

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

**B.A., (Special English)
Semester – IV, Paper-V**

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BA Special English : 2nd Year – Fourth Semester

A STUDY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining a 'A' Grade from the NAAC in the year 2014, the Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 285 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education with the aim to bring higher education within reach of all. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. With the goal of bringing education in the door step of all such people. Acharya Nagarjuna University has started offering B.A, and B, Com courses at the Degree level and M.A, M.Com., L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2021-22 on the basis of Semester system.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers invited respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn facilitate the country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Coordinators, Editors and Lesson -writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavours.

Prof. P.Rajasekhar
Vice –Chancellor,
Acharya Nagarjuna University

III Year, Semester IV, Course-V
A Study of the English Language

Course Outcomes:

After going through the Course the learner will

- Understand the characteristic features of different ages
- Analyse how language changes
- Interpret the ways that led to the formation of Standard English

Unit	Topic	
1	Origin of language, Indo-European Family of Languages, and the First Sound Shift (Grimm's Law and Verner's Law)	15 marks
2	Characteristics of Old English, Great Vowel Shift and Rise of Standard English in England	15 marks
3	Various Influences on the English Language - Latin, French and Scandinavian	15 marks
4	Change of Meaning, Word - Formation and Standard English	15 marks
5	English across the World - British, American, GIE	15 marks

Internals : 25 (Study Project, Written Test and Assignment)

MODEL QUESTION PAPER

(412SENG21)

B. A. Degree Examination

Second Year – Fourth Semester

Part – II : Special English

Paper – V : A STUDY ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Time : Three hours

Maximum Marks : 70

Section – A

1. Answer any ONE of the following in about 75 words. (1 x 4 = 4)
 - (a) Verner's law.
 - (b) What is Ding – Dong theory?
 - (c) First sound shift.

2. Answer any ONE of the following in about 150 words. (1 x 10 = 10)
 - (a) Write a brief history of Indo – European family of language.
 - (b) Explain in detail about Grimm's law.

Section – B

3. Answer any ONE of the following in about 75 words. (1 x 4 = 4)
 - (a) What are the characteristics of Old English?
 - (b) What is great vowel shift? Explain.

4. Answer any ONE of the following in about 150 words. (1 x 10 = 10)
 - (a) Describe the factors that contribute the Rise of Standard English in England.
 - (b) Write an essay on the important concepts of Old English.

Section – C

5. Answer any ONE of the following in about 75 words. (1 x 4 = 4)
 - (a) Write an essay on Scandinavian Influence.
 - (b) What are the various factors that influence middle – English.

6. Answer any ONE of the following in about 150 words. (1 x 10 = 10)
- (a) Explain how French language influence the English Language.
 - (b) Discuss in brief about the influence of Latin Language.

Section – D

7. Answer any ONE of the following in about 75 words. (1 x 4 = 4)
- (a) Write a note on Johnson's Dictionary of English.
 - (b) Write a note on Semantics with examples.
8. Answer any ONE of the following in about 150 words. (1 x 10 = 10)
- (a) What is word formation? Explain the different ways of word formation with examples.
 - (b) What is Dialect? Explain the standard of English language in detail.

Section – E

9. Answer any ONE of the following in about 75 words. (1 x 4 = 4)
- (a) What are the Dialects of English?
 - (b) Discuss the benefits of having English language.
10. Answer any ONE of the following in about 150 words. (1 x 10 = 10)
- (a) Write an essay on the characteristics of American English (influence).
 - (b) Write an essay on the importance of English – its advantages and disadvantages.

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3	Characteristics of Old English	3.1	3.17
4	Middle English	4.1	4.12
5	The Great Vowel Shift	5.1	5.6
6	The Rise and Growth of Standard English	6.1	6.8
7	Various influences on the English Language – Latin, French and Scandinavian	7.1	7.11
8	Change of Meaning and Word Formation	8.1	8.10
9	English Across the World – British English	9.1	9.10
10	American English	10.1	10.11
11	General English in India	11.1	11.10

Lesson- 1**THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE****1.1. Objective:**

The aim of the present lesson is to:

- ✦ let the student know the genesis of language and the early history of human language.
- ✦ describe the various theories built around the origin of language.
- ✦ illustrate the significance of language.

STRUCTURE**1.2. Introduction****1.3. Characteristics of language****1.4. Theories of the Origin of Language**

- a. The Bow-Wow Theory
- b. The Pooh-Pooh Theory
- c. The Ding-Dong Theory
- d. The Yo-He-Ho Theory
- e. The Gesture Theory
- f. The Musical Theory
- g. The Contact Theory
- h. The Ma-ma Notion
- i. The Pa-pa Notion

1.5 Summary**1.6 Technical Terms****1.7 Sample Questions****1.8 Suggested Reading****1.2. Introduction:**

Language is not a natural phenomenon: It is a creation of man's social needs. **The Oxford English Dictionary** defines the word 'Language' as: "*The whole body of words and of methods of combination of words used by a nation, people, or race; a 'tongue'*". The use of word 'tongue' in this definition reminds us that the language exists in spoken as well as written forms. The word

language itself is used in many ways. We may speak of 'the English Language', 'the language of mathematics' or rather illogically perhaps, we may refer to 'deaf- and- dumb' language. When we refer to the Morse code as 'a language of dots and dashes' or talk about the 'dancing languages of bees' it is clear that we are using the word 'language' in different ways. One of the best known language definitions is: "Language is a purely human and non- instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. These symbols are in the instance, auditory and they are produced by the so- called organs of speech" (Sapir).

We do not even know with certainty when language actually arose, it seems likely that it goes back to the earliest history of man, perhaps over a million years. It appears that speech developed as 'tool making' and the earliest forms of specifically human co-operations.

1.3. Characteristics of Language:

The gift of language is the single human trait which makes us separate from other members of the animal kingdom. Language is like nest-building or hive-making, the universal and biologically specific activity of human beings. We engage in it communally, compulsively and automatically. We cannot be human without it. Language is something we know and speak and write. Then immediately a question arises as to why study language? To a language student, the question is as pointless and irrational as asking a philatelist why he bothered to collect stamps. The answer is that it is a matter of one's individual taste and sensibility and no amount of reasoning about applications can get around this.

Language is a fascinating aspect of human behavior. People are tempted to learn and take delight in studying it from various points of view. What is the origin of language? Why do men speak differently? What is the origin of words? What is the reason behind the heterogeneity of languages? Are the various languages spoken on the global surface basically the same? Before setting out to make a study of the development of the English language over the past fifteen hundred years or more, there are some elementary facts concerning language in general:

1. Like any other living creatures, human beings depend on the air, water and earth around them and in the similar way society depends upon language for its very existence.
2. Language is primarily something that is spoken, not written. 'Spoken form' or 'speech' is the earliest form of any language.
3. By means of speech we are giving an external symbol to inner language. So the spoken form is only a system of outer symbols to what is in our minds in the form of thoughts, feelings or wishes.
4. Sounds are symbols and letters are the symbols of those sounds, thus twice removed from the original inner language. So the written language is secondary and derivative.
5. In the life of each individual speech is learnt before writing and the same was true in the history of mankind in general.
6. Another important fact is that language is a gift or the distinguishing characteristic of man that differentiates man from other animals.
7. Other animals communicate with one other by means of cries. But animal sounds are not articulate and they lack the immense variety which is the chief characteristic feature of the sounds made by man.

8. The number of sound signals that animals can make is limited. But in human language the number of possible utterances is infinite.
9. Human language uses vocal sounds. So speech can be defined as 'an expression of thought or feeling by means of intentional and meaningful sounds produced by vocal organs'.

Some important definitions of language:

- Language is a set of utterances constituting a self-contained system acceptable to the members of the entire community.
- Language is a system of conventional vocal signs by means of which human beings communicate.
- A system of arbitrary vocal symbols by which thought is conveyed from one human being to another.
- Language is a system of communication by vocal sounds among human beings.
- Language is a system of arbitrary and conventional vocal symbols by means of which human beings communicate and co operate with one another.

1.4. Theories of the Origin of Language:

There are many theories about the origin of language, based on various indirect evidences: the language of children, the language in the primeval society, the kinds of variations which have taken place in language in the course of recorded history, the behaviour traits of higher animals like chimpanzees, and also of people suffering from speech defects. These are some of the bases or evidences that may provide us with useful indications.

The expressive noises, signals and gestures of the apes explain how man started in his creation of language. In the earliest times, language changed more slowly than in historical times. It took man about a million years to come off from the Old Stone Age, to the material culture of the Middle and New Stone Ages. Again it took another five thousand years or so to come up to the Bronze Age and about one thousand years to form the Iron Age. Since the industrial age, the pace of change has been dizzying. Under some influences of generic expression the primitives tended to have words for the specific events or situations of life. According to C. L. Barber the following seven theories explain the genesis of language.

a. The Bow-Wow Theory: This theory traces the connection between the sound and the word. Supporters of this theory argue that words are directly imitative of natural sounds and maintain that they form the core of vocabulary and thereby the basis of language. They also argue that a child, while learning a language, tries to reproduce the characteristic sound of an animal or a bird and refers to it by its characteristic sound. Thus the child refers to the dog as bow-wow, the cat as mew-mew and the cow as mow-mow and so on.

For eg: Cuckoo, hiss, splash, sneeze, bang, quack, peewit, grunt, bump, rustle etc.

But concept of this theory that human speech arose in imitation of animal cries is perhaps the weakest of the suggestions, for, while animals can roar, growl, whimper, purr, and whine, incipient men could no doubt make similar emotional sounds, and there seems no good reason to suppose that they learned speech from creatures with smaller and less complex brains.

As Bertrand Russell phrased the objection, no matter how eloquently a dog may bark, he cannot tell you that his parents were poor but honest. While admitting the fact that the onomatopoeic or echoic element has played an important part in the coinage of many words, one cannot explain the large variety of other words whose sounds do not echo the sense. This theory can be dismissed as an incomplete and imperfect explanation of how language obtained its articulate structure.

b. The Pooh-Pooh Theory: Jean Jacques Rousseau in the middle of the eighteenth century propounded this theory. According to him the early man must have used both emotive cries and gestures. Later he realized that gestures could not be used while engaged in manual labour and invented language. The theory came to be called 'Pooh-Pooh' theory because of the principle behind it — a cry developing into a word. 'Pooh-Pooh' at first was only a cry implying disgust; gradually it acquired the status of a word with definite meaning.

According to this theory, language had its origin from the spontaneous utterances, instinctive emotional cries of a primitive man like anger, joy, fear, surprise pleasure, wonder, triumph, and pain etc. These expressive gestures are naturally accompanied by appropriate sounds and gradually the symptom becomes the symbol. This theory holds further that those earliest linguistic utterances, interjections or exclamations are expressive of some emotional state of the mind of primitive man. It is easy to imagine how a cry of fear could become a signal of danger in primitive community as among other animals. But how did articulation develop from mere expressive cries? This theory does not explain how the gulf is bridged between an emotional cry and its articulated symbol.

c. The Ding-Dong Theory: This is a nickname for what is usually known as the 'nativistic theory'. This theory is associated with the German scholar and philologist, Max Mueller. It is based on supposed harmony between sound and sense in language. According to this theory, language was man's expression of the external impressions on him. Every external impression he received was like the sound of a bell(ding dong) and produced corresponding utterance. This theory would thus connect the origin of speech with the same impulse which later gave rise to the savage war-dance, the medieval ballads, etc. Initially a rudimentary attempt at imitation could have resulted, which later developed into a meaningful sequence of sounds. This theory is not convincing chiefly because it relies too much on the hypothetical instinctive faculty of primitive man, rather than on more solid ground of evidence.

d. The Yo-He-Ho Theory : Some nineteenth century scholars like Noire put forward this theory. According to this theory language arose out of the rhythmic grunts of men working together. Involuntary sounds are made when people are engaged in strenuous physical labour such as lifting a log of wood, moving a tree trunk, felling a tree or turning a rock, bear at bay, men hauling a great log to hew out a boat, etc. Such cries are the result of stopping the air stream at one point and releasing suddenly. This would result in the production of consonant-like and vowel-like sounds. Vocal noises of this kind might have developed into words. This idea was accepted by the Soviet aphasiologist A.R.Luria in 1970. He says that "*There is every reason to believe that speech originated in productive activity.*" This theory is significant for two reasons: i) It gives a plausible explanation for production of the earliest consonants and vowels; ii) It envisages the origin of language in a situation involving human co-operation and communal labour with adequate motivation.

This theory too has its weak points. It presupposes co-operative activity of human beings, which would not have been possible in primitive community without the prior existence of language.

It has been argued against the theory that language must have existed long before primitive man was brought into a situation involving communal co-operation. So this theory puts the cart before the horse in spite of the validity that it explains the origin of vocal sounds.

e. The Gesture Theory: According to this theory speech was preceded by gestures. Supporters of this theory point to the extensive use of gestures by some animals and by some primitive tribes. For example, a Chimpanzee makes signals and expresses its feelings by its body movements as well as by vocal noises. Perhaps the same can be said of the earliest speech of the primitive man. Sir Richard Paget and Prof. Alexander Johanneson suggest that the primitive man initially communicated through gestures. We can observe gestures and facial expressions effectively used for communication in the ancient art form of *Indian Bharata Natyam* and *Kathakali*. While it is credible that the gesture and speech are closely related, the theory does not take us beyond that. It appears more probable that the speech and gestures grew up together for even in modern times we use gestures to supplement our vocal expressions. An extreme version of gesture theory holds the view that language came into existence as recently as about 2500 BC.

A variant of this theory is the **Mouth gesture theory**. Supporters of this theory argue that primitive man used gestures in communication and as his intelligence and technique developed he needed more precise gestures. At the very outset mouth and hands were separately or jointly employed to gesticulate. Afterwards he discovered that the mouth was capable of making sounds besides gestures. Supporters of this theory analyze various words in terms of mouth gestures. Though some of the aspects of this theory are amusing and fanciful, it has the virtue of accounting for the articulated nature of speech.

f. The Musical Theory: The Danish linguist Otto Jespersen propounded this theory. This theory holds that language came from song. Looking down a hillside to a lush valley watered by a limpid stream, all graced by the warming sun, man in exuberant spirits burst into exultant or thankful sound. A sort of primitive yodeling soon became a signal to fellow-tribesman or mate on the opposite hill. The Greeks accepted this idea of the origin of speech. Jespersen cited the examples of primitive language with long and cumbersome words, which were difficult to pronounce. Moreover the frequent use of tone pitch and musical intervals made it even more difficult to utter. He believes that it was musical, passionate and very irregular and it dealt with the concrete rather than with the abstract. Its earliest form was a song, which was merely expressive, but not communicative. His view seems to be quite romantic. Jespersen says, "Language was born in the courting days of mankind ; the first utterances of speech I fancy to myself were something between the nightly love-lyrics of Puss up on the tiles and the melodious love songs of the nightingale". Like any other theory, this theory is untenable in the absence of historical knowledge of a large number of world's languages.

g. Contact Theory: Prof. G. Kevesz, a former professor of psychology at Amsterdam, advanced this theory. He contends that language arises through individual need for contact with his fellow men. According to this theory, language grew in several stages. At first contact sound was made which was not communicative, but merely expressive of one's need for contact with his fellows; for e.g., noises made by gregarious animals. In the second stage came the cry which was directed to the environment in general; for e.g., the mating calls and cries of young nestlings in danger. In the third stage came the call directed to an individual, demanding for satisfaction of some urge; for e.g., domestic animal begging for food and infant crying for its mother. In the fourth stage came the word with its symbolic function after human acts and thought.

It appears that this theory suffers because it places undue emphasis on the instinctive need for contact as a motive for the invention of language. Moreover the theory does not explain anything about how language acquired articulation.

Besides the above seven theories forwarded by C.L.Barber, another linguist Joseph T. Shipley stated two more notions to explain the origin of language. They are the '*Ma-ma Notion*' and the '*Pa-pa Notion*'.

h: The Ma-ma Notion : The Ma-ma notion claims that the speech faculty is given, not derived; it is innate. In India, the god Indra is credited with inventing speech, and myths around the word make similar attributions. Socrates declared that the gods named things in the proper way. Words were thus holy; from this sprang the relation of *nomen et omen*: knowledge of the name gave power over the thing named. Even today, the [orthodox] Jews do not use the hidden name of their God. Words may have magic power: Ali Baba's "Open sesame" opened the cave of the forty thieves. "*Solomon knew the names of all the spirits, and having their names, he held them subject to his will.*" (William James)

Those accepting the idea of an innate capacity for speech without attributing its existence to a god, assume a natural development, such as the pursing lips of the suckling babe, which seem to form a *m-m-m*. This sound of course comes close to us in *mamma – mother, Mutter, mater, mere*, and all the suckling *mammals*.

i. The Pa-pa Notion: The Pa-pa notion relies on the simple method of trial and error. There was a need to communicate — and language emerged. Difficult or inappropriate sounds were sloughed; communication struggled through. This idea has at least the added attraction that it is the second step in all the other hypotheses. However language may have started, this is how it grew, and still is growing.

It is clear by now that with all this welter of theories no final word can be said about the origin of language. Inevitably, we remain in the realm of possible speculation and interesting guesses. It may be admitted that the Gesture theory and Yo-he-ho theory come nearer to the truth than the other theories. Each of these theories has its virtues and claims. Yet none provides a comprehensive, all-inclusive satisfactory explanation about the mysterious origin of the miracle of language. After much futile discussion, wisdom dawned on the linguists and they reached the conclusion that the available data yields little or no evidence about the origin of language.

1.5. Summary:

It is interesting to turn to the problem of the origin and early history of human language. All of us realize and accept the fact that the basic unanswered question about language is how it came to be. We are deeply ignorant about the origin of language and we have to be content with some plausible speculations and guesses as to how speech began. Scholars like C. L. Barber, Joseph T. Shipley and others built up various theories or notions around the problem of the origin of human language; for example, *The Bow-Wow Theory, The Pooh- Pooh Theory, The Ding – Dong Theory, The Yo-He-Ho Theory, The Gesture Theory, The Musical Theory, The Contact Theory, The Ma-Ma Theory, The Pa-Pa Theory* etc. Each of these has many scornful critics, and the methods have been given names by the mockers. While a germ of truth may lie within each of these notions, there is no device to probe prehistory and establish how the first speakers achieved meaningful word forms. To check unending argument, in 1866 the Linguistic Society of Paris ruled that its members stop indulging in no further speculation as to the origin of language.

1.6. Technical Terms

1. genesis: the origin of something, when it is begun or starts to exist
2. utterance: something that someone says
3. arbitrary : based on chance rather than being planned or based on reason
4. articulate: pronounce; able to express thoughts and feelings easily and clearly, or showing this quality
5. vocal : relating to or produced by the voice in speaking
6. gesture: a movement of the hands, arms or head, etc. to express an idea or feeling
7. linguistic: connected with language or the study of language.
8. presuppose: to think that something is true in advance without having any proof
9. linguist: someone who studies languages or can speak them very well.
10. yodeling: to sing by making a series of very fast changes between the natural voice and a much higher voice
11. gregarious: (of people) liking to be with other people, or (especially of animals) living in groups.

1.7. Sample Questions:

1. Discuss the chief theories concerning the origin of language.
2. Comment briefly on the validity of the theories concerning the origin of language.
3. Give an account of the theories concerning the origin of language.

1.8. Suggested Reading

1. Jean Aitchison,;: ***The Seeds of Speech: Language Origin and Evolution***
2. A.C. Baugh,;: ***A History of language***
3. David Crystal,;: ***Linguistics***
4. Charlton Laird: ***The Miracle Of Language***
5. Simeon Potter: ***Our Language***
6. C.L. Wrenn: ***The English Language***
7. H.C. Wyld. : ***The Growth of Language***

- P. Naga Suseela

Lesson- 2**INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES
AND THE DESCENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE****2.0. Objectives:**

The aim of the present lesson is to:

- give an overall view of the Indo-European family of languages.
- describe briefly the Germanic languages and the place of the English language
- show how English is descended from the West Germanic branch.
- explain in detail the First Consonant Shift: Grimm's Law & Verner's Law

STRUCTURE:

- 2.1. Introduction
- 2.2. The Indo-European Family
- 2.3. Satem Group
- 2.4. Centum Group
- 2.5. The Germanic Languages
 - 2.5. a. Grammar
 - 2.5. b. Vocabulary
 - 2.5. c. Phonology
- 2.6. Grimm's Law
- 2.7. Verner's Law
- 2.8. Summary
- 2.9. Technical Terms
- 2.10. Sample Questions
- 2.11. Suggested Readings

2.1. Introduction

“By ethnic origin the English are a mongrel breed. Their language is polyglot, drawn from a variety of sources, and its vocabulary has been augmented by importations from all over the world. The English language does not identify the English, for it is the main language of Wales, Scotland, Ireland, many Commonwealth countries, and the United States. The primary source of the language, however, is the main ethnic stem of the English, the Anglo-Saxons, who invaded and colonized England in the 5th and 6th centuries. Their language provides about half the words in modern English vocabulary.”

