

English historical grammar 1

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The beginnings

The Celts were the first inhabitants of the British isles and had reached them around 2000-1000 BC. In that time, the Celtic language was widely spread throughout Europe.

The tribes Picts, Scots and Britons settled on the Isles and spoke the Gælic dialect (also Goidelic; it survives in Ireland as an Irish Gaelic dialect). From Ireland, it was brought to Scotland and the Irish Gaelic evolved into Scottish Gaelic, which is nowadays almost extinct. On the isle of Man, it evolved into a language called Manx, which has been dead since the 19th century.

Picts and Britons spoke the Brittonic Celtic dialect (Brittonic). Picts were then assimilated by the Scots and abandoned their dialect in favour of the Scottish one. Britons, on the other hand, inhabited South England and were thus not assimilated. Their dialect evolved into three languages:

- Cornish (in Cornwall, extinct since 20th century)
- Welsh aka. Cymric (in Wales. Welsh is an AS word meaning "outsider", whereas the word cymric is of Welsh origin and means "countryman")
- Breton (spoken in Armorica aka. Brittany in France, is still spoken in some remote villages. It was brought to the Continent by the Celts that fled there during the Germanic invasions)

In 55 BC, Caesar's legions invaded England to secure Gaul in France. The occupation was not very strict, only South England was conquered, and the main reason was to prevent British Celts from helping their brethren in Gaul. Brytonic was still spoken by the Celts, although Latin words were assimilated (like –chester => Lat. castra = camp).

In 410 AD, the Roman Army withdrew from the Isles, because the Germans were brewing trouble on the Continent and funds were limited, leaving South England defenseless. The Britons became civilized during the occupation and had little to do with military, because the Legions protected them from Picts and Scots. Soon after the Roman departure, Picts and Scots started to invade South England and Britons sent for help to Germanic tribes. Bede wrote about this in his *"Ecclesiastical history of the English people"*, describing the arrival of the Germanic tribes. They arrived by boats from Northern Germany (Denmark, Jutland) around 449, and after successfully fending off the Scots' and Picts' assaults, turned against the Britons. They betrayed them because they saw how beautiful and fertile the land was, decided to stay there and bring everybody and their brother with them. More and more ships arrived from the Continent and Britons were forced to flee to Cornwall, Wales and Brittany (the "Celtic Fringe"). There was some resistance by Artorius (legendary king Arthur), but in the end it was all in vain (*aka. they were pwned:*)

The Germanic tribes, their settlements and languages:

- Saxons; S of river Thames (nowadays Essex, Sussex, Wessex, hence the suffix –ssex), except in Kent; spoke **Saxon** Germanic dialects
- Jutes; Kent; Jutish aka. **Kentish** dialect
- Angles; N of river Thames, all the way up to Scotland (Mercia, East Anglia, Northumbria); spoke Anglian dialect, which fell into two groups, namely **Mercian** (from the river Thames to the river Humber) and **Northumbrian** (N of the river Humber)

In that time, the Germanic tribes lived in 7 kingdoms (see above), which were not united until the reign of king Knut. In addition to those 7 kingdoms, 3 Celtic kingdoms also existed (Wales, Cornwall, Scotland).

The relative value of a dialect related to the power of the kingdom it was spoken in. Kent was the earliest centre of culture and power, reaching its peak under the reign of king Aethelbert at the end of 6th century. In the 8th and 9th century, the cultural centre shifted to Northumbria and its monasteries (Lindisfarne, Jarrow), and eventually, in the 10th century, Wessex's capital city Winchester became the most important city, the West Saxon dialect becoming the prestigious dialect of OE. Earliest texts were thus written in Kentish, then Northumbrian and from the 10th century on (when the bulk of OE literature was written, e.g. Beowulf) in West Saxon dialect. In later ages, the London dialect became the most important.

Only a few words of Celtic origin were accepted to the new language:

-*ass* (=donkey; donkey is actually an artificial word that was created in order to avoid the derogatory use of the word *ass* – *arse*)

-*brock* (=badger; the word was accepted because the Angles had not seen a badger before. *A millenia later, www.badgerbadgerbadger.com was born:*)

-*crag, tor, combe* (landscape features, not seen on the Continent)

-frequently in place names: *avon* (=river), *dover* (=large body of water; Brit. *dwfr*), *London* (Lat. *londinium*, Celt. *lond* = wild), Lincoln (Celt. *lynn* = lake)

The borrowing was not extensive. The reason for the borrowing to go only one direction was the fact that one culture was subordinated to the other (Celts were subordinated to the Germanic tribes, compare Slavic vs. Germanic languages – Slovene language has many Germanic borrowings, whereas this is not true the other way around). The subordination naturally led to hostilities between the Celts and the newcomers, and has in some parts not ceased until this day (Scots, Welsh and Irish still don't really enjoy a British company). But the irony is that many of famous English writers and poets were actually of Celtic origin (Keats for example).

Around the year 1000, the word Engleland was started being used (*plusquamperfect future-in-the past indefinite:*) to denote all the peoples living on the Isles.

English language periods

Old English (OE) period denotes the time from when the first Germanic tribes settled down on English soil (500 AD) and up until 1100 AD, 50 years after the Norman conquest. The term OE also denotes the language spoken then and is synonymous with the term Anglo-Saxon. The difference lies in that OE signals a connection with later stages of English language (Medieval English, Modern English), whereas Anglo-Saxon suggests a difference between OE and later stages of its development. The dialects spoken were Saxon, Anglian and Kentish. Literature written in that time was mostly OE pagan poetry, the most famous work being Beowulf (originally appearing in Anglian, brought to the Isles by the Germanic tribes from their homelands. It was written down and preserved in West-Saxon). From the 9th to 11th century, the bulk of OE literature was written, although it mostly consisted of translations from Latin. The central figure of that time was king Alfred, who was a translator, the King of Wessex, a loving family man, the bane of barbarians, inhabitant of swamps and the champion in beer drinking of Londonfest 870 AD all-in-one. And yes, the last one IS a joke;)

OE was a Germanic language with very few Celtic words. But it had many words and metaphorical descriptions for some things (e.g. heroes and seafaring), suggesting the Germans were a heroic and seafaring nation. These things were described in precise wordings or specialized words were used to denote different types of lords and ships. They were not only simple words, but root words (base for compounds). Once the Germans settled down, they had

to resort to farming and the language is the only remaining sign of their once grand seafaring abilities. What also remained in the language were some other characteristics, for example the names of the months. January was named *Wulfmonat*, which would explain that in that time, wolves lived there, which would come down to the villages in harsh winters of January.

1066 saw the invasion of Normans and the subsequent complete change of the society, which became dominated by French influences (actually, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of modern English lexica is of Romanic origin!).

To the Romans, the British were still barbarians; civilization came to England in form of Christianity (it *always* does). On this, Bede wrote: Pope Gregory undertook a mission to christianize the British and sent Augustine to Britain in 597. Augustine landed on the coast of Kent, at that time the most prominent kingdom. King Aethelbert ("of noble birth") welcomed him and the 50 monks that travelled with him. He liked the new religion, but couldn't accept it, because he was king. He nevertheless allowed them free passage and tolerated everything they did. Christianization was therefore a peaceful event, much different from the usual sword, fire and machinegun-style christianization employed throughout the rest of the world.

After 635, another preacher came to England (Aidan), but he came from the Celtic church of Ireland. Another thing of note here is the two different denominations for the Christian cross:

- *cross* (from the old Irish *cross* -> used in N parts of England)
- *cruc, crucifix* (Lat. *crux* (meaning "cross") -> used in S parts)

With the conversion came the construction of monasteries. They were the religious and learning centres of that time. Not only religion, but also astronomy, arithmetics and poetry were taught. The monks even encouraged vernacular (Lat. *vernacula* = household servant, native) language (people's, common language = AS), although the official Church language was still Latin.

Some words came to AS even before the monks came, from the people who came back to the Isles from the mainland:

- *church* (Gr. *kuriakon* ->the ASaxons probably met some Christian preachers on the mainland, OE *cyrice*)
- *minster* (=big church) (Gr. *monasterion*)
- *devil* (OE *deofol*, Gr. *diablos* = "he, who divides people"... *eh, more likely it was a she*:)
- *angel* (OE *engel*, Gr. *angelos* = messenger)

The bulk of words still had to wait for the monks to arrive to be assimilated into the language (*the words, not the monks*:). New words had to be adopted with new concepts, and the English tend to take the foreign concept and the foreign word with it – they adapt (c.f. in South African Republic, the Bours (the Dutch) invented new words for new things, whereas the English simply adopted the existing words). Words that came to the language after Christianisation:

- *disciple* (Lat. *discere* = to learn)
- *priest* (Gr. *presbus* = an old man, an elder; from *presbus* also stems the term Presbyterian church)
- *bishop* (Gr. *episcopus* (with a little bit of imagination...) = the one who watches)
- *nun* (Lat. *nonna* = an elderly woman who takes care of children)
- *monk* (Gr. *monos* = the one who lives alone)
- *abbot* (aramaic = father)
- *apostle* (Gr. *apostlos* = the one that goes forward)
- *pope* (Gr. *papas* = father)

Also some words came from the Orient: *camel, lion, cedar, orange, myrth, pepper* (came to AS through the Bible... *and thus the first smuggling business was born – smuggling pepper in hollowed out Bibles. Oh, we're talking words only? Sorry...*;))

Sometimes, the meaning of an existing AS word changed:

- *god* (not connected to the Christian god before, but after the Christianisation, it changed its meaning and also orthographic form – God)
- *heofon* (=heaven; a place where you go after death)
- *synne* (=sin; transgression against anything)
- *halga* (=hallow= saint; only remains in NE in All Hallow's Eve)

- *haelend* (=healer; to make sbd. whole again)
- *god-spell* (=good news; also gospel)

By the end of 8th century, the Christian impact produced a brand new culture. This was the first great impact on OE language. And then, the Scandinavians came. *And they did not come for a ride on the London Eye.* The Scandinavian invasion was the second great impact on OE language.

The Scandinavian invasion

The Scandinavian peninsula was inhabited largely by Germanic tribes. Towards the end of the 8th century (when the situation in Britain was still peaceful), the Scandinavians set out on one of the greatest migrations in Europe (*ya know, like them funny lemmings do:*). They set off to all directions, but the reason for their departure remains a mystery until this day. The tribes from Sweden moved east to Russia, Norwegians pushed to the British isles, Greenland and Northern America, whilst the Danes (Norsemen) landed on the shores of France. Some of the tribes even made it all the way down to the Adriatic sea.

The invasion of the Isles wasn't a D-Day, but progressed gradually. At first, they looted and plagued the Eastern coast of Anglia, but later, they came to stay. Wikings (=norse "*inlet*", OE "*camp*" (camp as in "a small settlement", *not the other meaning, for it is, at least for me, hard to imagine the Wikings being camp:*)) did not really come to go on a killing spree, because the land was not very densely populated. They settled in less populated areas of eastern and northern parts of England (which has had and has a profound impact on the language). The AS resisted and King Alfred was one of those leaders who has to be given credit for AS and not Scandinavian roots of NE.

Alfred was born in 871 in Wessex, which was at that time the most important kingdom, following the defeat of Mercia in 820. He forced the Danes to give up plundering and made their king accept baptism. He also divided England into two parts: Engeland and Danelaw (Treaty of Wedmore), with the borderline drawn between London and Chester. Alfred promoted the Englishness of his part by translating Lat. texts into OE and financially stimulating similar projects. He also encouraged the AS chronicle. And one beautiful Sunday morning, Danelaw ceased to exist and the two nations started to merge. The Scandinavian invasion can thus be divided into three parts:

1. raids and plundering
2. tolerated coexistence (Danelaw)
3. the two nations mingle

It is to be expected that nearly all words of Scand. origin would be connected to ships, weapons, administration and ruling classes. And they were, but were later similarly replaced by Norman words. The only surviving word is *law*(Scand. *lowu*).

In the third period, a large portion of everyday words was assimilated:

- a) Placenames (4500 placenames of Scand. origin in England; mostly in marshes and less populated areas of N and E England, where the Wikings had landed and settled).

