2. GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

2.1 Indo-European languages

Family language is a group of language that has same pioneer called *Proto Language*, the evidence of relationship in a relative language can be guarded from the characteristic of that language. A family language that is identified exactly is a genetic unity that means all of family languages have developed move from a pioneer to all of the descant languages which are grouped in the family. Most of languages in the world are the members of relative language.

Indo-European language family is the biggest around the world, if seen from the number of original speakers more than a half of 6 billion people in the world have an Indo-European language as a mother language. This relative language is called Indo-Europe because the original speaker comes from Europe area. This language family for the first time is found by Sir William Jones. Indo-European languages have six big subfamily, namely Italic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic, Hellenic, Celtic, and Indo-Iranian.

2.2 Method of Indo-European language Classification

The language in the world has similarities and differences or the unique characteristic. Before the twentieth century, it didn’t have many developments. However in Europe this development is so rapid. So the linguists begin to make the classification for languages in the world. Especially classification in Indo-European languages. The classification is done by looking at the same characteristic which exists in every language. The language which has the same
characteristic is grouped in one group. Beside the group, there is a subgroup which is smaller.

Practically to classify language in the world, there are many approach to be involved, but only four approaches can be mentioned here namely (1) Genetic approach, (2) Typological approach, (3) Area approach, and (4) Sociolinguistic approach.

The genetic approach views that all languages have diverged from a common ancestor, the result is called genetic classification or genealogical. The typological approach uses the similarities of typology on the basis of phonology, morphology, and syntax. The result is called typological classification. The area approach uses the influence of being on both sides between one language and the other language. While the sociolinguistic approach classifies based on the relationship between language and society. The result is called sociolinguistic classification.

2.2.1 Genetic Classification

The genetic (or genealogical) classification is performed based on the assumption that languages have diverged from a common ancestor. In a sense that one language is derived or diverged from a common ancestor. According to the theory of this genetic classification, a proto language (common ancestor, original language) will split and beat two or more new languages.

For instance, there is a proto language “A”. The language “A”, then splits into three new language i.e. A1, A2, and A3. Then the language A1, A2, and A3 split again into the new languages and become A11, A12, and A13, A21, A22 and
A31, A32 respectively. For the next step, A11 beats A111 and A112. So do A12 and the others. When being diagramed, it will be seen as follow.

The diagram above shows that the splitting languages are illustrated like a tree with the branches. Therefore, the theory founder that is a Schleicher calls it as a theory of tree.
2.2.2 Typological Classification

Typological classification is performed based on a comparison of the formal similarities which exist between languages. It is an attempt to group languages into structural types on the basis of phonology, grammar, vocabulary, etc.

Therefore the result is arbitrary because it is not structured with the certain type but can use whatever types. However the result is still exhausted and unique. The classification has been performed by a lot of people and field a greet number especially in Indo-European language.

2.2.3 Area Classification

The area classification is performed based on the reciprocal relationship between one language and other language in an area or region without having noticed whether the language belongs to be a family genetically or not.

The attempt of the area classification was ever done by Wilhelm Schmidth (1868-1954) in his book “Die Sprachfamilien and Sprachenkreise der Ende”, which is enclosed with map. The map mentioned showed the geographical distribution of the important language group, accompany with certain features of the languages.
2.2.4 Sociolinguistic Classification

Sociolinguistic classification is performed based on the relationship between the language and the factors which exist in society; rather it is based on the status, function, and the evaluation provided by the society toward language.

The sociolinguistic classification was ever by William A. Stuart in 1962 which can be seen “An outline of linguistic typology for describing multilingualism”. This classification was done based on four criteria, i.e. historicity, standardization, vitality, and homogeneities.

The historicity is related the development of language of history or the language use. The criterion of this historicity will become positive if the language has the development of history or language use. The criterion of standardization is connected with a standard language or not. Its statue in language use formal or informal language.

The vitality is related to whether the language daily activity actively or not. While homogeneities is connected with whether lexicon or structure of the language is descended. By utilizing the four features above, the result of the classification can be exhausted because all languages in the world can be grouped into certain groups.
2.3 Some Languages in Indo-European Languages Family

The largest and most important language family, from the point of view of both the social importance of the major languages in the group and their interest to linguists is the Indo-European. The comparative method is very early applied to the study of this family, and more comparative work has been done on Indo-European than on all other groups together. As a result, many features of the family are well known.