-Encyclopaedia Britannica.

In the remote past when man was nomadic in habit, the primitive tribes around the Black Sea spoke a language, which has been called by philologists Aryan, Indo-Germanic and Indo-European. It not only indicates the geographical extent to which it spread but also gives prominence to Asian and European groups of languages. The nomadic tribes later split up into various groups and moved in different directions in search of food and shelter. Each of the groups took with it their common language but due to the long lapse of time and change of place their languages became dialects and later into distinct independent languages. The present multiplicity of languages is due to repeated differentiation through the ages. It is very possible to identify certain common features among the resultant languages. These similarities indicate that all these languages were one in the past. Let us examine the salient features of the Indo-European family of languages and its branches.

2.2. Indo-European Family of Languages:

We do not have first hand knowledge about the original Indo-European language. But by the comparative study of its surviving descendents, it is possible to form a fair idea of the characteristics. The Indo-European language was a synthetic language. It had a complex system of inflexional endings. Centuries later the language acquired analytical tendencies. The vocabulary of the Indo-European language was limited to serve the needs of the primitive, aboriginal tribes who spoke it. In most of the modern European languages the singular personal pronouns bear a very close resemblance. Indo-European languages have common words for the primary family relationships like father, brother, mother etc. One of the important resemblances in the ancient languages and their modern descendents is found in the cardinal numbers up to ten.

The Indo-European family can be split into eight chief branches. They are sub-divided into two groups: **the Eastern Group** and **the Western Group**. **The Eastern Group** consists of the 'Satem' languages i.e., **Indo-Iranian, Armenian, Albanian** and **Balto-Slavic**. The Western Group includes the 'Centum' languages i.e., **Hellenic, Italic, Celtic** and **Germanic**. The classification of Eastern and Western groups is based on certain common features shared by the languages of each group.

2.3. Satem Group:

2.3.i. Indo-Iranian: This branch is also known as *Aryan* because the ancient people who spoke it called themselves *Aryans*, which means the 'noble ones'. This branch has two groups the *Indian* and the *Iranian*.

Indian: *Sanskrit*, the literary language, and *Prakrit*, from which most of the North Indian languages have descended, belong to the Indian branch. This branch of the Indo – European family has preserved for us the oldest literary texts, the Vedas, written in Vedic Sanskrit. A later form of language was fixed and given a literary form by the Indian grammarian, Panini. Classical Sanskrit is the medium of a rich variety of literature, a wealth of dramaturgy, lyric poetry, and the two national epics, *The Ramayana* and *The Mahabharatha*. A large number of colloquial dialects known as Prakrits existed besides Sanskrit. One of them, *Pali*, was given literary status, which was the language of Buddhism in the 6th century B.C. Prakrit gave rise to Apabramsa, which in turn gave rise to the present North Indian languages; For example, *Hindi*, *Bengali*, *Marathi*, *Punjabi*, *Romani* etc.

Iranian: The Iranian branch is the mother of *Persian*, *Pushtu* (Afghan), *Avestan* (the language of *Zoroastrians*) etc. The earliest recorded language of this group is Avestan, the language of Avesta, the sacred writings of Zoroastrians. Some of these writings went back to 1000 B.C. Avestan has left no direct descendents. But it is related to Old Persian which was preserved in inscriptions. A later form of this language is called *Pahlavi* or *Middle Iranian* from which modern *Persian* is descended. *Persian* is spoken throughout a large part of Iran. Other languages belonging to this group are Kurdish, the language of Eastern Turkey, Iraq, and Western Iran; *Balochi*, the language of Baluchistan and *Pashto*, the language of Afghanistan.

2.3.ii. Armenian: The Armenian branch of languages is found in a small area south of Caucasus mountains and the eastern end of the Black Sea. The earliest records of Armenian are preserved in a Bible translation of the fifth century A.D. It stands alone as a separate branch of Indo-European family. Throughout their long troubled history the Armenians have preserved their individuality and not allowed themselves to be dominated by the imperial rulers of Persia, Rome and Byzantium. Modern Armenian had absorbed many loan words from the neighbouring languages, especially Iranian. About four million people in the southern Caucasus and Eastern Turkey speak it.

2.3.iii. Albanian: We have recorded information of Albanian from the eleventh century AD. It is the smallest of the eight surviving branches of the Indo- European family. Only one and a half million people speak it and they reside in the Northwest part of Greece. It might have descended from ancient Illyrian. But the evidence is insufficient for certainty. Albanian contains a large number of loan words from neighboring languages like Turkey. It is wrapped in history and we do not have intimate knowledge of it except for some legal documents. No literature earlier than the seventeenth century has survived.

2.3. iv. Balto-Slavonic: This branch comes from Eastern Europe. It consists of two groups. 1) the Baltic and 2) the Slavonic. These two groups have sufficient features in common to justify their descendants from the same branch.

The Baltic language includes *Lithuanian*, *Lettic* and *Old Prussian*. Of these *Lithuanian* is important to the student of Indo- European because its conservative nature has preserved some old features that have disappeared in all the other members of the Indo- European family. Prussian died out in the seventeenth century having been replaced by German.

The Slavonic group includes *Russian, Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian* etc. The earliest form of Slavonic is known as Old Church Slavonic. It is still used as a liturgical language in some of the orthodox churches.

2.4. Centum Group (Western):

2.4.i. Hellenic: This branch includes various Greek dialects, which are spoken in the islands of the Aegean Sea, in Asia Minor and in Ancient Greece. The appropriate date of these dialects (based on recent discoveries) is fixed around the fifteenth century B.C. We have abundant literature and a large mass of inscriptions and documents in the dialect of *Attic* (the dialect of the city of Athens) which owed its supremacy to the dominant political and cultural position of Athens in the fifth century B.C. After the death of Alexander the Great (323. B.C.), this dialect became the general language of Mediterranean countries. It was used in the New Testament and was used by Homer, Aeschylus, and Euripides in their creative writings. Modern Greek has only eight million speakers. A spoken variety called Democratic Greek is now used in Cyprus, Turkey and in some parts of the United States. The dialects of Modern Greece are descended from this group.

2.4.ii. Italic : The languages of this group present a larger collection of recorded evidence than any other branch of Indo-European. We have evidence that as early as the 6th Century B.C., a number of languages were spoken in Italy. Of all the languages spoken in those times, *Latin* became supremely important because of the political supremacy of Rome. The expansion of the Roman Empire spread *Latin* into many parts of Europe. The literary form of Latin is called *Classical Latin*. From the common form of Latin (Vulgar Latin) the Romanic languages like *French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Roumanian* and *Catalonian* are descended. These languages have been carried into different parts of the world.

2.4.iii. Celtic: This branch has many characteristics with the Italic branch. Celtic was widely in use in Western Europe in the first century B.C. At present it is found only in some remote corners of France and in the British Isles. The Celtic languages fall into three groups: *Gaelic, Brittanic* and *Gaulish*. The modern forms of Celtic are *Scottish, Irish, Welsh, and Cornish, Manx* and *Breton*.

2.4.iv. Germanic (Teutonic): The branch of Indo-European to which English belongs is called Germanic. It is also called Teutonic because the Teutonic races like Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Dutch, Germans and Scandinavians originally spoke it. This language group includes languages such as *German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic*. All these languages are descended from one parent language, a branch of Indo-European, often called Proto-Germanic/ Primitive Germanic/ Common Germanic/ Teutonic. At the beginning of the Christian era, the speakers of Proto-Germanic who lived in the North of Europe formed a homogeneous cultural and linguistic group. We do not have any evidence of the language of this period but we know something of the people who spoke it from the works of Tacitus. He calls them Germans and describes them as a tribal society living in scattered settlements in the woody and marshy country of Northern Europe. It is essentially an agricultural community keeping flocks and growing grain crops. The family is the basic unit of social organization among them. They are monogamous and women are held in high esteem in their society. They love war because it is often a means to renown and booty. In the course of time, due to over population and the poverty of their natural resources they spread in different directions.

By the beginning of the Christian era, the Germanic group began to split. As a result of the expansion of the Germanic group, different dialects sprang up. There are three main branches in the Proto-Germanic. They are : i) North Germanic, ii) East Germanic, iii) West Germanic. Modern Scandinavian languages like Norwegian, Swedish, Danish and Icelandic belong to the North Germanic branch. Burgundian, Vandal and Gothic tongues (Visi-Gothic and Astro-Gothic) belong to the East Germanic dialects of Proto-Germanic. Of all the dialects the West Germanic dialect is the most important one because English, German, Frisian, Flemish and Dutch are descended from this branch.

2.5. The Germanic Languages:

About 450 million people speak the Germanic languages on every continent. Most people speak English, but German, Dutch and even the Scandinavian languages remain spoken in former colonies all over the world. Afrikaans is actually a variety of Dutch spoken in South Africa, and Flemish is the form of Dutch spoken in Belgium. Faroese is spoken in the Faroes Islands, and Frisian (spoken in the Netherlands) is the language that is the most closely related to English. However, out of the five major languages in this branch, Dutch is akin to English. Now let us examine the general characteristic features of all these languages in general.

- a) Simplification of the inflectional system
- b) Strong and weak forms of adjectives
- c) A dental suffix for the past tense.
- d) Fixing of the stress on the initial syllable
- e) A common distinctive vocabulary
- f) Consonantal changes

2.5.a. Grammar: The stress of words is primarily on the first syllable, and several vowel shifts separate the Germanic languages from other Indo-European languages. Originally, there were three numbers (singular, plural, dual), three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter), and four noun cases (nominative, accusative, dative, genitive) but these only remain in German (minus the dual) and Icelandic. Word order in German is less strict because of the cases, but it is also much more complicated because of the verb final position in subordinate clauses. *Dutch* has combined the three genders into common and neuter, common being the former masculine and feminine. English has no genders or noun cases except for changes among a few personal pronouns; as well as strong and weak verbs, there are also strong and weak adjectives that decline before nouns.

German retains most of the Proto-Germanic language, but is least like the other languages in its group. Consequently, it is the most difficult to learn. The noun cases are easier than those of the Slavic languages, but they still give English speakers several problems. But German is the most used language among the eastern countries of Europe, so it can be used as a *lingua franca* (link language) in Slavic-speaking areas.

Dutch is much easier to learn than German, but many people dismiss this language because the Netherlands is no longer a world power. The verbs are less complicated, as well as word order, and the vocabulary even sounds more like English. When you learn Dutch, you will also be

able to communicate with those who speak Afrikaans in South Africa, as well as some Indonesians who have learned Dutch as a result of centuries of colonial rule.

Norwegian, Swedish and Danish are also very easy for English speakers to learn. Like Dutch, they use two genders (except some dialects of Norwegian, which retain the feminine), but verbs only change for tense (and not person) and word order is much like English. Definite articles attach to the end of the noun (as in Roumanian). *Swedish and Norwegian* are tonal languages, so, the accent on a syllable can distinguish meaning between words. These accents give the languages a “singing” quality, but also make it harder for English speakers to learn pronunciation correctly. These three languages are said to be mutually intelligible, meaning they can be considered dialects of one language. However, it is often hard for Swedes and Danes to communicate with each other, but not so hard for either to communicate with Norwegians.

2.5. b. Vocabulary:

One-third of the vocabulary of the Germanic languages is not of Indo-European origin. A good number of words are peculiar to Germanic and they have no certain correspondences in other Indo-European languages, e.g. *boat, keel, float, see, sail, stay, ship, sheet* etc. Since other Indo-European languages have no words corresponding to these they developed the nautical words. The earliest records of Germanic are from Gothic, especially in the translation of the ***New Testament*** made in the 4th century by Ulfilas (Bishop of the Goths) among the words peculiar to Germanic are: ***rain, hold, wife, meat, drive, wheat*** etc. Gothic cognates of English include ***light*** and ***find***. The presence of such words strengthen the concept that the original Indo-Europeans lived inland. The Germanic branch that moved away from them might have reached the coast and ventured into the sea.

The Proto-Germanic people borrowed a good number of words from the Celts and the Romans. The Celts were skilled in metallurgy and the Germanic words ***iron*** and ***lead*** were borrowed from them. The Romans contributed to the Germanic languages words related to war, trade, building and food. So words like *wall, tile, chalk, mill, cheap, pond, pepper, peas, plum, apple* etc. seem to show that the Germanic tribes were much impressed by concrete manifestations of Roman civilization rather than by Roman law. With the expansion of the Germanic people, dialectal differences arose. This led to the emergence of three distinct divisions of Germanic: North Germanic, East Germanic and West Germanic.

High German and Low German derive their respective names from their corresponding distance to the sea. High German at present is the official language of Germany. Modern English has similarities with Frisian and Low German languages. Dutch and English have close resemblance and they have the same word for ***water***. Other words with little difference include ***twenty-twentic*** and ***wife- wif*** etc. Frisian and English are more akin to each other and it is believed that the Old English and Frisian were one speech. At present Frisian is found in the dialectal forms of Holland and the islands of the North Sea.

2.6. c. Phonology: At the time of its separation from the Proto-Indo-European language, Proto-Germanic had developed certain changes. One such change was in the matter of accent. There are two kinds of accent. (a) Musical accent – based on pitch or intonation; (b) Stress accent — based on the force or weight of utterance. Most probably the parent Indo-European language had musical accent. But in the languages descended from it the stress and accent

became predominant and free. (It could be used on different parts of the same word according to context and meaning). It is the general characteristic of Germanic languages to fix this stress on the first syllable of the word. When the first syllable of the word is stressed, the syllables at the end of the word will tend to be blurred in utterance and then lost completely.

2.6. Grimm's Law or The First Sound Shift:

At the time of emergence of Proto-Germanic from Proto-Indo-European, the consonant system of the Proto-Indo-European underwent great changes. The most important of the changes is called **The First Sound Shifting or Grimm's Law**. Jacob Grimm with the help of Rask, a Danish philologist, analyzed the sound changes in 1822. Grimm's Law, the principle of relationships in Indo-European languages, was first formulated by Jacob Grimm and was a continuing subject of interest and investigation to 20th century linguists. It shows that a process—the regular shifting of consonants in groups—took place once in the development of English and the other Low German languages and twice in German and the other High German languages. The first sound shift, affecting both English and German, was from the early phonetic positions documented in the ancient, or classical, Indo-European languages (Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin) to those still evident in the Low German languages, including English; the second shift affected only the High German languages, e.g., Standard German.

The following are the important features of Grimm's Law:

According to Grimm's law, the Indo-European aspirated voiced stops **bh, dh, gh** lost their aspiration and became voiced stops, **b, d, g**. The voiced stops fell together with the original voiced stops of Indo-European and became voiceless stops **p, t, k**. The voiceless stops again fell together with the original voiceless stops of Indo-European and then became voiceless fricatives **f, th, h** in the Germanic languages. Again by applying Verner's Law in certain words, philologists found out that the voiceless fricatives once again became aspirated voiced stops. These sound changes are explained in the above figure. For the sake of language students, a more detailed explanation of Grimm's Law is given below with adequate examples from Sanskrit and Latin.

First series Indo-European aspirated voiced stops **bh, dh, gh** became voiced stops **b, d, g** in Germanic languages.

(i)	bh, dh, gh	————>	b, d, g
		Sanskrit	English
	bh > b :	b hratar	> b rother
		b harani	> b ear
		b hedani	> b ite
	dh > d :	band d hana	> d ond
		wid d ava	> wid d ow
		mad d hya	> mid d le

gh > g : ghostis > guest
 midhaghas > dog

Second series: Proto Indo- European voiced stops **b, d, g** became voiceless stops **p, t, k**.

(ii) b, d, g —————> p, t, k

Lithuanian English

b > p: slabu > sleep
 dubas > deep

Sanskrit English

d > t : dant > teeth
 pada > foot

Latin English

g > k : ger > acre
ginus > kin

Third series: Proto Indo- European voiceless stops **p, t, k** became voiceless fricatives **f, th, h**.

(iii) p, t, k —————> f, th, h

Sanskrit English

P > f : pancha > five
pacu > fee
padam > foot

Sanskrit English

t > th : traya > three
tvam > thou
tanu > thin

Latin English

k > h : **c**entum > **h**undred
 cordum > **h**earth
 canis > **h**ound

2.7. Verner's Law:

There were certain sound changes in Germanic languages which could not be explained with reference to Grimm's Law. For example, in the Latin word 'centum' which became 'hundred' in English, the change from 'c' to 'h', is in accordance with Grimm's Law.

centum > hundred

c > h ; t > d

In the same word 't' was a stop consonant and should have become the voiceless fricative 'th' according to Grimm's Law. But it became 'd'. Hence it was necessary to modify Grimm's Law of *consonant shift*. Verner's brilliant hypothesis stated that the voiceless fricative consonants became voiced *if the vowel in the preceding syllable was unaccented*. He explained that the 'd' found in 'hundred' indicated that the Indo-European accent in the word was not on the vowel immediately preceding. By referring to the placement of stress, Verner accounted for certain exceptions to Grimm's Law. Other examples of this category are given below.

(i) According to Grimm's Law **t** in Latin **citra** should become **th** according to Grimm's law. But it became **d** in Old English **hider**—(simply because the first syllable of Latin word was not stressed. This is in accordance with Verner's Law).

(ii) According to Verner's law, Indo-European **p, t, k** when preceded by an originally unaccented vowel, became **b, d, g**. For example, Latin **frater** became Old English **brother** (in accordance with Grimm's Law) **mater** and **pater** became Old English **moder** and **fader** (this is an exception to Grimm's law)

In Latin **mater** and **pater** carried stress on the second syllable and so according to Verner's Law, **t** went a step further and became **d** in Old English **moder** and **fader**.

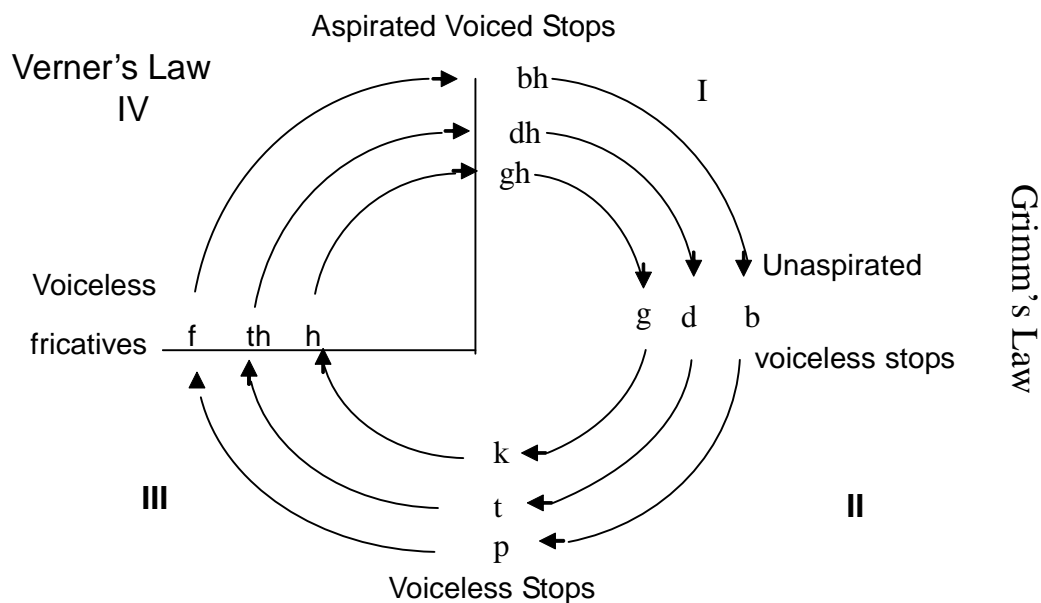
Latin	O.E.	Mod.Eng
Mater	moder	mother
Pater	fader	father

It must be noted that these words became **mother** and **father** not because of operation of any of these laws, but perhaps because of analogy with **brother**.

Verner's Law also explains how the voiceless 's' became voiced 'z' and then went a step further and became 'r' in some words descending from the same root. Thus **as** (to be) was the root of **is** and **are (as à is, are)**; **wes** was the root of **was** (with z sound), and **were** (with 'r' sound) (**wes à was, were**); **ris-an** (to rise with 's' sound) was the root of **raise** (with z sound), and **rear** (with r sound.) (**ris-an à raise, rear**)

Verner's Law is remarkable because it succeeds where Grimm's Law seems to fail.

We are not certain when these consonant changes in Germanic languages took place. Probably they began around 1000 B.C. and took a whole millennium to complete. Strictly speaking, we should not take all these changes as laws. To call them laws is to give them an authority, which they do not have. These sound changes may never repeat again in future. One thing to note is that we are not sure whether the information is accurate and elaborate because basically the sounds in Proto-Indo-European and Proto-Germanic are only inferred and reconstructed sounds.