Placenames of Scand. origin ending in:

- *-by* (dan. farm, town): Derby, Rugby
- *-thorp(e)* (dan. village): Althorp, Linthorpe
- *-wick*: Swanswick, Wick

Placenames of AS origin ending in:

- *-ton* (=town): Brighton
- *-ham* (=settlement): Birmingham

- *-ing, -stowe, -sted*
- b) Navigation, warfare, administration, law (shows Scand. supremacy in these fields)
 - NE only in "*by-law*" (=local law)
- c) Everyday life (shows that the nations really did merge, after all they were of the same ur-Germanic origin -> c.f. Celts that were pushed out)
 - *bank, birth, dirt, egg, fellow, freckle, kid, sister, steal, band, get, give, nag, they, them, heir, raise, take...*
 - *window*(Scand. "the eye of the wind", AS "the wind nostril")

Under Aethelraed's rule, a new tax was introduced: Danegeld, which meant that every Dane had to pay a special tax. That, as you may imagine, made him *very* popular. Not only did he win his popularity with taxes, he also wanted to kill all of Danish descent (by that time, they were already merged, so his actions *really* made sense), which provoked the Danish king to fight the English again and thus Canute II became the new king.

Indication of the pronunciation of some consonantal clusters (sk, k, g, sc, c) can indicate whether a word is of Scand. or AS origin, but this *incredibly interesting* topic will be explained in detail in some future lecture. Hopefully.

As another means of distinguishing Scand. from AS words, there is the fact that palatalization took place in OE, but not in Scandinavian (OE *shirt*, Scand. *skirt*; the words probably meant the same in the past):

- *kid* (of Scand. origin, otherwise it would be pronounced /tʃɪd/)
- *skin, skill, get, give* (all of Scand. origin)

For a long time, Scand. words were used alongside the OE variant. Eventually, one variant prevailed, but not in all cases. Both survived, if there was enough "work" for them:

scandinavian (norse)

skirt
die
raise (a child)
want
skill
nay
skin
fro ("to and fro")
sick

AS

shirt (meant the same thing in the past)
starve (OE *steorwan* = to die; it tells us the main reason of death was starvation in that time)
rear (a sheep)
wish
craft
no
hide
from
ill

Scandinavian influence is still very strong in non-RP English (Scotland, NorthEast England).

The Norman Conquest

As the OE period was approaching its end (11th century), more trouble started brewing on the Continent. *The first Miss universe competition took place and the English were not invited:)*

Apart from that, the Normans (in France) began to prepare to conquer England and subjugate the English virgins, erhm, language.

Normandy (the name reflects some Norse influence; it was namely invaded by the Norsemen in the 9th and 10th century – at the same time as England was invaded) was the cause of all pain that begot Engeland in the times to come. Just as Alfred made peace with the Danes with the Treaty Wedmar, king Rollo of the Norse made an agreement with the French king and therefore became the Duke of Normandy. Rollo acknowledged the French king as his overlord and Normandy became his duchy. The Normans adopted the customs, the legal system and the language of the French. They soon became one of the most powerful and successful royal families in Europe; in fact, they became more French than the French themselves.

The English and the Norse were very close, more or less distant cousins of the Germanic tribes. Brittany (Celts) and the English had much less in common, since they were of different origin. When the Danes exiled the English king in 1012, he took refuge in Normandy, where he married a Norman lady and after some hanky-panky, they made themselves a son, called Edward the Confessor. *I'd #censored# my parents if they gave me a pussy name like this.* He was brought up in France and later, as the political situation in England changed, he was reestablished king. He brought much of the French influence with him as he returned to England, so the first French influences were brought to the Court without violence.

Edward died childless in 1066 (this marks the end of OE) and many candidates arised to take his place. The next day, AS earls elected Herold, earl of Wessex their new heir. But the Duke of Normandy, William (Edward's second cousin and sandbox playmate) did not agree, because Edward supposedly promised him the throne. So, dear children, here we have the dramatic highpoint of the drama. Now let us hear how the story ends.

William was no Rambo to go and single-handedly kick the whole English ass (the wimp!), so he decided to gain support on the Continent. First, he travelled to Pope Whatshisnameagain and got his approval. Then, he promised his vassals in Normandy huge amounts of land in England if they went with him (and since human greed knows no boundaries, they of course agreed). He set off to England, and in September 1066, landed in SE England. Herold was at that time fighting against the Norwegian king-wannabe and had to hurry back to the Hastings stronghold, from whence he would strike at William. William saw he had no chance in defeating Herold whilst he was safely behind the walls, so he pretended to retreat. The English foolishly followed and William met them on open field. Herold was killed in battle and when his troops saw him fall, they panicked and fled.

After this victory, William pillaged SE England, meeting little or no resistance. He did that on purpose, scaring the people of London (which was heavily guarded) to such extent that they surrendered the city without a fight, not wanting their city burned down. On Christmas day 1066, William was crowned king. Had William been elected king as the successor of Edward, it wouldn't have mattered much – just another French king, who would let the English nobility intact. But William was really pissed now.

Many of the English noblemen had already been slain at Hastings and those who fled were treated as traitors (which was basically synonymous with death sentence at that time). In ten years time, the last of the English earls was killed. He gave the land of English earls to his supporters, who were French to the bone. All the high positions in the Church, politics and culture were given to French speaking people and English became the tongue of the bwer classes and peasantry. In that time, England was a promised land – after all, it was a boon *not* being English...

For 200 years, French was the official language of communication in the upper classes, Latin being the language of Church and science. Not only French natives spoke French, also everybody who wanted to advance past a normal peasant (*for example to a peasant liutenant or peasant field commander:*) had to speak French. English was no longer taught in schools and

monasteries, and literature was written in French only. The English language was reduced to the tongue of the common people and the written tradition was completely cut off.

The French nobility still had its possessions in Normandy, and William was at the same time the Duke of Normandy and the King of England. But the situation didn't last. The French king grew angry with his nobility escaping to England and shortly after 1200, the French living in England had their possessions in France confiscated by the French king.

In 1204, the hostilities became open when Normandy was put solely under the French rule. Throughout the 13th century, there were only minor skirmishes, because England had a lot to do with repelling Scots (which were supported by the French, which also did little to improve the relations between France and England). The formal reason for the 100-year War (1337-1453) was the claim of the French crown, whilst the economic reason behind was the possession of the rich land of Flanders.

The Anglo-Normans being denounced by their home country, and having been living in England for 2 centuries, they accepted English as their new mother tongue. In a short time, French language was "out" and English was "in", even in higher circles. The time was ripe for the English language to strike back. Sermons were rendered in English (from 13th century onwards), and at the end of 13th century, Edward I denounced the king of France, because "*he had wanted to destroy the English tongue*" (*oh, the drama!*). But this English, reappearing in written records after more than two centuries of linguistic apartheid, had been changed almost beyond recognition. Its vocabulary had been permeated by words of Romance (Latin) origin and the morphological structure of ME revealed it as an isolating language, standing in contrast to the inflectional nature of OE (but this is already the stuff discussed in AHS 2).

Middle English (ME) period

The work force was scarce, monasteries were empty because the Plague (aka. The Black death *aka. Batman:*) of 1348 did not spare even holy men, and thus lower classes were on the rise. In the few remaining schools and monasteries, English was taught again. Also, courts were to be held in English and in 1362, the English Parliament opened its sessions in English language. 1404 came another disaster (*joke*) as Henry IV (*no joke*) claimed and accepted the crown of England and fully rehabilitated English as the official language. This also caused English to appear in literature (Chaucer – Canterbury tales, Wyclif – the first translation of the Bible). The period from the Norman conquest (1066) to the time when Tudors got hold of the throne (1500) is therefore called Middle English period.

French words in the English language

French affected the lexica and the grammar and the whole structure of the English language, which leads to the fact that more than 50% of today's English words are of French origin. In ME, around 10.000 new French words were accepted in the English language:

1. Government and administration
 - *state, reign, realm, minister, chancellor* (=prime minister in Germany; lord chancellor = chairman of the House of Lords and the Supreme Judge (vrhovni sodnik)), *council(or), counsel(or), people, nation*
2. Feudal system and court life
 - *vassal, liege, prince, duke, marquis, count* (but: *king, queen, lord, lady* are all of AS origin)
3. Military matters

- *army, war, peace, battle, siege, officer, navy, soldier, enemy (AS fiend), danger, spy, prison, traitor*
- 4. Law (although the word itself is of Scand. origin)
 - *legal, legislation, justice, judge, jury, to accuse, felony, plaintiff, defendant, plead, guilty, innocent, session*
- 5. Ecclesiastical life
 - *saint (AS halga → all Hallow's eve (=Halloween)), virgin, chastity belt (joke:), saviour, clerk (from Gr. clergy), parish, service, mass*
- 6. Household
 - *sir, madam, servant, rich, poor, master, mistress, command, order, obey (AS: husband)*
- 7. Food

AS origin

*ox
calf
sheep
deer
swine
breakfast
lunch
cook*

French origin

*beef
veal
mutton
venison
pork
dinner
supper
soup
sauce, boil, fry, roast, toast*

8. Occupations

AS

*smith
baker
weaver
thatcher
shepherd
stool
chair, table*

French

*tailor
butcher
mason
carpenter
joiner (stavbni mizar)
furniture*

Sometimes, both words survived, but the French one was more sophisticated, more formal

AS

*hut
clothes
friendship
help
folk
hearty
deep
indeed
lonely
brave
give (a hand)
find
feed
look for sth.
hide
begin*

French

*cottage
dress
amity
aid, assistance
people, nation
cordial
profound
in fact
solitary
courageous
deliver, present
discover
nourish
search
conceal
commence*

French words are conjugated (nouns and adjectives were thus adopted in the accusative form, which is the most frequent. Also the French acc. pl. ending is –s). Verbs were adopted in the stem form of the French pl. form (not the infinitive):

- *surviure, je survis, nous survivons* -> to survive
- *finir, je finis, nous finissons* -> to finish

Why this is so is because it is very common (more frequent) in French to address people in pl. rather than sg.

- *dinner* (a verb in Fr., adopted as a noun in English, probably because of the –er ending that is very common with English nouns; also nous dinnons -> to dine)

The French borrowings were exposed to nativization. On phonetic level, the most obvious change was the shift of the word accent. The phonetic nativization is one of the first forms of adopting a foreign word. Germanic languages had the accent placed on the first syllable (unless it was a prefix) as a rule. In French, the word accent is on the last syllable most of the time. The change was gradual – for quite some time, it was left intact. Chaucer, for example, wrote in such a way that is supported the original French accentuation (he was a poet). The word accent was then shifted to the first syllable, but only in non-verbs:

- *contreé* – 'country
- *horriblé* – 'horrible
- *elegánt* – 'elegant
- *fontáine* – 'fountain

Words of French origin of an origin that was or seemed similar to an English prefix were treated as exceptions (the stress on the syllable following the prefix, which meant it mostly stayed the same):

- *affaire* – *affair* (seemingly a prefix)
- *insáne* – *in'sane* (a real prefix)

Verbs were treated differently. All disyllabic verbs retained their final accent, except (*yes, there's always a but* :) verbs ending in –ish (*'finish, 'punish*) and –er (*'enter, 'offer*).

That explains, why in NE, we have pairs of words that are spelt in the same way, yet belong in different word groups, being distinguishable only through accent:

- *a 'present* – *to pre'sent*
- also: *absent, conduct, frequent, rebel...*

The accent became so important that it influenced some words of English, non-French origin:

- *a 'forecast* – *to fore'cast, an 'inlay* – *to in'lay*

Morphological level of nativization

The borrowed words became used so frequently that slowly English morphemes were added to it and new words created:

- *prince* + *ly* (prince like)
- *beauti* + *ful, colour* + *less, court* + *ship, duke* + *dom...*

Such words are referred to as hybrids (foreign stem + native morpheme) and are quite common. Much less common are the hybrids of native stem and foreign morpheme:

- *god + d + ess* (-ess is a French morpheme, god is an AS stem) (*It's logical - I mean, who ever heard of an English goddess anyway?:*)
- *-ment* (*enlightment*)
- *-age* (*leakage, clearance*)
- *-able* (*readable*)

Thus, the borrowing did not stop at adopting root morphemes, but also took bound morphemes with it.

Grammatical structure

OE:

Nouns are declined, have 8 forms, 4 cases and 2 numbers.

Adjectives are declined and display gender agreement (thus 24 forms, 2 declinations).

Verbs are conjugated, have 3 persons, 2 numbers and mood is expressed with inflections.

