Introduction to English

21-X+02-11-2020

Intro. Some basics

ENGLISH	
1. Old English	UP TO THE END of XI CENTURY
2. Medieval	UP TO THE LAST QUARTER of XV CENTURY
3. Modern English	FROM THE END of XV CENTURY TO PRESENT DAY

Intro. Some basics

3.1. Early Modern English	(1500-1800)
3.2. Late-Modern English	(1800- Present)

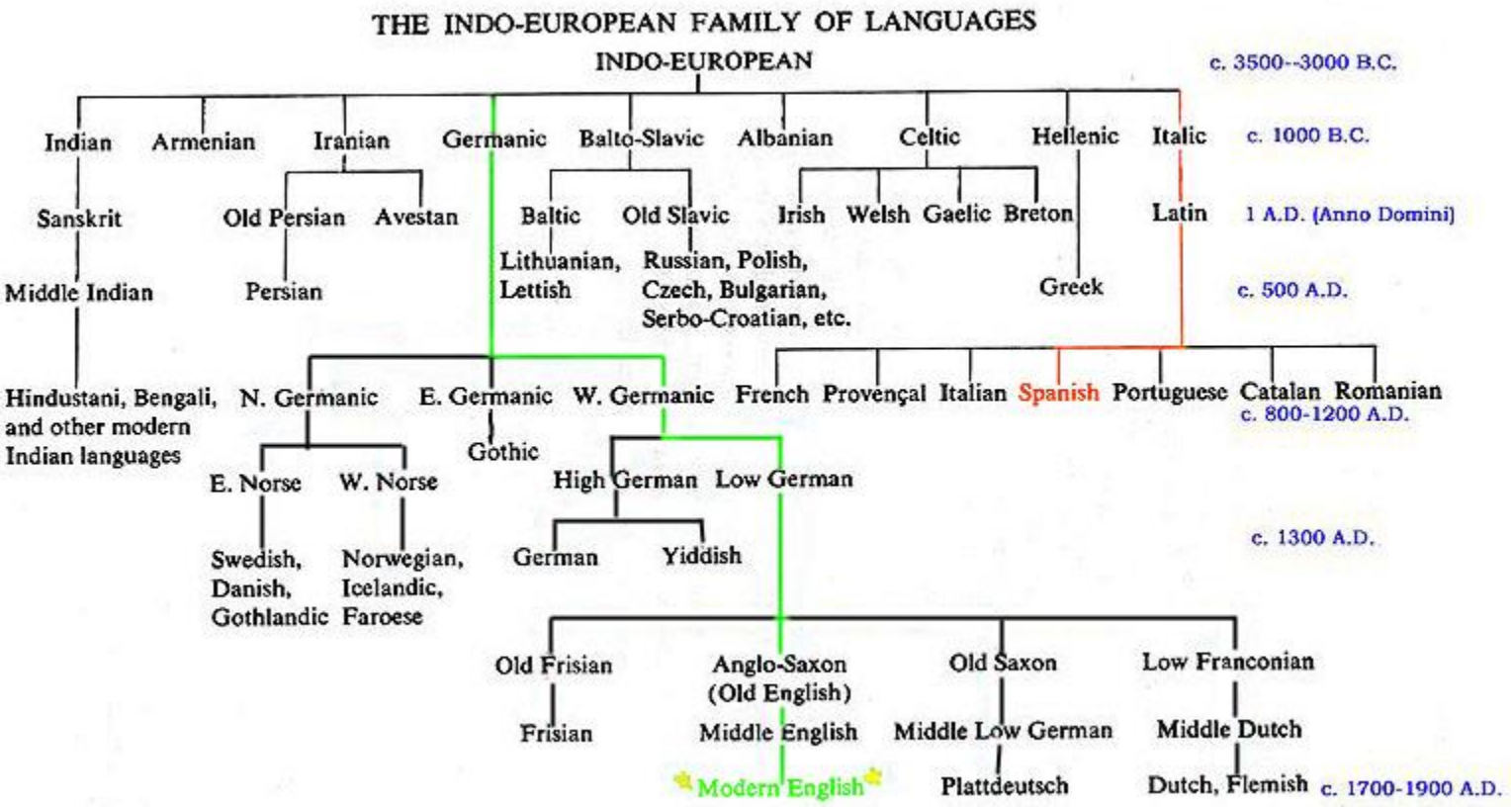
1.1. Old English

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian—the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands – that is called Old English. **Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.** These invaders pushed the original, **Celtic-speaking** inhabitants out of what is now England into **Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland,** leaving behind a few Celtic words.

1.1. Old English

The names of some English towns were taken over from the Celts such as **London and Leeds.**

1.1. Old English is Germanic



1.1. Old English is Germanic

Germanic influences on English

- The English language has its foundation in the West German dialects
- From them derive native suffixes and prefixes which are used on words to denote special relationships such as

the “y” in holy
or the “en” in golden
or the “ish” in childish
or the “like” in childlike

1.1. Old English is Germanic

In Germanic, STAND, STEOOL, STEM, STEED, STUD, STEER.
Old English
stead, stod.
Standan: to stand
Stede: place
Steal: place where cattle are keptIn
Old Norse standa. Stedi:
anvil Stallr: pedestal for idols, altar
In Old Saxon and Gothic: standan (to stand)
In Old High German: stantan.
In Swedish: sta,
Dutch: staan,
German: Stehen
Stall: stable

1.1. Old English is Germanic

Interestingly, a lot of words in Dutch which start with a “d”, start with a “th” in English.

dank thank
dacht thought
ding thing
donder thunder
dun thin
denk think
dorst thirst
dik thick

1.1. Old English is Germanic

Differences between English and Scandinavian during Old English •

Scandinavian has **sk** where **English sh**.

Hence, there are many pairs of words in English with these phonetic differences which originally had the same meaning:

skirt and **sh**irt;

raise and rear;

screech and **shr**iek.

1.2. Old English

Also influencing English at this time were the **Vikings.** **Norse invasions,** beginning around 850, brought many **North Germanic words** into the language, particularly in the north of England, and influenced **grammar** greatly.
Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem **Beowulf,** lasted until about 1100.
This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the **Norman Conquest.**

2.1. Middle English

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD at the battle of Hastings. **The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French (?) known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots. As a result, many words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romanic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots (not always, of course).** Sometimes French words replaced Old English words, other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, or even two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English.

2.2. Middle English

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted a modified English as their native tongue.

About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. The laboring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman. **This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English**.

The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's Canterbury Tales.

2.3. Middle English

By **1362**, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over, in that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be **used in Parliament**.

3.1. Early Modern English

The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language.
Elizabethan English, has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer.
Many words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words (DAUNTLESS OR BESMIRCHED [bɪ'smɜːʧ], the uninspiring LACKLUSTER) and countless catch-phrases are his (as dead as a doornail, for example 'BREAK THE ICE, AS DEAD AS A DOORNAIL', after being given a SHORT SHRIFT, for example).

3.1. Early Modern English

Hobnob? [ˈhäbˌnäb] hob·nob (hobnobs, hobnobbing, hobnobbed) informal mix socially, esp. with those of higher social status a select few who hobnob with the biggest celebrities the country has to offer [no] Origin: early 19th cent. (in the sense 'drink together'): from archaic hob or nob, hob and nob, probably meaning 'give and take,' used by two people drinking to each other's health, from dialect hab nab 'have or not have.'

3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English.
The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press.
William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476 (the first printed book in Britain – translation of the History of Troy).
Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common.
The printing press brought standardization to English.
The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard.
Spelling and grammar became fixed, and **the first English dictionary was published in 1604.**

3.1. Early Modern English

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English.

The first was the Great Vowel Shift.

This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter "e" at the end of words became silent. In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century.

The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

3.2. Late Modern English

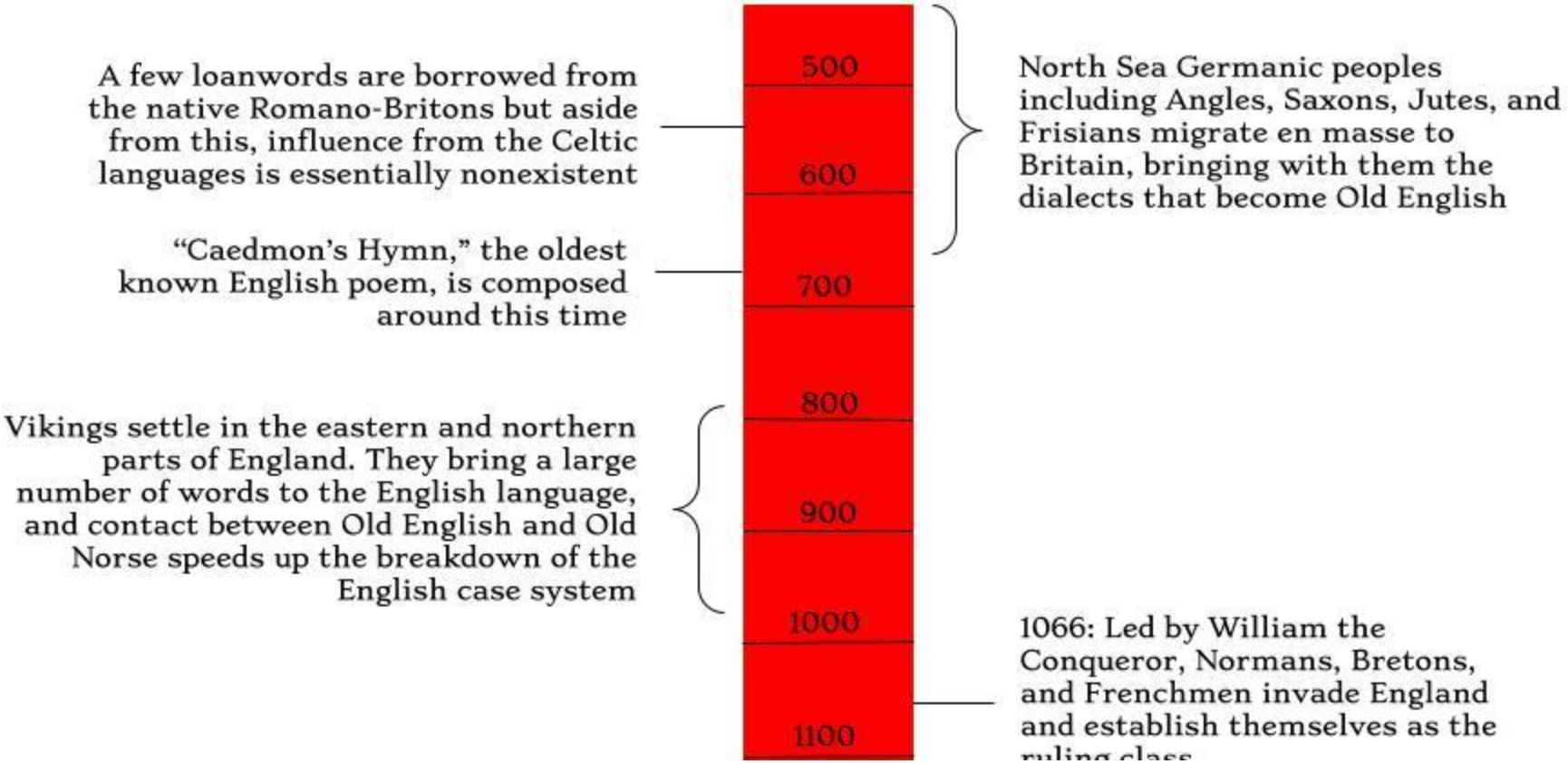
The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. **The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society.** This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed.
The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.
And maybe the Third?
English is the language of Global Pop Culture,
Communication systems,
Computer Technologies and the Internet.

English

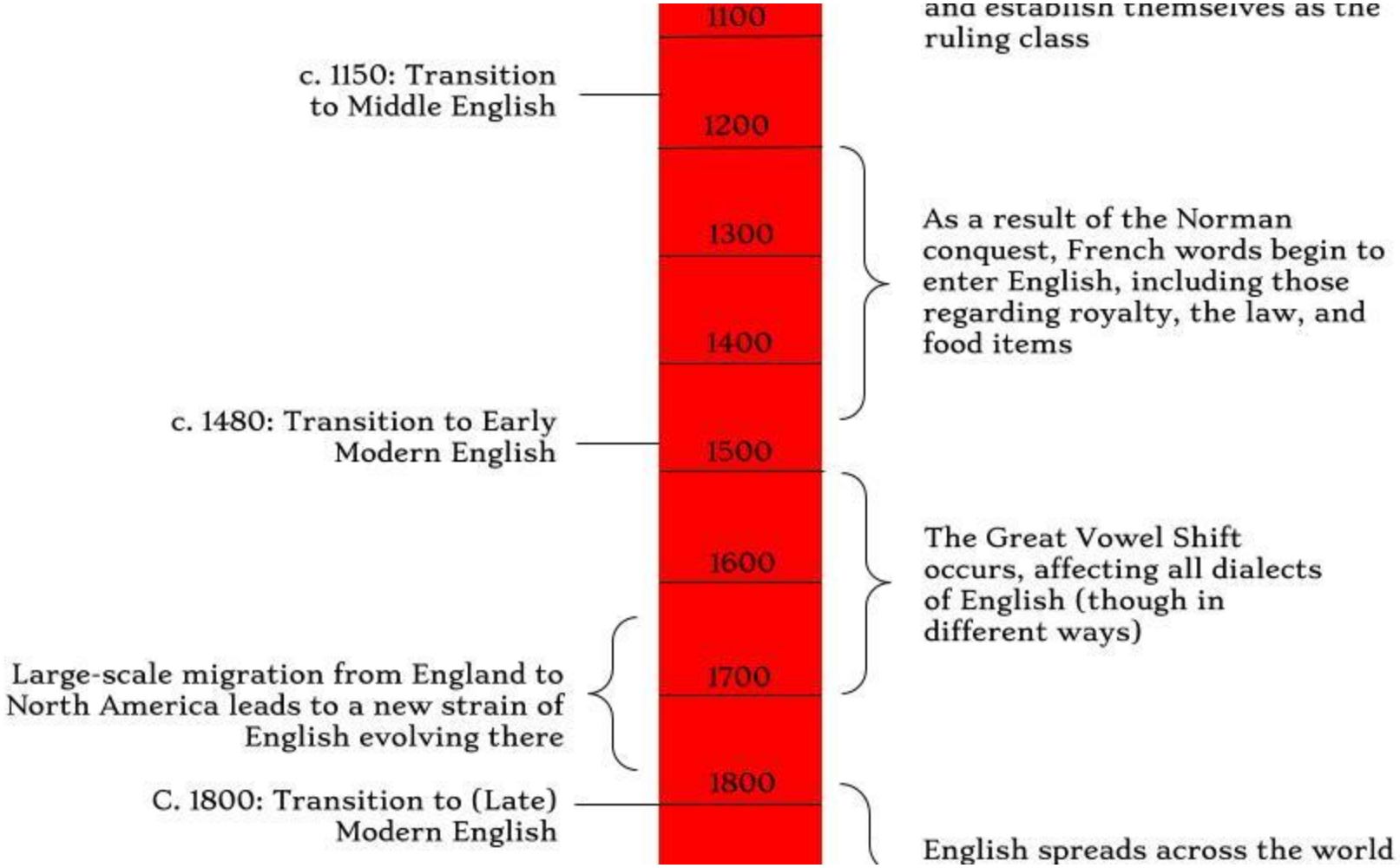
Now take a look at another scheme of English periods

English

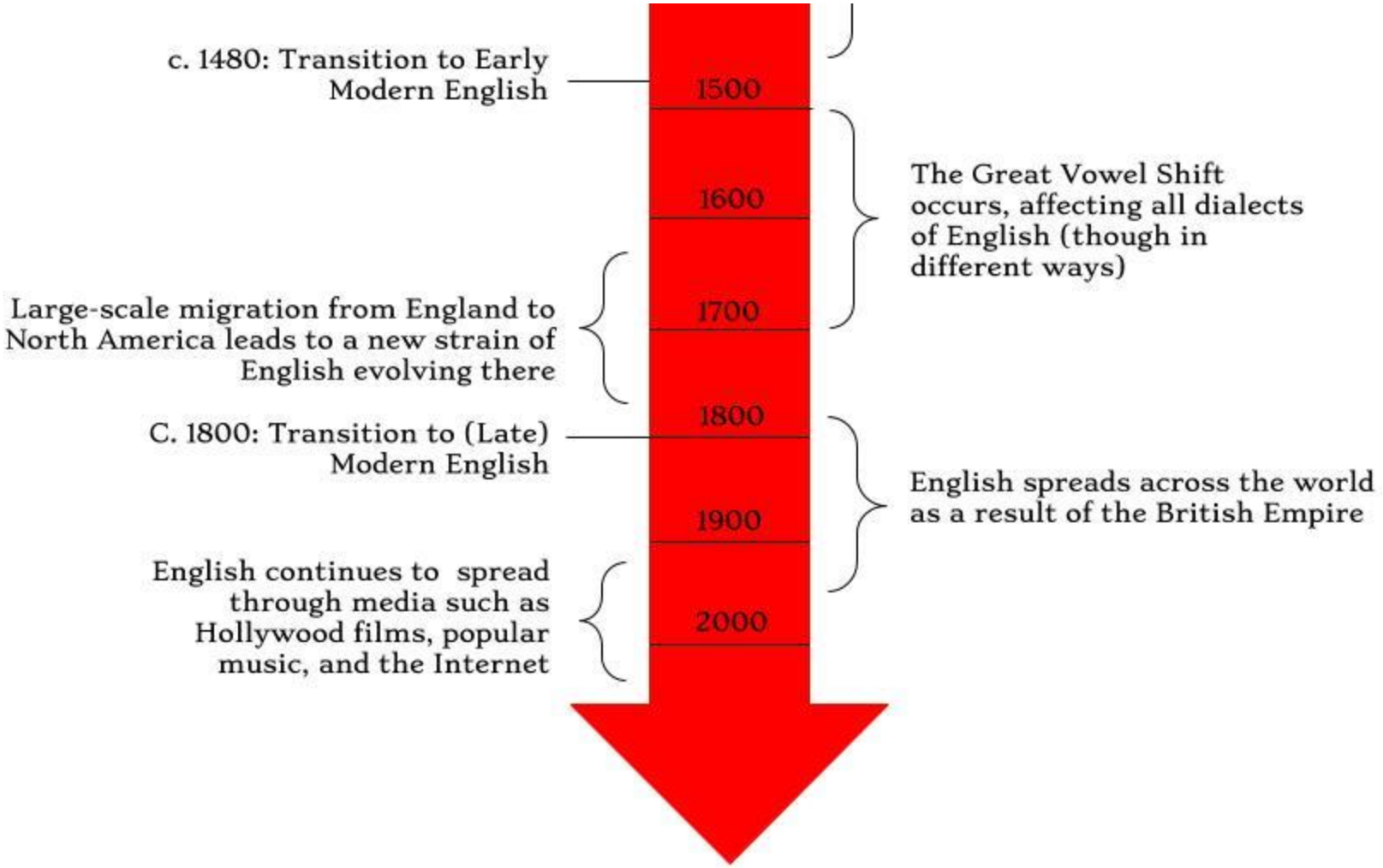
Now take a look at another scheme of English periods