2.8. Summary:

Indo-European is the name given to the parent language from which nearly all European languages including the languages of Persia and India have descended. The Indo-European family is split into eight chief branches, which can be broadly divided into Satem group and Centum group. The Satem group consists of *Indo-Iranian*, *Armenian*, *Albanian*, *Balto-Slavonic*. The Centum group includes *Celtic*, *Italic*, *Hellenic* and *Proto-Germanic*. *Proto-Germanic* is the most important branch. This group consists of three sub-branches: *West Germanic*, *North Germanic* and *East Germanic*. The North Germanic sub-division includes the *Scandinavian* languages and the East Germanic covers the *Gothic* tongues. The present day *English* is derived from *West Germanic*.

Grimm's Law is an important landmark in Comparative Linguistics. It is of extraordinary utility in the derivation of words. It is based upon a comparative examination of many sets of forms from older Indo-European languages like *Greek*, *Latin* and *Sanskrit*, with forms from Germanic languages like *English*. **Verner's Law** is useful to

explain certain exceptions, limitations and irregular tendencies of sound change that were unexplained by Grimm's Law.

2.9. Technical Terms:

nomadic : herdsman

philologist : one who studies language especially its history and development

dialect : a form of language that people speak in a particular part of the country

colloquial : informal and more suitable for use in speech than in writing

inflectional : a change in or addition to the form of a word

aspiration : the sound represented in English by the letter 'h', in words such as 'house'

aboriginal tribes: describes a person or living thing that has existed in a country or continent since the earliest time known to people

linguistics : the systematic study of the structure and development of language in general or of particular languages

2.10. Sample Questions:

1. Write a note on Indo-European family of languages.
2. What is Grimm's Law? Explain with examples.
3. Describe the Centum and Satem groups of the Indo-European family.
4. Write a note on the Indo-European family of languages and the descent of English Language.
5. Explain the importance of Verner's Law.
6. Comment on the importance of the Primitive Germanic consonant shift.
7. Trace the descent of English language.

2.11. Suggested Readings:

1. C.L Wren: *The English Language*.
2. . F.T Wood: *An Outline History of English Language*
3. Simeon Potter: *Our Language*
4. A.C Baugh.: *A History of the English Language*.
5. Emile Benveniste: *Indo-European Language and Society*

Lesson- 3**CHARACTERISTICS OF OLD ENGLISH****3.0 Objectives**

The aim of the present lesson is to

- let the student know the characteristic features of Old English.
- examine Old English spelling, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.
- discuss the importance of the sound changes like Gradation and Mutation

STRUCTURE**3.1 Introduction : Origin of English****3.2 Discussion : Characteristic Features of Old English.****3.2. a. Spelling , Pronunciation****3.2. b. Grammar****3.2. c. Vocabulary****3.3 Sound Changes in Old English****3.3. a. Gradation****3.3. b. Mutation****3.3. c. Fracture or Breaking****3.4 Summary****3.5 Technical Terms****3.6 Sample Questions****3.7 Suggested Readings**

3.1 Introduction: Origin of English:

The history of English language begins with the settlement of the three Germanic tribes Angles, Saxons, and Jutes in the 6th Century A.D. The earliest inhabitants of Britain during the time of the Roman occupation spoke a tongue known as Celtic. The coming of the three (Germanic) tribes to Britain brought the Celts into contact with them. Later the contact influenced the languages of those Germanic tribes. The conquest of England by the Germanic or Teutonic tribes in 449 A.D. and the establishment of Angles, Jutes and Saxons in Britain by 600 A.D. marked the beginning of the Old English period.

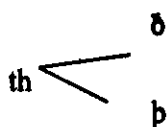
The Angles settled in the area northward from the Thames, the Jutes settled in Kent and the Saxons in the rest of England (South of Thames). But the southwest of England was occupied by Celts. They named the Germanic (Teutonic) tribes in general 'Saxon' and the area occupied by them was called 'Saxonia'. But soon the word 'Angles' came into use in the place of Saxons. The land of the Angles thus became '*Angle-land*' or '*England*.' The words *English* and *England* are derived from the names of Angles.

3.2 Discussion: Characteristic Features of Old English:

Old English was the language which emerged from the fusion of the dialects spoken by the three Germanic Tribes. However four dialects have been recognized in Old English: *Kentish*, spoken in Kent; *West Saxon* spoken in the region south of the Thames; *Mercian*, spoken in the area extending from the Thames to the Humber; *Northumbrian*, spoken north of the Humber. The West Saxon was the most popular dialect during the Old English period because of the dominance of the West Saxon kingdom. Our knowledge of Old English comes from a number of records in the West Saxon dialect. Old English or Anglo-Saxon looks strange to the modern eye. It differs from Modern English in four chief aspects: 1) spelling 2) pronunciation 3) grammar 4) vocabulary.

3.2.a Spelling & Pronunciation:

- 1) Old English made use of two symbols 'ð' and 'þ' to represent the sound of 'th'. These two symbols are no longer used in Modern English.



- 2) English used the vowel sound 'æ' in words like *man*, *hat*, *bank*, *fat* etc. Much of the strange appearance of Old English is due to the frequent appearance of this symbol.

e.g.:- *mæn*, *bænk*, *hæt*

- 3) 'k' sound is always represented by 'c' in Old English.

$k > c$

e.g.:- *cynn* > *kin*; *nacod* > *naked*

- 4) 'sh' sound is represented by 'sc' in Old English irrespective of its position in the word.

$sh > sc$

e.g.:- *scip* > *ship*; *biscop* > *bishop*; *sceep* > *sheep*

- 5) The symbol 'f' represents in Old English both 'f' and 'v'. Whenever 'f' occurs in the middle of the word before a voiced sound and when it is not doubled it is pronounced as 'v'.

$f > v$

e.g.:- *giefan* > *give*; *scofan* > *seven*; *lifde* > *lived*

In all other positions the symbol 'f' is pronounced as 'f' only.

e.g.:- *hæft* > *haft*, *hand*

fæder > *father*.

- 6) The symbol 's' represents both 's' and 'z' sounds. When 's' occurs in the middle of a word, before a voiced sound and is not doubled, it is pronounced as '-z'.

$s \rightarrow s, z$

e.g:- *nosu* > *nose*; *bosm* > *bosom*

In all other positions 's' symbol is pronounced as 's' only.

e.g:- *cyssan* > *to kiss*; *hus* > *house*; *stanas* > *stone*

7) Similarly 'þ', 'ð' symbols are represented by the sound 'th'. The distribution of 'þ' and 'ð' --- are just like 'f' and 's' in the above examples.

8) Old English is phonetic in character. 'h' must be pronounced in whatever position it occurs.

e.g:- *night* > / *night* /

In a word like 'night' 'h' sound is not silent in Old English. In Middle English 'h' represents a stronger and more articulate sound than in Modern usage.

9) 'k' must be pronounced in words like :

e.g. :- *know*, *knee* (/ *knou* /, / *kni*: /)

10) Final 'e' in any word must be pronounced clearly.

e.g. :- *cwene* > *queen* / *kwi:ne* /; *moppe* > *moth* / *mʊθe* /

11) 'r' must be pronounced clearly. Final 'r' is not silent in Old English. 'r' was a less troublesome sound in those days.

e.g. :- *girl*, *water*, *bear* / *gɜ:rl*, *wɔ:tər*, *bɛər* /

12) The symbol 'g' is difficult to interpret.

e.g. a) Sometimes 'g' is a semi-vowel as in the word *gear* (*jeer*) *geong*—*young*

b) Sometimes it is a stop consonant as in *gōd*—*good*; *gēs*—*geese*

c) In some other places it acts like a fricative sound produced by the narrowing of the stream as in words like *fagol*—*word* ; *lago* --- *law* etc.

On the whole Old English is phonetic in its character. There are no silent sounds; and no superfluous sounds.

3.2.b Grammar: The most important feature that distinguishes Old English from Modern English is its grammar. Old English was full of complicated inflexions. It is a synthetic language. Old English resembles Modern German in the aspect of grammar. The two broad categories of language are Synthetical languages and Analytical languages.

* **Synthetical language:** A language is said to be in the synthetical stage when it expresses the grammatical relations of words by adding some suffixes to the stems of nouns, pronouns, verbs and adjectives.

* **Analytical language:** If a language is free from all inflexional endings as far as possible and in their place makes free use of other devices like prepositions and auxiliary words, it is called an analytical language. Modern English is analytical in nature whereas Old English is synthetical in nature. The nature of Old English grammar can be understood by observing the inflexions of nouns, pronouns, verbs and adjectives. Old English made use of an elaborate system of inflexional endings to indicate grammatical relations. That is why the Old English period is known as *a period of full inflexions*. But there is reduction in the number of inflexions adopted from the parent primitive Germanic.

i) **The Noun in Old English:** The Old English noun is inflected according to its number and case. The four cases distinguished during that period were Nominative, Accusative, Genitive and Dative. The endings of these cases vary according to the number and gender. There are two chief declensions: *a vowel declension and a consonant declension*.

i) **Vowel declension:** A vowel declension is *a strong declension*, i.e., these stems ended in a vowel. The stems of the nouns of the strong declensions ended in one of four vowels --- **a,i,o,u**.

For e.g.:- O.E. stān > masculine, strong, 'a-' stem

O.E. giefu > feminine, strong, 'o-' stem

O.E. hunta > masculine, weak, consonant stem

ii) **Consonant declensions:** The endings of the original Germanic stems are with a consonant. Consonant declensions are otherwise called the *weak declensions*. The inflexions for the strong and the weak nouns have been classified as **-as** and **-an** declensions respectively. Whether a

noun takes one or the other of the two declensions depends upon whether the stem of the noun ended in Germanic in a vowel or in a consonant. The detailed explanation of the nature of the noun declensions can be understood with the help of the following examples.

1. Masculine — 'a-' stem (stān, stone)

	<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>
Nominative	stān	stān-as
Genitive	stān-es	stān-as
Dative	stān-e	stān-um
Accusative	stān	stān-as

2. Feminine — 'o-' stem (giefu)

	<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>
Nominative	gief-u	gief-a
Genitive	gief-e	gief-a
Dative	gief-e	gief-um
Accusative	gief-e	gief-a

3. Masculine consonant- stem : hunta (hunter)

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nominative	hunt-a	hunt-an
Genitive	hunt-an	hunt-ena
Dative	hunt-an	hunt-um
Accusative	hunt-an	hunt-an

But Modern English has discarded all the case endings except the Genitive case endings.

2) Grammatical Gender : The Old English had three gender systems: masculine, feminine and neuter. It is not dependent on considerations of sex. Moreover, the gender of the word is fixed arbitrarily. In Modern English all males are considered as *Masculine*, females *Feminine* and things without life are categorized as Neuter. But in Old English, like Latin, it is not on the sex or absence of sex but on the forms that a noun assumes the course of its declensions. So gender of Old English noun is quite illogical to the modern reader. For example,

wīfman (woman) is → masculine

wīf (wife) is → feminine

cwēne (queen) is → neuter

Similarly *sunne* (sun) is feminine, *mona* (moon) is masculine in Old English. Strangely *foot* is masculine; *hand* and *tongue* are feminine and *eye* is neuter. Other examples are: *nama* (name) is masculine; *here* (army) is masculine; *wynn* (joy) is feminine. Another peculiarity of Old English is that adjectives like nouns have gender. The adjectives take the gender of the noun with which it is associated.

3) Adjective: Old English has two-fold declensions for its adjectives – the strong and the weak.

- **Strong declension :** This is used with nouns when they are not accompanied by a definite article or demonstrative pronoun.

For e.g:- *gōd mann* – ‘good man’ has a strong declension.

- **Weak declension:** This is used with nouns accompanied by a definite article.

For e.g:- *sē gōda mann* – ‘the good man’ has a weak declension

Another complication with the adjective in Old English is that it is inflected according to the number, case and gender of the noun. It qualified in weak and strong positions. The comparatives of the adjectives are found with the addition of *-ist*, *-ost*, *-est*. In Middle English the adjective remains undeclined according to number, case and gender. The elimination of the

complex adjectival inflexion is a great advantage to the Modern English language over many other Indo- European languages.

4) Personal Pronoun: Old English has distinct forms of Personal Pronouns for all genders, persons and cases. Instead of two numbers; singular and plural, Old English has an intermediate number called the dual number to represent two persons or two things. The presence of the dual number in addition to the plural is an unnecessary complication. So it has disappeared in Middle English.

5) Definite Article: The definite article in Old English, just like Modern German, has a fully inflected definite article. It is inflected according to number, gender and case. It has different forms in the three genders - 'sē': masculine; 'sēo': feminine; and 'þæt' neuter. The choice of the definite article depends on the case, number and gender of the noun that follows.

For e.g:- OE *sē guma* → *the man* (masculine)

sēo tolu → *the tale* (feminine)

þæt scip → *the ship* (neuter)

6) Verbs : Old English has two classes of verbs: weak verbs and strong verbs.

a) Strong Verbs: In the strong verbs past tense is formed by changing the vowel in the stem; e.g:- *sing, sang, sung; write, wrote, written.*

b) Weak Verbs: In the weak verbs change of the tense is indicated by the addition of the suffix -'ed'; e.g:- *judge, judged, judged; jump, jumped, jumped.*

Approximately Old English had more than three hundred strong verbs. Based on the Gradation of the vowel, they are categorized into six classes and afterwards a seventh class of verb, called re-duplicating verbs, were added. For example:-

	Preterite	preterite	past
	Singular	plural	participle
i	drīfan (drive)	drāf	(ge)drifen

ii	cēosan	(choose)	cēas	curon	coren
iii	helpan	(help)	healp	hulpon	holpen
iv	beran	(bear)	bær	bæron	boren
v	sprecan	(speak)	spræc	spræcon	sprecan
vi	faran	(fare, go)	fōr	foron	faren
vii	feallan	(fall)	fēoll	fēollon	feallen

Many of these characteristics of the verb are preserved in Modern English with some modification. But Preterite plural is completely lost in Modern English. Old English verb has two forms, the Present and the Preterite. There was no separate form for Future Tense. The Present form expressed Present and Future time. Fragments of this usage still survive in Middle English in expressions like '*-he come tomorrow*'. The infinitive form of the Old English verb ends in '*-an*' or '*-ian*', For example:- *drincan, helpan, nerian, weurian* etc. Later the Danish invaders introduced the use of 'to' in the infinitive. In Old English the present participle ends in *-ende*. For example:- *witende- knowing; demende--- judging*. The past participle in Old English has the prefix *ge-*, and ends in

-ed or *-en*. For example:- *gewiten-- had known; gedemed- had judged*.

3.2.c Vocabulary: Old English vocabulary is on the whole Teutonic in its character. It contains very few foreign words. In spite of foreign invasions and influences the core of vocabulary is typically English. The borrowing of words from other languages started in the Old English period. In fact the history of English language from Old English to present day is nothing but the history of the chain of borrowings from other languages. The first contact of Celts with Angles, Saxons and Jutes brought a limited number of Celtic words into English. The reason for this is that the native Britons were driven away from Central England which is occupied by the Anglo-Saxon invaders. Consequently, many Celts fled the country. The Celts are the conquered race and it would be fashionable for the Teutons to show their acquaintance with the language of the inferior natives. The few surviving Celtic words pertain mainly to place names and landscape. For example, the kingdom of Kent came from Celtic Canti; the name of

London had also originated from Celtic; the first syllables of *Winchester, Gloucester, Salisbury* etc. are traceable to Celtic.

Other place names of Celtic origin are *Cornwall, Dober, York* etc. We may also find Celtic influence in the names of rivers, hills and places. For example: *Thames, Avon, Esk, Exe, Wye* and prefixes like *tarr-*, *broe-* and suffixes like *-combe*, are derived from Celtic. These place names are quite common in the west of England than in the East.

On the whole the Celtic influence remains the least of the early influences which affected the English language. Nevertheless certain amount of foreign element is seen in the Old English. Some Latin words entered the language of these three tribes long before they settled in England. After their settlement some Celtic and Latin words through Celtic found their way into English. A large number of Latin words found their way into Old English after the introduction of Christianity.

Later Scandinavian influences resulted in another wave of foreign element. On the whole Old English did not borrow foreign elements with great enthusiasm. Only when it was inevitable did it allow a foreign word into its fold. Otherwise it managed to express new concepts, new ideas, by coining new words out of its own resources.

One of the methods of vocabulary expansion in Old English was by adding prefixes and suffixes to the word -stem.

Some examples are:-

- i) The suffix *-full* was used to form adjectives like *synnful, wuldorful*
- ii) The suffix *-dom* was helped to found nouns like *wisdom, christendom, swickdom*.
- iii) The prefix *-for* was used to intensify the effect as in *fardon, forfit* etc.
- iv) Some other prefixes and suffixes which are peculiar in Old English are:

Suffixes: *-ig, -full, -leas, -lice, -ness, -sum* etc.

Prefixes: *be-, fore-, mis-, under-, ofer-*

A part of the flexibility and richness of Old English was due to its generous utilisation of all these prefixes and suffixes. Another interesting feature of Old English vocabulary is its wealth of **self-explaining compounds** or *Kennings*. A Kenning has been defined by Professor Kemp Malone 'as a two member or two term'.

3.3 Sound Changes in Old English:

The most important characteristics of Old English are the phonetic changes known as Gradation, Mutation and Fracture. These sound changes had a significant impact upon Modern English. Let us examine these three in detail:

3.3.a Gradation : Gradation is a change in vowel sounds of the principle parts of verbs according to whether they occur in a stressed syllable or unstressed syllable. Old English inherited this phenomenon of Gradation from Germanic. Jacob Grimm made use of the term Ablaut to describe this sound change. This principle may be illustrated by taking the following example of the same sentence of four syllables accented in three different ways.

Can he do it? --→ (kæn)

Can he do it? → (kʌn)

Can he do it? → (kə n)

Pronounce these three sentences aloud one after the other and you will observe that the position of the stress makes a difference to the vowel that is uttered in 'can'. In the first sentence it is a short 'æ' sound / kæn /; in the second it is pronounced / kʌn /; and in the third it is pronounced with a short sound / kə n /.

In the same way when a suffix is added to the root of the verb in order to make a tense or a participle, a similar change took place in the root syllable. Hence it happened that in many Anglo-Saxon verbs the present tense, the past tense and the past participle show a change or a 'grading' in the vowel of the root syllable.

For example:	Present	Past	Past participle
1.	ridan (ride)	rad (rode)	riden (ridden)
2.	drifan (drive)	dref (drove)	drifen (driven)
3.	writan (to write)	wrat(wrote)	writen (written)

In the above examples there is an alteration of vowels. Each member of the series is called a 'grade' and the whole phenomenon is called 'Gradation.' The vowel changes that we find in the above examples of Old English verbs are due to shifting stress long ago in the history of Indo-European group of languages. The vowels in which this gradation takes place are called 'strong vowels' and the verbs which cannot make their past tense by such a change in vowel but by the addition of the suffix '-ed' are called 'weak verbs.' A few of these series of vowels showing gradation still exist in Modern English verbs.

3.3.b Mutation: The most important phonetic change in Old English is Mutation or Umlaut. It was a gradual and slow process and was complete by about 700 A.D. The word *mutation* in Latin means 'change'. It should be more strictly called 'i' -mutation. It is a process by which in early Anglo-Saxon, vowels in accented syllables were modified under the influence of an 'i' or 'j' in the next syllable. In the course of time the 'i' or 'j' which caused the change disappeared. It is a very complicated sound change. It explains certain anomalies in Middle English. Umlaut is a kind of assimilation. Irregular plurals like *teeth*, *mice* and *geese* can be conveniently explained by 'i' mutation. In the same way formation of abstract nouns like *strength* and *length* from *strong* and *long*, and derivation of vowels like *doom* and *food* from the cognitive nouns like 'deem' and 'feet' etc. could not look anomalous if we know the operation of the 'i' mutation. The vowels, which underwent mutation, were back vowels or diphthongs in which one element was a back vowel. In effect all the back vowels were fronted. Hence this process is also known as *front mutation*. The following are the examples of 'front mutation'.

- a -----→ e as in OE *mann* (man) → *menn* (man)
- o -----→ e as in OE *oxa* (ox) → *exem* (oxen)
- u -----→ y as in OE *ful* (full) → *fyllan* (to fill)

a ----- → as in OE *hāl* (whole) → *h lan* (to heal)

o ----- → as in OE *gōs* (goose) → *ges* (geese)

u ----- → as in OE *mūs* (mouse) → *mys* (mice)

It will be noticed that the back vowels were changed to front vowels. This is true of also long vowels, which were changed to their respective long front vowels. The result of this process is that they are evident in the present day English.