(Dear Father that art in heaven, Howard be thy name and blessed be thy will that OE didn't last until this day... :)

ME (15th century) is much different. It turned from an inflectional to analytical/isolating language. Nowadays the number of bound morphemes is greatly reduced, the forms are formed through periphrastic constructions (auxiliary verbs, modals...). But ME was still not an uniform language. OE dialects evolved into ME dialects, changing their names in the process:

	Northumbrian -> ME Northern dialects
OE Anglian dialects	Mercian -> ME Midland dialects (east Midland was spoken in Cambridge, Oxford and London and soon became prestigious, the writing dialect)
OE Saxon dialects	
+ OE Kentish dialects	ME Southern dialects

Two persons contributed greatly to prominence of east Midland dialect: Wyclif(fe) and Chaucer. Wycliffe was the author of the first complete translation of the Bible (1388), but it was considered a threat to the Church ("*Angle*, not *angel* speech"), was denounced as a heretic (*Wycliffe, not his translation*) and his book was *tormented, torn to pieces page by page and then fed to starving rabid mice who made an example of it:*) *There you have it, gory details at its finest:*)

Chaucer symbolised the rebirth of English as the language of literature. His language is very rich, using French words and their AS synonyms and also a lot of grammatic variants. Also the persons in Canterbury tales speak the dialect they would speak in that time (the yeoman speaks different than the merchant).

William Caxton represents a huge step towards the standardization of the English language. He lived in the 15th century and established the first printing house in England (1467). As the editor, he had the problem of an uniform, standard alphabet -> before block printing, it was all hand written, and everybody wrote "piši kao što govoriš"-style, mainly using French ortography. In 1490, he translated Eneydos (*that's "Eneida" in Slovene, for you uncouth illiterates out there;*) and in the prologue he lamented about the problem of different variants of English, not only written but also spoken (SouthE *eggys* vs. NorthE *eyren* = eggs). Ever since Caxton had produced his system, the English spelling barely changed, although the pronunciation has changed considerably. With Caxton and the ascent of the Tudors, the NE period began and the ME period ended.

The Renaissance

1500 is the year of the end of the ME period and throughout Europe, it marks the begin of the Modern ages. The Renaissance started more or less in the 16th century (earlier in Italy). Several factors contributed to its begin:

- The fall of Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantinian)

- Internalization of trade, overseas countries
- Discovery of the New world
- Reformation
- Technical progress (especially printing tech. -> printed books appeared)

The invention of the printing press

This made almost anything possible (*but please, don't take "almost anything" too literally*). Before 1500 AD, 35.000 books were ever written in Europe. After that, in just 150 years, 22.000 books were printed in England alone. The lowered cost of these books made education accessible to the rising middle class (they could afford books and therefore become educated). The economy encouraged the writing of vernacular literature (and not only Latin literature) and in the same time, most European languages got their first printed books in the Renaissance (usually a translation of the Bible, a grammar and a dictionary).

The fall of the Eastern Roman Empire (1453)

Renaissance as a term refers to the renewed interest in Christ and Roman times. That happened in the year 1453, when Constantinople fell into Ottoman hands and many scholars fled west, to Italy. In Constantinople, many manuscripts from the classic times were kept, and the fleeing scholars took them along for the ride. In Italy, they worked as teachers and thus aroused the renewed attention in antique civilizations. It was then when the centre of culture moved to Italy and spread from there throughout Europe. Ever since, the study of classic Latin and Greek has been the cornerstone of each European university. Latin has been the lingua franca of European scholars and holy men also in the time of ME, but now it also opened the door to the works of the great classical authors and became the model for a perfect language.

But the European Latin was almost, but not quite the same as the classical Latin. Vulgar Latin, as it was called, had evolved and became simplified in this time. But it was the ancient Latin and Greek that became the models of a perfect language (vulgar, that is ME Latin, was seen down upon as some form of corrupt Latin).

In England, scholars like More and Bacon turned their backs on ME Latin (and also disdained English btw.) and wrote in classical Latin ("*English language is not suitable for any serious writing*" –Bacon). The Latin influence was so great that some borrowed French words were changed to appear *more* like classical Latin, as the French language was seen only as a further evolved (therefore further corrupted) version of the classical Latin. The evolution of a language was treated as deterioration of a language:

- *describe* (ME, came from French because "-ve" was part of the pl. stem in Fr. -> in 16th century it became *describe*; "-be" is the Latin original and the "v" was seen as a corruption/mispronunciation of "b")
- *parfet* (parfait) – *perfect*
- *verdit* – *verdict*
- *peynture* – *picture*
- *aventure* – *adventure*
- *avis* – *advice*
- *dette* – *debt* (but the pronunciation remains the same)
- *doutte* – *doubt* (the "bt" is pronounced like "tt")
- *bankrout* – *bankrupt*
- *egal* – *equal*

Also new words were introduced into English, mostly related to scientific development and they followed the Latin/Greek origin:

- *atmosphere, pneumonia, skeleton, gravity, paradox, chronology, encyclopedia*

Very frequently the derivations of words (adjectives) were Latin:

- *mouth – oral, nose – nasal, eye – ocular, mind – mental*
- *father – paternal, mother – maternal*
- *home – domestic, book – literary, town – urban, man – human, school – scholastic*
- *sun – solar, moon – lunar*
- *Oxford – Oxonian, Cambridge – Cantabrian/Cantabrigean, Glasgow – Glaswegian, Manchester – Mancunian*

As always, in some cases, both patterns were retained (used as synonyms or with little difference):

- *father – paternal vs. fatherly*
- *heaven – celestial vs. heavenly*
- *earth – terrestrial vs. earthen*
- *kingly (AS) vs. royal (French) vs. regal (Lat.)*
- *hidden (AS) vs. concealed (Fr.) vs. occult (Lat.)*
- *murder vs. homicide*
- *youthful vs. juvenile*
- *readable vs. legible*
- *knowledge vs. science*
- *ghost vs. spirit*
- *manly vs. male, masculine*
- *pope – popish vs. papal*

All these examples illustrate the great impact that classical Latin had on the English language in that time. Latin words (especially as seen above in pairs with AS or French "equivalents") were mostly reserved to formal, scientific language. Latin words were usually polysyllabic (*which is just the smartass way of saying "long words" :)* and the accent stayed on the first syllable for some time after the assimilation into the English language. But a change of accent soon took place (non-verbs only):

~ AR-TI-FI-CI-AL

- primary accent on 'AL, then a secondary accent on ,FI (two syllables before the primary accent) evolved (arti,fici'al)
- the secondary accent becomes the primary accent and vice versa (arti'fici,al)
- eventually the accent completely disappears from the last syllable (artifi'cial). But not always ('magni,tude; 'reso,lute)

This rule of shifting the accent is applied no matter from which language the word originally came.

"Eye-words" are words that appear only in written and not in spoken form, and therefore the pronunciation is not really prescribed (gaseous, phythisis, diatribist...)

The internationalization of trade

Not only did Latin words come to English language in that time. 10.000 to 20.000 new words were adopted during the Renaissance:

- French: *bigot, detail*
- Italian: *gondola, macaroni, spaghetti, lava, balcony, cupola*
- Spanish: *armada, siesta, desperado, embargo, matador*
- Russian: *steppe*

- Persian: *caravan, dervish, paradise*
- Hungarian: *hussar*
- Polynesian: *taboo*
- Arabic: *algebra, alcohol, alchemy, albatros, zenith, nadir, zero* (astronomical terms; "al" is the definite article in Arabic)
- Native American:
 - o Nahuatl (the language of the old Aztec): *tomato* (via Spanish), *chocolate* (xocolatl = xococ (bitter) + atl (water))
 - o Algonquian (the language of the indian tribes in N America – Navajo, Su...): *moccasin, totem* (=the mark of my family), *tomahawk, squaw*
- Dutch (revealing the supremacy of the Dutch in some areas): *yacht, iceberg, smuggle, reef, cruise, easel, etch, sketch, landscape*

The Tudor Politics

The Tudor politics were in contrast to internationalization – they wanted isolation to the extreme. Henry VIII broke all contacts to Rome, Elisabeth I fought constantly with France and/or Spain. All these actions built the image of English insularity (*this word comes from isle - and not from insult - in case you, dear reader, should wonder.*) Perhaps it was this feeling of the national identity that brought some resistance to the torrent of foreign words.

Two styles (not languages!) of English evolved:

1. **Inkhorn** (= tintrik): rich in foreign words, fancy...
2. **Plainness**: the lexicon is rudimentary, the style is easy to understand, the words English. Thomas Wilson preaches in his work "*The Arte of Rhetorique*" against the excessive use of foreign words and the Inkhorn fanciness.

The result was a mixture of both, a rich and beautiful English (*erm, yeah... "beautiful" syntax and morphology, not to mention phonetics*). Any word could be used as any part of speech – very flexible (*don't believe it? Ask yourself which sentence element the f-word can't be*). Shakespeare demonstrates most clearly this mastery – he is brave, inventive and used both Inkhorn and Plainness language (depending on the social status of the persons in his plays). Shakespeare spoke a kind of Midland English and had one of the longest vocabulary of an English writer ever (he used 30.000+ words, whereas the Bible uses "only" about 8.000 words). Some of the words he uses are very new, but he was not afraid of using them. Some words are recorded for the first time in his works (the people used them, yet he was the first one to record them). He loved to experiment and actually became so influential that some of his lines became "quotable quotes" and have become a part of the lexicon (*frailty, thy name is woman; it's all Greek to me; to vanish into thin air; fair/foul play; it's high time; tongue-tied; make virtue of a necessity; to be the laughing stock; to out-Herod Herod; to bid good riddance...*). Shakespeare contributed a lot to the richness of the Elisabethan period (*yeah, imagine Jurak's lectures if there were no Shakespeare...*). He was not afraid of making up original expressions that become idiomatic and are nowadays used in everyday speech.

In his time, the language was still not standardized. The English that Shakespeare and most others choose to write in, was in fact the language of the court. But soon after this period, a great step towards the standardization was made: The authorised version of the holy Bible in the 17th century.

King George's authorized Bible translation

This was actually the one major event in that time. The translation was not the first (already Alfred translated some of it), but it was the first official and also the first printed translation. The translation of the Bible in general is very special: the translator is under great pressure to capture the original word of God. It was believed for a certain period of time that a translation was heretic and that was presumptuous to translate it. It was to prevent people from reading the Bible directly, without the safeguard in the form of a priest (*such texts can be read in different ways, and can also be (ab)used to fuel hatred (for a greater good of course...)*) that is the main reason why a preacher should be present when reading holy scriptures.

In that time, many translations emerged: the one by Wycliffe was shunned by both State and Church. Tyndale published his own version, translated from Greek, and when Henry VIII broke the contact to Rome in 1535, Coverdale published his own version, which was not prosecuted. Until 1568, there were at least 5 major translations (Matthew's, Geneva, Bishops', Taverner's, Cranmer's) and all were welcome, as England was protestant in that time. All these Bibles were bestsellers, although there existed differences in them (not only linguistical, but also theological – imagine changing *Thou must not kill* into *Thou should not kill... and the debate is still hot on the topic whether celibate isn't just a typo of celebrate*:)

James VI of Scotland became King James I of England in 1603, becoming the most powerful protestant King of the Stuart line. He had the idea of Great Britain, of an uniform country and an united nation and therefore liked to be called Rex Pacificus. Of course that uniformity had to stretch into religion, too. In January 1604, James presided over a special conference to smooth out the differences between the Puritans (who followed the Geneva Bible, the most strict and rigid one) and the Anglicans. All the bishops from both churches came together to reconcile their religion differences and here, the idea of the official Bible was born. James agreed to sponsor 6 groups of translators who gathered in Oxford, Cambridge and Westminster and separately translated the Bible. They worked for 6 years and then for another year together to reconcile the differences in their translations. The Bible was published in **1611** (this is one of the few dates that you, the reader of this text, have to know by heart. *Come on, it is not that hard: one, six, one, one. Or maybe: sixteen eleven. Or: sixteenthundred eleven, or: the same year that Shakespeare published "The Tempest", or... :*) under the name "*King James' Bible (authorised version)*". The language in the Bible is really pure, no innovations (c.f. Shakespeare).