2.3.1 The Italic Languages

The Italic languages are divided into three main groups: Sabellian languages, Latino-Faliscan languages, and Romance languages. The only surviving Italic languages are the Romance languages. Sabellian languages were originally spoken in Italy until they were replaced by Latin; the Latino-Faliscan languages include Latin and Faliscan. The Romance languages are descended from Latin, and though they are the only surviving members of the Italic family, this is not to say that all Romance languages are still "living languages."

Italic languages were originally spoken only in Italy, but the area in which the surviving Romance languages are spoken is much greater. French, for example, is spoken on every continent of the world. Also, though Latin is often considered an extinct language, it is the official language of the Vatican and the liturgical language of the Roman Catholic Church. Many Latin expressions have been preserved in other languages, and there are even efforts to revive Latin.

The Romance Languages contain five very important written languages: Portuguese is the language of Portugal and Brazil and the official language of the...
Portuguese Empire in Africa and Asia. *Spanish* is the language of the larger part of Spain and of most of Latin America other than Brazil. *French* is the official language of French and many French territories, and one of the official languages in Belgium, Belgian Congo, Switzerland, and Canada. *Italian* is the official language of Italy, and the spoken language of many Italian emigrants.

*Roumanian* is the official language of Romania. In the Romance area, language and political boundaries seldom coincide with any precision. Within Spain the well-marked *Catalan* dialect area is commonly recognized as separate language, and the *Galician* dialects are more closely related to Portuguese then to Spanish. In the south of France the local dialects are known collectively as *Provençal*; but for the political accident, they might have provided the base for another important written language.

*Sardinian* is quite distinct from Italian. In the Alpine regions of northeastern Italy and adjoining Switzerland is a group of closely related dialects known to linguists as *Rhæto-Romanic*. One of these, known as *Romansch*, has developed a written form and become (with German, French, and Italian) one of the official languages of the Swiss Republic. In some areas outside of Europe, local vernaculars derived from Romance languages have developed.

Many countries in which Romance languages were official languages later colonized, or at least controlled, other lands outside of Europe. In some of these areas, new languages called creoles were formed as a result of contact between the colonizers and peoples who did not speak Romance languages. These "*Romance creoles*" are often included among the Romance languages. For example, France colonized what is now Haiti and brought many African slaves there. To facilitate
communication between the slaves and the French, a Creole was formed by combining French with elements of various African languages. This Creole, now known as Haitian Creole, is a member of the Romance group.

Since writings in Latin have been preserved to this day, there is no need for a reconstruction of "Proto-Romance." It is possible to observe and track changes from Latin to modern-day Romance languages. This unique characteristic of Romance languages is an advantage to historical linguists, since it provides clues about how to reconstruct other older and extinct languages.

### 2.3.2 Balto-Slavic Languages

A large part of Eastern Europe is occupied by Speakers of Balto-Slavic languages. About a half of this population use Russian, originally the language of the region centering on Moscow but now spoken across northern Asia, in which area it is supplanting many of the indigenous languages. In which other languages are dominant and in countries of Soviet sphere. This gives it a position as one of the leading languages of the world, probably second only to English in social and political significance.

East and south of the Russian area within the Soviet Union are the slightly different Byelorussian and Ukrainian languages. Three other Balto-Slavic languages served as the nuclei around which independent states were organized following World War I. These are Polish, Czech, and Slovak (dialects of one language), and Serbo-Croatian (with its two written languages, Serbian and Croatian).
While the Balto-Slavic, and especially the Baltic languages of Eastern Europe are attested only late, even by Indo-European standards, there are characteristics that strongly suggest they are highly conservative, most especially Baltic and retain features akin to Proto-Indo-European. No Slavic language is attested until the mid-9th century A.D. And no Baltic language until the 14th century, Old Church Slavonic and Old Prussian became extinct, but Slavic and Baltic sibling languages survived.

2.3.3 Germanic Languages

The Germanic languages consist of the three groups of important languages: English-Frisian, Dutch-German, and Scandinavian. The first includes only English, with more speakers than any other languages of the present day, and Frisian, spoken by a relatively small population along the coast in the Netherlands and Germany.