Old English had four diphthongs –‘ea’, ‘ea’, ‘eo’, ‘eo’. All of them were mutated to ‘ie’, which later changed to ‘i’ or ‘j’ and finally reduced to ‘e’ as shown below:

ea → ie

eo → ie

io → ie

For eg:- OE *eald* → *ieldra, ieldest* (elder, eldest)

OE *heord* → *hierde* (herd)

OE *iorre* → *ierra* (ire, anger)

i) Mutated Plurals: A number of nouns in early Old English formed their plurals by the addition of the suffix *-iz*; for eg. the word *to ð* (a tooth) had *toðiz* as its plural. By the influence of ‘i’ in the plural ‘o’ became ‘e’ and there by giving *teðiz*. Since the stress fell on the first, *-iz* which forms the last syllable slowly disappeared and hence the modern plural form ‘teeth’. The whole process can be represented by the following formula:

(1) *toð* → *toðiz* → *teðiz* → *teð* → *teeth*

(O.E.singular) (O.E. plural) (influence of /i /) (disappearance of- iz) (Mod.plural)

(2) Similarly ‘mus’ (a mouse) made plural ‘musiz’ which ultimately became ‘mys’ giving the present day ‘mice’.

ii) Verbs derived from cognate nouns : In Old English a verbal infinitive was formed by adding the suffix *-jan* to a noun. See the following examples.

1. Old English noun *dom* was the normal word for 'judgement' which gives modern *doom*. To make a *judgement* was *domjan*, this became *dumjan* by the operation of 'j' mutation and subsequently the suffix

-jan was dropped, thereby the modern form *deem*.

dom	→	domjan	→	demjan	→	dem	→	deem
(O.E. noun)		(verbal Infinitive)		(change of 'o' to e)		(dropping of the suffix)		(modern form)

2. From the Old English noun *fod* the verbal infinitive *fodjan* was formed . This became *fudjan* by the operation of the 'j' mutation. And in the course of time the suffix *-jan* was dropped and we get the modern verb *feed*.

fod	→	fodjan	→	fedjan	→	fed	→	feed
(O E noun)		(verbal change of 'o' to 'e')		(dropping of the suffix)		(modern form)		(verbal infinitive)

By the same process we get the modern verbs like *breed*, *deal*, *meet* from the Old English forms of *brood*, *dole* and *mot*.

iii) Verbs derived from adjectives: In Old English certain verbs were made by adding the suffix *-jan* to adjectives. Thus from the word *hal* (whole) *haljan* was created.this underwent 'j' mutation and became *heljan*. Afterwards the suffix was dropped and thereby we get the modern form *heal*. This can be represented by the following formula.

hal	→	haljan	→	heljan	→	hel	→	heal
(O E adj)		(OE verb 'a'to 'e')		(change of the suffix)		(dropping of the suffix)		(modern form)

In the same way from the Old English adjective *ful* Old English verb *fuljan* was formed. Due to the operation of 'j' mutation *fuljan* became *fyljan*. And as in the earlier cases the suffix was dropped and thus we get the modern verb *fyl*. And later *fill*.

ful	→	fuljan	→	fyljan	→	fyl	→	fill
(O E adj)		(OE verb)		(change of 'a' to 'e')		(dropping of the suffix)		(modern form)

iv) Mutated degrees of comparison: In Old English the comparative degree was formed by adding the suffix *-ira* and the superlative degree by adding *-ist*. These two early Anglo-Saxon suffixes later became *'-er'* and *'-est'* in Modern English by the operation of 'i'-mutation . In Old English *eald* (old) gave rise to *elder* and *eldest* in modern times, on the analogy of the positive, alternative degrees of comparison were found from *old*, *older* and *oldest* . These two are more common usages, whereas, *elder* and *eldest* are used only of persons, never of inanimate objects and even then only in a restricted sense (referring to the persons within the family). For example, we can speak of my *'eldest brother'*, but we should never refer to the *'eldest inhabitant'*; nor should we say *'My brother is elder than I am'*, but it is acceptable to say *'He is elder of the two'*.

In Old English mutation occurred in the comparison of a number of adjectives. Thus to be historically correct we should have to compare *strong*, *strenger*, *strengest* ; *long*, *lenger*, *lengest* ; *young*, *yenger*, *yengest*; *far*, *ferrer*, *ferrest* etc., but in all cases the mutated forms have been dropped and all three degrees made uniform on the basis of the positive.

Gradation and Mutation, though they took place in the distant past, had direct bearing on certain forms in Modern English.

3.3.c Fracture or Breaking : Fracture is a major sound change in Old English. It refers to the formation of diphthongs from front vowels. In the Anglo-Saxon period, the front vowels *æ*, *e*, *i* became diphthongs when followed by *l*, *r*, *h* or *l*, *r*, *h* followed by a consonant.

For eg. *æ* -> *ea* as in Germanic *æhton* --> *eahtra* (eight)

e -> *eo* as in Germanic *herte* -> *heorte* (heart)

i- → io as in Germanic *lihan* → *loiohan* (lend)

Jacob Grimm, a German philologist made use of the term 'breaking' for the first time in 1822. It was the English translation of the German word. In fact in this kind of diphthongization the vowels were not broken but rather had something added to them. Mayhew, another philologist used the term 'fracture' in 1891 to describe this phenomenon.

3.4 Summary:

The earliest form of English is known as Old English. The words *English* and *England* are derived from the names of Angles. Old English was the language, which emerged from the fusion of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes, Angles, Saxons and Jutes. The West Saxon dialect was considered a standard form during Old English period. Old English or Anglo-Saxon looks different from Modern English in four chief aspects: Spelling, Pronunciation, Grammar and Vocabulary. Old English was a highly inflected language. It was phonetic in its nature. The alphabet of Old English was based on the Celtic variety of English. The important sound changes characterizing the Old English period were Gradation, Mutation and Fracture.

3.5 Technical Terms:

1. Philologist : One compounds.
7. assimilation : to become who studies language, especially its history and development.
2. inflection : the way in which the sound of your voice changes during speech
3. gradation : gradual change, or a stage in the process of change.
4. dialect : a form of a language that people speak in a particular area.
5. declension : when something becomes less in amount, importance, quality or strength.
6. Kennings : self- explaining a part of.

3.6 Sample Questions:

1. Briefly describe the chief characteristics of Old English.
2. Write a note on Old English Spelling and Pronunciation.
3. Discuss Old English Vocabulary.

4. Examine the features of Old English grammar.
5. Give an account of 'Gradation' and 'Mutation' in Old English.
6. Comment on the importance of West Saxon (Wessex) dialect in Old English.

3.7 Suggested Readings

1. C.L Wren: *The English Language.*
2. F.T Wood: *An Outline History of English Language*
3. Simeon Potter: *Our Language*
4. A.C Baugh: *A History of the English Language.*
5. H.C.Wyld: *The Growth of English*

- P. Naga Suseela

Lesson- 4**MIDDLE ENGLISH****4.0 Objectives**

A Study of the English Language

The aim of the present lesson is to:

- trace the characteristic features of Middle English.
- examine Middle English spelling, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.
- discuss the evolution of English language from Old English to Middle English.

STRUCTURE**4.1 Introduction****4.2 Middle English Dialects****4.3 Characteristics of Middle English****4.3. (i). Middle English Spelling****4.3. (ii). Middle English Pronunciation****4.3. (iii). Middle English Grammar****4.3. (iv). Middle English Vocabulary****4.4 Summary****4.5 Technical Terms****4.6 Sample Questions****4.7 Suggested Readings****4.1 Introduction:**

The English language has developed a pattern during the years 1100 to 1500 AD, which is distinctly different from that of Old English. The Norman Conquest was the most significant event of this period. The Conquest of England by William of Normandy in September 1066 changed the whole course of English language. Up to this event, English had been more or less a pure tongue with some Latin, Celtic and Danish words. Thereafter it became a hybrid language. The Normans were Northmen, a sect of Scandinavians who settled in the Northern part of France in the 9th and 10th centuries. Having settled in France, these Scandinavians showed remarkable adaptability and soon absorbed the most important elements of the French civilization. They accepted Christianity and gave up their own language and learned French. William, the Conqueror, was a Norman. His victory at Hastings marked the beginning of the Norman influence and the English way of life and on the English language. Many of the English higher

class had been killed in the battle and their places were filled by William's Norman followers. French became the language of the upper classes, the court, the Church, education and administration.

After the Norman Conquest, for nearly two hundred years, England was distinctly a bilingual nation. The upper classes used French and the lower classes like farmers, herdsman and other rural dwellers spoke English. The bilingual situation began to ease into a fusion of English and French. The inevitable interaction and intermarriages between the two peoples brought about this change. By the end of the thirteenth century the French language gradually lost its claim over England. In 1399, King Henry IV seized the English crown and from then English gained its previous status.

4.2 Middle English Dialects:

The Anglo-Saxon tribes conquered England in a piece-meal way and that led to the profusion of small kingdoms and dialectal differences. There were probably different dialects from the beginning because Angles, Saxons and Jutes were not one tribe. Jutes came first and settled in Kent. Then Saxons occupied the rest of England, south of the Thames. Afterwards Angles came and settled in the North of Thames. Naturally this tripartite division of England was reflected in language and dialect.

One of the important features of Middle English was its diversity of dialects. The important dialects of Middle English were Northern, Southern, East Midland dialect and West Midland dialect. By the end of the fourteenth century the East Midland dialect emerged as the most popular and the standard dialect in speech and writing. The dominance of this dialect was due to the following factors:

East Midland dialect: 1. This dialect was used in and around London and in the area of the East Midland district.

2. London was the center of English life and affairs. Since London was important politically, commercially and socially, the dialect spoken in that area also gained recognition.

3. The two great universities, Oxford and Cambridge, lay in the midland region. As the East Midland dialect was used by scholars, it had the mark of scholarship. Chaucer and other prominent writers of this period adopted the East Midland dialect as the literary standard.

4. This dialect was favoured by the court.

5. William Caxton printed his earliest books in the East Midland dialect. The role of the printer proved to be of enormous importance in establishing the national vernacular, fixing the spelling and spreading the uniform conventions of grammar and syntax among the educated public.

It is from the East Midland dialect from which the present day Modern English has evolved. By 1450, English became synonymous with East Midland. The transition from Old English to Middle English brought about a number of significant changes. In the beginning of the Middle English period, English was a synthetic, highly inflected language. By the end of this period, it had become an analytical language. The pronunciation shifted, the inflections disappeared, grammatical gender replaced by natural gender and thousands of French and Latin words became part of the English vocabulary. The important changes that characterize Middle English can be studied under four categories. 1. Spelling 2. Pronunciation 3. Grammar and 4. Vocabulary.

4.3 Characteristics of Middle English:

4.3. (i). Middle English Spelling: The Orthographic variations or the spelling changes gave Middle English a new, distinct look. These changes were influenced by French and Norman French orthographic conventions. In the place of Celtic script used in Old English, the Norman scribes of this period introduced conventional style of writing. The Middle English scribes went on writing in their traditional way. The Norman scribes disregarded the English spelling conventions and simply spelt the language as they heard it, using the conventions of Norman French. For example:

1. The long 'u' came to be represented as 'ou' in spelling. For example, Old English 'hus'--'mus' were spelt 'hous' and 'mous' in the Middle English period.

u: / u > ou hūs → hous ; mūs → mous

2. Long 'o' was represented by 'oo'. Doubling became a general practice to indicate length.

o > oo hōm → hoom; gōd → good; fōd → food

3. In consonants, the hard 'c' of Old English came to be represented by 'k' before the front vowels 'o', 'i' and 'j'.

c > k (before front vowels): cyning → king; cene → keen

4. But 'c' was retained as 'c' before back-vowels like a, o and u.

c > c (before back vowels): come; cup

5. In words where 'c' represented the affricate sound / tʃ / the symbol 'ch' was used, i.e. where 'ch' was introduced after the Norman fashion.

c > ch cild → child

- Where 'ch' was pronounced 'k', those words are of Greek origin.

For example: 'k' in *character, chorus, chronic* etc.

6. 'sc' in Old English became 'sh' in Middle English.

sc > sh scip → ship; fisc → fish; biscop → bishop

7. 'cw' in Old English became 'qu' in Middle English due to French influence.

cw > qu cwēn → queen; ciwic → quick

8. In Old English 'g' is pronounced as the modern 'y'. The French scribes substituted the symbol 'y' wherever 'g' was pronounced as 'y'. So Old English 'g' became Middle English 'y'.

g > y giefan → yeven; gearn → year

9. A new symbol 'g' was introduced where 'g' was pronounced as 'dʒ', the symbol was retained.

dʒ > g gentle, gesture etc.

10. The native symbol ð was replaced by 'th' in Middle English.

ð > th

11. The symbol 'þ' was replaced by 'th'.

þ > th

12. From the thirteenth century onwards, the sound / h / was represented by 'gh' in spelling. This is another peculiarity of Middle English spelling.

/ h / > **gh** bough, slough, daughter etc.

13. In Old English the symbol 'f' represented two sounds / f / and / v /.

In Middle English spelling 'f' and 'v' came to be used for two different sounds.

f > f, v

14. In the same way the symbol 'z' was introduced besides 's' in orthography.

15. In certain words of French origin, there was a tendency to drop the initial unstressed 'e' if it was immediately followed by an 's'

For eg. : estate, esquire

16. The continental style of writing posed certain problems when the letters m, n, v, w and u occurred together, it was difficult to decipher them. As a result the scribes used 'o' instead of 'u' in such clusters. For example :

sunu → sone ; **cumin** → comen ; **lufu** → love

(This explains the discrepancy between the sound and the symbol in the modern derivatives of the words cited.)

4.3. (ii). Middle English Pronunciation: There was no uniform pronunciation throughout the Middle English period. Nevertheless there are some facts about pronunciation which can be said with a fair degree of certainty. For example:

1. One of the important phonetic changes in Middle English was that the long 'a' became long 'o'.

ā > ō **hām** → hoom ; **stān** → stoon ; **hlāf** → hloof

(later they became 'home', 'stone', 'loaf' in Modern English.)

2. Short vowels are lengthened when they stood in open syllables.

broken → bro-ken ; taken → ta-ken

3. Long vowels are shortened when they stood in closed syllables.

filling → fil-ling ; tilling → til-ling ; canning → can-ning

4. Long 'o' became long 'u' in later Middle English.

ō > ū fōd → fūd ; dōm → dūm ; bōn → būn

(Later they became food, doom, boon, shoe in Modern English.)

5. Certain long vowels like 'a', 'i', 'u' became their corresponding diphthongs.

(i) Long 'a' became /ei / : **game → /geim / ; fame → /feim /**

(ii) Long 'i' became long /ai / : **find → /faind / ; fire → /fair /**

6. Long 'e' became long / i / **ē > ī**

('feet' was pronounced in Early Middle English more or less like the Modern 'fate'. But afterwards it came to be pronounced with long 'i')

7. Another important change that took place in the Middle English period was 'Metathesis'.

(Metathesis is the process in which change of position took place for certain consonants like 'r' and 's'.

Eg. **beornan → brennan (burn) ; bryd → bird ; urh → thrush ; lispe → lisped**

- It should be noted that 'r' and 's' in each of these words changed their positions by Metathesis.

4.3. (iii). Middle English Grammar: Languages do not usually borrow grammar. The grammatical changes that took place during this period were not due to French influence. The tendency has already begun in the Old English period. Old English was a highly inflected language. There is a great reduction of inflections during the Middle English period. To express

grammatical relationships, new methods using separate words were found more convenient. This period is often called a 'Period of Levelled Inflections.'

The levelling of inflections was due to phonetic changes and due to English coming into contact with Norman French and Scandinavian languages. As the decay of the inflection system progressed, a number of new grammatical devices came into use. It is difficult to say whether the decay of inflections was the cause or the effect of the new use of grammatical devices. In general, all the vowels of the final, unstressed syllables were reduced to '– ee'. This explains the presence of final 'e' in many Middle English words. For example: Chaucer's use of spellings like 'olde', 'coude', 'laughe', 'mucle' and so on.

Noun : There were two main declensions (case endings) of nouns in Middle English. Nominative plural '– as' and the Genitive singular '– es'.

For example: *stānas* → *stones* (nominative plural)

stānes → *stones* (genitive singular)

In most of the dialects the suffix '–en' was used as the common marker. But the Midland dialects used '–es' derived from the Old English plural marker as '– as'. Owing to the popularity of the Midland dialects '–es' was preferred. The number of nouns ending in '–en' gradually declined though a few like 'oxen', 'children', 'brethren', etc. still survive.

Gender: One important feature of Middle English is the elimination of the troublesome grammatical gender and the substitution of natural gender in its place. By the middle of the twelfth century, gender had begun to be determined by meaning. The possible reason for this shift from grammatical gender to natural gender are three: i) the ordinary people who spoke the language must have found it difficult and burdensome to master the intricacies of the irrational gender system; ii) certain nouns imported in English from French might be having a gender different from English; iii) since the adjectives lost their inflexions, gender has lost its importance. So the natural drift was towards simplification, making everything of the male sex masculine, of the female sex feminine and all other things neuter.

Adjectives: Simplification of inflexions resulted in changes in adjectives. Case distinctions were lost in adjectives. The variant forms of Old English adjectives were reduced to two in

Middle English. They were: i). The base form without any inflection; for example, Middle English *fair*; (ii). the base form with final '-e'; for example, Middle English '*faire*'. With the loss of the final '-e' in the late Middle English period, the two forms fell together and the final vestige of adjective declension disappeared. The comparative and superlative forms in Middle English were '-er' and '-est'. By imitating the French, the use of '*more*' and '*most*' also became popular.

Definite Article : The different forms of the Old English definite article like *sē*, (masculine) *sēo*, (feminine) *þæt* (neuter) gradually disappeared. One important change of Middle English gender was the introduction of the indeclinable 'the' irrespective of its case, number and gender. In Modern English, 'the' became the only definite article.

Verb: The verb in Middle English period has undergone a number of changes. The system of inflections became simplified but they developed a complicated system of tenses with auxiliary verbs like 'be and 'have'. The future tense forms with 'will' and 'shall' were established in Middle English period. The infinitive also underwent changes. In early Middle English, the infinitive form of the verb had the inflectional ending '-en'; later 'to' was introduced before the verb as a sign of the infinitive. Slowly the ending '-en' was felt to be redundant and was finally dropped in the Modern English.

Eg: To *helpenne* → to help ; To *drincanne* → to drink ; To *tellen* → to tell

During the Middle English period a new type of present participle ending in '-ing' (e) came into use. Eg. Middle English '*areading*.'

In Middle English the past participle had the prefix 'y-' instead of the Old English prefix 'ge-'. For ex : *ycelept* → called ; *Ygone* → gone

But it disappeared later. The decay of inflexions and subsequent simplification of grammatical structure of English were due to the use of French in England. The loss of inflections was compensated by the emergence of certain new trends. Word order became more important and somewhat rigid. Prepositions were used to perform the task of inflexions by reducing the English language to the level of spoken language of uneducated people, The Norman Conquest made it

easier for its grammatical growth. In short, Middle English period witnessed such a complete sweeping away of inflexions that it prompted Dr. Johnson to remark: '*Sir, English language has no grammar*'.

4.3. (iv). Middle English Vocabulary: The influence of the Norman Conquest is much more direct and extensive upon the vocabulary of Middle English. As a result of the Conquest, a flood of French words reached the English shores in different waves and in intervals of different sizes, making it bilingual from being unilingual. Words of all types, of all parts of speech and from every sphere of life came into English. In many cases the English word was preserved besides the French giving rise to synonyms. See the examples below:

Native :	wed,	kingly,	child,	meal
French :	marry,	royal ,	infant ,	repast

It is interesting to note that the names of the living animals were English but when they were slaughtered and served up as a meal on the table they acquired French names. Thus one finds *ox* and *beef*, *sheep* and *mutton*, *calf* and *veal*, *pig* and *pork*, *deer* and *venison* and so on. Words like *sauce*, *soup*, *jelly*, *pastry*, *toast* are French. *Breakfast* was a native word. But the words for more luxurious meals such as *dinner*, *supper*, *feast* were French. A.C.Baugh remarks: "*It is melancholic to think what the English dinner table would have been like, had there been no Norman Conquest.*"

The Normans introduced in England their own system of law and law officers, words related to church, fundamental occupations, fashions and social life, arts and learning, smaller divisions of time etc. Examples are given below:

- i. **Words related to government and administration:** *government, administration, power, liberty, port, council, country, majesty, parliament*
- ii. **Military Terms:** *army, navy, soldier, banner, officer, admiral, peace, sergeant, lieutenant*
- iii. **Legal Terms:** *judge, justice, crime, jury, punishment, summon, property, estate, plaintiff*
- iv. **Religious Terms:** *prayer, angel, faith, vice, virtue, chaste, duty, theology*
- v. **Fashions and Social Life:** *fashion, dress, gown, coat, frock, button, satin, embroidery*

- vi. **Titles:** *duke, count, baron, peer, mayor, viscount, marquis*
- vii. **Art and Learning:** *art, music, painting, image, sculpture, colour, poet, prose, poem*
- viii. **Colours:** *blue, brown, tawny, vermilion, scarlet*
- ix. **Precious Stones:** *diamond, ruby, emerald, crystal, sapphire, pearl, topaz, garnet*
- x. **Science and Medicine:** *pain, plague, paralysis, anatomy, jaundice, physician, surgeon*
- xi. **Units of Time:** *hour, minute, second*

Apart from these words, there were a number of hybrid words in Middle English coined by adding French suffixes to native stems. For example:

- age: leakage, mileage, shortage,
- ess: goddess, shepherdess,
- ery: fishery, bakery
- ment: endearment, enlightenment

Middle English vocabulary will be incomplete without reference to the large inflow of Latin words during this period. Some of these words were borrowed directly from the spoken and written languages of the men of learning. One important source of Latin words was Wycliffe's translation of the Bible. The poets and writers in the Middle English period consciously contributed to the growth of vocabulary.