However, the religious friction still remained. But this is of no concern to us, because the important thing is that the official translation found its way into every home in Great Britain. Every other dialect had no chance of surviving henceforth – the standardization of the English language was fast approaching (and it is an irony that James was a Scotsman... and with this translation, which he sponsored, he screwed up any chance of Scottish being a language, not only a dialect). The language used in this translation would be understood throughout the whole Great Britain and is still nowadays the most popular version of the Bible (the wedding ceremony still uses the old forms of personal pronouns *thy, thou, thine...*). The translation is also very useful for comparison to other translations or the original text. Also grammatical changes can be observed, and it is rich source for many a stock expression (*prodigal son, the will is strong; the flesh is weak; the crumbs from the table*)

The Puritans managed to pass an act in 1606 that prohibited "profane" language – although some of that language was very acceptable in Shakespeare's time:

- *zounds* = *God's wounds* – it was prohibited to evoke God's name, and even more Devil's
- *by God!* -> *by Jove* (by Jupiter – Jupiter was not considered a "real" god)
- *devil* -> *deuce* (=dice, snake-eyes, something useless)
- the "*bl- words*" (*blessed, bloody, blimey* (=God blind me))

Although there was now the official Bible, the Puritans never gave up the Geneva bible (Geneva – from the Swiss calvinists, one of the most rigorous sects). They then left England (they were not forced to, they chose to leave it) for "God's land", *missed the right intersection at Alberquerque, and landed in North America. How unlucky.* That is why AmE is very closely connected to this 17th century Puritan English.

The evolution of Standard English (StdE)

Throughout 17th century, the various revolutions (social, industrial...) contributed a great deal of new words to English vocabulary, which had swollen enormously. Also, the rules of the language were not observed anymore. Then, "the Royal Society" (based on the French "Academy") was given the task to pay attention to this deterioration of language. They were aware of the fact that the influx of new words was uncontrolled, because there were no strict rules.

In 17th century, many people (scientists, poets -> Latin) still distrusted English language, mainly because it was ever-changing (especially pronunciation; but grammar, on the other hand, changed very little) and unreliable, whereas Latin was more or less set in stone.

The gap between spoken and written form became really big, so the English language desperately needed a dictionary. The first attempt was published in 1604 by Robert Cawdray – "*A table alphabetical of hard usual English words compiled for ladies or any other unskillful persons*" :)))

But the first "real" monolingual dictionary was published only in **1752** (this is the second year number which is a must-remember) by Dr Samuel Johnson. He made a serious effort here and had 6 assistants helping him. One of them was an expert in "*low cant*" (argo – a secret slang of beggars), 4 were Scottish, and only one of them was true English. The dictionary contains 40.000+ entries and he used 114.000 quotations to illustrate the use of these words. He also added his own witty remarks to the official translations (*hm, reminds me of... me:*). The use of quotations is very modern and this dictionary was one of the cornerstones of the Standard English (StdE) of today. He was the one to set the orthography, he set the forms and structures of the language (= what is right and what is a no-no).

In 1762, Joseph Priestly published "*The rudiments of English grammar*", the first grammar, whose purpose was both descriptive and prescriptive, as well as proscriptive (how it works, what is right, what is wrong). And thus, StE was born – from 18th century onwards, the rules have changed very little.

AMERICAN STANDARD ENGLISH (AmE)

There are two official standard Englishes in the world – BrE and AmE (although a third one, an International English, may be on the move, with its own grammar, pronunciation, specialities, etc...).

The main differences between BrE and AmE:

1. The majority (70%) of settlers came from East Anglia (Puritans) in 17th century – and East Anglian accents were not the base of BrE! Many traits that AmE has today are actually the traits of 17th century BrE -> archaic nature of AmE. For one, pronunciation is more similar to the 17th century pronunciation:
 - *fast, path, grass* ([ɑ:] in BrE, [ɛ] in AmE)
 - *car, four, dark* (no r in BrE (non-rhotic accent; r disappeared in 18th century), r pronounced in AmE (rhotic accent))
 - *leasure* ([i:] in BrE, [e] in AmE)
 - *either, neither* ([i:] in BrE, [ai] in AmE)
 - *hot, nothing* (ʌ in AmE)
 - *fertile* ([ə] instead of [ai] in AmE)
 - also the secondary accent is much more pronounced in AmE ('secre,tary) than in BrE ('secretary)
 - some changes in meaning: *sick = ill* (AmE), *about to throw up* (BrE); *mad = angry* (AmE), *crazy* (BrE)
 - *fall* (AmE – from the 17th word) = *autumn* (BrE – adopted from French)
 - *I guess* (AmE) = *I think* (BrE)
 - *get-got-got* (BrE); *get-got-gotten* (AmE)
 - BUT: *forget, forgot, forgotten* (both)
2. The Puritans came in contact with many other languages and concepts when they came to the new continent. The first language to contribute was Native American (although some words came from Spanish – especially from Middle and South America). Another name for NatAm is Algonquian languages, and the words from it the "wigwam words":
 - *hickory, pecan* (trees that did not grow in England), *moose, squaw, chipmunk, papoos* (indian baby), *tomahawk, igloo* (from Inuit), *kayak*...
 - some phrases were adopted: *to bury the hatchet, indian summer, indian file* (=gosji red), *war paint, to smoke a pipe of peace* (*ej, stari, pol smo se ga pa tko zadel, stari, ej, kok je dogajal... :*)
 - many placenames and names of states and rivers are of NatAm origin: *Oklahoma* (red people), *Arizona* (little springs), *Chicago* (field of onion), *Mississippi* (big river), *Minnesota* (cloudy river), *Canada* (village), *Ontario* (beautiful lake), *Kentucky* (meadowland), *Texas* (sp. *tejas* = friends), *Kansas, Dakota, Idaho, Arkansas, Iowa* (various Indian tribes), *Utah* (mountaintop dwellers)
3. Other nations that were there before: Spanish, French, Dutch, Portugese -> many words came from these languages:
 - Spanish: *stampede, echilada, marijuana* (:), *tornado, Florida* (sp. = the flowering state), *Nevada* (the snowy state), *Montana* (the hilly state), *Colorado* (colorful), *California* (from some Spanish romance)
 - French (strongest in the south, New Orleans): *Louisiana* (after Louis XIV), *brioche, jambalaya, gopher* (Fr. *gaufre* = honeycomb, because this animal digs holes in form of

honeycomb; today a gopher is a deklica za vse: "go for [goufr] this, go for that" , Cajuns (contracted form of Accadian; Accadia is where the French came from to America)

- Dutch: Areas of New Amsterdam (=New York): Brooklyn (*Brookelyn*), Harlem (*Haarlem*), Bronx; *waffle*, *cookie* :), *boss*, *knickers* (Knickerbocker was a common Dutch surname and a family by that name produced undergarments in NY – thus knickers, the same way as levis), *yankee* (Jan Kees = Janez Novak; a typical Dutchman)
- Germans: immigrants from Bavaria. They were the first non-colonizing immigrants. Everybody else came in search for a better life, but the Germans fled because of religious conflicts. They settled in Pennsylvania and created a language of their own, Pennsylvania Dutch (=Deutsch, american spelling/articulation). This language is very creole – it lost some grammatical features of the German language. It is usually associated with the Amish and Memmonite sects, who use the Pennsylvanian Dutch as one of their identifying characteristics.
- Italian: *mafia* (sicilian = boldness), *pizza*, *pasta*, *spaghetti*
- Yiddish: a creolized lang., developed by Jews in east. Europe. Words: *kosher* (Heb. proper), *schmuck*, *shiksala* (a non-Jewish girl, Heb. defective), *gogim* (non-Jewish)

The names of States: *Pennsylvania* (William Penn), *Oregon* (*couragan* – orkan), *Virginia* (after queen Victoria.. I think:) well, the one who never got laid, ehm, had no children – she died a virgin), *Delaware* (Baron de la Warr), etc. (glej zapiske nazaj. Vecina držav je že omenjena v prejšnjih urah)

The development of AmE

The Americans wanted their language to be different. In the history of America, 3 periods can be distinguished:

- First period (*what a surprising name*): between the foundation of Jamestown (1607) and the American Revolution (1787). A census was conducted in 1790, and the whole population in America counted 4 million people, of whom 95% lived east of the Appalachian mountains. 90% were of British descent.
- The second period covers the expansion of the original 13 colonies to S and W and lasted until the American Civil War (1860). Especially the Irish (because of the potato famine in 1845) and the Germans (religious conflicts, failure of the revolution in 1848) were flocking to America.
- After 1860, waves of immigrants from Scandinavia, Slavs, Italians, later Jews, Spanish, Polish, Asians, Chinese (-> the latter mostly in Western parts)

In the time of the American Revolution, the thought went that they wanted to speak differently than the British, meaning that the Americans would also be linguistically independent. In time, the language would no longer be called English, but American.

Noah Webster (1758 – 1843) was a lawyer, who couldn't earn enough and thus became - a teacher:) Very few schoolbooks existed then – and even they were all British. So he wrote a spelling book, a grammar book and a reader (=berilo, in case anyone gets any funny ideas;) under the name of "*A grammatical institute of the English language*", published in 1783-85. The success was immense, they were bestsellers (well, since they were the *only* books available...). In 1828, he published his "*American dictionary of the English language*", his greatest work. This had an enormous impact on the language in America.

Therein he suggested linguistic reforms: *traveler* (*traveller* BrE), *program* (*mm* BrE), *wagon* (*waggon* BrE in that time), *theater*, *center* (*theatre*, *centre* BrE. This also led to the adjustment of pronunciation – the *r* was pronounced), *ax* (*axe* BrE), *plow* (*plough* BrE; Fr. suffix), *honor*, *color* (*honour*, *colour* BrE; Fr. suffix).

He also suggested the substitution of [eɪ] with [ɛ]: *leisure*. He was against the loss of secondary accent, against the loss (swallowing) of vowels – everything should be read syllable-by-syllable (e.g. 'secretary BrE, 'secre,tary AmE)

Rewiew of the differences between AmE and BrE:

a) Pronunciation

- AmE retained a quality of vowels that BrE had in 17th cent: *grass* [æ AmE, α: BrE], *hot* [ɒ BrE, ʌ in AmE], *dog* [ɒ BrE, o AmE]
- AmE is a rhotic language (r is pronounced in all positions)
- assimilation: *letter* [t BrE, d AmE]
- no j after dentals: *tune* [tʉ:n AmE, t j u : n BrE]

b) Lexicon

- *sidewalk* AmE, *pavement* BrE
- *wide open* AmE, *open wide* BrE
- *autumn* (*fall* AmE), *lorry* (*truck*), *railway* (*railroad*), *quid* (*buck*), *staff* (*faculty*; =the staff working at a faculty), *professor* (*full professor*; redni profesor), *reader* (*associate*; docent), *lecturer* (*instructor*), *mark* (*grade*), *essay* (*paper*), *cut* (*shorten*), *fix* (*prepare*)
- *French*, ehm, *Freedom fries*), *cookie*, *knowhow*, *showdown*, *strike out*, *touchdown*, *play hard ball*, *throw a curve*, *hat-trick*, *first base*, *second base* (seen *American Pie*? You should;)
- *freshman*, *sophomore* (Gr. semi-intelligent:), *junior*, *senior* (BrE has only one word: *student*)

c) Syntax

- *be at home* (*be home* AmE)
- *visit sbd* (*visit with sbd* AmE)
- *meet* (*meet with* AmE)
- more use of the subjunctive: "just" + PaS ("just" + PrPerf BrE)
- *the police is...* (*the police are...* BrE)

American Dialects

There are three major varieties: New England, Southern dialect, General American. The reason for so few is that there has not been enough time to allow for very many dialects. Also the educational system dictated the language from the very beginning – unlike other countries, where educational system evolved with linguistics.

a) New England dialect is spoken around Boston, in NE parts of USA. New York is the borderline: it depends there on the social circumstances whether people speak New England or Standard American.

- /pɑhk the kah in hahvahd yahd/ = park the car in Harvard yard, /toitytoid strit/ thirtythird street
- [tænk ju:] thank you (with a hard t)
- *you all* (-> *youall*)
- it resembles most the BrE (non-rhotic, grass is pronounced [gra : s])

b) Southern

- characterized by drawling (excessive prolonging of vowels)
- there are much more africanisms, but not that much jiddish as in N
- *you all* (-> *y'all*)

c) Black English (Ebonic)

- a strong movement to be accepted as a dialect/teaching language
- used by Afroamericans

- this language differs in structure
- It is an English that was pidginized and creolized. It evolved from the slave language in the southern plantations. Most Afroamericans were brought to America from the African West coast. They were taken from different tribes and spoke different languages. A lot of them did not understand each other – so a pidgin language evolved, an auxiliary language that served for communication purposes in limited account (e.g. trade). Thus, there were no native speakers, The prerequisite for such a language to appear is to have a lot of different languages + one master language. The vocabulary is taken from the master language, but the grammar has its own rules. It doesn't matter from which language the new words come, the grammar stays the same. The structure is very transparent, usually only full lexemes are used, the number of constituents is minimalized ("*Me Tarzan. You Jane*":)
- The slaves were taken to the plantations, where the language then changed, since the environment changed. Many more types of information became obligatory. So it came that the Plural was expressed with morphemes, not full lexemes. But it wasn't the English morphemes: it was "*them girls*".
- The auxiliary language becomes the first language of communication, and to the second generation, it becomes the mother tongue -> it becomes a creole language. Pidgin has no bound morphemes, only full lexical morphemes. Creole has them, although their origin is still very transparent.
- Afroamericans use it to express their social something (I'm black and I'm proud): "*he dun that*" (he has already done that), "*he come every day*", "*John book*" (typical loss of inflections), "*she nice, you crazy*" (=absence of copulas.. you know, Tarzan style:), "*the coffe be cold*" (the coffe is usually cold)

BRITISH ENGLISH HISTORY

The English language has ever been a mixture of dialects. They are divided mainly on Midland/Northern and Southern English.