English


1100
and establish themselves as the ruling class
c. 1150: Transition to Middle English
1200
1300
As a result of the Norman conquest, French words begin to enter English, including those regarding royalty, the law, and food items
1400
c. 1480: Transition to Early Modern English
1500
1600
The Great Vowel Shift occurs, affecting all dialects of English (though in different ways)
Large-scale migration from England to North America leads to a new strain of English evolving there
1700
1800
C. 1800: Transition to (Late) Modern English
English spreads across the world

English


c. 1480: Transition to Early Modern English
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The Great Vowel Shift occurs, affecting all dialects of English (though in different ways)
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1800
C. 1800: Transition to (Late) Modern English
English spreads across the world as a result of the British Empire
1900
English continues to spread through media such as Hollywood films, popular music, and the Internet
2000

Indo-European languages

I. Indic (including Sanskrit
II. Iranian [ɪ'reɪnɪən],
III. Armenian [ɑː'miːnɪən],
IV. Hellenic [he'liːnɪk](Greek),
V. Albanian [æl'beɪnɪən](or Illyrian),
VI. Italic (including Latin and the Romance languages),
VII. Celtic ['keltɪk], ['seltɪk],
VIII. Baltic [ˈbɔːltɪk, ˈbɒlt-],
IX. Germanic (including English, German, Dutch, and the Scandinavian languages),
X. Slavic (Russian, Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbian, Croatian etc.)
XI. Anatolian [ænə'təʊlɪən] (Hittite and other extinct languages),
XII. Tocharian [təˈkɛːrɪən, -ˈkɑːrɪən]an extinct group from central Asia).

Old English

O.E. mere

Latin mare

Russian море

O.E. beon

Latin fui

Ru быть

O.E. cwene

Greek gyne

RU жена.

Comparative Linguistics

Comparative Linguistics				
COMPARATIVE LIGUISTICS METHOS				
GENETIC LINGUISTICS	CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS	LINGUISTIC GEOGRAPHY	GLOTTO-**CHRONOLOGY**	LINGUISTIC **TYPOLOGY** AND **CHARACTEROLOGY**
FOCUS OF INTEREST				
IDENTIFICATION OF LANGUAGE FAMILIES	IDENTIFICATION OF CONTRASTIVE FEATURES	LANGUAGE CONTACTS AND INFLUENCES	DIACHRONIC ANALYSIS OF LANGFUAGES HISTORY	TYPES, TYPICAL FEATURES AND UNIQUE Palette of features of a language

Germanic languages

Germanic languages, branch of the Indo-European language family. Scholars often divide the Germanic languages into three groups:

- **West Germanic**, including English, German, and Netherlandish(c?) ['neðələndɪʃ](Dutch);
- **North Germanic**, including Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Faroese [ˌfeərəu'iːz] = Faeroese; and
- **East Germanic**, now extinct, comprising only Gothic and the languages of the Vandals vandal ['vænd(ə)lz], Burgundians [bɜː'gʌndɪən], and a few other tribes. In numbers of native speakers, English, with 450 million, clearly ranks third among the languages of the world (after Mandarin and Spanish); German, with some 98 million, probably ranks 10th (after Hindi, Bengali, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, and Japanese).

Comparative Linguistics

The Three Acts of Jacob Grimm's Law		
i	ii	iii
/p/ => /f/	/bh/ => /b/	/b/ => /p/
/t/ => /θ/	/dh/ => /d/	/d/ => /t/
/k/ => /kh/, /h/	/gh/ => /g/	/g/ => /k/

Comparative Linguistics

Закон первого передвижения согласных имел три этапа, названные Якобом Гриммом *актами*.

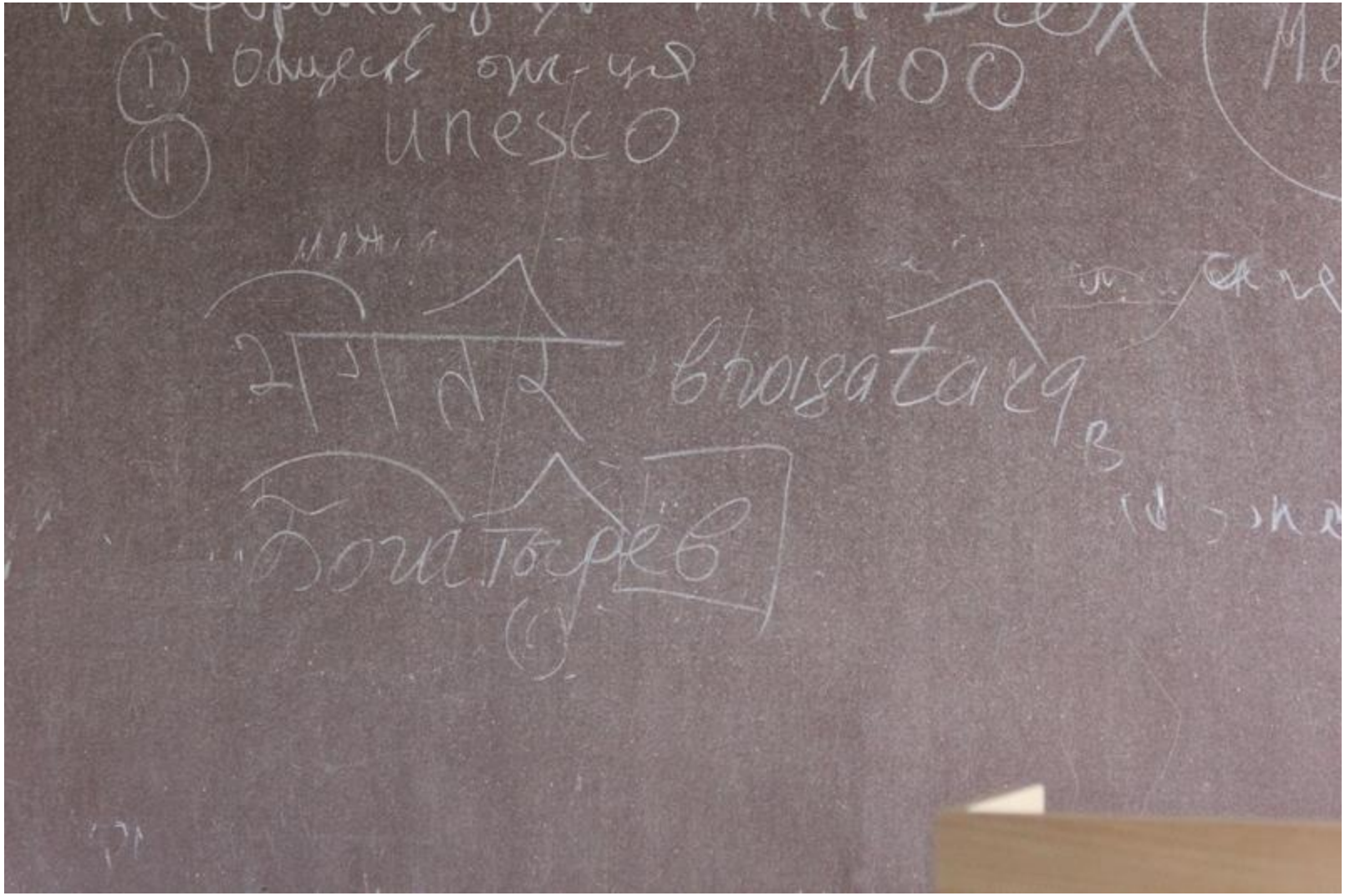
1-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские (т.е. существовавшие в индоевропейском языке-основе) глухие смычные [p], [t] и [k] переходят в глухие щелевые того же или близкого места образования:

[p] > [f]: *лат.* pes (основа слова ped- – нога, *рус.* пед-аль)||*гот.* fotus, *др.-а.* fōt – нога (совр. foot); *лат.* piscis||*гот.* fisks, *др.-а.* fisc – рыба (совр. fish); *рус.* про||*др.-а.* for.

[t] > [θ][1]: *лат.* tres, *рус.* три||*др.-а.* þrie – три (совр. three); *рус.* тысяча||*др.-а.* þūsend – тысяча (совр. thousand).

[k] > [x], [h] *лат.* cor (основа слова cord - – сердце)||*гот.* haírto, *др.-а.* heorte – сердце (совр. heart) лат. – guod||*др.-а.* hvæt – что (совр. what); *рус.* кров||*др.-а.* hrōf – крыша (совр. roof).

Comparative Linguistics



Comparative Linguistics

2-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские звонкие смычные придыхательные [b^h], [d^h], [g^h] переходят соответственно в простые [b], [d], [g]. Пояснить это соответствие примерами из знакомых студентам языков несколько затруднительно, так как из числа известных индоевропейских языков смычные придыхательные сохранились лишь в санскритском языке. Поэтому мы остановимся на 2-м акте лишь очень кратко. Примеры:

[b^h] > [b]: *санскр.* bhārāmi – несȳ, *рус.* беру‖*др.-а.* bere – несу (совр. bear);
санскр. bhrata – брат, рус. брат.‖*др.-а.* brōðor – брат (совр. brother)

[d^h] > [d]: *санскр.* vidhava – вдова, *рус.* вдова‖ *др.-а* widwe – вдова (совр. widow).

[g^h] > [g]: *инд.-евр.* *lagh, *рус.* лежать (корень лег-)‖*др.-а.* licȝean – лежать (совр. lie).

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[1] Глухой межзубный щелевой [θ] обозначается в древнеанглийском языке знаком þ.

Comparative Linguistics

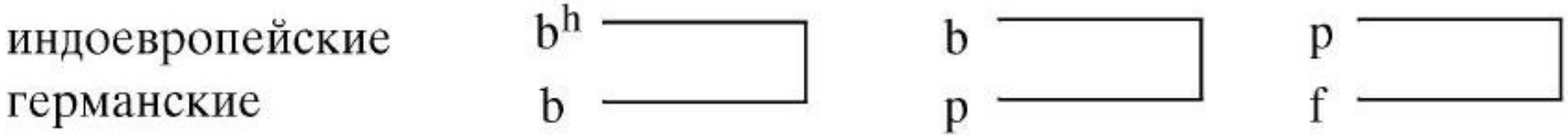
3-й акт состоит в том, что индоевропейские звонкие смычные [b], [d], [g] переходят в германских языках в глухие смычные того же места образования [p], [t], [k].

[b] > [p]: *рус.* слабый||*др.-а.* slǣpan – спать (совр. sleep);
рус. болото||*др.-а.* pōl – лужа (совр. pool).

[d] > [t]: *рус.* дерево||*др.-а.* trēow – дерево (совр. tree);
рус. два||*др-а.* twā – два (совр. two).

[g] > [k]: *рус.* горе||*др.-а.* caru – забота (совр. care);
рус. голый||*др.-а.* calu – голый (*нем.* kabl – лысый, голый);
рус. иго||*др.-а.* ʒeoc – иго (совр. yoke).

Grimm’s Law



Grimm's Law

$b^h > b > p > f$

$d^h > d > t > \theta$

$g^h > g > k > x$

$g^{wh} > g^w > k^w > x^w$

Grimm’s Law

F and V

"Grimm's Law ... explains why Germanic languages have 'f' where other Indo-European languages have 'p.' Compare English *father*, German *vater* (where 'v' is pronounced 'f'), Norwegian *far*, with Latin *pater*, French *père*, Italian *padre*, Sanskrit *pita,*" (Horobin 2016).

Grimm’s Law 01

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: πούς (poús), Latin: pēs, pedis, Sanskrit: pāda, Russian: под (pod) "under; floor", Lithuanian: pėda, Latvian pēda	***p→f [ɸ]**	English: foot, West Frisian: foet, German: Fuß, Gothic: fōtus, Icelandic, Faroese: fótur, Danish: fod, Norwegian, Swedish: fot

Grimm’s Law 02

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: τρίτος (tritos), Latin: tertius, Welsh: trydydd, Sanskrit: treta, Russian: третий (tretij), Lithuanian: trečias, Albanian: tretë	***t→þ [θ]**	English: third, Old Frisian: thredda, Old Saxon: thriddio, Gothic: þridja, Icelandic: þriðji

Grimm's Law 03

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: κύων (kýōn), Latin: canis, Welsh: ci (pl. cwn)	***k→h [x]**	English: hound, Dutch: hond, German: Hund, Gothic: hunds, Icelandic, Faroese: hundur, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: hund

Grimm’s Law 04

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: quod, Irish: cad, Sanskrit: kád, Russian: ко- (ko-), Lithuanian: kas	**$*k^w \rightarrow hw\ [x^w]$**	English: what, Gothic: ƕa ("hwa"), Icelandic: hvað, Faroese: hvat, Danish: hvad, Norwegian: hva

Grimm’s Law 05

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: verber "rod", Homeric Greek: ῥάβδος (rabdos) "rod, wand", Lithuanian: virbas	***b→p [p]**	English: warp, West Frisian: werpe, Dutch: werpen, Icelandic: verpa, varpa, Faroese: verpa, Gothic wairpan

Grimm’s Law 06

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: decem, Greek: δέκα (déka), Irish: deich, Sanskrit: daśan, Russian: десять (desyat'), Lithuanian: dešimt	***d→t [t]**	English: ten, Dutch: tien, Gothic: taíhun, Icelandic: tíu, Faroese: tíggju, Danish, Norwegian: ti, Swedish: tio

Grimm's Law 07

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Latin: gelū, Greek: γελανδρός (gelandrós), Lithuanian: gelmenis, gelumà	***g→k [k]**	English: cold, West Frisian: kâld, Dutch: koud, German: kalt, Icelandic, Faroese: kaldur, Danish: kold, Norwegian: kald, Swedish: kall

Grimm's Law 08

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Lithuanian: gyvas	**$*g^w \rightarrow kw\ [k^w]$**	English: quick, West Frisian: kwik, kwyk, Dutch: kwiek, Gothic: qius, Icelandic, Faroese: kvikur, Danish: kvik, Swedish: kvick, Norwegian kvikk

Grimm's Law 09

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Sanskrit: bhrātṛ	***b^h→b [b]/[β]**	English: brother, West Frisian, Dutch: broeder, German: Bruder, Gothic: broþar, Icelandic, Faroese: bróðir, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian: broder

Grimm’s Law 10

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Sanskrit: mádhu 'honey', Homeric Greek: μέθυ methu	***d^h→d [d]/[ð]**	English: mead, East Frisian: meede, Dutch: mede, Danish/Norwegian: mjød, Icelandic: mjöður , Swedish: mjöd

Grimm's Law 11

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Ancient Greek: χήν (khēn), Sanskrit: hamsa (swan)	***g^h→g [g]/[ɣ]**	English: goose, West Frisian: goes, guos, Dutch: gans, German: Gans, Icelandic: gæs, Faroese: gás, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish: gås

Grimm’s Law 12

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	Change	Germanic (shifted) examples
Homeric Greek: ἐάφθη (eáphthē) "sang, sounded", ὀμφή (omphē) "voice"	**$*g^{wh} \rightarrow gw\ [g^{w}]$ (After n)**	English: sing, West Frisian: sjonge, Dutch: zingen, German: singen, Gothic: siggwan, Old Icelandic: syngva, syngja, Icelandic, Faroese: syngja, Swedish: sjunga, Danish: synge/sjunge

Grimm's Law 13

Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates	**Change**	**Germanic (shifted) examples**
Sanskrit: gharmá-, Avestan: garəmó, Old Prussian: gorme	**$*g^{wh}$→gw→b, g or w (Otherwise merged with existing g and w)**	English: warm, West Frisian: waarm, Dutch, German: warm, Swedish: varm, Icelandic: varmur

Verner's Law

Grimm's law stated that
the Indo-European *p, t,* and *k* sounds
changed into *f, th* or *d,* and *h* in the Germanic languages.
Verner noticed that Grimm's law was valid whenever the accent fell on the root syllable of the Sanskrit cognate, but, when the accent fell on another syllable, the Germanic equivalents became *b, d,* and *g.*

Verner's Law

This was also the case with *s* and *r.* Technically, this rule states that in the Germanic branch of Indo-European, all non-initial voiceless fricatives (spirants) became voiced between voiced sounds if they followed an unaccented syllable in Indo-European or Sanskrit. For example, Sanskrit *bhrātar,* with the accent on the root syllable, corresponds to Gothic *brōþar,* but
Sanskrit *pitā,* accented on the final syllable, corresponds to Gothic *fadar.*

Historical Phonetic Laws

Indo-European	Germanic	Phonetic Laws
/p/ /t/ /k/	[f] [θ] [kh]	Grimm's Law
/p/ /t/ /k/	[β] [w] [ð] ɣ	Verner's Law

Verner’s Law

The Proto-Germanic verb *[‘we.sa.nan] 'to be, live, dwell.' The first and third person singular, past, *[‘was], was not preceded by an unstressed syllable (the word is mono-syllabic after all) and so the fricative remained voiceless [s], as in Old English wæs 'was.'
However, the plural past forms carried **the stress on the second syllable**, *[wē.'zum] '(we) were, lived, dwelled.' Since the syllable before the fricative was not stressed, it became voiced [z].