In spite of the quantum of the French influence on all facets of English, English remained still English, i.e, the basic element of its grammar and vocabulary was still English. Though it witnessed a number of changes, its predominant features were those inherited from Germanic tribes of the fifth century. The Englishman of the Middle English period, as A.C.Baugh remarks , “ *ate, drank and slept* so to speak in English, *worked and played, spoke and sang, walked, ran, rode, leaped and swam* in the same language. The *house* he lived in with its *hall, bower, rooms windows, doors, floor, steps and gate* remind us that his language was basically Teutonic, his *meat and drink, bread, butter, fish , milk cheese, salt , pepper, wine* were inherited from pre-Conquest days, while he could not refer to his *head, arms, legs, feet, hands, eyes ears, nerves mouth* or any common part of his body without using English words for the purpose”.

4.4 Summary :

Historians of the English Language distinguish the Middle English Period from 1100 to 1500 A.D. By the year 1100, the Normans consolidated their hold on England and Norman French began to influence the English language. The Middle English period is one of the series of momentous changes in the history of the English language. The changes of this period were extensive and fundamental and they affected the language in spelling, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

The spelling changes gave Middle English a new and distinct look. In place of the Celtic script used in Old English, the Norman scribes introduced continental style of writing. There was no uniform pronunciation throughout the Middle English period. A number of important phonetic changes took place during this period. In grammar, from a highly inflected Anglo-Saxon, the language set on a new era of levelled inflections. English started growing analytical. In vocabulary thousands of French words flooded the English language. This trend changed the general character of language, making it bilingual from being unilingual.

4.5 Technical Terms:

hybrid language	: A language that is a mixture of two different languages.
Bilingual	: (of a person) able to use two languages for communication
Fusion	: two or more things join or are combined.
Dwellers	: city/town/cave, etc. dweller, a person who lives in a city, town, cave, etc.
Dialects	: a form of a language that people speak in a particular part of a country, containing some different words and grammar, etc
Tripartite	: involving three people or organizations, or existing in three parts.
Vernacular	: the form of a language that a regional or other group of speakers use naturally, especially in informal situations.
Orthographic	: the accepted way of spelling and writing words
Scribe	: a person employed before the invention of printing to make copies of documents.
Syntax	: the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence
Continental	: someone who comes from Europe but not the British Isle

4.6 Sample Questions:

1. Trace the growth of Middle English.
2. What are the chief characteristic features of the Middle English period?
3. Describe Middle English grammar and vocabulary.

4.7 Suggested Reading

1. C.L. Wren : *The English Language*.
2. F.T. Wood : *An Outline History of English Language*
3. Simeon Potter: *Our Language*.
4. A.C. Baugh : *A History of the English Language*.
5. Emile Benveniste : *Indo-European Language and Society*.

P.Naga Suseela

LESSON – 5

THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT

Objectives :

After reading this lesson, student will be able to

- understand the Great Vowel Shift, including its characteristics, causes, and consequences.
- identify and describe the major changes in the pronunciation of English vowels that occurred during the Great Vowel Shift.
- understand the role of the Great Vowel Shift in the development of Standard English.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 5.1 Origin of Great Vowel Shift
- 5.2 Introduction to Great Vowel Shift
- 5.3 The Primary Shifts Included
- 5.4 Exceptions to the Great Vowel Shift
- 5.5 Self Assessment Questions
- 5.6 Suggested Readings

5.1 ORIGIN OF GREAT VOWEL SHIFT :

The exact origin of the Great Vowel Shift (GVS) is unknown, but there are a number of theories about what may have caused it.

One theory is that the GVS was caused by a change in the way that English speakers produced vowels. In Middle English, vowels were produced with a lower tongue position and a more open mouth than they are in Modern English. The GVS may have been caused by a shift towards a higher tongue position and a more closed mouth.

Another theory is that the GVS was caused by a change in the way that English speakers stressed syllables. In Middle English, stress was more evenly distributed across syllables than it is in Modern English. The GVS may have been caused by a shift towards greater stress on the first syllable of a word.

A third theory is that the GVS was caused by contact with other languages. English speakers were in contact with a number of other languages during the period when the GVS occurred, including French, Flemish, and Spanish. These languages have different vowel

systems than English, and it is possible that this contact influenced the way that English speakers produced vowels.

It is likely that the GVS was caused by a combination of factors. The exact nature of these factors is still being debated by linguists.

5.2 INTRODUCTION TO GREAT VOWEL SHIFT :

The Great Vowel Shift was a major change in the pronunciation of English vowels that occurred between the 15th and 17th centuries. It resulted in the pronunciation of many long vowels becoming shorter and higher. For example, the vowel sound in the word "meet" was pronounced like the vowel sound in the word "beat" in Middle English, but it changed to the sound in the word "feet" in Modern English.

The Great Vowel Shift had a significant impact on the English language. It made many words sound different, and it also led to the creation of many new words. For example, the word "deer" used to be pronounced like the word "door." However, after the Great Vowel Shift, the pronunciation of the word "deer" changed, and the word "door" was created to distinguish it.

The Great Vowel Shift is a fascinating example of how languages can change over time. It is also a reminder that the English language is constantly evolving. The Great Vowel Shift was a significant phonological change that occurred during the transition from Middle English to Modern English. It involved a series of changes in the pronunciation of long vowels.

The GVS had a number of characteristic features, including :

It was a systematic change. This means that it affected all long vowels in a similar way, regardless of their phonetic environment. For example, the long vowel /e:/ in all words was raised to /i:/. The GVS affected all long vowels in a similar way, regardless of their phonetic environment. For example, the long vowel /e:/ in all words was raised to /i:/. This can be seen in the following examples :

Middle English : deep, creep, field, believe

Modern English : deep, creep, field, believe

It was a gradual change. The GVS did not happen overnight. It took place over a period of several centuries. The GVS took place over a period of several centuries. This can be seen in the following examples:

Middle English : name, blame, fate, make, change, shame

Modern English : name, blame, fate, make, change, shame

It was a chain shift. This means that each vowel shift caused other vowel shifts to occur. For example, the raising of /e:/ to /i:/ created a gap in the vowel system, which was filled by the raising of /ɛ:/ to /e:/. The GVS was a chain shift, meaning that each vowel shift

caused other vowel shifts to occur. For example, the raising of /e:/ to /i:/ created a gap in the vowel system, which was filled by the raising of /ɛ:/ to /e:/. This can be seen in the following examples:

Middle English : meet, meat, deep, creep, field, believe

Modern English : meet, meat, deep, creep, field, believe

It was a monophthongization shift. This means that some long diphthongs were simplified to monophthongs. For example, the long diphthong /eɪ/ in words like "day" and "make" was monophthongized to /e:/, which later merged with /e:/. Some long diphthongs were monophthongized to monophthongs as part of the GVS. For example, the long diphthong /ɛɪ/ in words like "day" and "make" was monophthongized to /ɛ:/, which later merged with /e:/. This can be seen in the following examples:

Middle English : day, make

Modern English : day, make

The GVS had a profound impact on the English language. It led to a number of changes in the pronunciation and spelling of words. For example, the words "meet" and "meat" were pronounced differently in Middle English, but they became homophones in Modern English due to the GVS.

5.3 THE PRIMARY SHIFTS INCLUDED :

[e:] to [i]: This shift involved the change of the long [e:] sound to [i]. It began in the 15th century and was complete by the 18th century. For example, words like "meet" and "meat" were pronounced differently in Middle English but became homophones with the [i] sound in Modern English.

Word	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
meet	[me:t]	[mi:t]
meat	[met]	[mi:t]
deep	[de:p]	[di:p]
creep	[kre:p]	[kri:p]
field	[fi:ld]	[fi:ld]
believe	[bi:li:v]	[bi:li:v]

[æ:]to [e]: Long [æ:] changed to [e] during the Great Vowel Shift. This change was also complete by the 18th century. For instance, words like "name" and "blame" used to have different vowel sounds in Middle English but now share the [e] sound in Modern English.

Word	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
name	[na:me]	[neɪm]
blame	[bla:me]	[bleɪm]
fate	[fa:te]	[feɪt]
make	[ma:ke]	[meɪk]
change	[tʃa:nge]	[tʃeɪndʒ]
shame	[ʃa:me]	[ʃeɪm]

[i] to [ai]: The shift from [i] to [ai] involved changing the long [i] sound to a diphthong [ai]. This change was well established in the 17th century. For example, words like "life" and "wife" used to have different vowel sounds in Middle English, but they now both have the [ai] diphthong in Modern English.

Word	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
life	[li:f]	[laɪf]
wife	[wi:f]	[waɪf]
five	[fi:f]	[faɪv]
guide	[gi:d]	[gaɪd]
type	[ti:p]	[taɪp]
wild	[wi:ld]	[waɪld]

[æ] to [ɑ]: The long [æ] sound shifted to [ɑ]. This shift was also complete by the 18th century. For example, words like "man" and "can" had a different vowel sound in Middle English but now share the [ɑ] sound in Modern English.

Word	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
man	[man]	[mæn]
can	[kan]	[kæn]
hand	[hand]	[hænd]
command	[kə'ma:nd]	[kə'mænd]
dance	[da:nse]	[dæ:ns]
chance	[tʃa:nse]	[tʃæ:ns]

[o] to [u]: The long [o] sound shifted to [u]. This change began in the 15th century and was complete by the 16th century. Words like "goose" and "mood" used to have different vowel sounds in Middle English, but they both have the [u] sound in Modern English.

Word	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
goose	[go:se]	[gu:s]
mood	[mo:d]	[mu:d]
boot	[bo:t]	[bu:t]
roof	[ro:f]	[ru:f]
school	[sko:le]	[sku:l]
food	[fo:de]	[fu:d]

The Great Vowel Shift had a profound impact on the pronunciation and spelling of words in English, leading to the inconsistencies and variations that are present in Modern English. It also played a crucial role in the evolution of the English language from Middle English to its current form.

5.4 EXCEPTIONS TO THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT :

The Great Vowel Shift was a significant change in the English language where certain vowel sounds shifted over time. It might seem like there are some exceptions to this shift, especially when we look at the middle vowel sounds [e] and [o] changing into [i] and [u]. These exceptions don't really disrupt the overall pattern of the shift.

Here are a few reasons why these exceptions aren't a big deal :

- 1) **These exceptions are not regular or predictable.** They don't follow a clear rule or pattern. They're irregular and don't depend on factors like meaning or word frequency.
- 2) **Even though these exceptions are irregular,** they involve substituting vowel sounds from a limited set of sounds that already existed in English at the time of the shift. So, they still fit within the system of the language.
- 3) **These exceptions are only exceptions** when we consider how long certain words kept their vowel sounds. In other words, it's not that these words resisted the shift, but rather that the vowel sounds in these words continued to change along a different path.

To illustrate this, think of the sentence "All Prussian soldiers six feet tall were killed in the battle of Waterloo." It doesn't mean there were no six-foot-tall Prussian soldiers after the battle; it just means the ones who were alive at the time of the battle were killed. Similarly, the only long words that resisted the Great Vowel Shift were those that had the [e:] sound and remained as [e] without changing to [i] (for example, "break" and "steak").

One explanation for why [e:] and [o:] words behaved differently during the shift is that it might have to do with how sound changes spread in language. Some words may have changed individually, while others changed all at once. This mix of processes can coexist in a language. These exceptions to the Great Vowel Shift are not a big problem. They don't disrupt the overall regularity of the shift, and they're just the result of different words changing at their own pace. The Great Vowel Shift remains a remarkable and systematic process in the history of the English language.

In conclusion the Great Vowel Shift (GVS), which transformed the long-stressed vowels of Middle English into their Modern English counterparts, can be regarded as a natural linguistic process. While we cannot be certain about the specific social factors that influenced the spread of the GVS in the distant past, it is likely that this shift began and progressed much like language changes continue to do today.

5.5 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

- 1) Define the Great Vowel Shift and explain its significance.
- 2) Identify the five primary shifts in the Great Vowel Shift, and provide an example of each.
- 3) Discuss the impact of the Great Vowel Shift on the pronunciation and spelling of English words.
- 4) Explain how the Great Vowel Shift was a chain shift, and give an example to illustrate this.

5.6 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Algeo, John. *The Cambridge History of the English Language: Volume 1: The Beginnings to 1750*. Cambridge University Press, 2010.
2. Honeybone, Peter. *The Great Vowel Shift: A New Look at the History of English Vowels*. Cambridge University Press, 2014.
3. Trudgill, Peter. *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society*. Penguin Books, 2015.

Mr. A. Kishore

LESSON – 6

THE RISE AND GROWTH OF STANDARD ENGLISH

Objectives :

After reading this lesson, student will be able to

- Students will comprehend the historical events and societal factors that contributed to the evolution of Standard English.
- Students will recognize the defining characteristics of Standard English, distinguishing it from regional dialects and non-standard variations.
- Students will explore the societal impact of Standard English on different social classes and regions.
- Students will assess the ongoing evolution of Standard English in modern times, considering factors like globalization, media influence and educational changes.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 6.1 The Origins of the Rise and Growth of Standard English
- 6.2 Factors for the Standardization of English
- 6.3 The Primary Shifts
- 6.4 The Rise and Growth of Standard English
- 6.5 Exceptions to the Rise and Growth of Rise of Standard English
- 6.6 Self Assessment Questions
- 6.7 Suggested Readings

6.1 THE ORIGINS OF THE RISE AND GROWTH OF STANDARD ENGLISH :

The rise and growth of Standard English is a complex process that is still ongoing today. Standard English is constantly evolving, and it is influenced by a variety of factors, including social class, education, and region.

Standard English is the variety of English that is considered to be the most prestigious and correct. It is the language of education, government, and media. Standard English is also often used in academic and professional writing.

The origins of Standard English can be traced back to the Norman conquest of England in 1066. After the conquest, the Norman French aristocracy became the ruling class

in England. As a result, French became the language of government and law. However, English remained the language of the common people.

Over time, English began to absorb elements of French, and the two languages gradually merged to form a new language, Anglo-Norman. Anglo-Norman was spoken by both the Normans and the English, and it became the language of literature and culture in England.

In the 14th century, English began to regain its status as the language of government and law. This was due to a number of factors, including the Black Death, which killed a large proportion of the English-speaking population, and the Hundred Years' War, which led to a decline in the use of French.

The rise of Standard English is also associated with the invention of the printing press in the 15th century. The printing press made it possible to mass-produce books and other printed materials, which helped to standardize the English language.

One of the most important figures in the development of Standard English was William Caxton. Caxton was a printer who established the first printing press in England in 1476. He printed a number of books in English, including the King James Bible, which had a major influence on the development of Standard English.

Another important figure in the development of Standard English was Samuel Johnson. Johnson was a lexicographer who compiled the first comprehensive dictionary of the English language. His dictionary, which was published in 1755, helped to standardize the spelling and pronunciation of English words.

Here are some of the key factors that contributed to the rise and growth of Standard English :

- 1) The Norman conquest of England in 1066
- 2) The development of Anglo-Norman
- 3) The invention of the printing press
- 4) The work of William Caxton
- 5) The work of Samuel Johnson

Standard English is an important part of English language history and culture. It is the language of education, government, and media. Standard English is also often used in academic and professional writing.

6.2 FACTORS FOR THE STANDARDIZATION OF ENGLISH :

The rise and growth of Standard English is a complex and multifaceted process that has been influenced by a variety of factors. Some of the key characteristic features of this process include :

Standardization : The emergence of Standard English was not simply the result of natural linguistic change. It was also driven by social and cultural factors, such as the rise of a

centralized state, the growth of education, and the development of a print culture. These factors led to the selection of certain linguistic features as being more prestigious and desirable than others.

The rise and growth of Standard English has had a significant impact on English speaking societies around the World. Standard English is now the language of Government, Education and the media in many English speaking countries. It is also the language of international business and diplomacy.

London as a centre of Prestige : London played a key role in the development of Standard English. As the capital of England, London was a center of government, commerce, and culture. This gave London English a high degree of prestige, and it became the model for Standard English.

The following examples show the influence of London English on standard English: The London pronunciation of the vowel sound in words like “ship” and “fish” became the standard pronunciation in England. The London grammar of words like “was” and “were” became the standard grammar in England. The London vocabulary of words like “posh” and “toff” became part of the standard English vocabulary.

Printing Press : The invention of the printing press in the 15th century had a major impact on the standardization of English. The printing press made it possible to mass-produce books and other printed materials, which helped to spread a consistent form of the language throughout England.

The following examples show how the printing press helped to spread a consistent form of the language throughout England. The King James bible was printed in a consistent and standardized form of English. The works of Shakespeare and other writers were printed in a standardized form of English. Schoolbooks and other educational materials were printed in a standardized form of English.

King James Bible : The publication of the King James Bible in 1611 was another important milestone in the development of Standard English. The King James Bible was translated into a formal and elevated style of English, which helped to establish Standard English as the norm for religious and literary writing. The following examples show the influence the King James bible on standard English: Many phrases from the Kind James bible have become part of the standard English vocabulary, such as “turn the other cheek” and “a house divided against itself cannot stand. “The formal and elevated style of the King James bible has influence the style of standard English writing.

Prescriptivism : The 18th century saw the rise of prescriptivism, which is the belief that there is a correct and incorrect way to speak and write a language. Prescriptivists developed grammars and dictionaries that set out the rules of Standard English. These works helped to further standardize the language and to promote the spread of Standard English among the educated classes.

Grammars and dictionaries were published that set out the rules of standard English. Schools began to teach standard English grammar and usage. The media and other public figures began to promote the use of standard English.

6.3 THE PRIMARY SHIFTS :

The rise and growth of Standard English is a complex and multifaceted process that has been influenced by a variety of factors. One of the key aspects of this process is the standardization of the English language itself. This involved the development of a set of linguistic norms that were considered to be correct and prestigious.

The primary shifts in the standardization of English can be summarized as follows :

The shift from a regionalized language to a national language. In the Middle Ages, English was a highly regionalized language, with a variety of different dialects spoken in different parts of the country. The rise of a centralized state and the growth of communication and transportation networks led to the increasing dominance of a particular dialect, known as London English.

London English became the standard for writing and formal speech, and it was gradually adopted by other parts of the country.

The word "ship" was pronounced with a short "i" sound in the North of England, but with a long "i" sound in the South of England. London English adopted the long "i" sound, and this became the standard pronunciation in England.

The word "was" was pronounced as "were" in some parts of England. London English adopted the pronunciation "was," and this became the standard pronunciation in England.

The shift from a spoken language to a written language. The invention of the printing press in the 15th century had a major impact on the standardization of English. The printing press made it possible to mass-produce books and other printed materials, which helped to spread a consistent form of the language throughout England.

The printed word became the primary form of communication for many people, and it played a key role in establishing the norms of Standard English.

The spelling of many words was standardized in the 16th and 17th centuries. For example, the words "knight" and "night" were originally spelled the same way. However, the printing press made it possible to distinguish between the two words by using different spellings.

The grammar of Standard English was also standardized in the 16th and 17th centuries. For example, the rule that verbs must agree with their subjects became a standard rule of Standard English grammar.

The shift from a vernacular language to a literary language. In the early modern period, English began to be used as a language of literature and scholarship. This led to a

shift in the focus of the language from the spoken to the written word. Writers and scholars developed a more formal and elevated style of English, which became the model for Standard English. The use of Latin and French loanwords became more common in Standard English in the early modern period. This was due to the influence of scholarship and literature.

The sentence structure of Standard English became more complex in the early modern period. This was also due to the influence of scholarship and literature.

The rise and growth of Standard English has had a significant impact on English-speaking societies around the world. Standard English is now the language of government, education, and the media in many English-speaking countries. It is also the language of international business and diplomacy.

It is important to note that the standardization of English is an ongoing process. New words and expressions are constantly being added to the language, and the rules of grammar and usage are constantly evolving. However, the core principles of Standard English remain the same.