Differences:

- bath, grass (the [a:] evolved in South, but before it was [ɛ]. So the pronunciation is still [ɛ] in Midland/North)
- cup (pronounced with a [ʊ] in Midland/North)
- Midland/North are rhotic languages

Cockney

- named after the word cockney (*cocken ey* -> a cock's egg (=an egg without a yoke, brez rumenjaka; an inferior, worthless thing; in Chaucer's time, this term was applied to spoiled young boys and later to any citified youth)
- by the end of the 17th century, it was narrowed to using in the East End of London
- in 18th century, it was treated as a low, coarse, ugly dialect. The population of London changed in that time. The industrial revolution brought flocks of workers to the city and they settled in East End, where factories were built. So the language became socially less acceptable.
- in 1780, the pronunciation in London was divided into polite (RP) and cockney pronunciation

Characteristics:

- w/v used interchangeably: *wery, vidower, "bevere of vidders"*
- [f] used instead of [θ], [v] instead of [ð] - *thank you* [fænk ju:], *nothing, mother*
- glottal stop (*butter* /ba²r/)
- silent [h]: "oars" sounds the same as "whores":)
- [ŋg]: *nothing* /nuffink/
- dropping of final consonants
- double negation (*you ain't seen nothing yet*)
- wrong use of tenses (*I done it yesterday*)
- rhyming slang (originally thieves' jargon. In time, some expressions became a part of Cockney – mostly the witty and iconic ones. The key to understanding is to forget all semantic similarities – only the rhyme matters:
 - o *lump of lead = head, babbling brook = crook, twist&twirl = girl;*, *Adam and Eve = believe* ("Would you Adam and Eve it?"), *trouble&strife = wife (it figures;*)
 - o frequently, a part of the rhyme is suppressed (*butcher's hook = look -> butcher's = look*)
- many characteristics of Cockney can be found in Australian English, because the vast majority of the people deported to Australia were brought from this area

Scottish

- in Lowlands, cities (burghs) were established, and English was spoken there
- in Highlands, Scottish Gaelic was still spoken
- some people came from the Highlands and brought various influences to the English language spoken in the cities
- Scotland was politically independent and offered ample opportunity to have its own language. From the 13th to 15th century -> The Old Scottish Tongue (Scots; differed as much from English as Spanish differs from Italian)

Scots is also the name of a Celtic tribe that lived in Ireland, but settled in Scotland in 5th century. They lived in traditional manner (bagpipes, clans, chieftans, *kilts with nothing underneath and stuff like that*:). After the Norman invasion, many people arrived there and were given extensive lands. They founded burghs in the Lowlands and thus English language came to Scotland. This language soon differed from the English spoken in London and was called Scots (Old Scottish Tongue, 1st period of Scots language – spoken up to the 15th century; 14th, 15th century = golden age of Scots).

Dunbar (15th cent.), a poet, wrote in this language. By the 16th century, Scottish writers started to imitate Elisabethan English writers because of the cultural and economical bliss of the South. 16th century is the beginning of the decline of Scots. The fall of Scots became the rise of standard English.

In 1603, James IV of Scotland became James I, king of England. He was responsible for the authorised translation of the Bible. He moved court to London and the nobility followed suit. He gave the decisive blow to Scots – the prescribed version of the holy Bible.

The 2nd generation of Scots; evolved from Old Scottish

1773 Jonson observed the decline of Scots. It was treated as a rustic, provincial language, unpleasant to the ear. All learned and noble people were by that time abandoning it for English. It survived as the speech among the common people and some educated people, who believed in the Scots tongue. It was the time of Romanticism and people were fascinated by folklore, rural life etc. This Scots was revived by writers such as Burns, Jamieson (*Etymological dictionary of Scots language*).

Scots (not Gaelic) became the national pride of the Scottish people, they want to make it official, a standard language. Today, a magazine *Lallans* is published – promoting literary Scots.

Lorimer published a Bible in Scots in 1983, where all speak Scots but the Devil, who speaks standard English:)

The people in the Highlands remained Gaelic-speaking, they remained in their towns and rural areas. The lowlanders called them "Irish" (Lowlanders refer to themselves as "Scots"), James I even referred to them as "utterly barbaric". Up to the 18th century, the life in the Highlands was calm. But in 1746, the chieftains supported the wrong person (read: the loser) in the uprising against the Hannoverians: Charles Edward Stuart (Bonnie Prince Charlie).

Bonnie rebelled against the new dynasty and the Highlanders supported him. They lost. The defeat had terrible consequences – the change of manners was very quick; only their language and poverty remained. Schools were erected, only English was taught there. The people were forbidden to carry arms, to be dressed traditionally or to play bagpipes. Today it is still spoken in Hebrides and some remote Highland areas. The Highlanders were forced to flee and many settled in Nova Scotia, where some still speak a variant of Gaelic).

The national identity of Scotland is based on **Scots** and **not** on **Scottish Gaelic**.

Ever since the reformation, Scots has been being (*choke on this, mr. Ilc!* :) replaced by English. Today, educated Scottish people write and speak an English with a very heavy Scottish accent

(Scottish English). In rural areas, the dialects are very different. Especially in the rural areas of Lowlands, the dialects resemble Scots more than English.

Main characteristics of Scottish accent

- all vowels are short (*bird=beard "I've grewn meself a luvly red [bird/beard].)*
- a rhotic language (r is a flap, much stronger than in AmE)
- no triphthongs, no diphthongs /eɪ/, /oʊ/
- *bad & bath; far & father* have the same quality [a]
- distinctive difference between *witch & which*
- palatal h: *loch* /lɔh/, not /lɔx/

Syntax

- progressive tense is less restricted
- yet + PaS; yet + positive meaning (*Did you buy it yet? He's here yet. :*)
- *Ai* = yes

The main difference between Scots and standard Scottish English is that the great vowel shift never happened in Scots.

Irish English

In the 5th century, there appears a Latin poem under the name *Hibernia (Winterland)*. The history of Hibernia prior to 4th century is unknown (*preserved only in Irish myths and legends -> the Gaels that arrived there were called Milesian, sons of a fictional Spanish king Mil and they conquered Ireland. Upon their arrival, Ireland was populated by Fomorians (monstrous giants that were supposed to have built Stonehenge and the megaliths) and Tuathans, who defeated the Fomorians and forced them to flee and live in seas and lakes. The Tuathans supposedly still live as the spirits of underground, Fomorians in the deep seas. End of myth:)*

In the 5th century, the Irish were Christianized by St. Patrick and beer-ianized by St. Guinness. At that time, Ireland was carefully organized into clans and the society was stratified – kings and poets, craftsmen, musicians and skilled workers were all held in high regard. There were many small kingdoms (*Tuaths*) with one Overking (*ardri*), who ruled them all (*aaaaah, Sauron!!!*) and lived in Tara (a hill in NE Ireland, now a neolithic grave from 3000 BC). After the Christianisation, many monasteries were built and many missionaries were sent wide Europe, even to our lands to Christianise Crtomir and Bogomila:)

In the 8th century, the Vikings came to Ireland as well, raiding the monasteries. They founded Dublin in 840, which quickly evolved into a trading centre. The Vikings played an important role in the economical and political life of Ireland. The Irish disliked them and in 10th century, the Vikings were defeated near Dublin by the Irish king Brian Boru. The Gaelic name for Dublin is Baile Atha Cliath.

The second invasion (Anglo-Norman conquest) was made in 1155 by Henry II, who obtained a special bull (*go look it up in the dictionary, it has more than one meaning;*) from Pope Adrian, authorising him to take possession of Ireland. Many Normans arrived and established themselves there. They warred one clan against another and collected the spoils, thus gaining in power. The Normans soon became Gaelicised, started speaking Gaelic and... became Irish by the 14th century:.) The Parliament had to pass "*The Statutes of Kilkenny*" in mid-14th century, decreeing heavy penalties for those who were allying themselves with the Irish, for those who were becoming "too Irish" (assimilation).

In the war of the Roses, the Irish supported, of course, the losers (House of York), which certainly did little to improve the relationship between Ireland and England. In the time of Henry VIII, the Irish language was praised by the Church (England = protestant, Ireland = catholic) and by the 17th century, English practically died out in Ireland because the Church championed Gaelic.

During the reign of James I, English law was proclaimed the only law in GB and Ireland. The rule before was very strict and the Irish noblemen were quite independent and powerful. James I was thus one of the first absolute monarch-wannabees. The Anglification of Ireland hath begun.

But not everybody went with this quietly. Earl of Tyrone and Earl of Tyrconnel and some 200 chieftains of clans fled to Rome ("The flight of the Earls") in 1607 in order to gain some support from the Pope. But with these noblemen gone, their land in West Ulster was confiscated and given to plantators (kolonisti) from Scotland -> the Ulster plantation (colonization of Ulster). This is the root of all the hostilities between England and Ireland.

This was against the Irish law. The land did not belong to the chieftains but to the clans – but the clansmen were punished for misbehaviour of their leaders. The settlers from Scottish highlands were protestant and were descendents of a different, AngloSaxon, Norman people. This part of Ireland soon became the most economically powerful part and the hostilities escalated.

In 1800, the *Act of Union* made the entire Ireland a part of the UK. This was followed by fierce, but unsuccessful rebellions. Even though the whole Irish legislative was abolished, they gained seats in the Parliament and the House of Lords. But on the other hand, the Anglican church was proclaimed the only church and Catholics were severely prosecuted and couldn't get any political or important position. In 100 years, Irish Gaelic almost died out.

In 1900, English was the only language for 25% of the Irish. In 1921, Ireland became independent and Irish Gaelic was declared the official language, it was taught in schools and supported by the government. Today, almost all Irish people can speak Gaelic, although English remains the primary language of communication. Gaelic is spoken mainly in W and SW Ireland.

There are three varieties of English spoken in Ireland:

- a) Anglo-Irish: mid&working-class English, spoken in the most of Ireland; derived from the plantater's 17th century Midland English (the very first plantators), which still has many characteristics of the 17th century Midland English.
- b) Hiberno-English is spoken mostly by working & lower classes, especially in those areas, where the ancestral language was Gaelic.
- c) Ulster Scots is a variety of lowlands Scots, spoken mainly in Ulster. It resembles much more Scottish than Irish English; it is more English than Gaelic

All three varieties influence one another, so they are quite hard to tell apart. They are all rhotic languages, similar to AmE (r = retroflex approximant)

Welsh English

Wales was first settled by Brittonic Celts (not Gaelic!), but the Germanic invaders pushed them to the Celtic fringe. The Britons, who fled to the western part of England in 5th century met the natives and they mixed (*I sure do wonder how they did it...*). They lived quite independently there and formed 4 kingdoms in Wales. Any attempt to conquer Wales on the part of English/AS kings was repelled.

The first king to make them acknowledge him was William the Conqueror of the Normans. But, by the year 1094, the Anglo-Norman army had been chased out of Wales. The kings of England were forced to establish a number of lordships along the border of Wales (lords of the Marches – vojna krajina), who were given extensive rights and had to defend England against the "field trips" of Welsh boyscouts:) Throughout the 12th and 13th century, the Welsh princes interfered with the dynastic disputes on the court. They did not leave England alone.

In 1284, Edward I defeated them and gave his oldest surviving son the title "*the first prince of Wales*". Thus he controlled the Welsh nobility. From that time on, the heir to the English throne bears the title "*Prince of Wales*". Anyway, the Welsh never really gave up their struggle for independence. The most known is the rebellion led by Owen Glendower (Owain Gly Dwr) in the 15th century, which has become the stuff of legends and the reason for many a tombstone on Welsh graveyards.