Verner’s Law

However, another sound change, known as **rhotacism**, changed all Proto-Germanic non-final *[z] into West-Germanic *[r]. Good illustrations are Gothic *máiza*, but Old English *māra* 'more, greater,' or Gothic *hazjan*, but Old English *herian* 'praise.' Therefore, the Proto-Germanic *[wē.'zum] surfaces in Old English as *wæron* 'were,' not as "wæson."

Today, the descendant word pair of *wæs-wæron*, 'was-were,' is the only example in the English language where the effects of **Verner's Law** are still visible within a single paradigm.

19-10-2020

BACK TO ENGLAND AND ENGLISH

Early Britannia [brɪ'tænɪə] / Albion (f)

4cBC

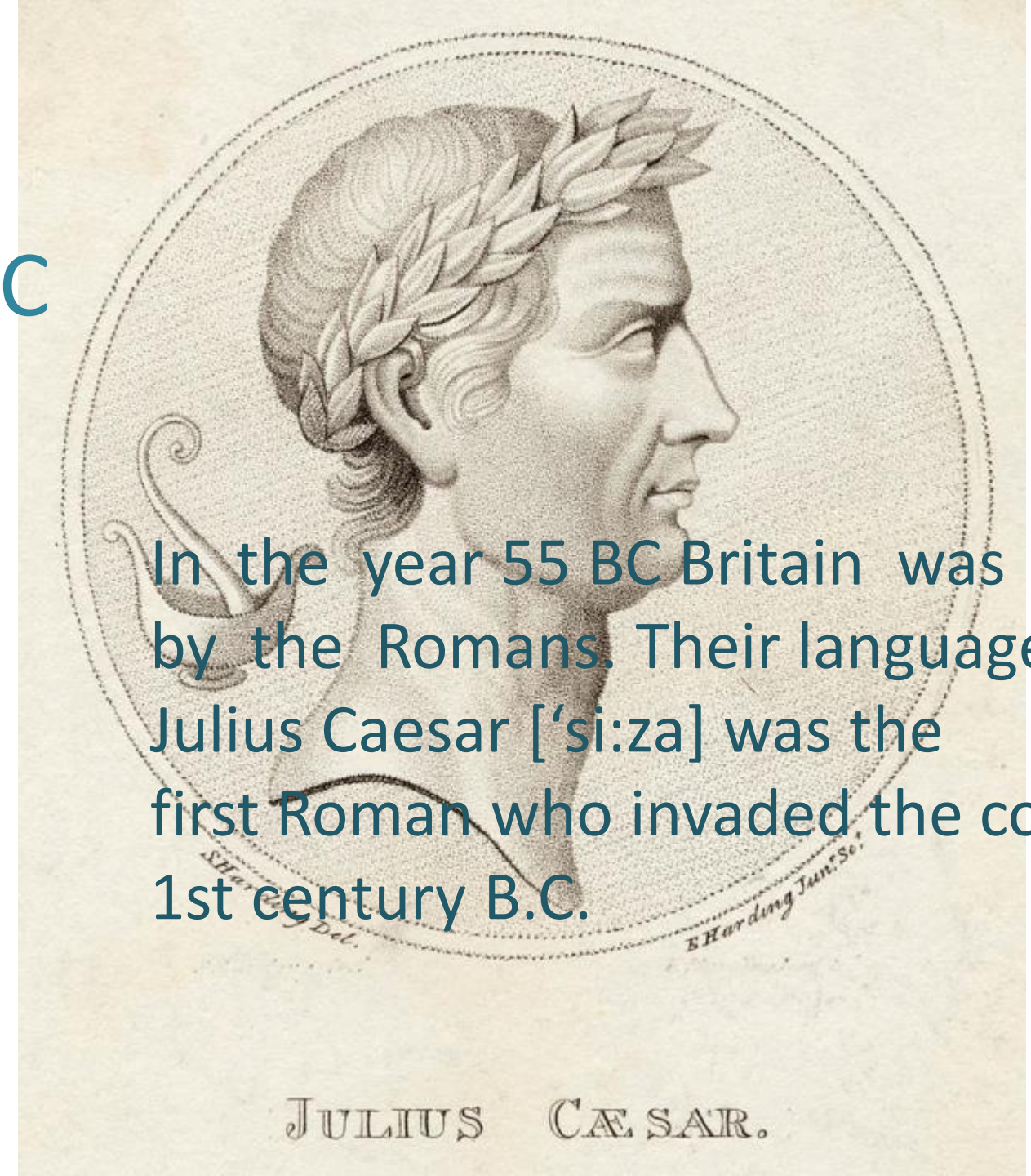
In the 4th century BC the country we now call England was known as Britain.
One of the tribes who lived there was named the Britons. They belonged to the Celtic race and spoke Celtic.
There are still some traces of this language found in the English of today. Most of all we find them in geographical names:
dun/dum = down, dune
(the towns of Dunscore, Dunedin, Dumbarton);
avon = river: Stratford on -Avon;
kil = wood: Kilbrook

Early Britannia

4cBC

Another Celtic tribe Gaels [geilz] lived in Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Their descendants still live there and use some words of Celtic origin, such as Loch Lomond, loch [h>k] — lake.

55BC



In the year 55 BC Britain was conquered by the Romans. Their language was Latin. Julius Caesar [‘si:za] was the first Roman who invaded the country in the 1st century B.C.

Early Britannia

1cBC

To conquer the Britons the Romans had to encamp troops all over the country. The English cities later rose from these camps. The word castra — camp was later pronounced [‘fkesta], ['Jesta] and [‘fsesta]. Now there are many English towns which have the Latin ending, such as Lancaster, Chester, Manchester, Worcester and others. There is a county Cheshire too.

Early Britannia

1cBC

Now guess which is which

[ˈʧestə]

[ˈtʃɛʃə]

[ˈlæŋkəstə]

[ˈmæntʃɪstə]

[ˈwustə]

Early Britannia

55BC

407 AD

In UK one can still find interesting remains of the Roman times, such as some ruins of public baths and tiled floors of Roman villas. Many of the great highways of England have been built on the military roads once made by the Romans.

A large number of English words come from Latin, e. g. street comes from strata, wall from vallum, port from portus, etc.

The Roman occupation lasted for more than 400 years till 407 AD when the Romans troops left Britain.

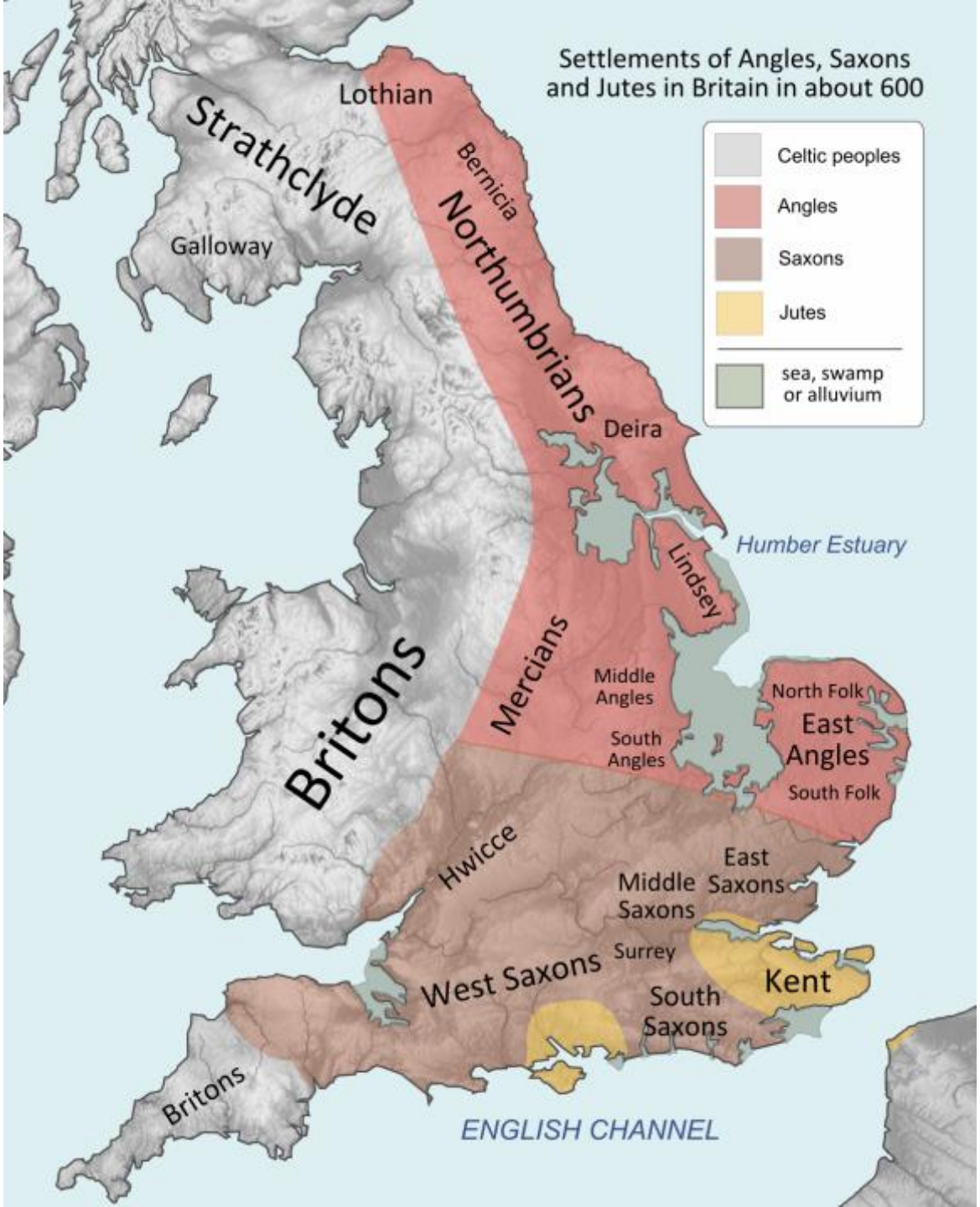
Early Britannia

410+ when in about 410 the Romans were withdrawn to protect Rome itself the Germanic tribes — **Angles ['æŋglz], Saxons ['sæks(ə)nz] and Jutes [ʤuːts]** began their invasion of Britain. They came from the shores of the North Sea and the Baltic and settled in what is now the **county of Kent**.

~480 -600 AD


ENGLISH CONQUEST
From 450 to the End of the 6th Century
Showing the Settlements of the Jutes, Saxons and Angles. Also the Sections of the Country which were retained by the Britons (Celtic Tribes).
SCALE OF MILES
SCOTS
PICTS
Iona
Forth
Alclyd
Tweed
Melrose
BERNICIA
Lindisfarne (Holy I.)
Bamborough (Bebbanburh)
STRATHCLYDE
Solway
Caerleol
ANGLES
DEIRA
York (Eoforwic)
CUMBRIA
OCEANUS GERMANICUS
(German Ocean)
OCEANUS HIBERNICUS
(Irish Sea)
SOUTH-UMBRIANS
Humbra (Humber)
LINDISWARAS
Lindum (Lincoln)
The Wash
MERCIANS
Chester
Uriconium (Wroxeter)
Branodunum (Brancaster)
Northfolc
MIDDLE ANGLES
Venta Icenorum (Caistor)
EAST ANGLES
Suthfolc
CAMBRIA
NORTH WEALAS
BRITONS
Menevia (St. David)
Gleawanceaster (Gloucester)
Cirenceaster
SAXONS
Camulodunum (Colchester)
EAST SAXONS
London
Deorham
Thanet I.
Bathanceaster (Bath)
Sabrina or Saefern
WEST SAXONS
Aegelesford
JUTES
Cantwarabyrig (Canterbury)
SOUTH SAXONS
Wintanceaster (Winchester)
Cissanceaster (Chichester)
Lynne
Cerdicesford (Charford)
Anderida (Pevensey)
WESTWEALAS
DAMNONIA
Wihtgara Burh (Wight)
OCEANUS BRITANNICUS
(English Channel)
GAUL
Longitude West of Greenwich

~600 AD


Settlements of Angles, Saxons and Jutes in Britain in about 600
Celtic peoples
Angles
Saxons
Jutes
sea, swamp or alluvium
Lothian
Strathclyde
Galloway
Bernicia
Northumbrians
Deira
Humber Estuary
Lindsey
Britons
Mercians
Middle Angles
South Angles
North Folk
East Angles
South Folk
Hwicce
East Saxons
Middle Saxons
Surrey
West Saxons
Kent
South Saxons
Britons
ENGLISH CHANNEL

VIII AD


Anglo-Saxon-controlled territory in the 8th century
Battle sites
Monasteries
0 25 50 75 100 mi
0 50 100 150 km
SCOTLAND
STRATHCLYDE
LOTHIAN
Lindisfarne
BERNICIA
Degsastan 603
THE PENNINES
NORTHUMBRIA
Tyne
Jarrow
Wearmouth
IRELAND
Whitby
ISLE OF MAN
Ripon
DEIRA
York
North Sea
Irish Sea
ELMET
Hatfield 633
Humber
Manchester
Thelwall
LINDSEY
Lincoln
ISLE OF ANGLESEY
Chester 613–616
Offa's Dyke
Nottingham
Derby
Trent
The Wash
Lichfield
Tamworth
Stamford
Tettenhall
Leicester
EAST ANGLIA
Severn
MIDDLE ANGLIA
MERCIA
WALES
ESSEX
Dorchester-on-Thames
Ouse
Wye
Hertford
Cirencester
Malmesbury
Thames
London
HWICCE
ISLE OF THANET
Rochester
Ashdown 871
Edington 879
Otford 776
Canterbury
KENT
Salisbury
Winchester
DEVON
WESSEX
Nursling
SUSSEX
Hastings
Wimborne
DUMNONIA
ISLE OF WIGHT
FRANKS
CORNWALL
English Channel
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Early Britannia and Old English

The surviving texts from the Old English period are in four main dialects: **West Saxon**, **Kentish**, **Mercian** and **Northumbrian**

- Mercian and Northumbrian, which are grouped together as Anglican, form the link between Old English and Modern English

Christianity

The conversion of the English to Christianity began in about the year 600 and took a century to complete

- It was carried out from two directions, **the Celtic church** penetrating from **the Northwest** and the Roman church from the Southeast.

Christianity

Although Christianity was widely embraced, some vestiges of the pagan times survived • Tiw, Woden and Thunor (thunder), corresponding to the Scandinavian god Thor, have given their names to Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, while Woden's consort Frig (Love) has given her name to Friday • More remarkably, the goddess of spring, Eastre, has probably given her name to the Christian festival of Easter

~800 AD


THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGDOMS, CA. 800
© 2010 CRISTIAN IONITA
SCOTTISH KINGDOMS
Firth of Forth
Edinburgh
LOTHIAN
Clyde
Tweed
Berwick
BERNICIA
Arran
Firth of Clyde
STRATHCLYDE
GALLOWAY
Ruthwell
Carlisle
Tyne
Jarrow
Newcastle
Monkwearmouth
Durham
NORTH SEA
Solway Firth
Eden
Escomb
Whitby
IRELAND
CUMBRIA
NORTHUMBRIA
DEIRA
Stamford Bridge
York
Man
IRISH SEA
Leeds
Hull
Humber
Mersey
Trent
Flixborough
Lincoln
Anglesey
Chester
Faddiley
Derby
Nottingham
The Wash
Ely
Repton
Stamford
Lichfield
Leicester
Glen
EAST ANGLIA
Thetford
Cardigan Bay
NORTH WALES
MERCIA
Peterborough
Avon
Ouse
Northampton
Severn
Worcester
Bedford
Colchester
Gloucester
Oxford
St.Albans
ESSEX
Thames
MIDDLESEX
Dorchester
London
Bristol
Malmesbury
Reading
Kingston
Rochester
Bristol Channel
Bath
WESSEX
Canterbury
Glastonbury
Amesbury
Ockley
KENT
Dover
Wilton
Winchester
Athelney
Salisbury
SUSSEX
Hastings
Southampton
Pevensey
Strait of Dover
Exeter
Dorchester
Wight
Lyme Bay
WEST WALES
(CORNWALL)
English Channel
0
100 km
CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE

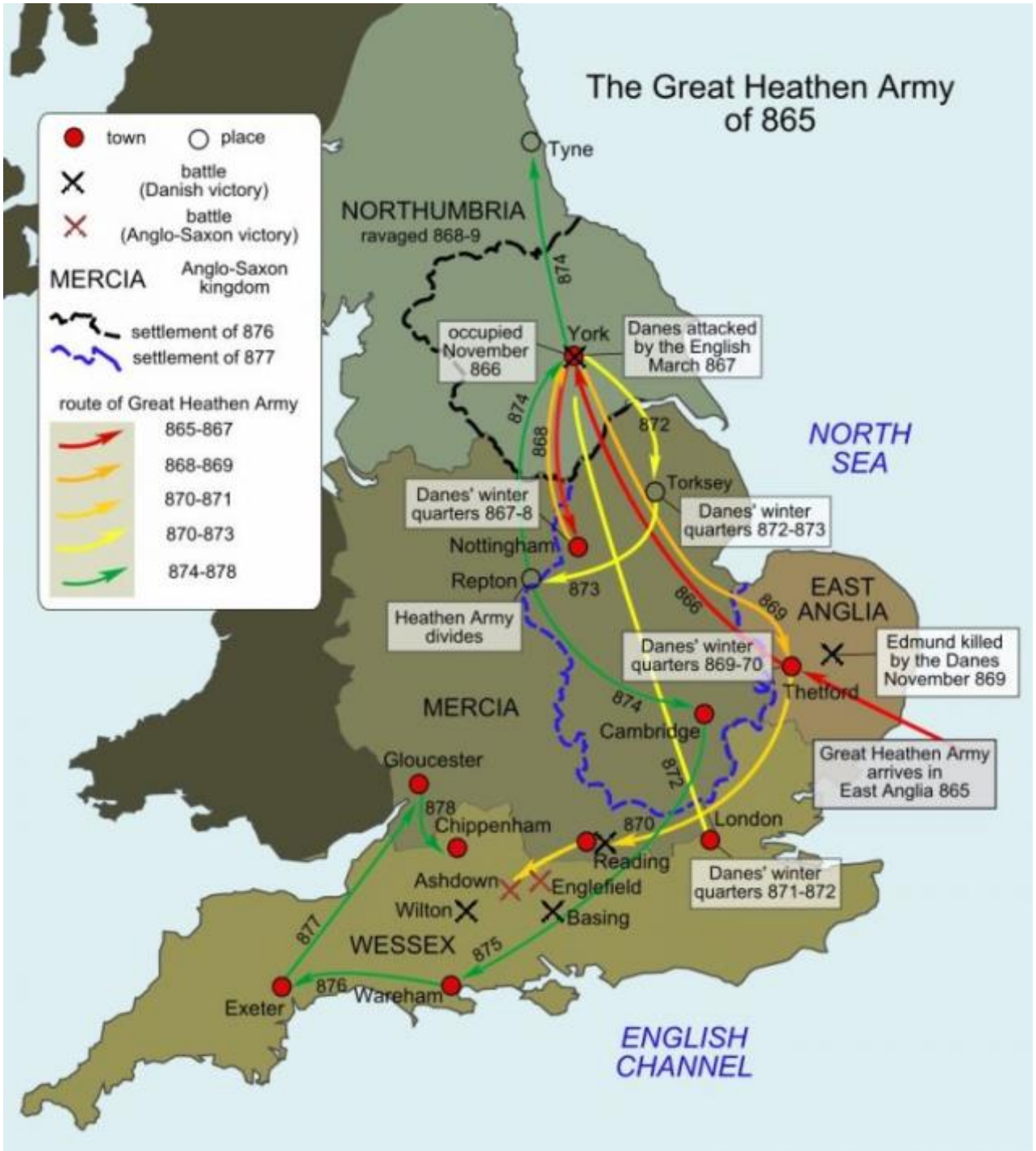
Vikings

In the late eighth century, Charlemagne destroyed the power of the Frisians, who had hitherto been the greatest maritime power of Northwest Europe, and thereby left open the sea-route southward for the Vikings

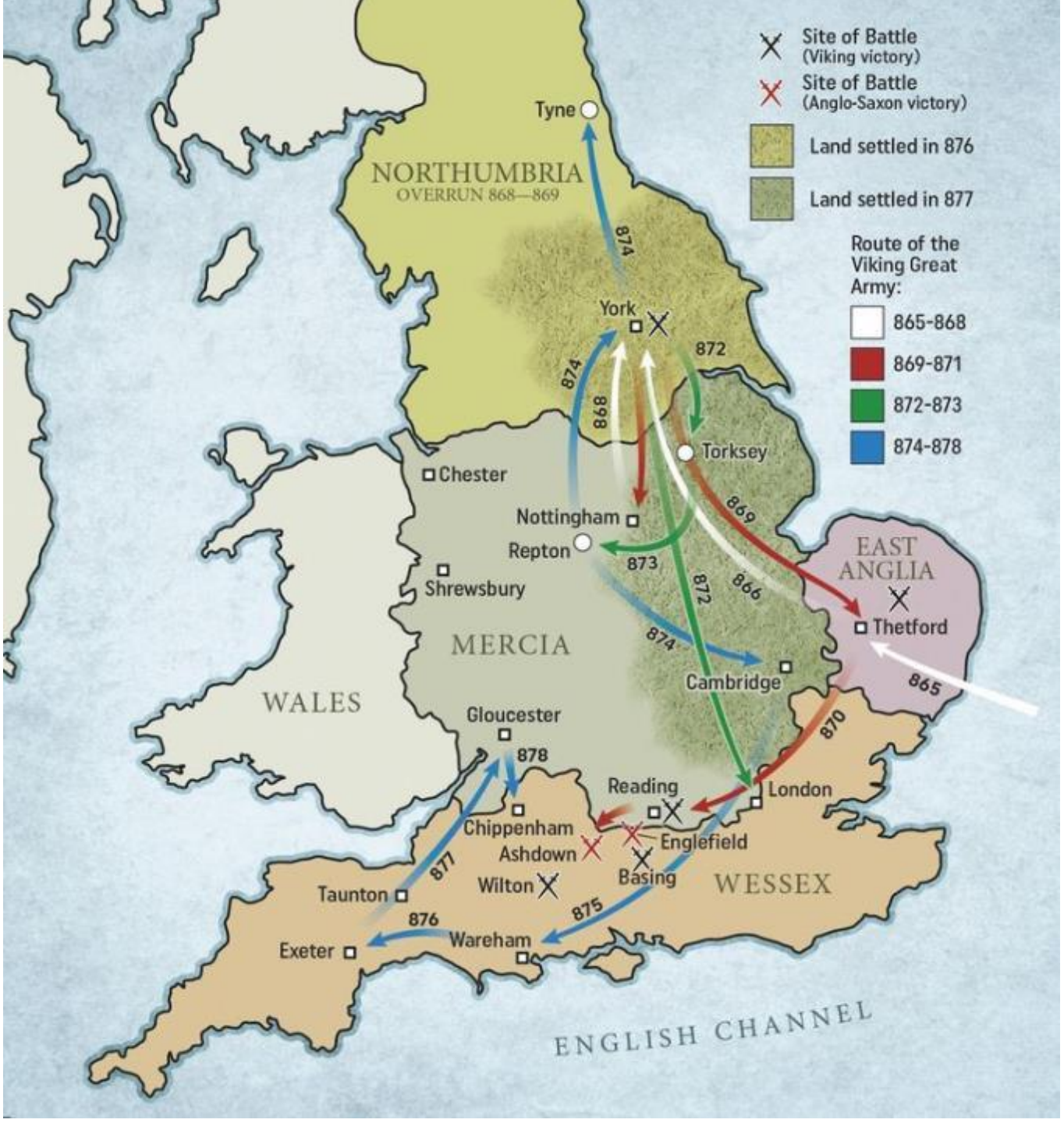
~800 AD


England
after 866
Lands in the Danelaw
English
Northumbria
Bamborough
Alnwick
Strathclyde
Jarrow
Hexham
Durham
Tees
Ireland
Isle of Man
Scarborough
Flamborough
Danish
Northumbria
York
Godmundingham
Ouse
Doncaster
Anglesey
Manchester
Mersey
English
Aberffrau
Lincoln
Nottingham
Trent
Danish
Mercia
The Wash
Shrewsbury
Mathraval
Severn
Mercia
Tangworth
Crowand
Leicester
Stamford
Gunthram's
Bury St Edmunds
Dunwich
Warwick
Northampton
Cambridge
Ipswich
Wales
Hereford
Worcester
Ouse
Kingdom
Colchester
St Davids
Dynevwr
Gloucester
Buckingham
Oxford
Hertford
Wallingford
Wantage
London
Shoebury
Llandaff
Ashdown
Thames
Bristol
Chippenham
Reading
Kingston
Rochester
Sandwich
Wessex and dependencies
Canterbury
Wedmore
Winchester
Romney
Dover
Taunton
Shaftesbury
Southhampton
Chichester
Shareham
Hastings
Pevensey
Crediton
Exeter
Dorchester
Wareham
Selsey
Isle of Wight
Carisbrooke

865-878 AD


The Great Heathen Army of 865
town
place
battle (Danish victory)
battle (Anglo-Saxon victory)
MERCIA
Anglo-Saxon kingdom
settlement of 876
settlement of 877
route of Great Heathen Army
865-867
868-869
870-871
870-873
874-878
NORTHUMBRIA
ravaged 868-9
Tyne
York
occupied November 866
Danes attacked by the English March 867
NORTH SEA
Torksey
Danes' winter quarters 867-8
Danes' winter quarters 872-873
Nottingham
Repton
Heathen Army divides
EAST ANGLIA
Danes' winter quarters 869-70
Edmund killed by the Danes November 869
Thetford
MERCIA
Cambridge
Great Heathen Army arrives in East Anglia 865
Gloucester
Chippenham
London
Reading
Ashdown
Englefield
Wilton
Basing
Danes' winter quarters 871-872
WESSEX
Exeter
Wareham
ENGLISH CHANNEL
874
868
872
873
866
869
878
870
877
875
876

865-878 AD


Site of Battle (Viking victory)
Site of Battle (Anglo-Saxon victory)
Land settled in 876
Land settled in 877
Route of the Viking Great Army:
865-868
869-871
872-873
874-878
NORTHUMBRIA
OVERRUN 868—869
Tyne
York
Torksey
Chester
Nottingham
Repton
Shrewsbury
MERCIA
EAST ANGLIA
Thetford
Cambridge
WALES
Gloucester
Reading
London
Chippenham
Ashdown
Englefield
Basing
Wilton
Taunton
Wareham
Exeter
WESSEX
ENGLISH CHANNEL
874
872
868
869
873
866
865
870
878
877
876
875

Early Britannia

410+

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes were y believed in many gods: Tu, or Tuesco, —
god of Darkness, Woden —
god of War, Thor — the Thunderer,
and Freia —goddess of Prosperity.
When people began to divide time into weeks and weeks into days, they gave the days the names of their gods.

Early Britannia

410+

Sunday is the day of the sun,
Monday —the day of the moon,
Tuesday — the day of the god Tuesco,
Wednesday — the Woden's day,
Thursday — Thor's day,
Friday —Freia's day,
and Saturday —Saturn's day.

Early Britannia

410+

One Saxon poem called
Beowulf
reached our days.
One can call this period the dawn of English literature.

Early Britannia

7C

In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent.

Early Britannia

7C

In the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity by missionaries who came from the continent.
The most learned people of that time were monks. Some of them began to put in writing poems and songs that reached them. Such people were called "scribes". "Scribe" comes from the Latin word "scribere"
—"to write". The written Anglo-Saxons language developed on the basis of the Latin alphabet.

Early Britannia

VIII-IX

King Alfred died (849-901) founded the first English public school for young men. He also translated the Church-history of Bede from Latin into a language the people could understand, and a portion of the Bible as well.

~920 AD


British Isles - c.920AD
Viking Age
Norðreyjar
KATANESS
SUDRLAND
Scotland - Old Norse
Suðreyjar
ALBA
SKOTLAND
NORDRHAF
North Ocean - Old Norse
NORD-SÆ
North Sea - Old English
Edenburh
NORÐYMBRA
SRATHA CLUADE
Caerluel
IRLAND
Ireland - Old Norse
AILECH
ULAID
Mon
BREIFNA
AIRGIALLA
JORVIK
IRLANDSHAF
Ireland's Sea - Old Gaelic
CONNACHTA
MIDE
Nordmenn
Norse settlement
England - Old Norse
Lincolla
DYFLIN
LAIGIN
GWYNEDD
Ceaster
Fimm Borgum
Danska Mercna
Five Boroughs Danish Mercia
AUSTUR ANGLIA
Hlymrek
OSRAIGE
POWYS
MERCNA
Wales - Old Norse
BRETLAND
MUMU
Veðrafjorð
Veisafjorð
DEHEUBARTH
Fiskrgarthr
BRYCHEINIOG
GWENT
Colenceaster
Corcaigh
Melrfjorð
GLYWYSING
Sweinsey
Lundenceaster
Bad
WESTSEXE
CENT
SOMERSÆTE
SUÐSEXE
DEFNAS
DORNSÆTE
Exanceaster
Wiht
CERNIEU
SUÐ-SÆ
South Sea - Old English
abroadintheyard.com

Early Britannia

XC

Although Beowulf was a Jute and his home is Jutland we say that The Song of Beowulf is an English poem.

The story of Beowulf was written down in the 10th century by an unknown author, and the manuscripts is now kept in the British Museum.

Early Britannia

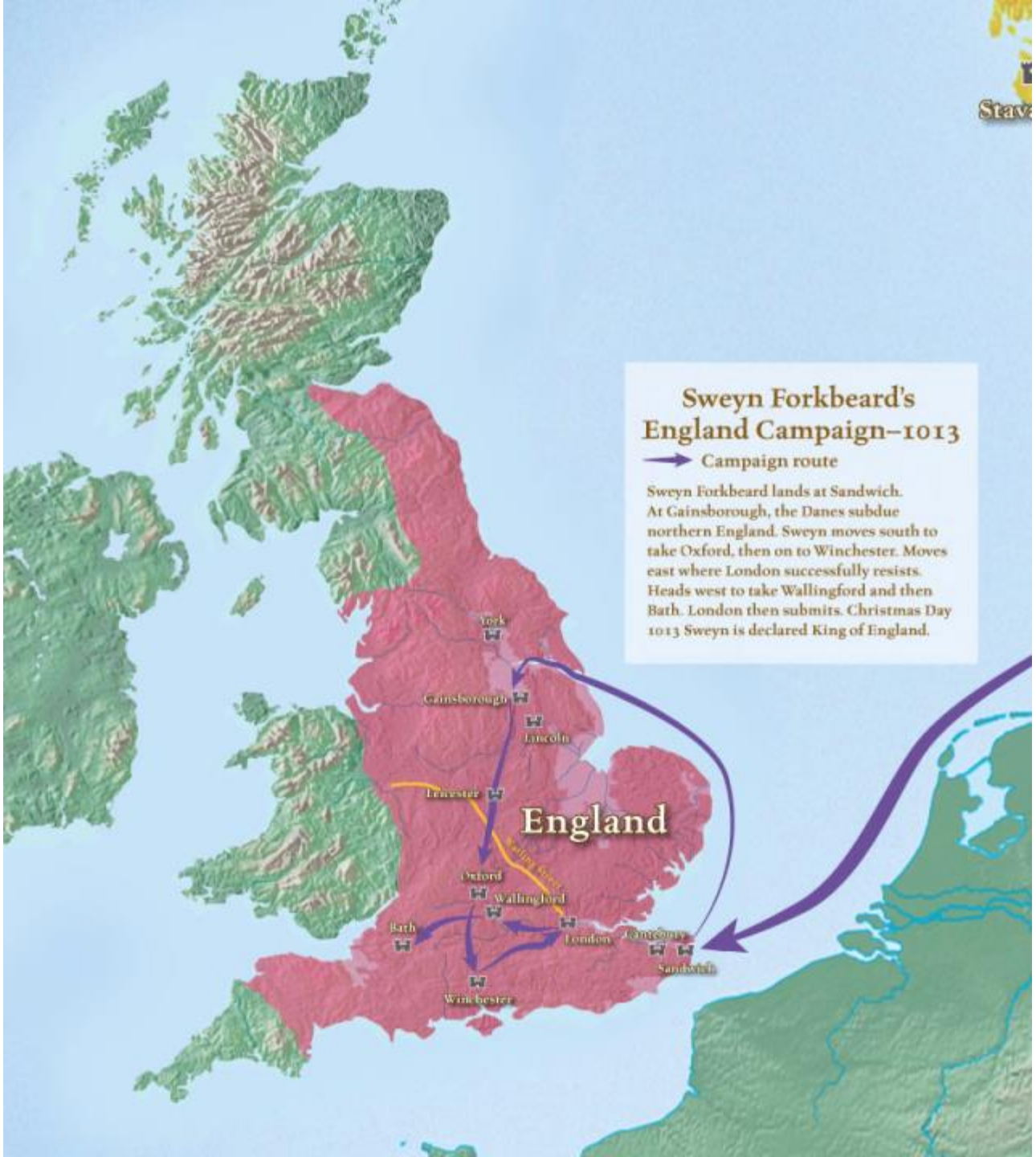
XC

When King Alfred died (849-901), fighting with the Danes soon began again.
They occupied the north and east of England (Scotland and Ireland) and also sailed over the Channel and fought in France.
The land they conquered in the North of France was called Normandy and the people who lived there the Northmen.
In the hundred years that were to follow they began to be called Normans.