6.4 THE RISE AND GROWTH OF STANDARD ENGLISH :

English has evolved into a global language, spoken by millions across diverse regions, social classes, and professions. The linguistic landscape is dynamic, with variations in sounds and vocabulary influenced by a myriad of factors. The interactive nature of language is evident as writers, poets, scholars, journalists, and radio speakers continually shape and mold it.

Within the broad river of English speech, three prominent currents emerge. Firstly, there are distinct local dialects, each with its unique characteristics confined to specific areas. Secondly, there exists a form of English spoken by people throughout England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, forming the basis for what is commonly known as Standard English. The third current represents the speech of the majority in each region, closely linked to the second, collectively referred to as Standard English. Professor H.C. Wyld further refines this classification, labeling the second as 'Received Standard' and the third as 'Modified Standard.'

Standard English ascended to prominence among the metropolitan population, gradually permeating throughout the entire country. Notably, from the end of the Middle Ages to the close of the 16th century, substantial changes occurred in the shapes and sounds of English words, particularly affecting vowel pronunciation. By the late 16th century, the language had achieved a standardized form, a structure largely retained to this day with only minor modifications in spelling and pronunciation.

The Modified Standard, spoken by the majority in England, is a significant variety of English. It can be defined as the speech of individuals raised in regional or occupational dialects who have assimilated its sounds and usages in conjunction with the received standard taught in educational institutions. This form of English exhibits countless shades and variations, outnumbering those who adhere strictly to the Received Standard.

When discussing 'Standard English,' the question arises: What constitutes 'good English,' and how does Standard English relate to other forms of good English? The answer lies in the English of the educated classes used effortlessly and without self-consciousness. It's crucial to note that the term 'Received Standard' pertains specifically to the educated speech of England concerning pronunciation.

Historically, conditions in England were unfavorable for the emergence of a standardized language until about 400 years ago. Since then, Standard English has gradually expanded across the British Isles and English-speaking territories worldwide. Recent conditions, marked by universal education, frequent movement, and widespread broadcasting, facilitate increased interaction among people of all classes. This, in turn, sets the stage for greater standardization of English in Britain in the future.

As the world becomes more interconnected, we anticipate English speech to undergo further standardization and homogenization globally. Nevertheless, the fluid nature of language ensures constant change. Words fall out of use, new ones are coined through deliberate choice, poetic expression, or popular imagination, leading to an ever-evolving vocabulary. Therefore, like any living language, Standard English is bound to undergo changes and developments, resisting stagnation and ensuring its adaptability to the evolving linguistic landscape.

In conclusion Standard English has emerged as the dominant form of English in the world today. It is spoken by millions of people across diverse regions, social classes, and professions. While there are many local dialects of English, Standard English is the form of the language that is used in government, education, the media, and international communication.

The rise of Standard English has been influenced by a number of factors, including the growth of London as a center of power and culture, the invention of the printing press, and the rise of prescriptivism. Standard English is now the language of business, diplomacy, and international education.

Standard English is not static. It is constantly evolving, as new words are coined and old ones fall out of use. As the world becomes more interconnected, we can expect to see further standardization and homogenization of English speech globally. However, Standard English will also continue to change and develop, reflecting the needs and creativity of its speakers.

6.5 EXCEPTIONS TO THE RISE AND GROWTH OF RISE OF STANDARD ENGLISH :

1. Regional dialects :

Regional dialects of English have continued to exist alongside Standard English, even as Standard English has become the dominant form of the language in England. Some of the most well-known regional dialects of English include :

- Scouse (spoken in Liverpool)

- Geordie (spoken in Newcastle-upon-Tyne)
- Mancunian (spoken in Manchester)
- Brummie (spoken in Birmingham)
- Cockney (spoken in the East End of London)

These dialects have their own unique features of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. While speakers of regional dialects may use Standard English in formal settings, they often switch to their regional dialect when speaking with friends and family.

2. Social class :

Working-class speakers of English in England are more likely to use non-standard forms of the language than middle-class and upper-class speakers. This is known as class-based variation. Some of the features of non-standard English that are associated with the working class include :

The use of double negatives (e.g., "I ain't got no money.")

The use of contracted forms in formal settings (e.g., "I'm gonna go to the store.")

The use of non-standard pronunciation (e.g., pronouncing "bath" as "baf")

While class-based variation is still present in England today, it has become less pronounced in recent years. This is due to a number of factors, including the expansion of education and the influence of the media.

6.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

- 1) Explain its significance in the standardization process and its impact on pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary (Suggested Reading : Historical texts on the influence of London in language.
- 2) Compare and contrast Standard English with regional dialects, highlighting their differences and explaining the significance of Standard English in various societal domains.
- 3) Explore the linguistic changes that occurred during the rise of Standard English, focusing on specific examples of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary shifts, How did these changes contribute to its standardization?
- 4) Discuss the relationship between social class and language variation in England. How do regional dialects and non-standard forms of English relate to social classes?

6.7 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Crystal, David. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Cambridge University Press, 2003.
2. Baugh, Albert C., and Thomas Cable. "A History of the English Language". Routledge, 2012.

3. Barber, Charles. "The English Language: A Historical Introduction". Cambridge University Press, 2000.
4. Crystal, David. "The Stories of English." Overlook Press, 2005.

Mr. A. Kishore

LESSON – 7

VARIOUS INFLUENCES ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE - LATIN, FRENCH AND SCANDINAVIAN

Objectives :

- To understand the historical context of Latin, French and Scandinavian borrowings in English.
- To explain the impact of Latin on English vocabulary, grammar, and prosody.
- To analyse the motivations behind some of the more unusual Latin borrowings in English.
- To evaluate the role of Latin, French and Scandinavian in the development of English as a global language.
- To develop a critical understanding of the relationship between language and culture.
- To appreciate the richness and diversity of the English language.
- To develop a deeper understanding of the historical and cultural forces that have shaped English.
- To gain a competitive advantage in the global marketplace by mastering the English language.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Latin Influences On English
- 7.3 French Influence On English
- 7.4 Scandinavian Influences On English
- 7.5 Conclusion
- 7.6 Glossary
- 7.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 7.8 Suggested Readings

7.1 INTRODUCTION :

In the rich tapestry of the English language, the influences of Latin, French, and Scandinavian elements are woven seamlessly, creating a linguistic mosaic that reflects the

historical and cultural interactions of centuries past. This linguistic journey begins with the Roman conquest of Britain in the first century BCE, marking the introduction of Latin to the British Isles.

The subsequent Norman Conquest in 1066 brought the French language to prominence, leaving an indelible imprint on English vocabulary and syntax. As the waves of historical change swept across the landscape, the Scandinavian influence, primarily from Old Norse, added another layer of complexity to the evolving English language. In this exploration, we delve into the nuances of these linguistic interplays, tracing their trajectories through time and space.

The Roman imprint on English is etched into the very fabric of the language. Latin, as the language of the Roman conquerors, infused itself into the daily lives of the Britons, leaving behind a legacy that endures in the realms of law, science, and religion. Legal terminology, with its precise and enduring nature, often bears the unmistakable stamp of Latin influence.

The phrases "habeas corpus" and "pro bono," for instance, serve as poignant reminders of the lasting impact of Latin on the English legal system. Ecclesiastical language, too, drew extensively from Latin, as seen in terms such as "sine qua non" and "ad hoc," resonating with the enduring influence of the Roman Catholic Church on English-speaking societies.

The Norman Conquest of 1066 marked a pivotal moment in English history, as William the Conqueror and his Norman knights ushered in a new era of aristocracy and linguistic transformation. French, the language of the Norman elite, became the language of the courts, administration, and high culture. The infusion of French words into English vocabulary was not a mere blending but a dynamic process of linguistic evolution.

The coexistence of Anglo-Saxon and Norman French gave rise to a linguistic duality, where simpler, everyday words often had Anglo-Saxon roots, while their more refined counterparts in the realms of art, literature, and cuisine bore the mark of French influence. This linguistic amalgamation, known as Middle English, laid the groundwork for the modern English language we recognize today.

As we traverse the linguistic landscape, we encounter the enduring legacy of Old Norse, the language of the Vikings who raided and settled in parts of England during the early medieval period. The impact of Old Norse on English is evident in the lexicon related to maritime activities, governance, and family relationships.

Words like "husband," "sky," and "knife" find their roots in Old Norse, reflecting the cultural exchange and cohabitation that occurred between the Anglo-Saxons and the Norse settlers. The linguistic interplay between Old Norse and Old English gave birth to a dynamic synthesis that enriched the English vocabulary and added layers of meaning to everyday expressions.

The interweaving of Latin, French, and Scandinavian influences did not occur in isolation; rather, it shaped the linguistic landscape through a continuous process of adaptation and assimilation. The evolution of English can be likened to a river that absorbs the tributaries of various languages, each contributing to the overall flow and character of the linguistic current.

The coexistence of these linguistic influences is not only evident in the vocabulary but also in the syntax, phonetics, and even the cultural connotations attached to certain words.

In examining the lexical borrowings from Latin, French, and Scandinavian languages, it becomes apparent that the influences extend beyond mere words; they encapsulate broader cultural, social, and historical contexts. Latin, as the language of scholarship and diplomacy, brought with it a tradition of intellectual rigor and a legacy of classical literature that shaped the foundations of education and knowledge dissemination in English-speaking societies.

French, with its elegance and refinement, permeated the realms of courtly love, chivalry, and haute cuisine, leaving an indelible mark on the cultural ethos of the English-speaking world. Similarly, the rugged and seafaring spirit embodied in Old Norse vocabulary reflects the adventurous and resilient nature of the Scandinavian people, contributing to the multifaceted identity of the English language.

As we navigate through the linguistic currents shaped by Latin, French, and Scandinavian influences, it becomes evident that the evolution of English is not a linear progression but a complex interplay of divergent and convergent forces.

The linguistic landscape is a palimpsest, bearing the imprints of successive layers of cultural and historical interactions. This intricate dance of languages has given rise to a language that is dynamic, adaptable, and reflective of the diverse tapestry of human experience.

In conclusion, the study of Latin, French, and Scandinavian influences on the English language unveils a fascinating panorama of linguistic evolution. From the Roman conquest to the Norman Conquest and the Viking settlements, each chapter in this linguistic saga adds depth and complexity to the tapestry of English.

The coalescence of these influences has rendered English a language of remarkable diversity, resilience, and adaptability, embodying the collective history of the peoples who have shaped its trajectory. In tracing these linguistic threads, we gain not only a deeper understanding of the language itself but also insight into the intricate interplay of culture, history, and human interaction that has moulded English into the vibrant and multifaceted language we know today.

7.2 LATIN INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH :

The borrowings from Latin had begun in pre-historic times, while the Anglo-Saxons were still in their continental homes. It has continued without interruption ever since with the result that about one-fourth of the Latin vocabulary has already been transplanted into English either directly or by way of French.

Like other Germanic tribes the Angles, Saxons and Jutes had been on contact with the civilization of Rome. This had resulted in borrowings like street, wine, butter, pepper, cheese, silk, pound, mile mint, etc. Having settled in Britain these Germanic tribes borrowed from the Romanized Celts words like Latin 'Castre' (which survives in place names like '-chester' in Winchester-'caster' in Lancaster and '-cester' in Leicester).

The coming of Christianity to England brought with it innumerable Latin terms used by the Roman missionaries. Words like 'minster (Latin 'monasterium'), 'monk' (monachus) bishop (episcopus) 'mass' (missa), 'Church' (Cyriacum) found their way into English vocabulary.

The largest number of Latin ones in Old English were introduced as a result of the Latin learning and science brought in English through the revitalizing of church life in the 10th century. The names of many herbs and trees were thus received into English from Latin. During the Old English period Latin had come to enrich the English vocabulary by the many translations of Latin compound words. The Latin 'euangelium' came to be translated into English as god-spell. Latin 'trinitatem' was translated into 'prynes' yielding modern English 'trinity' Latin technical terms of grammar like 'participle' and 'preposition' were translated into 'doel-nimend' and 'Foresetennys'.

The influence of Latin on English during the Middle English period is rather hard to determine. At that time French was the dominating source for new words. Direct borrowings include words like pauper, proviso, equivalent, legitimate, index simile, memento, diocese, mediator and collect. This direct influence has been most deeply felt during Henry VIII's period, during the 16th to 18th century, it was the usual practice to write scientific and philosophical works in Latin. Soon after the Renaissance there had been a re-modelling of English schools so that men chosen for education went to schools where Latin was the medium of instruction.

Among the Latin words which have been borrowed, during the modern English period, we find that exit, area, fungus, miser, circus, vacuum, medium, ignorance, vagary belong to the 16th century. The 19th century, borrowings include torpor, specimen, arena, apparatus, focus, album, complex, minimum, status, lens, pendulum. In the 18th century were borrowed nucleus, inertia, alibi, ultimatum, extra, insomnia, bonus, via, deficit. The 19th century was marked by Latin loans like Opus, ego, moratorium', referendum, bacillus, Latin suffixes like -ate, -ic, -al have now become part of the language.

The form of the Latin words in English and French and more so in English, has been affected by the self-conscious and unwarranted actions of some scholars in the past. They made attempts to restore Latin words in English to shapes more in accordance with their original spelling. The 'h' was added to words like 'umble' 'onour' 'abit' etc. The letter 'b' was inserted in 'deu' reminding the Latin derivation 'debitum'. The relationship between Latin 'fallere' and English 'fault' was established by inserting the 'l' in 'fault'. The letter 'p' was inserted in 'receipt' to show its relationship with 'receptium'. In certain words like 'fault, vault, assault' the pedantically inserted letter has come to be pronounced. Among the more

inexcusable errors introduced into English spelling by old pedantry are the 'd' in advance, advantage (more properly avance, avantage) and the 'C' in 'scent' and 'scissors'.

Though Latin is no longer a subject of study in English schools a glance at any but the latest grammar books will convince us how the whole set-up and terminology of English grammar have been influenced by Latin. On account of the Latinate tradition it has long been considered wrong to say in English 'It's me'. Latin grammar requires that the verb 'to be' must always take the nominative after it, while usages like 'it is me' 'it is her' are perfectly in keeping with the nature of the English language. In matters like prosody Latin tradition still prevails. Hence we find terms like iamb, trochees and dactyls in English prosody. They are inappropriate to English where metre is based on stress or emphasis.

7.3 SCANDINAVIAN INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH :

The English had resided for about four centuries in the country called after them. During that time they had no enemies from abroad. The Danes were to them not deadly enemies, but a brave nation from over the sea. The peaceful relations between the two nations may have been more intimate than is supposed. Had the poet of 'Beowulf' been able to foresee all that his countrymen were destined to suffer at the hands of the Danes, he would have chosen another subject for his great epic.

Numerous names of places ending in-by-thorp, -bech. – daethwite etc. bear witness to the preponderance of the invaders in great of England. It should be remembered that it was a Dane, King Knut who achieved what every English ruler had failed to achieve, the union of the whole of England. In order to estimate rightly the Scandinavian influence it is very important remember to how great the similarity was between Old English and Old Norse.

The origin of the words is complicated by the fact that the English would often modify a word, when adopting it. Shift' is an anglicized form of Norse 'Skipta: Old Norse bruxlamp' wedding' was modified into bryrlop. Old Norse words with the negative prefix is are made into English un-e.g. untime, unbain etc. Dale' appears to have been reinforced from Norse for it is in the North that the word is a living geographical name. The verb 'bled' 'blend' seems to owe its vitality to ON, for 'blandan' was very rare in Old English.

In the following the first form is the native one, the form following that is the imported one.

- 1) Whole (formerly 'hool')- hále eg, hail and hool
- 2) no-nay nay e.g. nay, too much
- 3) rear-raise
- 4) from-fro eg. to and fro
- 5) Shirt-skirt
- 6) Shriek-scream
- 7) edge-egg.

Scandinavian survies in dialects only e.g. dew-dog, leap-loup, neat-nowt (cattle), Church-kirk, chest-kist, mouth-mun, yard-garth. The Scandinavian thethen hethen, hwethen are generally supposed to have been discarded in favour of the native forms. OE panon, heonan, hwanon, to which was added an adverbial &: thence, hence, whence.

The most important Importation was that of the pronominal forms 'they, them, their' which derived their modern forms from 'hie, him and heom; her (hire and heora) Most of the law terms were simply the Danis or Norse words. The word 'law is known in England from 10th Centruy in the form 'lagu' which must have been the exact Scandinavian form. 'Window' is borrowed from 'Vindga' (Wind-eye), 'eagpyrel' eye-hole. The Scandinavian knives were better than those of other nations, for the word was introduced into French (Canif) as well as into English.

We find the adopted nouns from Scandinavian such as husband, fellow, sky, skull, skin, wing, harm root, skill anger, gate, etc. Among the adjectives we find meek, low scant loose, odd, wrong ill, ugly, rotten etc. Pleasant adjectives like 'happy' and 'seemly' are too derived from the Danish roots. An Englishman cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what bread and eggs are to daily fare.

We recall were Wordsworth's words :

"Thou unassuming commonplace
Of Nature with that lonely face
And yet, with that something of a grace
Which Love makes for thee".

7.4 FRENCH INFLUENCE ON THE ENGLISH :

With Latin French is one of the great fundamental formative influences on the English vocabulary. Even before the Norman conquest social, 'Political and religious intercourse had begun. After the Saxon King Ethelred's' marriage with a Norman Princess and his son Edward the Confessor's rule, Norman nobles and their retainers found a place for themselves in England. Before the Conquest French words were only few. e.g. castel, capun, bacun.

As the 12th Century advanced, we find the new French terms, Prisun, foreste, tur, market, rent, justise, etc. The Church, law courts, the aristocracy trade, war - all these became Norman French. In the Peterborough Chronicle we find such French terms as - 'acorden, bataille, curt, cuntesse, rent, carited (derity) Pais (peace), miracle, and processiu'. In the early 13th centry with the loss of Normandy the direct connection between the two countries was weakened. Some legal terms were still in use-plaintiff, defendant, Privilege, malfeasance. etc.

A new French dialect 'Ile-de-France' was developed in the 13th century. The consequence was that some Norman words already in English were replaced by forms of the more Parisian French type. Thus, Norman French had a hard c from Latin which the new French type replaced by Ch. The Norman French w corresponded to a French g. We may

compare 'cancelor' with the later chancellor," "Carited' with 'charity', Cattle and 'chattel' 'Waste' (breal) corresponded to 'gateau', worden and guardian warrant' and 'guarantee'.

In the earlier Middle English period the following commoner French words have survived :

Building : Castel, Prisun, Chapel, tur.

Religion : Grace, merci, desputen, service, passiun, miracle, religion.

Military : Werre, bataille.

Domestic basin, furneis, lamp, beast.

In the later Middle English period there came a marked change in the kinds of influence that French continued to exert. This change is marked by two things. First, French became much more the source of particular classes of words. Secondly they enter the language in their modern French Pronunciation. Some older French words have been so fully assimilated to the genius of the English language e.g. connoisseur amateur, chef, valet, garage: Early French borrowings have generally adopted the native English system of stress as in 'honour. reason, virtue, favour.

The following are some of the 16th century French words which have remained in common use: pilot, sally rendervous, partisan, cliché, volley, indigo, vase, moustache, promenade, piquant, machine.

The 17th century was of more significance in the story of French influence on the English vocabulary. The Restoration of the Monarchy in 1660 brought much cultural baggage from France. The plays of the period abound with satire of the French. Dryden was a follower of French dramatic models.

A select list of words may be given as follows: dragoon, parole, reprimand, ballet, burlesque, chagrin, champagne, coquette liaison, par excellence, naïve, rapport forte, muslim, soup, group, penchant. In the 18th century a selective and arbitrary list can be given, thanks ranks to the French Revolution of the period. - guillotine, regime, corps, manure, espionage, tricolor, depot, salon, bureau, canteen, critique, nuance, belles-letters, brochure, brunette, picnic, etiquette, police, coup.

The 19th century was the richest of all periods in French loans since Middle English times. The following is a representative list of words; Military; barrage, communiqué, chassis.

Literature and Art: resume, litteratur, ceiche, Renaissance, matinee, motif, macabre, premiere.

Dress : rosette, fichu, lorgnette, profile, negligé, beret, suede, cretonne.

Food : restaurant, manu, chef, mousse, gratin.

Social : Chauffeur, habitue, elite, debutante, fiancee, distingue, chic.

Diplomatic : attache, clientele, prestige, impose, clargd' affaires, rapprochement, debacle, raison d'etre.

The two world wars gave some French words. Of them the most important one; garage, revue, vers libre, hanger, limousine, camouflage.

It will be noticed that among most recent borrowings from French there has been a prevailing tendency to bring in whole phrases either as they stand or by a literal translation. Thus we have: Comme il faut (unwelcome), de trop (well bred), enfant terrible (child who asks unwelcome questions), amour propre (self-esteem). The translated French phrase are: goes without saying (Va sans dire), jumps to the eyes (soute aux yeux), and make a gaffe (faire une gaffe).