Although subject to English rule, the Anglicization did not start until the Tudors. With the *Act of Union* of 1534, the Welsh language was banned from public life and English was established as the primary language. The fight for national emancipation was strongly resumed in the 19th century. A special movement, *Cymru Fydd* (*Young Wales*) was established and Michael D. Jones even established a colony in Patagonia. This was the time of national awakening throughout Europe.

Wales = Cymraeg (the country of Wales); Wales – Wealh, Wealas (pl.) = foreigner; Cymric = fellow countryman (=Welsh)

Modern nationalism: in 1889, the Welsh people succeeded and the Welsh language was accepted to the school curriculum. At the end of the 19th century, 55% still spoke Welsh, but the number was rapidly decreasing. In 1931, only 37% still spoke it as their mother tongue and today the number is about 20% (500.000+ people). This decrease was one of the most important concerns of Plaid Cymru (nationalist political party, formed in 1925, very popular in that time, but not today). Since then, a lot has been done to save the Welsh language – it was introduced as a special lesson in school and has an own TV channel called S4C since 1982. Later, it was made legal that Welsh is also the legal language in courts etc.

In the referendum in 1997, 55% voted yes for the s.c. "*Devolution act*" → more autonomy for Wales, establishment of a Welsh parliament (Welsh assembly) in Cardiff, which has no law-giving authority and cannot impose taxes. But it can handle grants (funds granted by London) concerning health, education and traffic.

English language spoken in Wales is in a similar position than in Scottish Highlands. The language did not evolve from a rural language, but was acquired through the educational system. The Welsh English language sounds no less standard than any other varieties.

The history of English phonology (aka. The boring part)

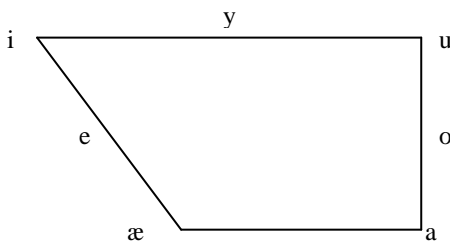
Origin of OE phonemes

Germanic system:

- the source is the Roman alphabet, and not the runic Futhorc (too few sources), although some letters ("thorn letter" - þ) were still used well into ME
- 4 groups of vowels; 2 distinctive features: length (long, short) and opening (open, close)

	Germanic	Old English
short vowels	*a, *e, *i, *u	a, æ, e, i, o, u, y
long vowels	*ē ¹ , *ē ² , *ī, *ō, *ū	ā, ǣ, ē, ī, ō, ū, ȳ
short diphthongs	*ai, *au, *eu	ea, eo, ie
long diphthongs		ēa, ēo, īe

OE short monophthongs



Germanic	OE
*i	i
*u	u
*e	e

But where did the other sounds come from?

Germ. u* > OE o under the influence of back or a-mutation

Germ. *u > OE o / _ \$ a (a is a back, open vowel)

~ IE *g^hltom > Germ. *gulpan > WGerm *golð- > OE gold > ME gōld > NE gold [ˈgəʊld]

- if *u was followed by *a in the next syllable, the sound was gradually lowered to o
- the process is called the "back mutation" (also called "a-mutation", umlaut)
- it happened because of the anticipation of articulatory organs when they anticipate an a and it is easier to pronounce oa than ua

Germ. *a > OE æ

~ Germ. *glad- > OE glæd > ME glad > NE glad [ˈglæd]

- if in the next syllable there was a back vowel, the transition to æ did not happen

Germ. *a > OE a

Germ. *a > OE a / _ \$ {a, o, u} (a, o and u are back vowels)

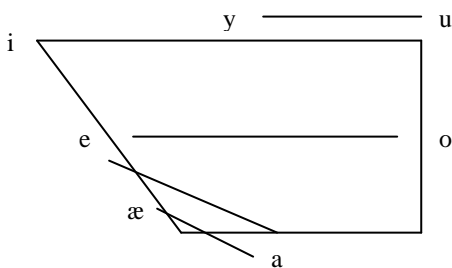
- OE nom.sg. *dæg* [deɪ], nom.pl. *dagas* [dagas], dat.pl. *dagum*
- How do we know that æ and a are actually phonemes and not allophones of the same sound? By minimal pairs: OE *faran* (noun *fær*; imperative *far*)

Germ. *a > OE [ɔ], written as <a> or <o>

- Germ. *a > OE [ɔ] / _ [+nasal]
- ~ Germ. *kamb- > OE *camb*, *comb* > ME *cōmb* > NE *comb* ['kɒm]

Germ. u* > OE y as a result of palatal or i-mutation

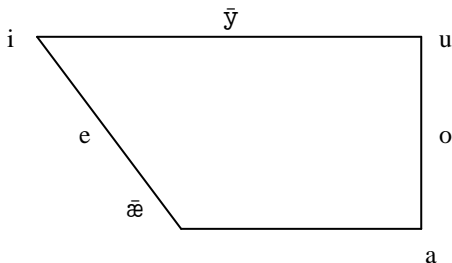
- the palatal mutation, also known as i-mutation or i-umlaut, is the modification (palatalization or fronting) of an accented vowel through the influence of an i or an j which originally occurred in the following syllable. This happened in pre-OE before any literary records were made. It happened in all west- and northGerm. languages and influenced all vowels except *e (and *i, obviously), because *e is closest to *i and the position of the tongue did not have to change so drastically. Here are the mutation directions:



I-mutation explains the so called mutation plurals in NE (u > i (ME y), o > e, a > e):

- ~ Germ. *mus (sg.) > OE sg. *mus*
- *mus-iz- (pl.) > OE pl. *mȳs*
- ~ foot -> feet
- ~ man -> men
- ~ IDE *pln- > Germ. *full-i- > OE *full*, *fyll-*

Long OE vowels (monophthongs)



In OE period, in 9th century, accented short OE vowels became long if followed by a combination of a sonorant (liquid or nasal) and a homorganic (articulated at approx. the same place; e.g. n+d, l+d, m+b) voiced consonant. This consonantal cluster had to be in word-final position or be followed by an vowel. This is a dependent change, that happened in the OE period and not in the Germ. > OE period.

The formula: [+vowel,-long] > [+long] / _ { [+liquid], [+nasal] } [+consonant, +homorganic, +voiced] {#, vowel}

This explains certain irregularities in NE (e.g. child - children)

- OE n.sg. cild [tʃɪld]

n.pl. cildru (-ru is a minor declination, not common; the i stays short)

- OE cild > cild [tʃi:ld]

> ME child

> NE child [ˈtʃaɪld]

cildru > cildru [tʃɪldrʊ]

> ME childre, childer

> NE children [tʃɪldrən]

the i in cildru stays short, because there is a consonant (and not a vowel) in the syllable following the consonantal cluster <ld>

[tʃɪldrə] [tʃɪldr̩]

ch is there because of the French influence on spelling

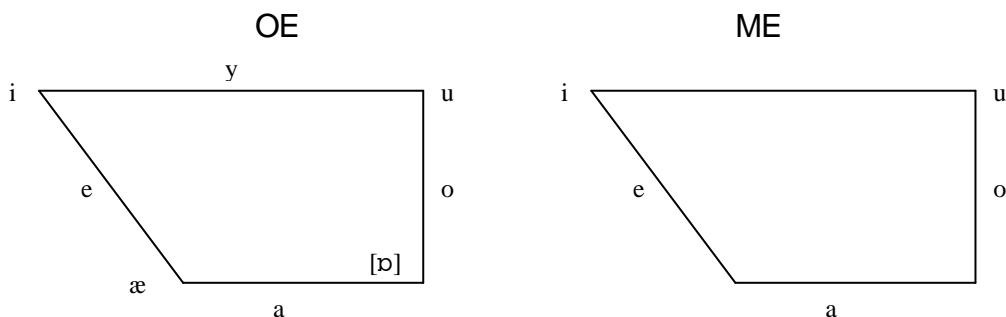
i > aɪ is a regular change in NE because of the great vowel shift

Middle English

In ME, there were a lot of pl. inflections. However, a great many of nations mixed on the English ground and the rare inflections were dropped. So, to denote plurality, another ending was added, effectively producing double plurals: childer+en (c.f. sg. talib? pl. talibi (or pl. taliban) => pl. talib+an+i)

Long vowels and diphthongs did not change in OE. But the changes that happened in ME may well have started already in OE. The OE sounds changed in the ME (after 11th century). It wasn't just the French influence, but also the Viking invasions etc. But it is less confusing if we just stick to the ME change:)

OE short vowels at the time of the Norman conquest:



OE æ > ME a

OE [ɔ] (written as <a,o>) > ME a (in most dialects)

OE [ɔ] (written as <a,o>) > ME o (West Midland dialect; still retained in short words in NE: on, from)

[ɔ] change in NE: thank (OE þankian, þonkian > ME thanken > NE thank [θæŋk])
strong (OE strang, strong > NE strong)

OE y > ME i (in most cases, happened probably already in late OE; spelling <y>)

OE y > ME e (Southeastern/Kentish dialects; spelling <e>)

OE y > ME y > ME i (14th cent., West Midland, some Southern dialects; spelling <u>; pronounced [y] in French)

- bury [berɪ]: OE byrgan > ME pronunciation taken from Kentish, spelling from West Midland, If the pronunciation was West Midland, too, it'd be ['burɪ]

- OE synne > ME syn(ne) [sɪn]

OE(Kent.) > ME zen(ne)

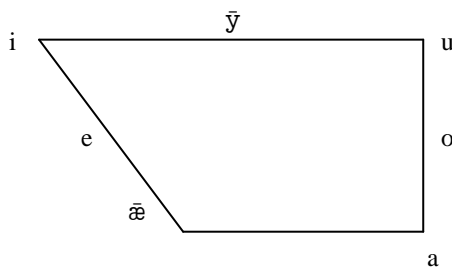
OE(WestMid.) > ME sun(ne) [sʏn] > NE sin (pronunciation is taken from the first case)

- fox (the o is the result of a-mutation)

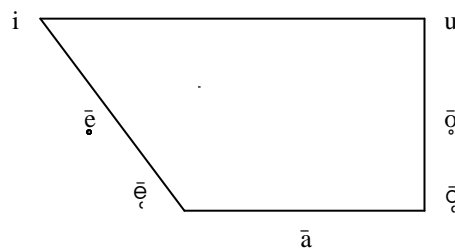
- vixen (OE female fox, NE (fig.) female; in Kentish, initial fricatives become voiced: f > v. This is the ultimate result of the i-mutation)

- the original word was fux (note the vowel changes: fox > fyx > fix-en (en is the plural marker))

OE Long vowels at the time of the Norman conquest



OE



ME

Development of the vocalic system of long vowels:

OE ME

i i

ē ē̄ <ee>

æ ē̄ <ea>

u ū <ou>

o ō <oo>

a ō̄ <oa>

a a / C_ \$CV₁C₀

OE stān > ME stōn > NE [stəʊn] stone

OE a was lengthened to ME a before voiceless homorganic consonantal clusters before vowels or in word-final position

ȳ i

OE N.pl. mȳs > ME mis > NE [maɪs] mice

ME short diphthongs: all short OE diphthongs changed to ME monophthongs

Prehistoric OE ME

*æ	ea	a	OE eall > ME all > NE ['ɔ:l] all OE eald (WS), ald (Anglican) > āld > ME ȝld > NE ['əʊld] old
*e	eo	e	OE heorte > ME herte > NE ['hɑ:t] heart
	ie	e	ie evolved from ea and eo because of the palatal mutation
	> i		OE ieldra (WS), eldra (Anglican) – comparative form > ME eldr(e > NE ['eɪldə] elder

ME long diphthongs: all long OE diphthongs changed to ME monophthongs

OE	ME	
ēa	ē	OE strēam > ME strēm > NE ['stri:m] stream
ēo	ē	OE dēop > ME dēp > NE ['di:p] deep
ie > i	ē	OE ciese > ME chēse > NE ['tʃi:z] cheese

Sources of ME diphthongs

No OE diphthongs survived. So ME diphthongs had to be "invented" anew. In ME many new diphthongs emerged from the combination of a vowel and one of the two glides (w, j).

1. OE vowel + w = ME u-diphthong (eu, iu, ou, au)

OE snāw > ME snōw > NE ['snəʊ] snow
 OE fēawe > ME fēw(e > few > NE ['fju:] few
 OE nēowe > ME nēw(e > neʊ > NE ['nju:] new

2. OE /g/ (OE V + [j, ɣ] = ME i-/u-diphthong)

<3> → [g]
 → [ɣ] } ME w
 → [j]

[j] and [ɣ] were the voiced variants of the <g> letter, whilst [g] was voiceless.