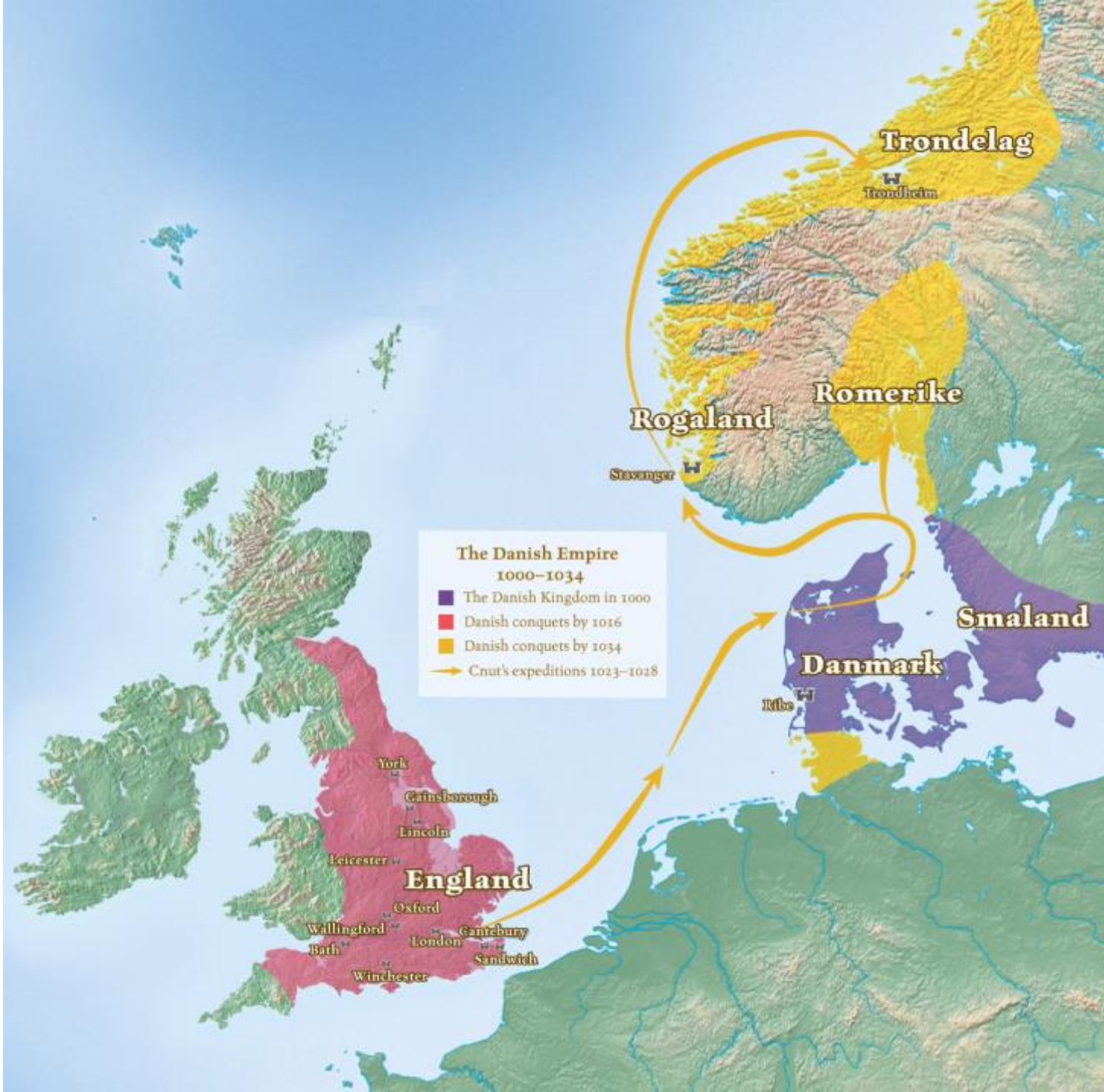
IXC
AD


England in the Ninth Century
Kingdom of Wessex
Glamorgan welsh chieftaincies allied with Wessex.
Partitioned in 885 ("Alfred and Guthrum's Peace")
The "Danelagh" (Danelaw) and other areas held by Northmen.
Duchy of Mercia
Duchy of Northumberland
Danish borough ("burh," stronghold). The Five Boroughs are underlined thus: Derby.
English borough
English borough under Edward the Elder and Aethelfleda ("Lady of the Mercians"), 899-925
Archbishopric; Bishopric;
Monastery; Battle; Road
KINGDOM OF PICTS AND SCOTS
STRATHCLYDE
Lothian
NORTHUMBERLAND
Lindisfarne
Cumberland
Galloway
Kyle
Carlisle
KINGDOM OF YORK
York
Westmorland
Cleveland
North Riding
East Riding
West Riding
Whitby
IRISH SEA
NORTH SEA
DANISH MERCIA
Lincoln
Nottingham
Derby
Leicester
Stamford
Mercia
NORTH WALES
Gwynedd
Powis
Chester
Dublin
Wicklow
NORFOLK
Norwich
SUFFOLK
EAST ANGLIA
ESSEX
London
KENT
Canterbury
Dover
SUSSEX
SURREY
HAMPSHIRE
Winchester
WILTSHIRE
SOMERSET
DORSET
DEVON
CORNWALL
Isle of Wight
Gloucester
Brecknock
Dyfed
Glamorgan
Gwent
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANKLAND (FRANCE)
St. George's Channel
North Channel
Dalriada
Isle of Man

1013


Sweyn Forkbeard's England Campaign–1013
Campaign route
Sweyn Forkbeard lands at Sandwich. At Gainsborough, the Danes subdue northern England. Sweyn moves south to take Oxford, then on to Winchester. Moves east where London successfully resists. Heads west to take Wallingford and then Bath. London then submits. Christmas Day 1013 Sweyn is declared King of England.
England
York
Gainsborough
Lincoln
Oxford
Wallingford
Bath
London
Sandwich
Winchester

1013


Trondelag
Trondheim
Romerike
Rogaland
Stavanger
The Danish Empire
1000–1034
The Danish Kingdom in 1000
Danish conquets by 1016
Danish conquets by 1034
Cnut's expeditions 1023–1028
Smaland
Danmark
Ribe
York
Gainsborough
Lincoln
Leicester
England
Oxford
Wallingford
Bath
London
Canterbury
Sandwich
Winchester

Early Britannia

XC

After a battle in 876 based on treaty Danelagh was statuted. They seized power in 1016. Danes were finally defeated in 1042 and had to leave England, but donated English such words as husband, fellow, law, wrong,
verbs call (kalla) and take' (taka);
Toponyms –by (byr - town), -fell (hill), thorp (village); shirt –skirt; shriek – screech; from – fro; whole – hale.

About 650 Danes words had been included.

Other estimates: one or two thousand words

Early Britannia

1066

In 1066 at the battle of Hastings ['heistrnz] the Norman Duke William defeated the Saxon King Harold.

Again a new invasion took place. Within five years William the Conqueror was complete master of the whole of England. The Conqueror and his barons spoke Norman-French, not pure French, because the Normans were simply the same Danes with a French polish. The English language was neglected by the conquerors. Since the battle of Hastings (1066) the Saxons had been oppressed by the Normans.

English is credited to have absorbed about 10 thousand words from Norman

Early Britannia

1168

In 1168 a group of professors from Paris founded the first university at Oxford. In 1209 the second university was formed at Cambridge.

The students were taught Latin, theology, medicine, grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music.

Early Britannia

1168

Richard I (1157 –1199) was King of England from 1189 until his death. He also ruled as Duke of Normandy, Aquitaine and Gascony, Lord of Cyprus, and Count of Poitiers, Anjou, Maine, and Nantes, and was overlord of Brittany at various times during the same period. Richard is known as Richard Cœur de Lion (Norman French: Le quor de lion) or Richard the Lionheart because of his reputation as a great military leader and warrior.

Swine is Swine, but…

XIIC

“Why, how call you those grunting brutes running about on their four legs?” demanded Wamba.

“Swine, fool, swine,” said the herd, “every fool knows that.”

Swine is Swine, but…

xii

“And swine is good Saxon,” said the Jester; “but how call you the sow when she is flayed, and drawn, and quartered, and hung up by the heels, like a traitor?”

“Pork,” answered the swine-herd.

Swine is Swine, but…

xii

“Pork,” answered the swine-herd.
“I am very glad every fool knows that too,” said Wamba, “and **pork, I think, is good Norman-French;** and so when the brute lives, and is in the charge of a Saxon slave, she goes by her Saxon name; but becomes a Norman, and is called pork, when she is carried to the Castle-hall to feast among the nobles; what dost thou think of this, friend Gurth, ha?”

Swine is Swine, but…

xii

"Nay, I can tell you more," said Wamba, in the same tone; "there is old Alderman Ox continues to hold his Saxon epithet, while he is under the charge of serfs and bondsmen such as thou, but becomes Beef, a fiery French gallant, when he arrives before the worshipful jaws that are destined to consume him. Mynheer Calf, too, becomes **Monsieur de Veau** in the like manner; he is Saxon when he requires tendance, and takes a Norman name when he becomes matter of enjoyment."

Swine is Swine, but…

xii

Language
institutionalises
societal [sə'saɪət(ə)l]
and economic
disparity [dɪs'pærətɪ]

The triumph of English

- ✓ An event which contributed to the triumph of English was King John's loss of Normandy to the French crown in the opening years of the 13th century
- ✓ The ties with Normandy were severed and the Norman nobility gradually became English

The triumph of English

- The fourteenth century sees the definitive triumph of English
- French was now rapidly ceasing to be the mother tongue of even the nobility and those who wanted to speak French had to learn it
- When King Henry IV seized the throne in 1399, England for the first time since the Norman conquest had a king whose mother tongue was English.

The triumph of English

- The English that we speak today evolved from the East Midland dialect of Middle English
- This was probably due to the importance of the East Midlands in English cultural, economic and administrative life
- This is where Cambridge University is located

Language change

Language variation is a prerequisite for change

There is always **language variation** within a community or society for many different (social) reasons:

- ❑ differing **needs** (occupation, leisure, interests, etc.)
- ❑ differing social standing (sociolects)
- ❑ differing contacts with other communities e g with differing with other communities, e.g. with differing regional varieties (dialects) & languages

But even one and the same person shows a tendency to speak (and write) differently in different social contexts/constellations

Variation is facilitated by the relative ease of geographical and social mobility (mobility isn't a new phenomenon!)

Language change

- Language change is most often described in linguistic terms, yet language and **language change is essentially a SOCIAL phenomenon**. Both language and language change arise through communication.
- People tend to adjust their language to become more like each other (**accommodation**).
- Accommodating to others can operate across phonology (accent), lexis (vocabulary), grammar (morphology & syntax) and discourse (discursive features)
- Also at a societal [sə'saɪət(ə)l] level, the more **social upheaval** [ʌp'hiːv(ə)l] (потрясения и сдвиги), the more linguistic change.

Language change

Phonology	
Lexis (vocabulary)	
Morphology	Grammar
Syntax	
Discourse	

Language change

Distinction often made between often made between:	
Internal change – including the normal “drift of language”	External change – due to language contact

Language change

Internal change: phonology

A speaker tends not to make more effort than is necessary speaker tends not to make more effort than is necessary

This can lead for example to co-articulation effects becoming permanent.

Therefore a distinction can be made between:	
conditioned (or combinatory) change,	unconditioned change
e.g. through coarticulation effects	or spontaneous [spɔn'teɪnɪəs] change

Conditioned phonological change 1

Assimilation – adjacent sounds become more alike
e.g. OE blīðs/blīþs : bliss,
OE gōdspell ‘good news’: gospel
Accomodation [əkɒmədeɪʃ(ə)n]:

- ✓ Palatalisation of velar consonants before front vowels: e.g. cheese OE. cēse = OS. kāsi, Du. kaas G. Käse),
- ✓ yellow OE. geolu = OS. gelo, Du. gel, G. gelb
  Modern distinction in past tense /d/ : /t/ : /ɪd/

Tendency for intervocalic consonants to become voiced (vowels are always voiced)

Accomodation [əkɒmədeɪʃ(ə)n]: Origin: early 17th cent.: from Latin accommodatio(n-), from accommodare 'fit one thing to another'

Conditioned phonological change 2

Simplification of consonant clusters (elision)

OE : ModE

hlāf : loaf

hlūd : loud

hnecca : neck

hnitu : nit

hring : ring

hrōf : roof

hlǣfdige : lady

niht : night

But note that question words retained breathiness longer: what, when, where cnēo(w) : knee cnotta : knot gnætt : gnat camb,comb : comb, wamb,womb : womb

Modern example: yod-dropping, e.g. suit, lute

Conditioned phonological change 3

Other phoneme losses

Reduction & loss of final unstressed vowels

OE sunu : son

OE sunne : sun

OE mōna : moon

OE steorra : star

includes vowels in plurals

e.g. OE dagas : days

with **vowel reduction** (weakening) first to –e and then -ə and then (finally) lost.

Unconditioned phonological change 1

Metathesis

– reversal of two (mostly) adjoining phonemes

e.g. OE ācsian : ask

OE brid(d) : bird,

OE wæps (variation in OE too: wæsp) : wasp

hros (cf. OE hors, ON hross, Sw russ) : horse

Modern example: pretty (good) – ‘purty’ (good)

Unconditioned phonological change 2

Simplification of consonant clusters (elision)

OE : ModE

hlāf : *loaf*	*hlūd* : *loud*	*hnecca* : *neck*	*hnitu* : *nit*
hring : *ring*	*hrōf* : *roof*	*hlæfdige* : *lady*	*niht* : *night*

But note that question words retained breathiness longer: *what*, *when*, *where*

cnēo(w) : *knee*	*cnotta* : *knot*	*gnætt* : *gnat*
camb,*comb* : *comb*,	*wamb*,*womb* : *womb*	

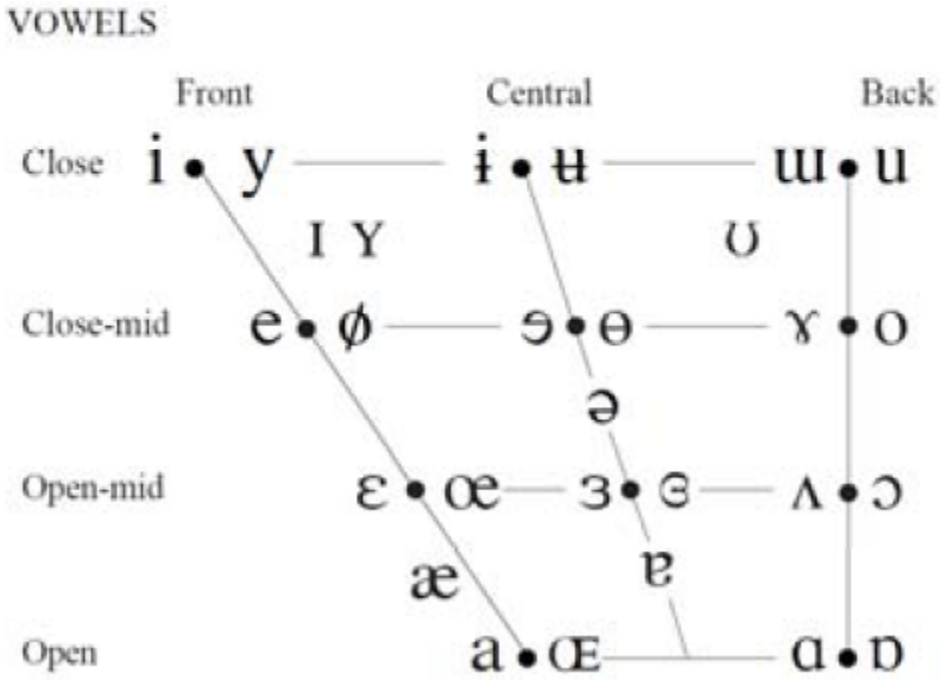
Modern example: yod-dropping, e.g. *suit*, *lute*

Unconditioned phonological change 3

Sound shifts

- Sound “laws” whereby the same phoneme changes in all words (under the same conditions – stress, position, etc.)

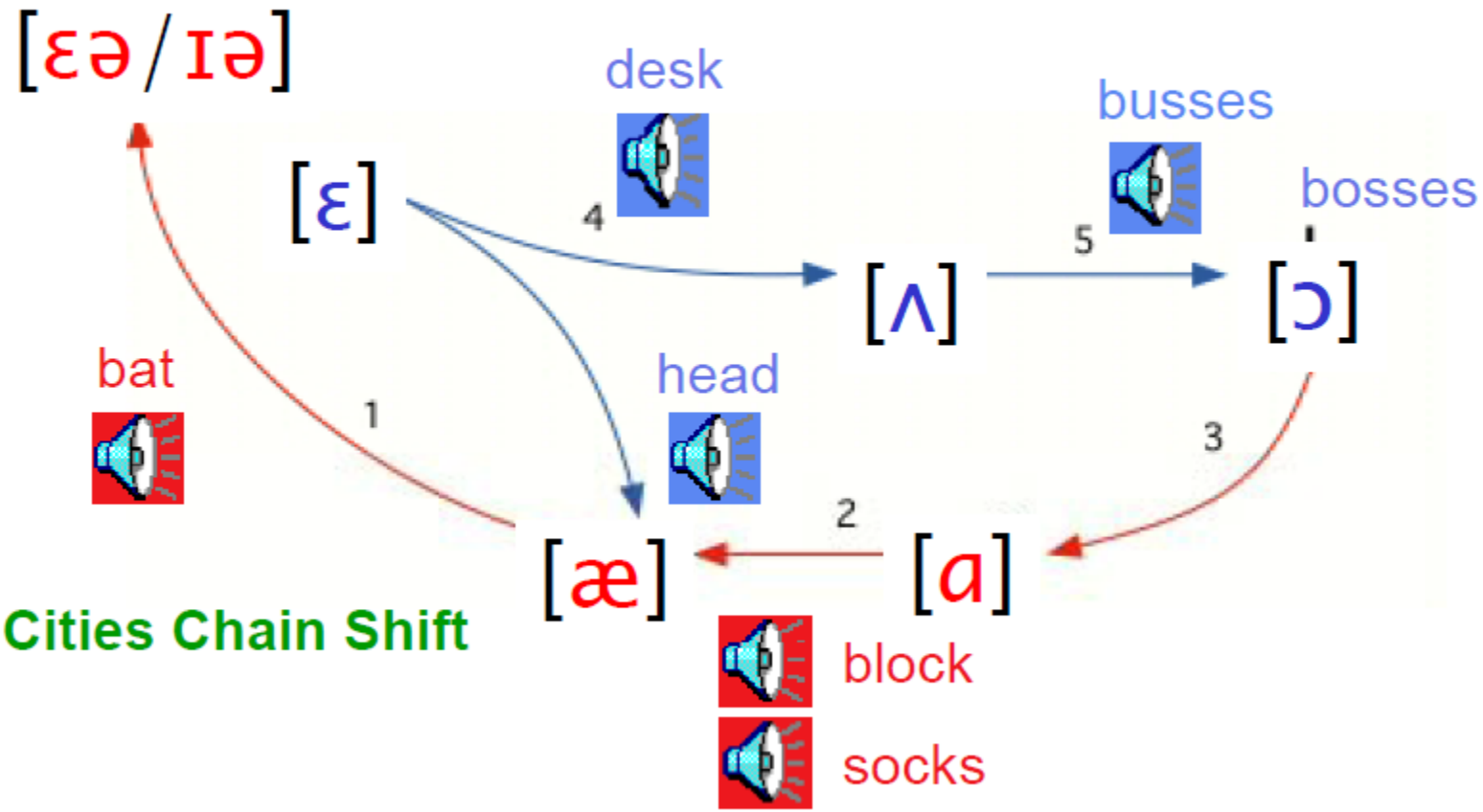
- Tendency to preserve symmetry of phonological system – to optimise the phonological space



Unconditioned phonological change 4

Chain shifts

- Push (to avoid merging) or pull effects(to mergers)



Northern Cities Chain Shift

Unconditioned phonological change 5

Mergers of phonemes

- Front close vowels /i/ : /y/ (unrounding)

  OE *lȳtel* : *little*

  OE *yfel* : *evil*

  OE *synn* : *sin*

- Great vowel shift included one merger

  Compare: *speak* [spɛːk] and *feed* [feːd] in ME

- Disadvantages of mergers: more homonyms arise = potential detriment to communication

  e.g. *to* : *two* : *too*; *their* : *there*; *son* (OE sunu) : *sun* (sunne)

Internal change: Grammar 1

Two main categories of grammatical change:

- Morphological change e.g. *s/he goeth* → *goes*
  thou hast → *you have*

- Syntactic change e.g. word order

  Her husband's to Aleppo gone, master o'the Tiger.
  But in a sieve I'll thither sail […]

  (*Macbeth* I.iii.7-8)

  Weary sev'n-nights nine times nine
  Shall he dwindle, peak, and pine […]

  (*Macbeth* I.iii.22-23)

Internal change: Grammar 2

Morphological change 1

- Word formation

Loss of unstressed OE derivational prefixes in ModE:

ge- with resultative meaning

e.g. *winnan* 'fight' vs. *gewinnan* 'win';
fēran 'go, travel' vs. *gefēran* 'reach'

be- to change intransitive into transitive verbs

e.g. *sittan* 'sit' vs. *besittan* 'inhabit'
weep vs. *beweep* 'weep over' (ME)
fall vs. *befall* (ModE)

Internal change: Grammar 3

Morphological change 2

- Levelling through analogy – new forms are based on other existing ones

Levelling of plurals

- Compare OE (nominative) …

	masculine	feminine	neuter
sing.	*stān*	*cwēn*	*scip*
plural	*stānas*	*cwēna*	*scipu*

- … and ModE

plural	*stones*	*queens*	*ships*

Internal change: Grammar 4

Morphological & syntactic change

There can, however, be problems drawing a sharp distinction between morphological & syntactic change because they often go hand in hand, e.g. case endings and word order.