French phrases are good when addressed to a suitable reader or audience, provided the same thing cannot as effectively be expressed in English. The knowledge of French gave access to the rich literature of the continent. The French importations by prose writers consist largely of terms of science and theology in which the native language was poor. Thus innumerable words or phrases brought into the language are naturally of the most varied character with regard to meaning.

7.5 CONCLUSION :

In the intricate evolution of the English language, the influences of Latin, French, and Scandinavian elements have left an indelible mark on its vocabulary, syntax, and cultural nuances. The Latin imprint on English dates back to prehistoric times when the Germanic tribes, including the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, interacted with Roman civilization. The infusion of Latin continued through the spread of Christianity in England, introducing a plethora of religious terms and shaping the language of church life.

The Norman Conquest marked a turning point, with French becoming the language of the aristocracy, administration, and high culture. This linguistic amalgamation, known as Middle English, laid the foundation for a dynamic interplay of words, with French and Anglo-Saxon roots coexisting and enriching the language. Latin, however, persisted as a source of scholarly and technical terms, contributing to the realms of law, science, and education.

Scandinavian influence, rooted in the Viking settlements and interactions with the Anglo-Saxons, brought a distinct flavour to English. The borrowing and modification of Norse words added layers of complexity to the language, especially in geographical names and everyday expressions. The adoption of pronominal forms like 'they, them, their' and the influence on legal terms showcase the lasting impact of Scandinavian elements on English.

Throughout history, the ebb and flow of these linguistic influences shaped the vocabulary in profound ways. Latin continued to contribute to English through scientific and philosophical works, with Latin phrases becoming ingrained in academic and intellectual discourse. French, with its elegance and cultural sophistication, introduced words that permeated various aspects of life, from literature to domesticity.

The 17th and 18th centuries witnessed the integration of French words into English, driven by cultural exchanges and the Restoration of the Monarchy. This period saw an influx of French terms in literature, art, and diplomacy, further enriching the English lexicon. The 19th century brought a surge of French loans, reflecting the dynamism of the language and its adaptability to evolving societal trends.

In conclusion, the linguistic journey of English reflects a continuous dialogue with Latin, French, and Scandinavian influences. The language's resilience lies in its ability to absorb, adapt, and synthesize elements from diverse sources, creating a tapestry that mirrors the complex history and cultural interactions of its speakers. Today, English stands as a testament to the enduring legacy of these linguistic influences, shaping its identity and making it a truly global language.

7.6 GLOSSARY :

1. Pre-historic Borrowings :

Latin influences on English date back to prehistoric times when the Anglo-Saxons interacted with Roman civilization.

2. Everyday Vocabulary :

Common words like street, wine, butter, pepper, and cheese were borrowed from Latin during the Roman conquest.

3. Romanized Celtic Words :

Anglo-Saxons in Britain borrowed words like 'Castre' from Romanized Celts, evident in place names such as 'chester,' 'caster,' and 'cester.'

4. Christian Influence :

The arrival of Christianity introduced numerous Latin terms used by Roman missionaries, including words like 'minster,' 'monk,' 'bishop,' 'mass,' and 'Church.'

5. Old English Enrichment :

Latin influence increased in Old English through translations of compound words and the introduction of technical grammar terms.

6. Middle English Period :

Latin influence during the Middle English period was challenged by French dominance, with direct borrowings like 'pauper,' 'proviso,' and 'legitimate.'

7. Scientific and Philosophical Works :

Latin was extensively used in scientific and philosophical works from the 16th to the 18th century.

8. Modern English Borrowings :

Latin words borrowed in the modern English period include 'exit,' 'area,' 'fungus,'

'miser,' 'circus,' 'vacuum,' and more.

9. Linguistic Changes :

Latin words in English underwent changes due to efforts by scholars to restore original spellings, leading to modifications like the addition of 'h' in 'umble' and 'b' in 'deu.'

10. Viking Settlements :

The Danes, a brave nation from over the sea, had a peaceful relationship with the English during their four-century residence.

11. Geographical Influence :

Numerous place names ending in '-by,' '-thorp,' '-bech,' and '-dale' reflect the Scandinavian influence on England's geography.

12. Linguistic Similarity :

The similarity between Old English and Old Norse facilitated the assimilation of Norse words into English, sometimes modified during adoption.

13. Pronominal Forms :

Pronominal forms like 'they,' 'them,' and 'their' were borrowed from Old Norse, replacing the earlier English forms.

14. Vocabulary Enrichment :

Borrowed nouns include 'husband,' 'fellow,' 'sky,' 'skull,' 'skin,' 'wing,' 'harm,' 'root,' 'skill,' 'anger,' and 'gate,' showcasing the linguistic impact.

15. Norman Nobility :

Norman nobles and their retainers found a place in England after Saxon King Ethelred's marriage to a Norman Princess and Edward the Confessor's rule.

16. Linguistic Transition :

French terms like 'castel,' 'capun,' and 'bacun' were present before the Norman Conquest, and after the 12th century, new French terms infiltrated various domains.

17. Dialectal Changes :

The development of the 'Ile-de-France' dialect in the 13th century led to changes in pronunciation and spelling of some Norman French words.

18. Middle English Survivals :

Words like 'castle,' 'prison,' 'chapel,' 'tower,' 'grace,' 'miracle,' 'war,' and domestic terms survived into Middle English.

19. 16th Century Borrowings :

French words borrowed in the 16th century and still in use include 'pilot,'

'rendezvous,' 'cliché,' 'volley,' 'indigo,' 'premiere,' and more.

20. 17th Century Cultural Influence :

The Restoration of the Monarchy in 1660 brought cultural influences from France, affecting literature, drama, and language.

7.7 SAMPLE QUESTIONS :

- 1) Discuss the early borrowings from Latin into Old English, citing examples. How did the Romanization of the Celts contribute to Latin elements in English, especially in place names?
- 2) Examine the challenges in determining the influence of Latin on English during the Middle English period, especially when French was dominating as a source for new words. How did scientific and philosophical works in Latin during the 16th to 18th centuries further shape the English language?
- 3) Examine the historical context of the Scandinavian influence on English, considering the peaceful relations between the English and the Danes.
- 4) Investigate the social, political, and religious interactions between the English and the Normans before the Norman Conquest.
- 5) Trace the evolution of French influence on English from the 12th century to the 19th century. Discuss the changing nature of French borrowings, including legal terms, military terminology, and cultural influences.

7.8 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. "The Oxford Introduction to Proto-Indo-European and the Proto-Indo-European World" by J. P. Mallory and D. Q. Adams.
2. "The Oxford Introduction to Proto-Indo-European and the Proto-Indo-European World" by J. P. Mallory and D. Q. Adams.
3. "The Story of French" by Jean-Benoît Nadeau and Julie Barlow.
4. "French: From Dialect to Standard" by Peter Rickard.
5. "Borrowed Words: A History of Loanwords in English" by Philip Durkin.
6. "The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language" by David Crystal.

Prof. B. Karuna

LESSON – 8

CHANGE OF MEANING AND WORD FORMATION

Objectives :

- The students will be able to explore how the English language has evolved over time, specifically focusing on changes in word meanings and the formation of new words.
- The students will be able to expand vocabulary by learning new words formed through different mechanisms.
- The students will be able to develop language awareness by recognizing the dynamic nature of language, appreciating its adaptability, and understanding the role of speakers in shaping linguistic evolution.
- The students will be able to understand how shifts in societal norms, technological advancements, and cultural trends influence language evolution.
- The students will be able to create examples to demonstrate each word formation method, fostering a practical understanding of linguistic creativity.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 8.1 Introduction to Change of Meaning
- 8.2 Introduction to Word Formation
- 8.3 Chief Characteristics of Change of Meaning
- 8.4 Chief Characteristics of Word Formation
- 8.5 Change of Meaning
- 8.6 Word Formation
- 8.7 Self Assessment Questions
- 8.8 Suggested Readings

8.1 INTRODUCTION TO CHANGE OF MEANING :

The study of semantics, known as the science of meaning, delves into the intricate history and current status of words, exploring their multifaceted meanings, figures of speech, and contextual nuances. semantics recognizes that words are not fixed in meaning but subject to change, influenced by factors such as polysemy, narrowing, metaphorical application, euphemism, reversal of meaning, etymological misunderstanding, and more.

Polysemy, or multiple meanings, exemplifies the dynamic nature of word meanings. words like 'pipe' and 'plane' evoke distinct ideas based on the context and the perspective of

the beholder. the evolution of the word 'villain' over two centuries illustrates the human tendency to associate social respectability with suspicion.

Narrowing or specialization involves a shift from a broad to a more specific meaning. the term 'doctor,' once a general reference to a learned individual, now specifically denotes a physician. similarly, 'fowl' transformed from a generic term for birds to specifically edible domestic birds.

Metaphorical applications, conscious changes in meaning, and euphemisms showcase the deliberate shaping of language. words like 'broadcast' and 'sad' have acquired figurative meanings over time, while euphemisms soften the impact of unpleasant references, such as 'passed away' for death.

Reversal of meaning and etymological misunderstandings highlight the fluid nature of language. 'grocer' shifted from denoting a wholesaler to a retailer, and 'egregious' experienced a reversal from a complimentary term to a negative one. the term 'helpmeet' underwent a transformation influenced by the concept of marital partnership.

Proper names, slang terms, and false etymologies further contribute to the richness and evolution of the English language. slang terms, once considered informal, eventually become accepted into the literary vocabulary, illustrating the dynamic nature of language over time.

8.2 INTRODUCTION TO WORD FORMATION :

The evolution of the English language, especially in terms of vocabulary, has been a dynamic process marked by word formation through various mechanisms. from the middle English period to the present day, English has undergone changes in its lexicon through imitation, the addition of prefixes and suffixes, telescoping, syncopation, and more.

Imitation, often rooted in onomatopoeia, represents one of the oldest methods of word formation. words like 'bang,' 'hiss,' and 'giggle' are examples of imitative character, capturing the sounds or actions they represent. even the name of the cuckoo reflects an attempt at imitating its distinctive call.

The addition of suffixes and prefixes contributes significantly to expanding the english vocabulary. suffixes like '-dom,' '-ship,' '-th,' and prefixes like 'ambi-,' 'ante-,' 'post-,' and 'sub-' attach to base words, creating new terms with specific meanings. this method of word formation has been prevalent since ancient times, allowing for the nuanced expression of ideas.

8.3 CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF CHANGE OF MEANING :

Polysemy / Generalization : The phenomenon of polysemy involves words acquiring multiple meanings over time. For example, the word 'pipe' may refer to different objects for a smoker, plumber, or organ-builder. Generalization occurs when a word broadens its meaning, as seen in the evolution of 'villain' from a lowly labourer to an evil doer.

Example : The word 'plane' may mean an aircraft to an aeronaut, a woodworking tool to a carpenter, and a geometric surface to a mathematician.

Narrowing/Specialization : Words may undergo narrowing or specialization, transitioning from a broader meaning to a more specific one. The term 'doctor,' which once meant a learned individual, has specialized to refer specifically to a physician.

Example: The term 'doctor' once meant a learned individual but has now specialized to refer specifically to a physician.

Metaphorical Application : Some changes in meaning are deliberate and involve the conscious use of words in a figurative sense. For instance, 'broadcast' originally meant sowing seeds by hand but has metaphorically evolved to spreading information through various mediums

Example : The term 'broadcast' originally meant sowing seeds by hand, but it evolved to refer to the spreading of information through media..

Euphemism : The use of euphemism involves substituting indirect or less harsh words for blunt or taboo references. For example, 'passed away' is a euphemism for death, and 'slump' is used to refer to an economic crisis.

Example : Using 'passed away' instead of 'died' to refer to death is a euphemistic change of meaning.

Reversal of Meaning : Words may experience a reversal of meaning, where a term that was once complimentary or positive takes on a negative connotation. An example is 'grocer,' which shifted from wholesaler to retailer.

Example: 'Grocer' once meant a wholesaler but reversed to refer to a retailer over time.

Etymological Misunderstanding : Changes in meaning can result from misunderstanding the etymology of a word. 'Helpmeet' originally referred to anyone offering help but later became associated specifically with a spouse.

Example : 'Helpmeet' initially meant anyone who was of help, but it eventually came to mean a husband or wife.

Proper Names : The names of historical figures, locations, or cultural references can become integrated into the language, influencing meanings. For instance, 'Guy Fawkes' and 'dunce' from 'Duns Scotus' have become words in the English lexicon.

Example : The term 'dunce' originated from Duns Scotus, and 'Atlas' comes from the name of a famous man of strength in Greek mythology.

8.4 CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF WORD FORMATION :

Imitation / Onomatopoeia : Word formation through imitation involves creating words that imitate the sounds or actions they represent. Examples include 'bang,' 'hiss,' and 'giggle,' which capture specific auditory experiences

Addition of Suffixes and Prefixes : The addition of suffixes and prefixes to base words is a fundamental mechanism for expanding the vocabulary. Suffixes like '-dom,' '-ship,' '-th,' and prefixes like 'ambi-,' 'ante-,' 'post-,' contribute to the creation of new words.

Portmanteau Words : Portmanteau words involve combining parts of two words to create a new term that carries the meanings of both. Examples include 'brunch' (breakfast + lunch) and 'smog' (smoke + fog).

Syncopation : Syncopation occurs when words undergo shortening through the omission of sounds or syllables. For instance, 'prom' is a syncopated form of 'promenade,' and 'perambulator' becomes 'pram' through syncopation.

Telescoping : Telescoping involves combining two words into one. For example, 'douto' is a telescoped form of 'do out,' and 'alone' is a telescoped form of 'at one.'

Metanalysis : Metanalysis, or reanalysis, involves the revaluation of phrases or words, often due to slovenly pronunciation. For instance, 'at home' may become 'a tome,' and 'a flashing eye' may be heard as 'a flashing guy.'

Back Formation : Back formation occurs when a new word is created by removing a real or imagined affix from an existing word. For example, 'to sidle' is a back formation from 'sidling,' and 'to resurrect' is derived from 'resurrection.'

Corruption or Misunderstanding : Changes in pronunciation or understanding can lead to word corruption. For instance, soldiers returning from France transformed 'S'ilvousplaît' into 'civil play,' demonstrating a form of linguistic corruption.

False Etymology : Some words in English have attained their forms through mistaken notions about their origins. For instance, 'island' is a pedantic intrusion, intending to show a connection with the Latin 'insula,' when its native form was originally 'igland.'

Slang Terms : Slang terms, initially considered informal or unconventional, may be gradually accepted into the literary vocabulary, reflecting the dynamic nature of language and its responsiveness to societal changes.

These chief characteristics illustrate the diverse and intricate processes involved in both the change of meaning and word formation in the English language.

8.5 CHANGE OF MEANING :

The science of meaning is known by the term 'Semantics. The semantician studies the history and present status of words, analyses their value and force and resists the tendency to ambiguity inherent in the nature of language and the mind. He stresses the fact that words do not have a single, fixed, unalterable meaning and manner of their use. He studies figures of speech, multiple meanings, contextual meanings etc.

There are two kinds of meaning - referential and formal we try to discover the meanings of the words with the knowledge of those words we have already in mind. They have the situational or contextual meaning. But formal meaning is the ability of the items that

it can be contrasted within the system. The change of meaning of a particular word might have occurred through various processes They are as follows :

Polysemy/Generalisation : (May 96) Polysemy means multiple meanings. The word 'pipe' means one thing to the smoker, another to the plumer and something else to the organ-builder The mention of the word 'plane' will call up three distinct and widely divergent ideas in the minds of the geometrician, the carpenter and the aeronaut respectively. When an Englishman in the early days of the monorial system heard the word 'villain; he merely thought of a very lowly labourer, but 200 years later it brought to mind primarily not the social position or the occupation of such a person, both is unworth manners and behaviour and later still it suggested an evil doer because of a curious human tendency to identify social respectability and to look upon their opposites with suspicion.

Journey and journal' both are derived from the French noun Jour (day), the root meaning of 'journey' is day's walk or ride le and of 'journal' a daily record of events and in the case of this latter the literal see is still retained in the specialised use to denote a diary (b) a book in which a business firm records its daily transactions. But now the meaning is a journey of several weeks, of monthly journal. Similarly with the words 'companion and comrade' Literally the former means 'who eats bread with another person. The latter means one who shares a room, since those with whom we eat bread or share a room are likely to become our close friends, the inevitable shifting took place.

'Bushel' means first of all a basket, then by extension, the contents of a basket and finally by specialisation, the contents of a basket of a particular capacity. Sometimes general and more specified sense are to be found side by side for many years. Thus cousin', from Latin 'consanguineus'- related by blood, continued to be applied in the loose Shakespearean sense of relative or even to denote a close friend.

Narrowing/specialisation : The term 'doctor' once meant a learned man Now it is applied to refer to the physician, one who has specialised himself in healing the e body. Fowl' originally ant a bird, During the Middle English period, the term 'bird' was meant used as an alternative, gradually fowl come to assume a de a definite Now it refers to small, eatable, domestic birds. The 'deer meaning. Now it refers to small, eatable, domestic birds. The 'deer' meant all the wild animals of the forest. In 1481, it meant 'beast', Gradually it began to apply to animals in general. What we call 'deer', a prey for the animal is now a specific animal, the deer, that lion or tiger eats, 'Starve' had the Meaning 'to die' In middle English it had the sense 'to die of cold'. Today it means only to be in a state of hunger.

'Harbour' formerly meant to receive as a guest' later it came to mean receiving guests over from the sea and then it referred to harbouring of criminals and hence the metaphorical application 'he is harbouring anti-social elements. 'Fellow meant a business partner and then a companion. During the 14th century it assumed a derogatory sense thus referring to a servant. In the 16th century it was a term of rebuke. It had good implication as in the fellow of Royal Society! 'Ghost' meant in the past the Holy ghost. The apparition of the dead was honoured. After the introduction of 'spirit' 'ghost' became a term of derision

Metaphorical application :

Some changes of meaning are conscious affairs. This is the case when we used a word in a figurative sense which in due course becomes one of its meanings e.g. The foot of a hill, mouth of a river. 'Sad' originally meant 'full'. in 16th century it meant sober or serious. As it resulted in sorrow, the meaning of sorrow stuck to it later 'broadcast' is a double metaphor. It once meant sowing seeds by hands. As it got extended, sowing or spreading information by mouth resulted. In the first a quarterly news getting spread became the new meaning

Euphemism :

It is the habit of avoiding an unpleasant or taboo references, by substituting some indirect word for the blunt direct one. To indicate death, we say 'he passed away' 'Economic crisis is referred to as 'slump' 'Father-in-law's house is euphemism for jail. 'Insane' meant unhealthy. Now it has the sense of madness.

Reversal of meaning :

'Grocer' once meant a whole seller. Now it applied to the retailer 'egregious' was an epithet of compliment when it was borrowed from Latin. Now it suffers a reversal of meanings.

Etymological misunderstanding :

The term 'helpmeet' referred to anybody who was of help. It referred to mate then. So, a helpmate was arrived at. As proper help could only be done by a wife her husband and vice-versa, it came to mean the husband or wife.

Proper Names :

Guy Fawkes of the Gunpowder plot, dunce from Duns scotus, Atlas from famous man of strength, beddm from Bethlehem (hospital formed) are examples.

8.6 WORD FORMATION :

By the middle of the 17th century, the language had more or less assumed its present form so far as grammar, spelling and pronunciation are concerned. From the Restoration onwards the chief developments have been in the direction of on enlargement of the vocabulary on the one hand and changes in the meanings of words on the other. The oxford dictionary records over 400.000 words. Dr. Johnson's Dictionary (1755) about 48,000 words. It has been estimated that Shakespeare used about twenty thousand words and Milton eight thousand. The English language is the richest and has the most extensive vocabulary, of any in the world, The following are some of the ways in which the vocabulary has been enlarged.

By imitation or by onomatopoea: This is perhaps one of the oldest methods of word making. A number of words in our vocabulary are obviously imitative in character. As examples we may have bang, pop, buzz, chick, whizz, hiss, gingle, etc. the name of the cuckoo is clearly an attempt to represent its distinctive call. The Latin barbarous - barbarian, in its origin a verbal imitation of uncouth babbling, 'awe' and 'awful' remind us of the exclamation

'ooh'; denoting surprise and wonder The vowels i and e occur with the meaning of the idea of lightness. Consonants p,t,k give the impression of quick action - e.g. pommel, pitch, torrent kick, clutch: b1 suggests inflation - blow, blast, bladder, blob. 'fl suggests hurriedness -fly, flee fling, flash, 'wh suggests something subdued and quiet whisper, whimper whine 'St suggests stability - stop, stay, station, still, stage, statue.