OE dæg [j], dagas [w] (pl.) > ME dawes } u-diphthongs
 OE folgian > ME folw(e(n > NE ['fɒləʊ] follow }
 OE būgan > ME būwen > būen > NE ['baʊ] bow }

The only j in OE was the allophone of /g/ } i-diphthongs
 OE dæg [j] > ME dai > NE ['deɪ] day }
 OE tigele [j] > ME tile > NE ['taɪl] tile }

3. OE /h/ has 3 phonemic - allophonic variations

[h] – initial position – glottal fricative

[x] – middle position – velar voiceless fricative

[ç] – middle position – palatal voiceless fricative

When an OE vowel was followed by a voiceless fricative, a glide evolved between the vowel and the voiceless fricative in ME:

- **OE V + [x] > ME [w]:**

~ OE dāh [x] > ME dōgh [w] > NE ['dəʊ] dough

- **OE V + [ç] > ME [j]**

~ OE eahta [ç] > ME eighte [j] > NE ['eɪt] eight

glides = transition from one sound to another

The only diphthongs in ME are closed diphthongs.

Dependent sound changes of accented vowels in ME

Change of vowel length

Vowels in accented syllables were weakened. In ME the weakened sounds even disappeared in writing. In early ME vowels became short/long if it had something to do with the length of the syllable – prosody.

1. SHORTENING OF VOWELS

a.) long vowels became short if they were followed by two consonants or by a long consonant:

[+vowel + long] → [-long] / _ {C₂, C:}

(which explains why some verbs are irregular)

Infinitive: OE cēpan [k] > ME kēpen [-en infinitival suffix] > NE ['ki:p] keep

Preterite form : OE cēp-te (-te forms the past) > ME kept-e (e shortened since followed by 2 consonants) > NE ['kept] kept

In OE, only the suffix changed, the root remained long. In ME, the accented (root) vowel is shortened, because it is followed by two consonants, and the same happens in NE (c.f. dream, dreamt and the following examples below).

OE blēdan, blēdde > ME blēd(e(en, bledd(e > NE [bli:d, bled]

OE mētan, mētte > ME mēten, mette > NE [mi:t, met]

OE fife > ME five -> length is preserved, because it is not followed by a long cons. or two cons.
OE fifta > ME fifth -> followed by two cons., so the vowel is shortened

OE fūl > ME foul

OE fylþ > ME filth

BUT when a vowel was followed by consonants ld, sd or nd, it was not shortened (e.g. child – children, wise – wisdom, wind (verb) [waɪnd] – wind (noun) [wɪnd]).

b.) long vowels were shortened in long words – in a syllable if it was followed by at least 2 syllables:

[+vowel + long] > [-long] / _C₁V₁|C₁V₁|C₀

OE sūþ, sūþerne > ME sūth, suthern(e (accented u was shortened) > NE south, southern

c.) long vowels were shortened in unaccented position (not just in unaccented syllables)

a vs. one:

in OE, there were no articles, but sometimes "one" was used instead of the indefinite article.

OE 'ān (in an accented position) > ME 'ōn (open) > NE (a glide evolved – prothetic w; just for the sake of easier pronunciation) wōn > wūn > wun > [wʌn] one

OE °an (in an unaccented position) > ME °an > NE [°ə, ən] (word-final n was dropped)

Loss of word-final n through metanalysis (wrong analysis)

METALYSIS: ME a|n ēke nāme > NE an ik name > a nik name > a nick name

nedre > a nedre > an adder

nepron > a nepron > an apron

Recap: ME Long vowels were shortened when:

- in a long syllable, followed by 2 consonants

- in long words

- in unaccented position

2. LENGTHENING OF SHORT ACCENTED VOWELS

Short vowels were lengthened in open penultimate syllables (syllables ending in a vowel, the one before the last)

[+vowel +short] > [+long] / _\$C₁VC₀#

OE na|ma > ME nāme (in an open penultimate syllable, therefore lengthened) > NE name

OE sceadu (N.sg.) > ME shād(e > NE shade ['ʃeɪd]

(French orthography, open penultimate syllable)

OE sceaduwe (oblique case = non-nominative case)

> ME shadw(e > NE shadow [ʃædəʊ]

(closed syllable, followed by 2 syllables)

3. DEVELOPMENT OF ME e BEFORE r

In 14th century, a dependent sound change occurred (before, all changes were independent). It changed the quality of ME short accented e.

ME e > α / _r {#, C} (followed by r or is word/syllable-final)

ME e > α / _r \$ (followed by r in the same syllable)

r affects surrounding sounds quite frequently. It is a sound which affects the preceding sounds or sounds followed by a consonant.

ME persoún in the 14th century, of French origin, originally meant “face mask”

ME persoún > 'person > parson > NE ['pɑ : sən] župnik

Pronounced syllables in unaccented syllables

~ syntax ['sɪntæks], dialogue ['daɪəlog], lady ['leɪdɪ]

In ME, all unaccented vowels were levelled/weakened to ə (but usually written with e, because in French orthography, ə is usually represented with the letter e).

Long vowels: If the vowel in unaccented syllable was initially long, then this weakening went only to shortening, not all the way to the total weakening to ə.

Borrowed words: Sometimes, words of foreign origin with a different stress placement preserved it as a secondary accent.

In all other cases, the vowels weakened to ə, in dental environment as ɪ (houses ['hauzɪz])

In ME, /ə/ was regularly dropped; at first in final, then in medial positions, especially in longer words. OE heofonas > ME hevenes > NE heavens

Consonants in ME

OE consonantal system

Voiceless plosives |p|, |t|, |k|

- |k| was sometimes written as <c>. It also had 2 different allophones:

- [k] : OE cann > NE can [kæn]
- [tʃ] : OE cinn > NE chin [tʃɪn]

Voiced plosives |b|, |d|, |g| (voice is a distinctive feature of OE plosives)

- |g| had three allophones:

- [g] : word initial, but only if a back vowel followed (**g**an, fro**g**ga, **g**lad)
- [ɣ] : velar voiced fricative, middle positions (fo**l**gian, mar**g**en, da**g**as)
- [j] : glide, initial positions, before or after open vowels (dæ**g**, byri**g**an)

Fricatives |s|, |f|, |þ| (voice is not a distinctive feature; allophones were susceptible to the environment they appeared in, e.g. in voiced environment, the fricatives were voiced)

- |s| : [s], [z]

- |f| : [f], [v] (N.sg. wulf (ME wulf, NE wolf), N.pl. wulfas (ME wulves, NE wolves))

- |þ| : [ð], [θ]

- |h| is also a fricative, but sometimes it is just a manner of pronouncing a vowel.

- [h] : initial positions, glottal fricative, not a "real" h (OE hus, he, NE [haus])
- [x] : after back vowels and consonants (OE dah, SLO kuhati)
- [ç] : after front vowels (OE cniht, SLO kihniti)

Sonorants: nasals |n|, |m|, liquids |r|, |l|

- |n| had two allophones: [n], [ŋ]

Changes in the orthographic system

After the Norman conquest, there is a 200-year gap, and only in mid-14th century there begin to appear texts in ME English.

<p> and <t> stay the same

<c> is used for the phoneme [k]. In French it sounded like [k] or [s]. There was no [tʃ], so they used the diacritic <ch> instead (OE cinn > ME chin(n)). The pronunciation did not change, just the orthography. The <k> is introduced as a letter only when pronounced before a short vowel (OE cyng > ME king)

OE <sc> : [sk] (scol), [skʰ] > [ʃ] (scip > **schip** > **ship** <- this was an orthographical choice)

OE <ȝ>:

- [g] : ME <g>. The letter g is used, but only for [g]. In French, this letter represents [ʒ] in pronunciation. Only after back vowels or consonants.
- [ɣ] : it changed at an early age (late OE) into [w] after back vowels, r and l. We know that because in ME, the letter <w> was used.
- [j] : in French spelled with <y, i>

OE <h> [h]:

- [h] : <h> in initial position, if it starts with a [h] sound. In ME, the initial <h> slowly ceased to be (e.g. hour [aʊə]), especially in unaccented positions ([ˈhɪm] vs. [˚ɪm])
- [x] and [ç] merge into <ȝ>. The French orthographic system did not know a [x] or [ç]. It was soon replaced by the diacritic <gh>

OE <þ> (thorn letter): for some time, this letter was used, but soon replaced by <ð>. Both of them were used for [ð, θ] sounds. And even later in ME, the <th> digraph was used instead of both.

Consonantal changes

OE þ [θ] > ME [ð], but only in initial position of pronominal (pronouns, adverbs) words

OE þankian	> ME thanken [θ] – not pronominal, [θ] remains
OE þorn (<i>pOrn!</i>)	> ME thorn [θ] – not pronominal, [θ] remains
OE þu	> ME thou [ð] – pronominals; [θ > ð]
OE þær	> ME there [ð] – pronominals; [θ > ð]
OE þis	> ME this [ð] – pronominals; [θ > ð]

The situation has not been successfully explained.

Shortening of long consonants

In OE, the length was a distinctive feature; they were in phonemic contrast. The long consonants were represented by double consonant letter. They first became short in final and then in medial position. But this didn't happen until the vowel shortening had happened!

word-final: OE ful [fu:l] > ME ful [fuɫ] > NE [fʊɫ]

medial: Late Latin cappa [p:] > OE cæppe [p:] > ME capp(e [p] > NE cap ['kæp]

- vowel lengthening did not happen, because a long consonant followed. So this proves the vowel change happened before the consonantal change.

Late Latin cappa [p:] > (internal Latin development) Roman language capa [kapa] > (introduction in another period) ME cape > NE cape ['keɪp]

- here, there was no vowel shortening ; affected by lengthening of vowels in open syllables

ME coper <copper> - represents the vowel is short [ɒ]; there was never a [p:], the doubling of consonants in ME is just a graphic device. The same happened also with hous+e, lif+e to indicate a long vowel.

Loss of word-final [n] after unaccented vowels

If it followed an unaccented vowel in final position, it disappeared by the mid-OE period.

ME n > ∅ / °V_#

~ OE bindan > ME bind(e(n > NE bind [baɪnd]

But this is not always the case. There are exceptions (grammatical endings still have it, while some accented syllables lost it).

Voicing of fricatives in word-final positions after unaccented vowels and in medial positions + vowel

In the second half of the 14th century, voiceless fricatives became voiced after unaccented vowels, if in word final position or followed by a vowel.

- [+fricative, -voiced] -> [+voiced]/[+vowel, -accented]_ {#, V}

~ churches [ɪz], with [ð], spinach [dʒ instead of t ʃ], of [əv]

Plural endings

OE: -as (plural ending for a-declination; more than 50% of all words) > ME -es [əs, second half of 14th century əz] > NE -es ([z], [s] after voiceless consonants, [ɪz] after fricatives)

OE of (preposition and adverb) [f]

- preposition: °of > ME °of [əv] > NE [°əv] of (voicing occurred, unaccented position)

- adverb: 'of > ME 'of > NE ['oɪ] off (voicing didn't occur, ff is a graphical change only)

OE wip (~= against; c.f. **with**stand)

- preposition: > ME with [ð]

Exceptions: Greewich [dʒ], but Ipswich [t ʃ]

Modern English period (NE)

- English spoken from ~1500 onwards (Renaissance, the Tudors, English language started being exported...)
- English spoken by many foreigners, especially in America
- The words are written more or less the same as at the end of the 15th century, when the spelling rules became fixed. Only (only!?! the pronunciation changed with time.

DEVELOPMENT OF ME > NE VOWELS

1. ME short vowels (a, e, i, o, u) vs NE short vowels (a, e, i, o, u, æ, ə)

- only a and u changed

ME a (glad) > NE æ [gɫæd] (end of 16th century)

~ OE glæd > ME glad > NE glad [gɫæd]

ME a > NE [ɔ] / w _ [-velar]

~ OE wæs > ME was > NE was [ˈwɔz]

- exceptions: wagon, wax, quack, twang [æ] (if [w] followed by a velar consonant (k, g, n))

ME u > NE [ʌ] (16th, 17th century)

- except in N and Midland dialects, where regional variants prevailed (put = putt)

~ OE cuppe > ME cup > NE cup [ˈkʌp]

~ OE lufu > ME luv(e) > NE [lʌv] love

- except if preceded by a bilabial and followed by a l or ʃ (pull, push, bush, full – [ʊ])

ME <u> > NE <ʊ>/[+labial]_ {l, ʃ}

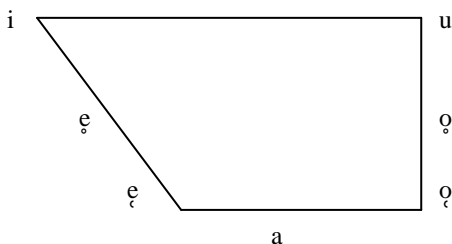
- exceptions: pulse, bulb

2. Long accented vowels

The great vowel shift

- refers to a complex of sound laws operating from 14th to 18th century. The changes were gradual and very systematic.