- Compare OE

Sēo cwēn geseah þone guman. *Se guma geseah þā cwēn.*

subj verb obj subj verb obj = SVO

Þone guman geseah sēo cwēn. *Þā cwēn geseah se guma.*

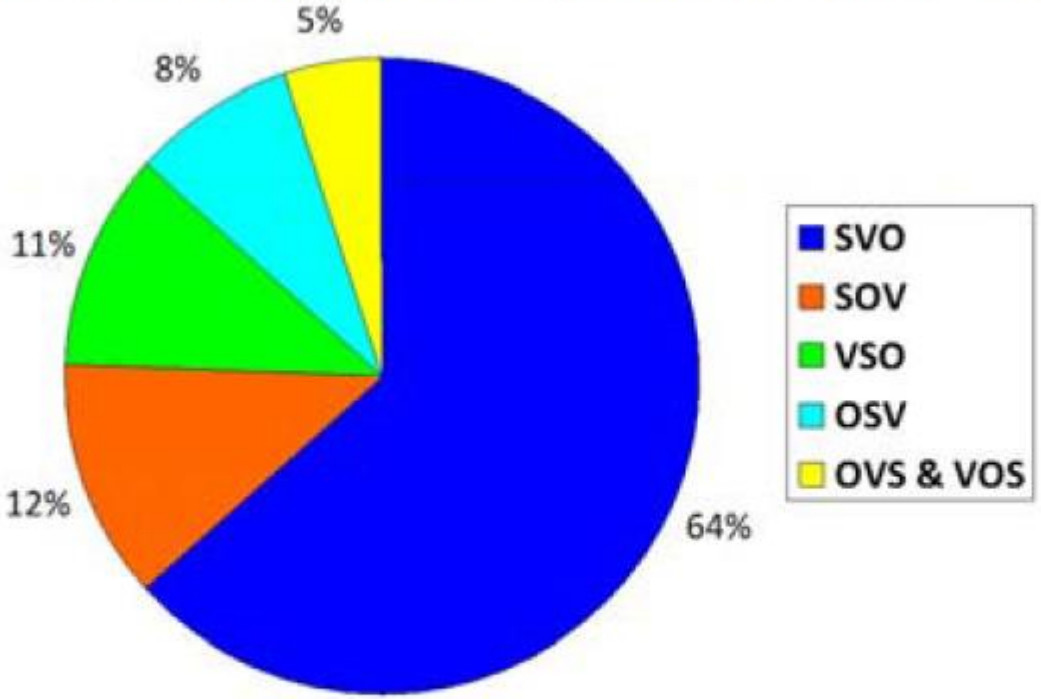
obj verb subj obj verb subj = OVS

- and ModE

The woman saw the man. *The man saw the woman. = SVO*

Internal change: Grammar 5

By Middle English (late 12th century) one study (Palmatier 1969) showed dominance of SVO, but also other word orders:



In ModE the SVO word order is now the default one.

The question is which development came first: the loss of case endings or more fixed word order?

Internal change: Grammar 6

Grammaticalisation – words (esp. nouns & verbs) are transformed into grammatical objects.

This process typically involves:

- ❑ semantic bleaching – loss of lexical meaning
- ❑ phonetic erosion (reduction) – loss of phonetic segments
- ❑ morphological reduction – loss of morphological elements
- ❑ obligatorification – becomes increasingly more obligatory

e.g. (*be)* + *go(ing to* => *be + gonna*
by the side of => the preposition *beside*

External change

Waves of different settlers in Britain:

Celts; Romans; Angles, Saxons and Jutes; Vikings; Normans;

Immigration esp. from former colonies.

Sometimes very profound effect, e.g. creolisation, but also fairly superficial (assimilation of loan words)

Creolisation

Pidgins usually arise when people speaking mutually unintelligible languages come into contact.

Pidgin is no-one's 1st language

Superstrate borrowing (mostly lexis from the superordinate lang.) but adapted to 1st lang (substrate = subordinate lang.) imperfect learning of superstrate language, which in turn has an impact on a potential developing creole.

Creole arises when a pidgin becomes someone's 1st language

External change

There are **English-based Creoles** in the Caribbean, for example in **Barbados and Jamaica**, on the North coast of South America (Guyana, Surinam) and even in the United States.

Creoles probably developed in the Caribbean because of the mixing of populations caused by the slave trade. The slavers herded together speakers of many different West African languages. At the ports of embarkation, and on the slave ships, the captives probably communicated with one another in some kind of West African pidgin, which in the Caribbean plantations developed in Creoles.

Guyana [gaɪˈɑːnə] ; Гайана - Cooperative Republic of Guyana; a country on the northeastern coast of South America; pop. 752,900 (est. 2009); capital, Georgetown; **languages, English (official), English Creole, and Hindi.**

External Change: phonology 1

Influence of Welsh on Welsh English

Received Pronunciation		Welsh English Pronunciation
[ʌ]	*rubber*, *love*	[ə]

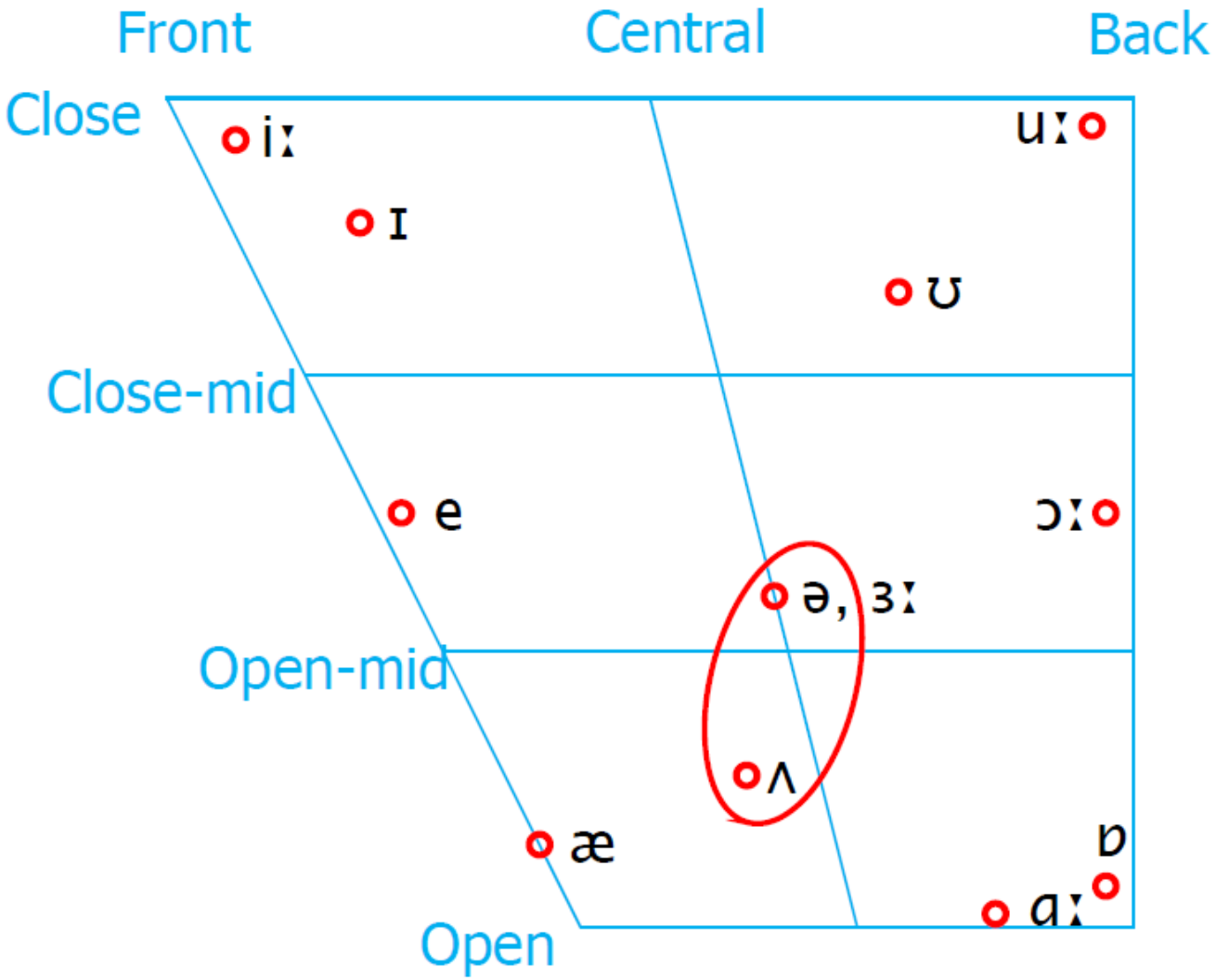
[ə] [ə] [ə] [ə]
it's not just the young people it's my mum my grandmother as well …

everyone
[ə]

Language Contact – Welsh lacks RP's [ʌ]. Instead Welsh English has adopted a similar vowel from Welsh [ə].

[ə] [ə] [ə]
e.g. *ysgol* 'school', *ysbyty* 'hospital'

Language change



External Change: phonology 2

- In OE the unvoiced/voiced variants of these consonants were allophones:

  [f] : [v] [θ] : [ð] [s] : [z]

  with unvoiced forms initial and final, but voiceless forms medial

  OE *þēof* : *þēofas* ModE *thief* : *thieves*

  OE *mūþ* : *mūþas* ModE *mouth* : *mouths*

  OE *hūs* : *hūsian* ModE *house* : *to house*

- But these allophones then became separate phonemes, probably under the influence of large-scale borrowing of Norman French loanwords into ME, giving rise to minimal pairs:

  feel : *veal*; *seal* : *zeal*

- but also certain native English words:

  thigh : *thy*

External Change: LEXIS 1

The history of English vocabulary is characterised by many waves of borrowings (loanwords).

- A Germanic language (< Angles, Saxons & Jutes)
- Latin (church & learning) e.g. *mass*, *master*, *school*
- Norse (typically everyday language) e.g. *take*, *get*, *sky*, *same*
- (Norman) French (government, law & administration, but also everyday language) e.g. *parliament*, *judge*, *age*

Early Middle English (beginning of 12th century)
- about 90% words of English origin
by **end of Middle English** period (mid 15th century)
- about 75% words of English origin..

Internal Change: LEXIS 1

Reasons for lexical change:

New ideas and innovations give rise to new words

- Through polysemy – words have different or multiple meanings, e.g. common words like *get*, *go*

Over time one or more meanings may fall out of use and new meanings develop

- By association with other words, e.g. metaphors, metonymy
- To avoid taboo, negative, offensive words or those that are too direct - euphemisms

Internal Change: LEXIS 1

Euphemism - (the use of) a mild, comforting, or evasive expression that takes the place of one that is taboo, negative, offensive, or too direct:
Gosh God, terminate kill, sleep with have sex with, pass water, relieve oneself urinate.
WORD COMMON EUPHEMISMS
lavatory bog (slang), comfort station, convenience, little boys' room, little house, loo, restroom (AmE), washroom (AmE), water closet (WC)
die depart this life, give up the ghost, kick the bucket (slang), pass away, pass on
Pocket Fowler's Modern English Usage

Internal Change: LEXIS 2

Patterns of lexical change

- **Broadening of meaning** – refers to a wider range of meanings (referents)
- **Narrowing of meaning**
- **Amelioration**
- **Deterioration**

External Change: LEXIS 2

Most of the **borrowings** into English belong to **open word classes**, e g nouns verbs adjectives.
Closed word class borrowings are usually rare, but note the following pronoun:
From ON they, them, their
OE hīe, him, hiera/heora
This could have been facilitated by internal sound changes leading more easily to confusion with the singular pronouns:
he, him <= OE hē, him
she/her, her <= OE hēo, hire (possessive pronoun)

External Change: Morphology 1

Contact between Old English & Old Norse could have led to a **pidgin-like** variety and even a creole (as a lingua franca)

i. Typically **pidgins** lose complex inflectional endings and they become more reliant upon word order
ii. Vowels of endings in unstressed syllables converged e.g . -en, -on, -an > [ən]
iii. During **the Middle English** period all endings with a vowel or vowel + nasal disappeared.

External Change: Morphology 2

Nouns: ‘dog (hound)’ ‘ship’

Sing.	OE ON	OE ON
Nom.	hund hundr	scip skip
Gen.	hundes hunds	scipes skips
Dat.	hunde hundi	scipe skipi
Acc.	hund hund	scip skip
Plural		
Nom.	hundas hundar	scipu skip
Gen.	hunda hunda	scipa skipa
Dat.	hundum hundum	scipum skipum
Acc.	hundas hunda	scipu skip

External Change: Morphology 2

Nouns:	‘dog (hound)’		‘ship’	
Sing.	OE	ON	OE	ON
Nom.	hund	hundr	scip	skip
Gen.	hundes	hunds	scipes	skips
Dat.	hunde	hundi	scipe	skipi
Acc.	hund	hund	scip	skip
Plural	OE	ON	OE	ON
Nom.	hund	hundr	scip	skip
Gen.	hunda	hunda	scipa	skipa
Dat.	hundum	hundum	scipum	skipum
Acc.	hundas	hunda	scipu	skip

External Change: Morphology 3

	Verbs:	‘be’	‘live’	Verbs:	‘be’,	‘live’
Sing.	OE	bēon	libban	ON	vera	lifa
1st	ic	eom	libbe	ek	em	lifi
2nd	þū	eart	lifast	þú	ert	lifir
3rd	hē	is	lifaþ	hann	er	lifir
Plural	OE	OE	OE	ON	ON	ON
1st	wē	**sindon**	**libbaþ**	vér	erum	lifum
2nd	ʒē			þér	eruð	lifið
3rd	hīe			þeir	eru	lifa

