Plethora of proposals beyond well-established families:
  - Nostratic:
    - proposed by Pedersen (1903)
    - original proposal: Indo-European, Finno-Ugric, Samoyed, Turkish, Mongolian, Manchu, Yukaghir, Eskimo, Semitic, and Hamitic
    - revived by “Moscow school” in 1960
    - traditional comparative method, including reconstruction of proto forms



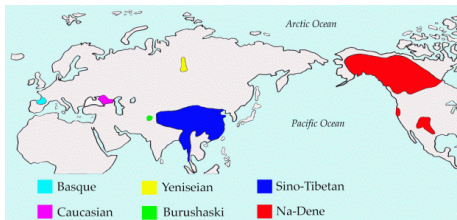
# Deep genetic relationships

- Plethora of proposals beyond well-established families:
  - Eurasiatic
    - proposed by Greenberg (2000)
    - comprises Indo-European, Uralic–Yukaghir, Altaic, Chukotko-Kamchatkan, Eskimo–Aleut, Korean-Japanese-Ainu, Gilyak, Etruscan
    - multitude of arguments, mostly from morphology and phonology



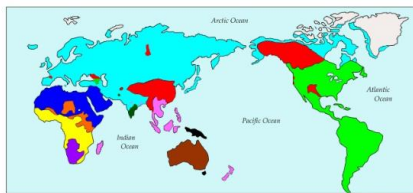
# Deep genetic relationships

- Plethora of proposals beyond well-established families:
  - Dene-Caucasian
    - based on work by Sapir, Starostin, Swadesh and others
    - comprises Ne-Dene, Caucasian, Sino-Tibetan, Yeniseian, Burushaski, perhaps Basque and other languages
    - also multitude of arguments, mostly from morphology and phonology



# Deep genetic relationships

- Plethora of proposals beyond well-established families:
  - Amerind
    - proposed by Greenberg (1987)
    - comprises all American languages except Na-Dene and Eskimo-Aleut
    - arguments based on mass lexical comparison



Language Families of the World (after Greenberg)





# Deep genetic relationships

- Merritt Ruhlen, a student of Greenberg, even claims to have reconstructed a few words of “Proto-World” (for instance the word *aqua* for water, which miraculously didn’t change from the dawn of time till Cicero)
- such deep connections are mostly based on suggestive salient features of the languages involved, like pronoun forms
- **Nostratic pronouns**
- **Amerind pronouns**
- generally, these approaches neither quantify the probability of chance resemblances nor do they take negative evidence into account

- Clackson, J. (2007). *Indo-European Linguistics. An Introduction*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Crowley, T. and C. Bowerman (2010). *An introduction to historical linguistics*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Ross, M. and M. Durie (1996). Introduction. In M. Durie and M. Ross, eds., *The Comparative Method Reviewed. Regularity and Irregularity in Language Change*, pp. 3–38. Oxford University Press, New York and Oxford.