On the continent of Europe the Dutch-German language area supports three well known written languages, German, Dutch, and Flemish. The first two, especially, have been carried abroad and are spoken in many parts of the world. Afrikaans, one of the two official languages of the Union of South Africa, is a development from Dutch. Yiddish is basically a German dialect with a written language using the Hebrew alphabet. Continental Scandinavia supports for written languages:

Danish in Denmark, Swedish in Sweden and Finland, Bokmål and Nynorsk, two competing writing convention in Norway. Icelandic is also of the Scandinavian group. The oldest extensive document in any Germanic languages
are the Gothic Scriptures translated by Wulfila in the fourth century, of which, unfortunately, only a part has been preserved. The most ancient Scandinavian records of any length are in *Old Norse* from the twelfth century.

The document from the Dutch-German area before the rise of the modern standard languages represent a number of dialects, of which the most commonly mentioned included *Old Saxon* and *Old High German*. *Old English* is the best designation for the Germanic dialect of Britain before the Norman Conquest, though the less suitable *Anglo-Saxon* is often used.

### 2.3.4 Hellenic Languages

For all practical purposes, the Hellenic family is represented by a single language spoken in Greece and the Aegean Islands. *Modern Greek*, together with the various older forms of Greek, comprises the Greek branch. *Ancient Greek* is a complex of dialect successive waves of Indo-European speaking peoples spreading into Aegean Area.

Recent decipherment has extended the known history of Greek to over three millennia. Within such a time-span there must, of course, be considerable chance, so that it is important to maintain a careful distinction between the different stages. Unfortunately it is common practice to speak merely of “Greek” without recognizing these differences or indicating the form of Greek which is meant.
2.3.5 Celtic Languages

Of the Celtic languages, formerly much more widespread only four retain any vitality. Breton in the extreme northwest of France competes with French and is slowly losing ground. Maxs, Irish, Welsh, and Sots Gaelic resist submersion in English only isolation and local nationalism. Groups from the Italic branch, spreading across southern Europe into central Turkey, northern Italy, France, Spain, and eventually the British Isles.

As centuries passed, their language evolved into one group of languages labelled Continental, and another labelled Insular (spoken in the British Isles). Continental Celts later adopted Latin, or Greek in the case of those in Turkey, and the Continental Celtic languages, attested from the 6th century B.C., were lost. Insular Celtic split into a Goidelic subgroup that developed in Ireland, and a Brythonic subgroup that developed in England & Wales. Later in history, Goidelic Celts migrated to Scotland; also later in history, Brythonic Celts under pressure from the Anglo-Saxons returned to the Continent and settled in Brittany, on the western point of France.

2.3.6 Indo-Iranian Languages

The Indic branch includes most of the languages of northern India and Pakistan. There are a very considerable number of languages in the branch, and several of them are spoken by large populations. A classification based on the spoken dialects does not accord with the usual understanding of the people in India and Pakistan, since Hindi and Urdu are two literary languages which are used in association with widely divergent spoken forms.
Hindi is now the official language of the Republic of India, and Urdu is official in Pakistan. Bengali, Assamese, Oriya, Marathi, Gujarati, Sindhi, Punjabi, Kashmiri, and Nepali are among the best-known of the group. Sinhalese, the chief language of Ceylon, though far removed from the main area, is also Indic.

The Indic branch has a long literary history. A large part of this literature is in Sanskrit, still widely used as a literarily and liturgical language in India. Sanskrit is of great interest to linguists because of the high development of descriptive linguistic technique culminating in the work of Pānini in the fourth century. And because of the stimulus which the introduction of Sanskrit to Western scholarship gave to the development of modern linguistic science. The Vedas, in a language related to classical Sanskrit, are the oldest documents in any Indo-European language. The other Indic languages are known collectively as Prakrits.

The Iranian branch contains four important spoken language or perhaps groups of closely related languages. In the mountains of eastern Turkey, Iraq, and Western Iran is Kurdish. A large part of Iran used Persian, and Persian is also an important second language among Muslims in India and Pakistan. Part of Afghanistan and adjacent areas in Pakistan use Pashto or Afghan. Balochi is the main language of Baluchistan in Pakistan.

A large number of older Iranian languages have left important literarily remains. The oldest is Old Persian, known from the sixth to the third century B.C. Avestan is the language of the Zoroastrian scriptures. Pahlavi was used in the
Persian Empire of post Christian times. The Indic and Iranian languages are sometimes classed together as Indo-Iranian.