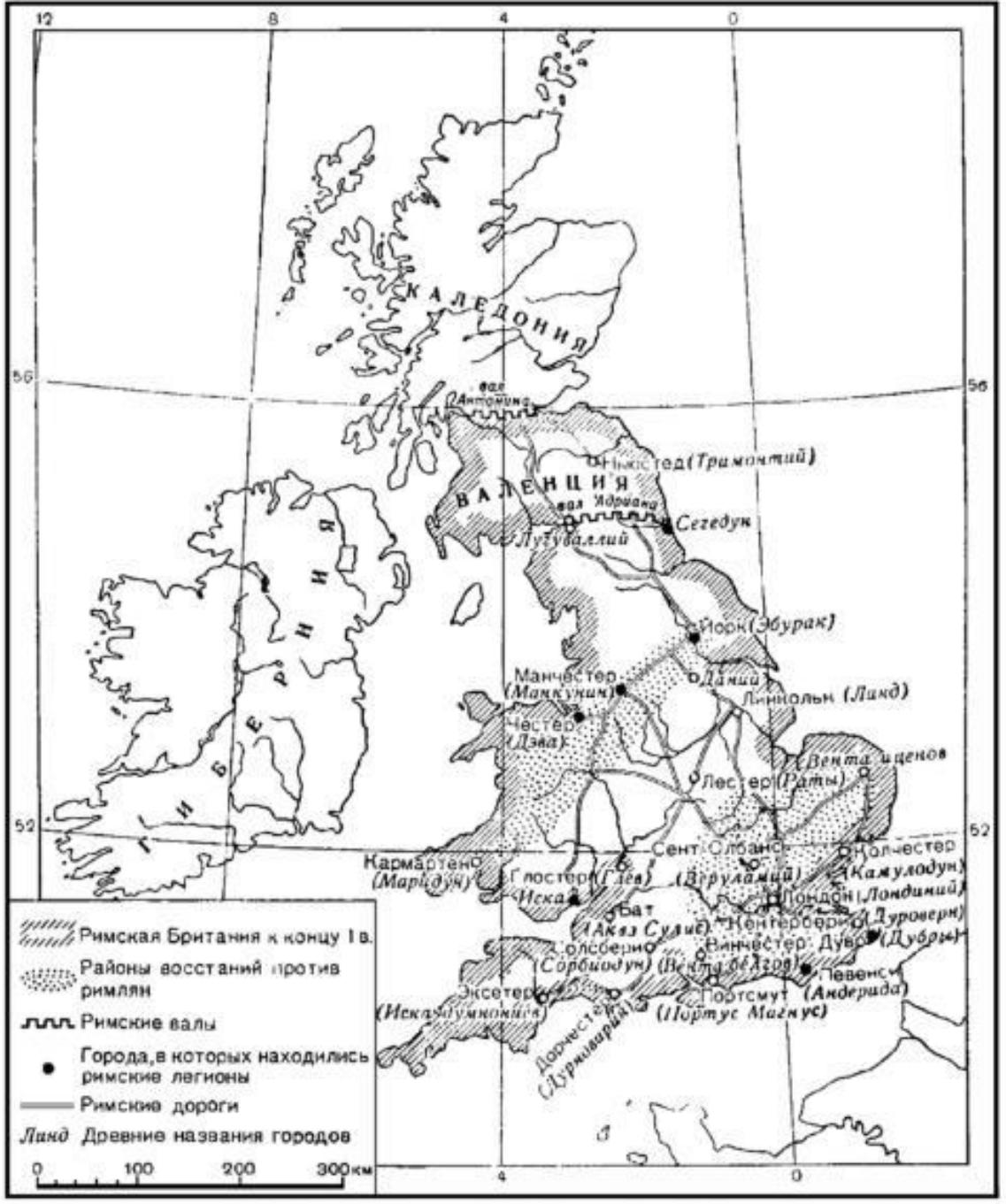
Swine [swaɪn]	Old English swīn, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch zwijn and German Schwein, also to sow **[sau].**	
Pork [pɔːk] - the flesh of a pig used as food.	Origin: Middle English: from **Old French porc**, from Latin porcus 'pig.'	
Sow [sau]	Old English sugu; related to Dutch zeug, German Sau, from an Indo-European root shared by Latin sus and Greek hus 'pig.'	
Calf [kaf] (pl. calves [kavz]) a young bovine animal, esp. a domestic cow or bull in its first year. Old English cælf, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch kalf and German Kalb	**veal [vēl]** the flesh of a calf, used as food	**Origin:** Middle English: from Anglo-Norman French ve(e)l, from Latin vitellus, diminutive of vitulus
Sheep [ʃiːp] **Origin:** Old English scēp, scæp, scēap; related to Dutch schaap and German Schaf	**mutton ['mʌt(ə)n]** the flesh of sheep, esp. mature sheep, used as food	mouton [mutɔ̃] – both meanings
However, **lamb [læm]** 1) the young of a sheep	**lamb [læm]** 2) the meat of a young sheep	l'agneau le petit mouton
Etymology: Old English lamb , from Germanic ;	compare German Lamm	compare Old High German and Old Norse lamb

Ox [ɔks] noun (pl. oxen [ˈɒks(ə)n]) a domesticated bovine animal kept for milk or meat; a cow or bull	**Origin: Old English** oxa, **of Germanic origin;** related to Dutch os and German Ochse, from an Indo-European root shared by Sanskrit ukṣán 'bull.'
Bull [bul]	**Origin: Old English** *bula*, from Old Norse *boli*; related to Middle Low German *bulle*, Middle Dutch *bolle*
Cow [kau]	**Origin: Old English** cū, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch koe and German Kuh, from an Indo-European root shared by Latin bos and Greek bous
Beef [biːf] is the meat of a cow, bull, or ox.	Middle English: from **Old French boef**, from Latin bos, bov- 'ox'
Deer [dɪə]	**Origin:** Old English dēor, also originally denoting any quadruped, used in the (now archaic) phrase small deer meaning 'small creatures collectively'; of Germanic origin; related to Dutch dier, German Tier
Venison [ˈvɛnɪs(ə)n, ˈvɛnɪz(ə)n] [[mass noun] meat from a deer	Venison is the meat of a deer. venison [ˈvenəsən, -zən] ven·i·son meat from a deer Origin: Middle English: from Old French veneso(u)n, from Latin venatio(n-) 'hunting,' from venari 'to hunt.'

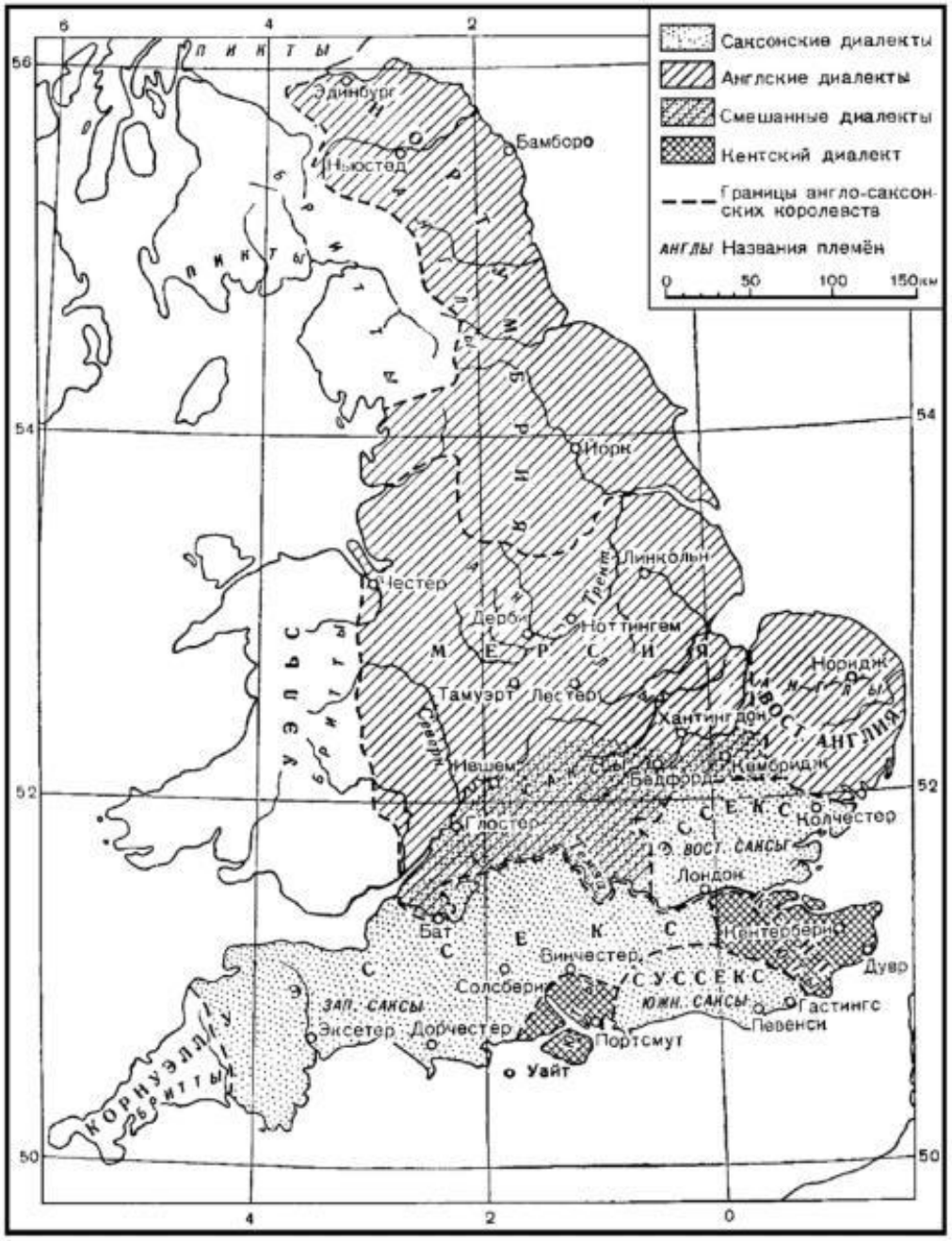
The Origin of beefsteak
['biːf'steɪk]

бифштекс beefsteak ['biːf'steɪk]
бифштекс (натуральный) steak [steik]; (рубленый) hamburger (steak)
Syn: steak; beefsteak beef.steak noun a thick slice of lean beef,
typically from the rump and eaten grilled or fried
бифштекс (in German) Beefsteak; II Steak= натуральный бифштекс

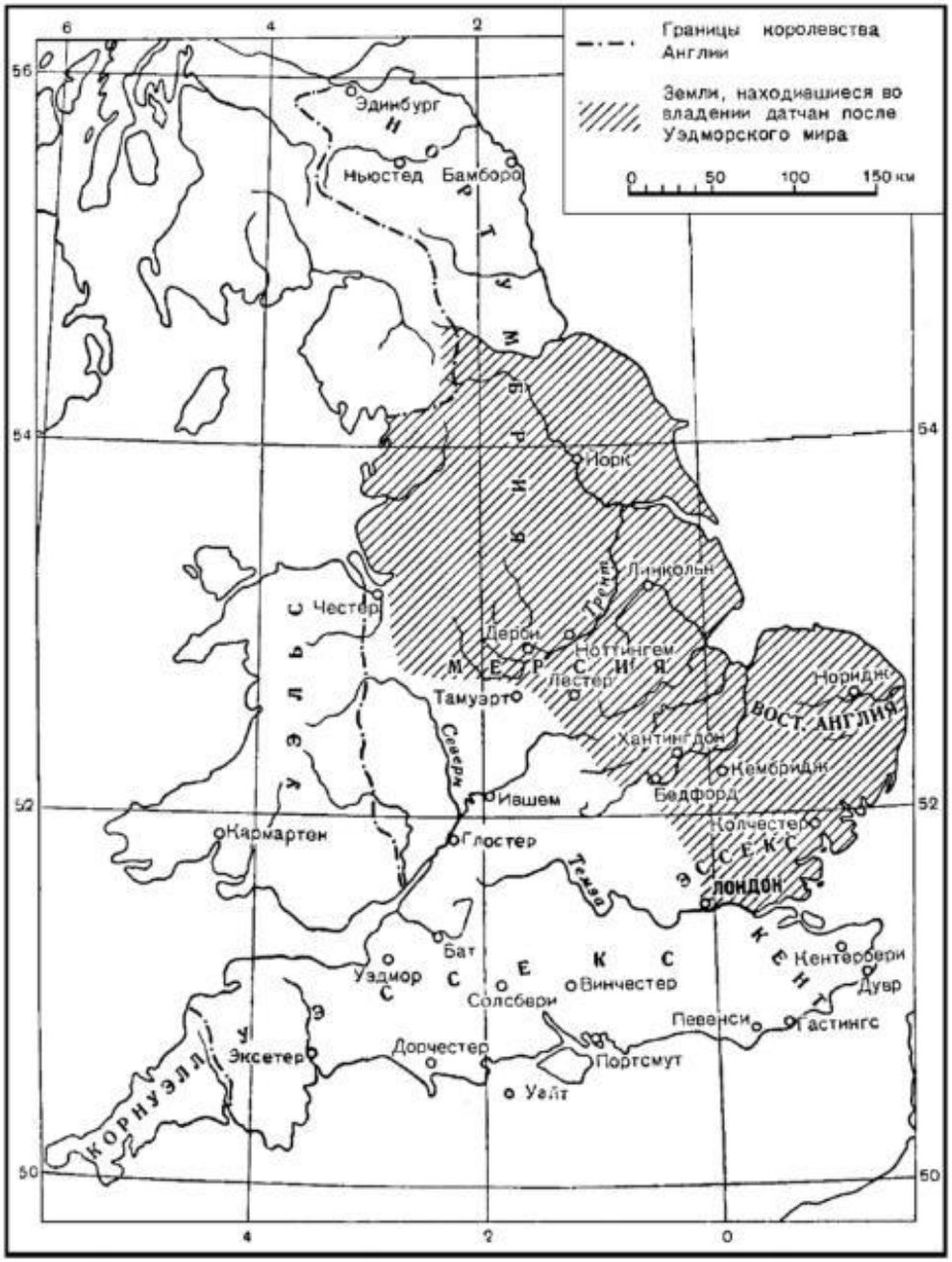
Ox [ɔks] noun (pl. oxen	**Origin: Old English** oxa,
Bull [bul]	**Orgin: Old English** *bula*,
Cow [kau]	**Origin: Old English** cū,
Beef [biːf] is the meat of a cow, bull, or ox.	Middle English: from **Old French boef**, from Latin bos, bov- ‘ox’
steak [steɪk] noun [mass noun] high-quality beef taken from the hindquarters of the animal, typically cut into thick slices that are cooked by grilling or frying ■ [count noun] a thick slice of steak or other high-quality meat or fish a fillet steak a salmon steak	**Origin: Middle English:** from **Old Norse** steik; related to steikja ‘roast on a spit’ and stikna ‘be roasted’
beefsteak [biftɛk] , bifteck (m)	**Modern French**



Британия в эпоху римского завоевания



Англия в период VI – IX веков



Англия в эпоху скандинавского завоевания (в конце IX века)


Dialect areas in Middle English
Town / Cities
Written sources
Northern
Humber
North Sea
Sir Gawain and the Green Knight
West Midland
Ormulum
Peterborough Chronicle
The Bestiary
East Midland
Ancrene Wisse
Ancrene Riwle
Thame
London
The Ayenbite of Inwyt
Southern
Kentish
The Channel

Note: All dialect borders merely suggestive!


Scotland
Highland Scottish
Lowland Scottish
Glaswegian
North
Cumbrian
Northumbrian
Geordie
Pitmatic
Mackem
Tesside
Yorkshire
Lancashire
Scouse
Mancunian
Ireland
Hiberno-English
Dublin
South-Ulster
Mid-Ulster
Belfast
Ulster Scots
Midlands
West Midlands
Brummie
Coventry
Potteries
East Midlands
South-East Midlands
Wales & Isle of Man
Welsh
Cardiff
Manx
East Anglia
Cambridgeshire
Norfolk
Suffolk
Essex
West Country
West Country
Bristolian
Somerset
Devonshire
Anglo-Cornish
South
South East
Sussex
Kentish
Estuary
London
Cockney

Intro. Some basics

The advent of modern English

Three great developments mark the advent of modern English

- 1) British colonialism;
- 2) the Renaissance;
- 3) economic and technical development (the industrial revolution and the development of modern science).

Intro. Some basics

Dialect

The word *dialect*—which contains "lect" within the term—derives from the Greek words *dia-* meaning "across, between" and *legein* "speak." A *dialect* is a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar, and/or vocabulary. The term *dialect* is often used to characterize a way of speaking that differs from the standard variety of the language

The language varieties, or lects, that people speak often serve as the basis for judgment, and even exclusion, from certain social groups, professions, and business organizations.

Intro. Some basics

Regional dialect: A variety spoken in a particular region.
Sociolect: Also known as a social dialect, a variety of language (or register) used by a socioeconomic class, a profession, an age group, or any other social group.
Ethnolect: A lect spoken by a specific ethnic group. For example, *Ebonics,* the *vernacular* spoken by some African-Americans, is a type of ethnolect.
Idiolect: the language or languages spoken by individual. For example, if you are multilingual and can speak in different **registers** and styles, your idiolect comprises several languages, each with multiple registers and styles.
Jargon refers to the specialized language of a professional or occupational group. **Jargon** is often meaningless to outsiders.

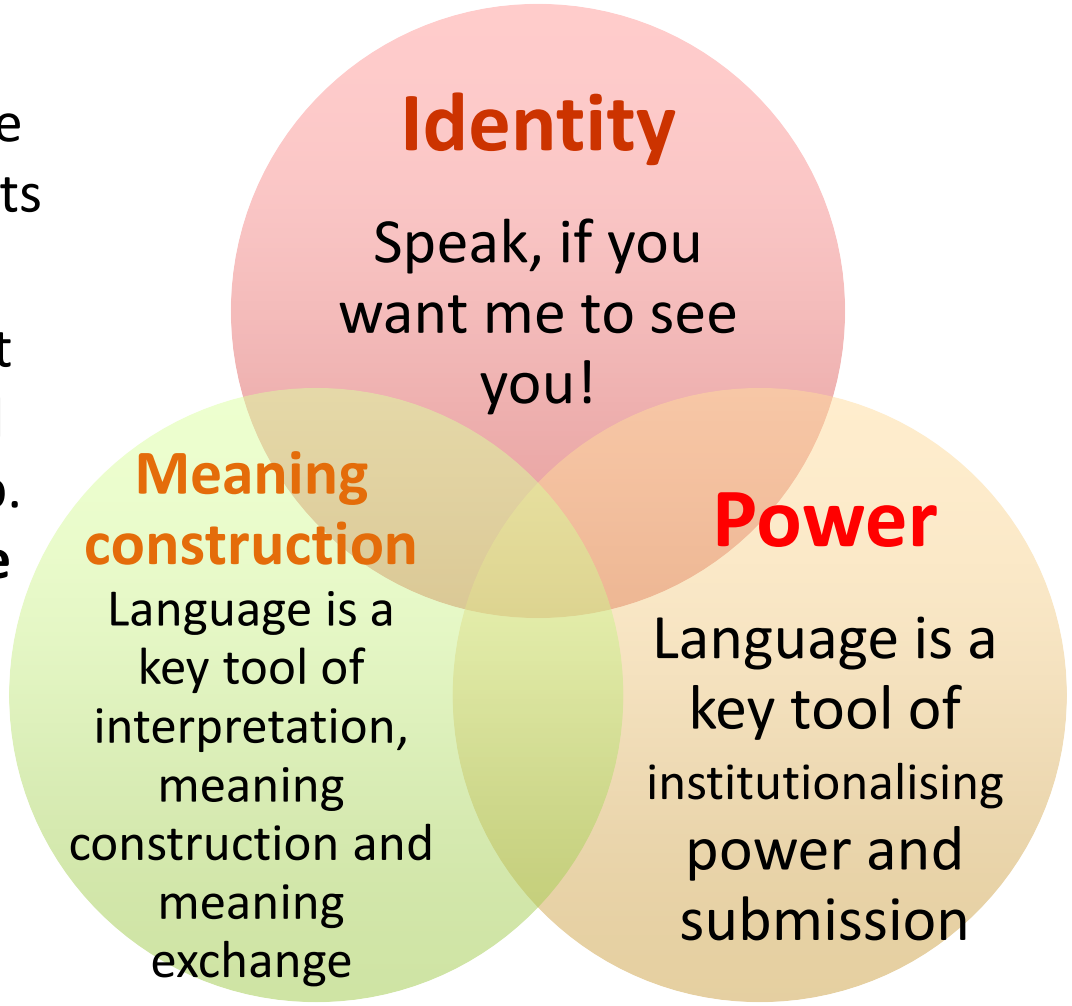
Intro. Some basics

Register is defined as the way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances. It implies some special choice of words, tone of voice, even body language. It can be either formal or informal. Such variations in formality, also called *stylistic variation*, are known as registers in linguistics.