ME long monophthongs:



a) diphthongization of ME i and u (ME i > NE [aɪ], ME u > NE [aʊ])

- around 1500, two changes happened (1st stage of diphthongs):
 - i > diacritic <ij> (OE tima > ME tim(e > tijm)
 - u > diacritic <uw> (OE hus > ME house)
- around 1600, the first part of the ij/uw lowered slightly (ij>ei, uw>ou)
- after 1700, it lowered even more:
 - ~ OE tima > ME tim(e > NE (1500) ij > (1600) ei > (1700) [t aɪm] time
 - ~ OE hūs > ME house > NE (1500) uw > (1600) ou > (1700) [h aʊs] taim

b) After the ij/uw change, **ē** changed to [i:] and remained there until today. Also, **ō** was raised to [u:].

OE fet > ME feṭ > NE ['f i : t] feet 1500 ē̄ >>> 1600 i >>> 1700 [i :]

OE gos > ME goṣ > NE [g u : s] goose 1500 ō̄ >>> 1600 ū >>> 1700 [u :]

c) **e** was raised to the position of **ē**, but only after **ē** became [i:]. However, in NE, the contrast is gone: **ē** > [i:] (c.f. beet vs. beat, steem vs. steam). But in most regional dialects, the distinction is still seen. In some accents, in even turned into [eɪ] (c.f. great [gr eɪ t]).

~ OE stream > ME strēm > NE ['str i : m] stream

d) **ō̄** changed to **ō̄**, but was in NE diphthongized to [oʊ] and then later, in 20th century, to [əʊ] (c.f. boat); but in nonstandard English, variants with [o] can still be found.

~ OE stan > ME stōn > NE ['st əʊ n] stone

e) **a** changed to **ǣ** at the time the **ē̄** > i and **ō̄** > u change happened. **Eventually it became e** and in NE it is [eɪ] (c.f. gate).

~ OE nama > ME name > NE ['n eɪ m] name

3. The development of diphthongs

Diphthongs were new formations, ME products. There were 2 types: ending in j or w – the result of a combination of a vowel and a glide (j, w)

1. ME ai, ei > NE [eɪ]

OE dæʒ [j] > ME dai > NE ['d eɪ] day

OE eahtu > ME eichte > NE ['eɪ t] eight

OE ʒ[g]ræʒ[j] > ME grei > NE ['gr eɪ] gray

2. Early ME eu, iu and [iū] changed to iu (falling diphthong) around 1300 and later became [ju:] (raising diphthong)

OE feawe > ME feṭw(e > feu > (1300) fiu > NE (1700) ['f j u :] few

OE nēowe > ME nwu(e > niu > NE [n j u :] new

Early ME amüsen > amius(e(n > NE [ə'm j u : z] amuse

3. ME au > NE [ɔ:]

ME cause > NE [kɔ:z]

ME law > NE [lɔ:]

4. ME ou > NE [əʊ], but only if ME ou was actually pronounced as such. Hence the difference between bow [bəʊ] and bow [baʊ] :)

ME flow(e)n > NE ['fləʊ] flow

5. ME oi/ui (only in foreign words) were kept apart until 18th century, although they were frequently written as <oi>. Today, both are [ɔɪ] in NE, through the influence of spelling.

ME choice > NE [tʃɔɪs]

DEPENDENT CHANGES OF ME > NE

- some have already been discussed as exceptions, e.g. ME a > NE [ɹ]/w_

1. Lengthening of ME a before voiceless fricatives (s, f, ð, θ)

ME a > NE [æ] > [æ̃] (17th century, southern England) > [a:] /_{[+fricative, -voice], [ð]}

~ grass [a: + s], path, after, father, basket, cast, rather

Exceptions: words of foreign origin, usually [a] followed by <ss>: mass/ive, classic/al

~ dance [a:] vs. romance [æ], plant [a:] vs. pant [æ], band [æ] vs. demand [a:] (much variation)

In Midland (source of AmE) and Northern variants, the [æ] to [a:] change never happened. In many Northern accents, the original æ has ever been pronounced as [a].

~ half, calf -> since l is mute, it is the f that influences a:

2. Influence of r on preceding vowels

In NE, 17th century, r exerted some influence on ALL preceding vowels. In ME, it only influenced vowels in the same syllable.

a) r following a long vowel

The influence of r is responsible for the s.c. "centring" diphthongs and triphthongs in NE. These ended in e, which had appeared because of the r sound. In the 17th century, r was still pronounced, but was dropped in the 18th century.

- a + r (bare, fare, share)	[eə]
- e + r (here, dear)	[ɪə]
- e + r (wear, tear - verbs)	[eə]
- o + r (poor, sure)	[ʊə] > [ɔ:]
- o + r (more)	[oə] > [ɔ:]
- u + r (hour)	[aʊə] > [aə] > [a:]
- i + r (fire)	[aɪə] > [aə] > [a:]

b) short vowels before r became long vowels if they were in the same syllable – in final position or followed by a consonant

ME a > NE [æ] > [æ̃] > [a:] (c.f. car, arm)

ME o > NE [ɔ:] (c.f. forth)

ME i/u/e > NE (non-rhotic) [ə] > [ɜ:] (c.f. sir, fur, serve)

All these changes only / _ r \$ {#, C}

3. effect of l on preceding a/o (late ME)

When in the same syllable, in between the vowel a/o and l a glide [w] evolved, thus forming the diphthongs au/ou, which later changed to [ɔ:] and [əʊ] respectively.

ME all > aul > NE ['ɔ:l] all ME a > au > NE [ɔ:]

ME folk > NE ['fəʊk] folk ME o > ou > NE [əʊ]

Development of Consonants in ME

1. the development of the ME h

OE /h/ → [h]
→ [x] <h>
→ [ç]

ME /h/ → [h] <h>, sometimes became silent in initial position (influence of French)
→ [x] <gh> still pronounced in words of Anglo-Saxon origin
→ [ç] <gh> still pronounced in words of Anglo-Saxon origin

- a) ME [ç] <gh> > [silent] always disappeared in non-palatal environment
ME light [liht] > NE [laɪt] light
- b) ME [x] > NE → [f] – usually after short vowels (rough, tough, laughter, enough)
silent after long vowels (though, daughter, through)

2. Palatalization before j

Palatalization occurred if ME s, z, t, d were preceded by accented vowels and followed by [j].

ME [s, z, t, d] > NE [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ] / [+accented, +vowel] _ [j]

missile – mission [s] : [ʃ]
fuse – fusion [z] : [ʒ]
advent – adventure [t] : [tʃ]
student – soldier [d] : [dʒ]

BUT !!! literature, sugar, student, due

Subsequently, j disappeared after [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ], and also after [r] and [l].

ME [j] > NE ø / {ʃ, tʃ, ʒ, dʒ, r, l} _
~ Russia, precision, pleasure, nature, soldier, lunar, rude, Luke
ME liunar > NE [lju:nar] > ['lu:nə] lunar

This change, as the previous one, is still on-going. In some dialects, j disappeared after all dentals (AmE: student, New York, tune). Currently it is disappearing after s as well (suit). It is the most complex of all the consonantal changes.

4. Mute consonants in NE

a) Disappearance of r

NE [r] > ø / _ {C, #}, unless the next word begins in a vowel

~ car [kɑ:] carbon [kɑ:bən]

The weakening of r probably started towards the end of the 17th century. Sometimes it appears in pre-vocalic position as well – r is weak, an approximant. The reason why the Americans still pronounce r is the archaic pronunciation from the 18th century.

There exist two r -s (*there exist two arse:*): the linking r (car, bicycle) and the intrusive r (vanilla ice [və'nɪlər_aɪs]).

b) Disappearance of l

NE [l] > ø / [+vowel, +back] _[+consonant, + peripheral (labial/velar)]

~ talk [tɔ:k], calf, Holmes, calves

5. Voiced stops (b, g, d) were dropped if preceeded by nasals:

a) NE [ŋg] > [ŋ] / _

It was still pronounced in ME (time of Caxton). In late ME, changes did occur, but weren't noted in the writing. The voiced stop [g] ceased to be pronounced in wordfinal position if preceeded by the velar nasal [ŋ] (c.f. among, bring, -ing). This change gave rise to a new phoneme in NE. In ME, [ŋ] was still only an allophone of [n]. In most regions of Britain, when the word-final [g] was omitted, they felt there was no need (no positional variant) for a velar [ŋ] and the dental [n] was re-established. In some regions, though, [g] remained. In situations where the pronunciation overlapped if the word-final [ŋ] were dropped (c.f. sin vs. sing), it was re-established, or it never went away.

Non-final positions

- comparatives and superlatives (c.f. longer, stronger) have g preserved [ŋg]. This is also the case in the word anger.
- Agent nouns (singing, singer) only have the [ŋ]. The analogy with the base form prevails.
- Climb, climber, climbs (b is not restored in derived/grammatical forms)

b) NE [mb] > [m] / _

~ dumb, numb, comb

- if preceeded by a nasal, b is always preceeded by a m (never by n) because of the articulation

NE [nd] > [nd]

- Lat. scandere > scan, Lat. linde > lime (tree)

6. Disappearance of k, g in initial position if followed by n (17th century)

- knight vs. night, knock, know, gnaw
- ~ OE cniht [kniçt] > ME knight [kniçt] > NE (ç disappears in all positions) ['naɪt]
- NE k,g > ø / # _ n

7. Disappearance of w in initial positions if followed by r (17th century)

NE [w] > ø / # _ r

- right [riçt -> i+ç = aɪ, raɪt] vs. write [wri:t(ə)] (w stopped being pronounced in the 17th century before r), wrong, wrench, wrist

8. OE <hw> -> ME <wh> (in initial position) aka. Which witch is which

- OE hwaet, hwa <hw> > ME <wh> (ortographic change in Midland, Southern; only later did it influence pronunciation) > ME [°w, ʍ] (voiceless w, h disappears; c.f. which) > NE, 18th century [°w] > [w], except before [u]. Before [u], w disappears (c.f. who [hu:]).
- <w> -> <w>, <wh> -> <w> (why), <h> (before [u], c.f. who)
- OE hw became voiceless in ME and then in NE it became w.

Spelling pronunciation

- whenever the pronunciation changes under the influence of spelling
- Fr. ne'veu > ME 'neveu (accent change) > NE ['nevju:], alternate ['nefju:] > (Renaissance, spelling change) nephew (this form is more similar to Latin nepotem, which is a tr00 Romance language; French is a corrupt language)
- Fr. faute > ME faut > NE [fɔ:t] > (Renaissance) fault (Lat. falita)

Congratulations, you've made it through :) Hope you enjoyed it and all the luck on the exam! If you find something unclearly written or just want to fully enjoy all the nuances of English Historical Grammar, there's also a book by prof. Trobevšek (English historical grammar – From an inflectional to an isolating language, Ljubljana: 1993) available in the library of the Department of English language and literature at FF.

Speaking of the exam, here are some sample questions:

- OE dialects (OE was not a homogenous language, but a mixture of dialects of Jutes, Saxons and Angles. Prestigious dialects)
- Impact of Christianization (when? the consequences -> new words, monasteries, culture. The changes in language and culture. Written language)
- Why are there so few words of Celtic origin in NE as compared to the abundance of Scandinavian words? (The Celts were pushed to the Celtic fringe and had little contact with the English, while the Scandinavians slowly merged with the AngloSaxons)
- Words of AS/Scandinavian origin still preserved until today (5 examples), words of foreign origin (Arabian, Spanish, Indian)
- Authorised version of the Bible (The standardization of the English language, southern variants, the first dictionaries, Caxton, English as a writing language)
- Norman conquest
- English language in the Renaissance (new frontiers – new words)

- Explain how this and this sound evolved from OE to NE, exceptions to the rule
- Why are right and write homophones (also: which, witch; knight, night)
- Which are the origins for AmE?
- Explain the mute k in knight
- Irish English and its 3 variants that are spoken today.