They are determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience. Registers are marked by a variety of specialized vocabulary and turns of phrases, colloquialisms, the use of jargon, and a difference in intonation and pace.

Defining languages and lects

- Functions of language is one of the most distinctive and indispensable concepts in modern linguistics.
- Here we can take a look at it as tool of building social attitudes. Sarnoff (1970, p. 279) describes an **attitude** as
  ‘a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects’.



Intro. Some basics

Registers are used in all forms of communication, including written, spoken, and signed. Depending on grammar, syntax, and tone, the register may be extremely rigid or very intimate.

Sometimes you don't even need to use an actual word to communicate effectively. A huff of exasperation during a debate or a grin while signing "hello" speaks volumes.

Intro. Some basics

Language	
Registers	
Literary	Standard
Common	
Colloquial	
Low Colloquial	Sub-standard
Slang	
Jargon, Cant, Vulgar	

1. RP (Received Pronunciation)

1. RP (Received Pronunciation)

RP is largely non-regional but is typically spoken in some areas in the south and parts of London. It is associated with the upper classes and most often considered by non-natives as the 'Standard English' accent, since this is what is heard on **BBC radio** and **TV**.

Accent Features

/ɑː/.Broad 'a' – the **'a'** sound in the words **'bath'** and **'dance'** is pronounced **'aw'** so they sound like **'baw-th'** and **'daw-nce.'** This is typical of the southern accents.

'r' -> /'/ sound – at the end of a word is not pronounced so **'mother'** is pronounced as **'muhthah.'**

Dialect Words

There are not any dialect words in RP as all speakers speak "Standard English" without slang terms, since it is non-regional.

2. COCKNEY

Cockney originated in London's East End. It can be also be heard in Essex in the East of England and in Kent and Surrey in the South East. It has the same unpronounced **'r'** ending as RP but many other distinct features too.

Accent Features

Vowel shift – the sound **'ay'** is pronounced as /aɪ/ **'eye'** so **'today'** sounds like **'to-die.'** And the '**eye'** /aɪ/' sound in '**buy'** changes to sound [bɔɪ] like **'boy.'**

Glottal Stop 't' sound – the **'t'** is lost in between vowels, so **'better'** sounds like **'beh-uh.'**

L-vocalization – an **'l'** ending often changes to a vowel sound, so **'pal'** sounds like **'pow.'**

/θ/ð/ 'Th' sound – is pronounced as **'f', 'd'** or **'v.'**

So **'thing'** sounds like **fing', 'that'** like **'dat'** and **'mother'** like **'muhvah.'**

2. COCKNEY

Dialect Words

A main feature of the dialect is “Cockney rhyming slang”, which replaces a word with an unrelated rhyming phrase.

Bees and honey = money

Dog and bone = phone

Apple and pears = stairs

Tea leaf = thief

3. GEORDIE

The Geordie accent is spoken mainly in Newcastle in the West Midlands, and the people who live there are known as Geordies.

Accent Features

'R' sound – often not pronounced and replaced with **'ah' : 'sugar'** becomes **'sug-ah,' 'centre'** becomes **'cent-ah'** and **'weird'** sounds like **'we-ah-d.'** /ɑː/

'I' sound – some of the **'i'** sounds change so **'kite'** sounds like **'kaete'** and **'I go'** becomes **'a go.'**

[eɪ] 'ay' sound – in words like **'mate'** changes to an **'ay-ah'** sound to become **'may-aht.'**

Long vowel sounds – the **'oo'** sound is over emphasized, in words like **'school'** and **'book.'** And the **'ee'** sound at the end of **'copy'** is extra long [iː].

3. GEORDIE

Dialect Words

Areet marra = alright mate (to greet a friend)

Giz a deek = let me have a look

Canny = nice or pretty

Gannin' yem = going home

4. SCOUSE

Scouse is a term for the Liverpudlian [ˌlɪvə'pʌdlɪən] accent spoken in Liverpool ['lɪvəpuːl] in the North West, so they pronounce the **'a'** sound in **'bath'** and **'laugh'** as an **'ah.'** It has a very nasal sound [ɑ̃] that can be hard to imitate.

Accent Features

'R' sound – omitted at the end of a word when a consonant follows **: 'pour with'** sounds like **'paw with.'**

'o' sound – in words like **'foot'** is pronounced as **'fut.'** And **'book'** and **'look'** have a long **'oo' /u:/**sound.

'th' sound – occasionally changes to a **'t'** or **'d' :** **'thin'** becomes **'tin'** and **'then'** becomes **'den.'**

'ai' sound [heə]– in certain words change to a short **'e' : 'hair'** and **'square'** sound like **'her'** and **'squer'.**

4. SCOUSE

Dialect Words

Made-up = happy, pleased

Boss = great

Bevvy = drink (alcoholic, typically beer)

Butty = sandwich

5. WEST COUNTRY

This accent is spoken in places like Bristol and Devon in the South West. There is a slower rhythm to the speech due to long vowel sounds.

Accent Features

Soft 'i' – there is subtle difference in the **'eye'** pronunciation **: 'I am'** is pronounced **'Uy am'.**

'Guide' sounds like **'guyde.'** It has a slightly softer sound.

5. WEST COUNTRY

Missing 'l' – in many words where the **'l'** is near the end, it is not pronounced **: 'old'** sounds like **'oad.' [əud]**

't' omitted – the **'t'** at the end of words is generally dropped, so **'that'** sounds like **'tha'** and **'tt'** is glottalized so **'butter'** sounds like **'buh-er.'**

'r' sound – where there is a **'r'** before a vowel, this often becomes **'ur' : 'great'** and '**children'** comes out as 'gurt' and **'chillurn'** (with a dropped 'd').

Scotland

6. SCOTTISH

There are numerous Scottish accents, influenced by the **Irish accent** in the West and by **Nordic accents** to the North. But among the differences are some common features that determine the sound of a General Scottish English accent.

6. SCOTTISH

ME HISTORY

- Scotland was an independent kingdom and the language of the lowlands and of the royal court was what they called “Inglis”
- The Highlands were still Gaelic-speaking

6. SCOTTISH

Accent Features

'O' sounds – the vowel sounds **'oo'** and **'u'** sound the same, with a shorter **'ui' : 'food'** and **'good'** sound like **'guid'** and **'fuid'. /uː/=/ʊ/=>/uɪ/**

Tapped 'r' – the **'r'** is often slightly rolled, as the tongue taps the top of the mouth, which gives a short roll or a **'tapped r.'**

'əl' after 'r' – when **'l'** follows **'r'** an extra syllable is added **:**

'girl' becomes **'girel'** and **'world'** becomes **'woreld'**

Other vowel sounds – the vowel sound in **'heard'** has an **'eh'** sound so is more like **'haird.' /ɜː/=>/eə/**

6. SCOTTISH

Dialect Features

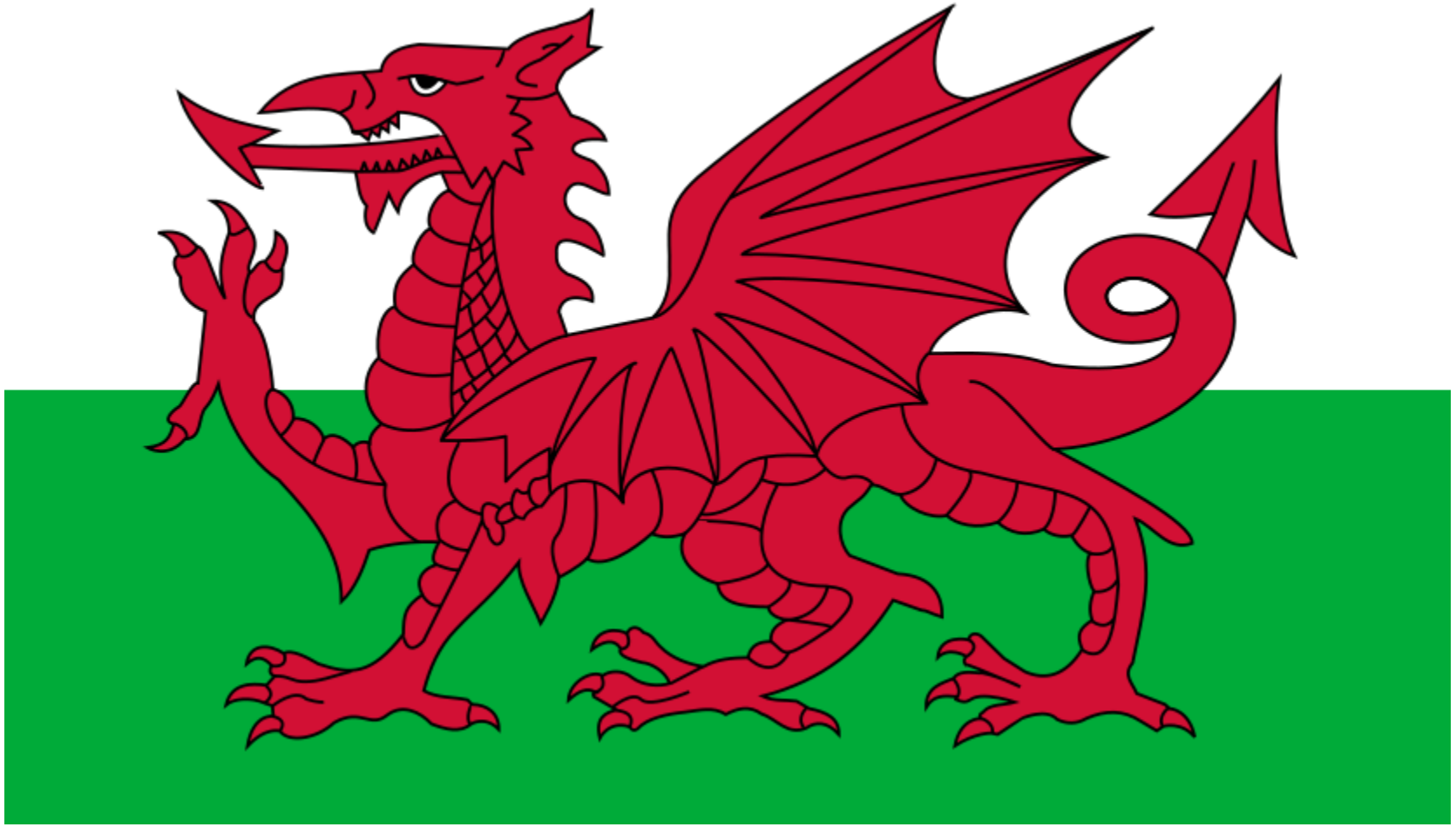
Aye = Yes

Wee = small

Bairn = Child

Ah dinnae ken = I do not know (**Nae** = not)

7. WELSH ENGLISH



7. WELSH ENGLISH

There are differences between the North and South of Wales, but the features from South Wales are most typically associated with the Welsh accent. It has a melodic tone to it, due to the vowel sounds being drawn out and a drop to low notes on stressed syllables; influenced by the Welsh language itself.

7. WELSH ENGLISH

Accent Features

Dropped 'g' – like many other accents in the UK, the **'g'** is dropped at the end of **'ing'** verbs: **'walking'** becomes **'walkin.'**

Tapped 'r' – similar to the Scottish accent, the **'r'** is tapped to give a slightly rolled sound.

'Weh' for an 'i' – When **'i'** comes after a vowel, a **'weh'** sound is inserted : **'doing'** sounds like **'do-wehn.'**

/uː/=>/ʊ/

'Ew' sound changes – in words like **'news'** and **'tune'** to a short **'oo'** sound so these words become **'noos'** and **'toon.'**

7. WELSH ENGLISH

Dialect Features

Many of the dialect words come from the Welsh language.

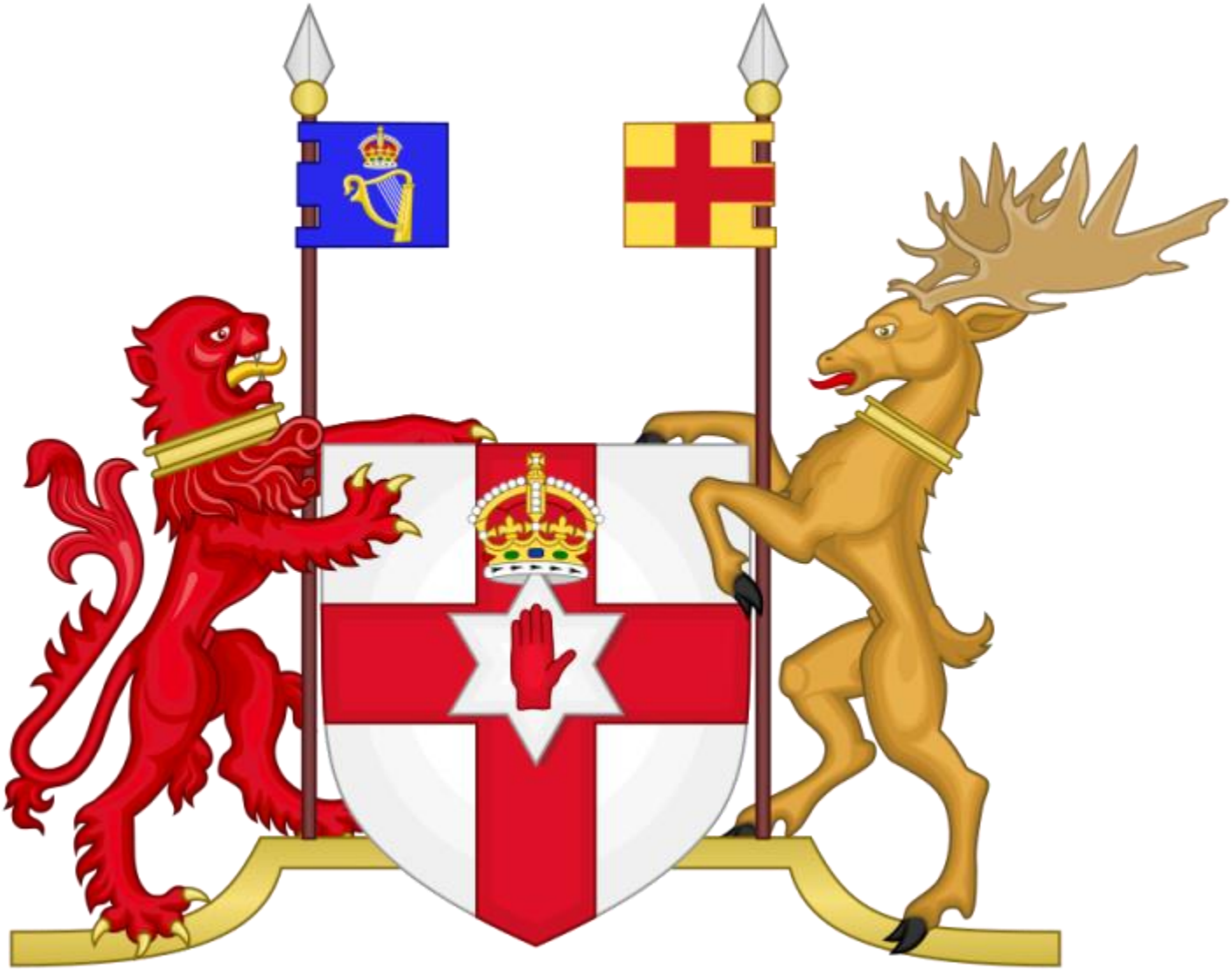
Dwt (pronounced 'Dut') = small and sweet

Cwtch (pronounced 'Cutch') = hug or cuddle with love, warmth and affection

Lush = awesome or very nice

Ych-af-i (pronounced 'Aach-ef-ee) = To express disgust / that's gross!

8. NORTHERN IRISH ENGLISH



8. NORTHERN IRISH ENGLISH

The accent differs from county to county, but there are many similarities. The speech typically has a slight long rise in tone at the end of sentences.

8. NORTHERN IRISH ENGLISH

The 'ow' [au] sound – in words like flower becomes closer to an **'ai'** sound so **'how'** sounds like **'hai'** [haɪ] and **'sound'** becomes **'sai-nd'**

Inserting 'y' sound – in some words after an inital **'k'** or **'g'** so that **'car'** and **'garden'** sound like **'kyarr'** and **'gyarrden.'**

'th' /ð/ sound – is often pronounced closer to a **'d'** sound **:** '**northern'** is pronounced **'norden'** or even dropping the **'t'** entirely to sound like **'nor-n.'**

'oo' and 'ou' sounds – the word **'poor'** has a very soft and long sound like **'ooh'** and is pronounced **'pooh-r.'**

/u::../

8. NORTHERN IRISH ENGLISH

Dialect Features

Gurn = moan about someone

Houl yer whisht = Please be quiet

Boggin' = very dirty

Dead on = fine

8. NORTHERN IRISH ENGLISH

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British English history

Ceasar's Latin

Church Latin

Up to 2,000

Old Norse

Up to 10,0

Norman and North French

Scientific Latin and Greek

Shakes peare +2,000

The 4th century Low German

Anglo Saxon

Old English

Middle English

Modern English

Keltic

OE is estimated to have no more than ~30,000 words.

Dutch

French

Other guages

British English history

The basic vocabulary of modern English comes through the ages unchanged from Old English:
love, say, live, have, own, do, be, will, bury, name, reach, long, strong, high, quick, sun, food, hand, finger, friend, brother, father, mother, stone, earth.