An older word is given a new significance or its meaning is extended : 'Literary' in the modern dictionary means 'belonging to letters or literature. But in Johnson's time it meant 'alphabetical' The word 'pedant' means one who likes to display his learning and is over-particular about trivialities which are of academic interest only. But to Shakespeare it meant a schoolmaster. 'Manufacture' originally meant 'to make by hand Modern usage employs opposite meaning. A manufactured article and a hand-made article are now entirely different things. 'Radical' which meant 'basic' going to the root of things' had the seventeenth century sense of 'thorough' It was applied to the school of theologians who wanted to probe to the bottom of things and search out the truth for themselves and later became associated with the idea of revolution and disrespect for established authority.

'Board' has as many as six different meanings. It means i) plank of wood ii) a table iii) the food served on the table iv) a number of people who sit around a table v) a plane surface made of wood as a notice board, etc. vi) the deck of a ship.

A word which is normally one part of speech is used as another : 'But' is a conjunction, but when we say 'But me no buts' we are using the word as a verb and a noun respectively. If we describe the clause which follows the semicolon in the last sentence as the 'but' clause, then we are employing it as an adjective. Thus park-to park. The nouns signifying the principal parts of the body can nearly all be used as verbs. Shakespeare could make Shylock complain of Antonio thus :

"You foot me like a strange cur over your threshold."

By the addition of suffixes and prefixes : 'This is one of the ancient methods of word - formation the suffixes like-dom, -ship, -th. --ous, -ism, -ee added to words like king, scholar, seven, care, murder, defeat etc. are examples. The prefixes like ambi-, ante-, post-, ab-, inter-, extra-, super-, sub- added to words like vollencemeridion, poll, election, initio, national. ordinary, phosphate, marine etc. are examples. The term 'Nazi' has become universally recognized as a substitute for the more cumbersome combination 'National Socialist'. 'Bus' has superseded 'omnibus: 'Mob' is a shortening of the Latin phrase 'mobile vulgus' (literally the fickle crowd) 'cab' comes from the French 'Cabriolet' 'miss' comes from 'mistress' and 'hussy' from 'housewife' 'cinema' for 'Cinematograph' 'Port' takes its name from the town of 'Oporto'

The student goes to the varsity, studies under a prof, takes an exam and enjoys a vac.

The sportsman speaks of a ref. of soccer and rugby.

By synecopation : 'Prom' is an example of synecopation, 'perambulator' (from the Latin verb-perambulare) which becomes shortened to 'prom means 'to walk about' other examples are 'once, else, hence' which originally were 'ones, elles, henes' all pronounced as disyllables.

By Telescoping : Here the two words are combined into one. The verbs 'to do on' and 'to do off' are the results of the telescoping of 'do' and 'do off' (i.e., to put on, to put off) 'to do out' is a telescoped form of 'do out' 'to do alone' is 'at one' Here in an example from Shakespeare's 'Richard II.

"Since we cannot atone you, we shall see
Justice design the victor's chivalry".

By Metanalysis : This is reanalysis or different analysis. In slovenly pronunciation, the phrase 'at home' becomes a 'tome' or how 'a flashing eye' becomes 'a flashing guy' 'science and arts' becomes 'science and darts' etc. 'eggs' are called 'neggs' by metanalysis of some such phrase as 'ten eggs', 'a dozen eggs' etc.

'A nickname 'derived its form from an ickname 'an also name,' which was bestowed upon a person in addition to his real one. The final n of 'on' become attached to the beginning of the next word.

Portmanteau words : When part of one word is combined with part of another in order to form a new word, carrying with it the ideas behind both the original terms we have what is known as a portmanteau word. For instance when he wished to find a name for that part of humanity for those who considered themselves socially superior because they possessed a gig, Carlyle coined the term 'gigmonity' Corroll invented 'galumph' to refer to the idea of galloping in triumph.

Words manufactured from Initials : B.A., M.A., an M.P., a J.P., the C.I.D., B.D.C., G.P.O., etc. In the war of 1939-45, the pipeline laid beneath the English Channel to supply oil to the armies in France was known as Pluto, from the initials PLUTO (pipeline under the ocean).

Back Formation : 'to sidle' is a back formation from the adverb 'sidling' and the nouns beggar, pedlar, and editor have given us the corresponding verbs to beg, to peddle and to edit. From resurrection, the verb 'to resurrect', subscription to subscribe, television - to televise G.K. Chesterton's example: 'the wicked grocer groces'.

Corruption or Misunderstanding : Soldiers returning from France war of 1914-1918, had a whole repertoire of these terms. 'S' ilvous plait' became 'civil play' 'good-bye' is a garbled form of 'god be with you', 'Great scott' does not mean apostrophising Sir Walter, but on American euphemism for 'Great God!'

False etymology : There are some words in English which have attained their forms through mistaken notions. For instance, the word 'island' is a pedantic intrusion, intended to show a connection with the Latin 'insula' Its purely native form was Anglosaxonigland 'Helpmeet' became 'helpmate' now perfectly good English.

Slang terms with the lapse of time, come to be accepted into the literary vocabulary as good English In 1925 the following words were slang: bet (a wager) pinch (to steal) trip (a short voyage), blackguard (a dirty fellow).

Words from proper or personal names : Utopian from "Utopia,' Lilliputian' from Lilliput.

In conclusion, the exploration of change of meaning and word formation in the English language reveals the dynamic and adaptable nature of language. The study of semantics emphasizes that words are not fixed entities but subject to evolution influenced by various factors. The phenomena of polysemy, narrowing, metaphorical application, euphemism, reversal of meaning, and etymological misunderstanding showcase the intricate ways in which words transform over time.

The change of meaning reflects the cultural, societal, and linguistic shifts that occur throughout history. As words acquire multiple meanings (polysemy), undergo narrowing or specialization, experience metaphorical applications, or face reversals in meaning, they mirror the evolving human experiences, perceptions, and values.

Word formation, on the other hand, demonstrates the creative mechanisms through which the English vocabulary expands. From imitation and the addition of prefixes and suffixes to syncopation, telescoping, and portmanteau words, speakers contribute to the linguistic evolution by inventing new terms and expressions. The incorporation of proper names, slang terms, and words derived from initials adds layers of richness and diversity to the language.

Overall, the study of change of meaning and word formation enhances language awareness among students, enabling them to appreciate the dynamic nature of English. It highlights the profound influence of societal, technological, and cultural changes on language evolution, emphasizing the role of speakers in shaping the linguistic landscape. As students engage in creating examples and understanding these linguistic processes, they not only expand their vocabulary but also gain a practical understanding of the intricate and creative nature of linguistic expression.

8.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Discuss the process of narrowing or specialization in word meanings, using suitable examples.
2. Explore the deliberate changes in word meanings through metaphorical applications, with examples.
3. How does euphemism contribute to the change of meaning in language? Provide examples and discuss the role of euphemisms in communication.
4. Illustrate the phenomenon of reversal of meaning with examples. What factors contribute to such reversals?
5. Explain how etymological misunderstandings can lead to changes in word meanings, citing a few examples.
6. Explore the various methods of word formation. Provide examples for each method.

7. What is back formation. Discuss how new words are created by removing affixes from existing words.
8. How do slang terms contribute to the richness and evolution of the English language? Provide examples and discuss the acceptance of slang into the literary vocabulary.

8.8 SUGGESTED READINGS :

- 1) "The Power of Babel: A Natural History of Language" by John H. McWhorter.
- 2) "Word by Word: The Secret Life of Dictionaries" by Kory Stamper.
- 3) "Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way" by Bill Bryson.
- 4) "Semantic Change in English: A Study of Semantic Field Theory, Volume 23" by Adrian Pilkington.
- 5) "Lexical Semantics: The Problem of Polysemy" by Dirk Geeraerts.
- 6) "Morphology: Word Structure in Generative Grammar" by Peter Matthews.
- 7) "The Etymologicon: A Circular Stroll Through the Hidden Connections of the English Language" by Mark Forsyth.
- 8) "Slang: The People's Poetry" by Michael Adams.
- 9) "Metanalysis in English: Synchronic and Diachronic Applications" by Laurie Bauer.
- 10) "The Stuff of Thought: Language as a Window into Human Nature" by Steven Pinker.

Prof. B. Karuna

LESSON – 9

ENGLISH ACROSS THE WORLD – BRITISH ENGLISH

Objectives :

- To trace the historical evolution of the English language, from its Germanic roots to its global reach today.
- To gain an understanding of the origins and development of British English.
- To identify the key characteristics that distinguishes British English from other varieties of English.
- To appreciate the nuances and cultural richness of British English expressions and idioms.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Varieties of English
- 9.3 Introduction to British English
- 9.4 Pronunciation and Accent
- 9.5 Vocabulary and Spelling
- 9.6 Idioms and Expressions
- 9.7 Grammar and Usage of Tenses
- 9.8 Conclusion
- 9.9 Self Assessment Questions
- 9.10 Suggested Readings

9.1 INTRODUCTION :

The English language, once confined within the borders of the British Isles, has undergone an extraordinary transformation, spreading its linguistic roots across continents, cultures, and contexts. Today, English stands as the lingua franca of our globalized world, connecting individuals from diverse backgrounds in fields ranging from academia and commerce to technology and entertainment. The journey of English across the world is a story of exploration, trade, colonization, and cultural exchange, a testament to the language's adaptability and resilience.

The English language, with its intricate history and global reach, stands as a testament to the interconnectedness of human cultures and the enduring power of communication. Its

journey, spanning over 1500 years, is a captivating tale of linguistic adaptation, cultural exchange, and global influence.

The origins of English can be traced back to the 5th century AD, when Germanic tribes, including the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, migrated to what is now England. These tribes brought with them their own languages, which collectively formed the foundation of Old English. This early form of English, characterized by its strong Germanic influence, was primarily an oral language, with limited written records.

The 8th century AD witnessed the arrival of the Vikings, who brought along their Norse language, introducing new vocabulary and grammatical structures to English. This linguistic interaction further enriched the English vocabulary, laying the groundwork for its future development.

In 1066, the Norman Conquest marked a significant turning point in the evolution of English. The Normans, led by William the Conqueror, brought their own language, Norman French, which became the language of the nobility and administration. This infusion of French vocabulary and grammatical structures had a profound impact on English, transforming it into Middle English.

The Renaissance, a period of intellectual and cultural revival, brought about a renewed interest in English literature and language. Scholars like William Shakespeare and Geoffrey Chaucer contributed significantly to the standardization and refinement of English, shaping it into the language we recognize today.

The rise of the British Empire from the 17th to the 20th centuries played a pivotal role in disseminating English across the globe. As British explorers, traders, and colonists ventured to various corners of the world, they carried their language with them, establishing it as a dominant language in countries such as India, Australia, Canada, and parts of Africa and the Caribbean.

The invention of the printing press in the 15th century revolutionized the way English was disseminated. The mass production of books and printed materials facilitated the spread of the language, making it more accessible to a wider audience. Subsequent technological advancements, such as the telegraph and radio, further accelerated the global reach of English.

English stands as the most widely spoken non-native language, with an estimated 1.35 billion speakers worldwide. Its global prominence is evident in its widespread use in international business, diplomacy, science, technology, and education.

9.2 VARIETIES OF ENGLISH :

The English language, with its rich history and global reach, has evolved into a diverse tapestry of varieties, each reflecting the unique cultural and linguistic influences of its region. While British English and American English are often seen as the standard forms, the reality is far more complex and dynamic. World Englishes, encompassing a vast spectrum of variations, showcase the remarkable adaptability and resilience of the language.

British English and American English, the two most widely recognized varieties, have emerged from distinct historical and cultural contexts. British English, with its roots in the language of the United Kingdom, has been shaped by centuries of literary tradition and linguistic innovation. American English, on the other hand, bears the imprint of the American frontier spirit, reflecting the melting pot of diverse immigrant communities and the influence of local dialects.

Despite their shared ancestry, British and American English exhibit several notable distinctions. These differences span across vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and grammar.

Vocabulary :

British English: "lorry" (truck), "flat" (apartment), "queue" (line)

American English: "truck," "apartment," "line"

Pronunciation :

British English: "schedule" (SKED-ule), "herb" (HURB), "aluminium" (AL-oo-min-ee-um)

American English: "SKED-ule," "URB," "AL-yoo-min-um"

Spelling :

British English: "colour," "favour," "analyse"

American English: "color," "favor," "analyze"

Grammar :

British English: Present perfect continuous: "I have been working"

American English : Simple past: "I worked"

These distinctions, while seemingly subtle, reflect the unique cultural and linguistic evolution of each variety.

9.3 INTRODUCTION TO BRITISH ENGLISH :

A. Origins and Development :

British English, also known as Received Pronunciation (RP), Standard British English, or the Queen's English, is a standardized variety of the English language spoken primarily in the United Kingdom. It emerged from the dialect of south eastern England, particularly the region around London, and has been shaped by centuries of historical events, cultural influences, and linguistic adaptations.

The roots of British English can be traced back to Old English, the language brought to Britain by Anglo-Saxon invaders in the 5th century AD. Old English underwent significant transformations during the Middle English period (1100-1500), influenced by the Norman Conquest and the introduction of French vocabulary. By the Early Modern English period (1500-1700), the language had evolved further, absorbing elements from Latin, Greek, and other European languages.

The standardization of British English occurred gradually over time, influenced by factors such as the printing press, the rise of literacy, and the establishment of institutions like

the Royal Society and the British Academy. By the 18th century, a form of English known as Standard English had emerged, which served as the basis for British English as we know it today.

B. Characteristics of British English :

British English is distinguished from other varieties of English by its unique features in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation. While it shares many similarities with American English, there are also notable differences that reflect the distinct linguistic heritage and cultural context of the United Kingdom.

In terms of grammar, British English adheres to a set of rules and conventions that have evolved over centuries. For instance, British English generally prefers the present perfect tense over the past simple tense for actions that continue up to the present. It also uses certain verb forms differently, such as "shall" and "should" for future tense and conditional statements.

British English also possesses a distinct vocabulary, with words that differ from American English in both meaning and usage. For example, British English uses "flat" instead of "apartment," "lift" instead of "elevator," and "lorry" instead of "truck."

Spelling conventions also vary between British and American English. British English retains certain spellings that reflect the original Latin or French derivation of words, such as "colour" and "centre" compared to American spellings like "color" and "center."

Pronunciation is perhaps the most noticeable distinction between British English and American English. British English exhibits a non-rhotic accent, meaning that the "r" sound is not pronounced in non-final syllables. Additionally, British English has various vowel sounds that differ from American English, such as the pronunciation of "a" in words like "bath" and "tomato" and the pronunciation of "ou" in words like "mouse" and "house."

C. Significance of British English :

British English plays a significant role in global communication and academic discourse. It is the official language of the United Nations, the Commonwealth of Nations, and many international organizations. It is also widely used in education, science, and literature, with numerous prestigious universities and publications adopting British English as their standard.

9.4 PRONUNCIATION AND ACCENT :

The pronunciation and accent of British English are as diverse as the people who speak it. However, there are a few general characteristics that distinguish British English from other varieties of the English language.

Received Pronunciation (RP) :

Received Pronunciation (RP), also known as BBC English or Oxford English, is often considered the standard accent of British English. It is characterized by its clarity, precision,

and lack of regional influence. RP is typically spoken by people from the upper middle class and educated professions.

Examples of RP pronunciation :

The "t" sound in words like "water" and "butter" is pronounced distinctly, rather than glottalized.

The "h" sound is always pronounced, even in words like "herb" and "hospital."

The "a" sound in words like "cat" and "bath" is pronounced as a short "a," similar to the sound in the American word "trap."

Regional Accents :

The United Kingdom is home to a rich tapestry of regional accents, each with its own unique characteristics. Some of the most well-known regional accents include :

Scottish brogue : The Scottish brogue is characterized by its rolling "r"s, its use of the glottal stop, and its distinctive vowel sounds.

Welsh lilt : The Welsh lilt is known for its musicality, its use of long vowels, and its tendency to drop the "h" sound.

Geordie : The Geordie accent is spoken in the Newcastle upon Tyne area. It is characterized by its strong rhoticity, its use of the "glottal stop," and its distinctive vowel sounds.

Scouse : The Scouse accent is spoken in Liverpool. It is characterized by its dropping of certain consonants, its use of the "glottal stop," and its distinctive vowel sounds.

Cockney : The Cockney accent is traditionally associated with working-class Londoners. It is characterized by its use of rhyming slang, its dropping of certain consonants, and its distinct

9.5 VOCABULARY AND SPELLING :

A. British Vocabulary :

British English, like any other language variety, is characterized by its unique vocabulary. While many words share common roots with American English, British English often retains terms that have become obsolete in American usage. Here are some examples of distinctive British vocabulary :

Lift : This term refers to a device that moves people or goods between floors. In American English, "elevator" is the more common term.

Lorry : This is the British English word for a large motor vehicle used for transporting goods. In American English, "truck" is the usual term.

Biscuit : This refers to a small, flat, dry cake, typically made of flour, butter, sugar,

and eggs. In American English, "cookie" is the more common term.

Trousers : This term refers to a garment covering the legs from the waist to the ankles. In American English, "pants" is the usual term.

Flat : This is a British English term for a self-contained dwelling unit within a larger building. In American English, "apartment" is the more common term.

Apart from these examples, there are numerous other words that differ between British and American English. Familiarizing yourself with this distinctive vocabulary will enhance your understanding of British English and improve your ability to communicate effectively in this variety.

British	American
Motor Car	Automobile
Luggage	Baggage
Petrol	Gas
Tram	Street Car
Chemistry	Druggist
Torch Light	Flash Light
Notice Board	Bulletin Board
Hire purchase	Installment
Motor Way	High Way
Pavement	Side Walk

B. Spelling Differences :

British English and American English also have some notable spelling variations. These differences reflect the historical evolution of the language and the influence of different linguistic traditions. Here are some examples of distinct British English spellings :

Colour : This is the British English spelling of the word "color." The "u" is retained from the French word "couleur."

Centre : This is the British English spelling of the word "center." The "re" is retained from the Latin word "centrum."

Realise : This is the British English spelling of the word "realize." The "s" is retained from the French word "réaliser."

Organise : This is the British English spelling of the word "organize." The "s" is retained from the French word "organiser."

9.6 IDIOMS AND EXPRESSIONS :

The English language is rich in idioms, and British English is no exception. Idioms are phrases that have a figurative meaning that is different from the literal meaning of the individual words. They are often colourful and expressive, and they can add flavour and nuance to our speech and writing.

Here are a few common British idioms and their meanings :

Raining cats and dogs : This idiom means that it is raining very heavily.

Example : "I was caught in the rain on my way home, and it was raining cats and dogs."

Barking up the wrong tree : This idiom means that you are looking for something in the wrong place or making a mistake.

Example : "If you think I'm going to apologize, you're barking up the wrong tree."

The bee's knees : This idiom means that something is excellent or very good.

Example : "That new restaurant is the bee's knees. You have to try it."

Idioms are often rooted in cultural experiences and historical events. For example, the idiom "raining cats and dogs" is thought to have originated in the 17th century, when people believed that heavy rain was caused by cats and dogs fighting in the sky. Similarly, the idiom "barking up the wrong tree" is thought to be a reference to hunting, as dogs bark when they are tracking an animal.

Cultural Context of Idioms :

Idioms are often reflective of the culture and history of the people who use them. They can provide insights into the way people think and the values they hold. For instance, the British idiom "keeping a stiff upper lip" means to remain calm and stoic in the face of adversity. This idiom reflects the British cultural value of emotional restraint.

9.7 GRAMMAR AND USAGE USE OF TENSES :

British English and American English often differ in the use of tenses, particularly when expressing actions that span the past and present. While both varieties may use the present perfect tense to describe such actions, British English tends to favor this construction more frequently.

Present Perfect Tense :

In British English, the present perfect tense is often employed to convey an action that began in the past and continues up to the present or is still relevant to the present. For example :

"I have just eaten dinner." (The action of eating dinner has just been completed, and its effects are still relevant in the present moment.)

"She has worked here for five years." (The action of working at the current place of employment began five years ago and continues to the present.)

"They have made a lot of progress on the project." (The action of making progress started in the past and is still ongoing.)

The choice between the present perfect and past simple tenses in British and American English often depends on the context and the speaker's intention to emphasize the ongoing or relevant nature of the action.

Prepositions and Phrasal Verbs :

British English and American English also exhibit differences in the use of prepositions and phrasal verbs. Prepositions are words that connect nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words in a sentence, indicating relationships such as location, direction, or time. Phrasal verbs are verbs that are combined with prepositions or adverbs to create new meanings.

Prepositions :

British English often uses specific prepositions that may differ from American English usage. For example :

"At" vs. "In" for events: British English typically uses "at" for events that occur at a specific time, while American English may use "in" for the same context.

Example : "The concert starts at 7:00 PM." (British English) vs. "The concert starts in the evening." (American English)

"On" vs. "By" for deadlines: British English uses "on" for deadlines, while American English may use "by."

Example : "The deadline for submitting papers is on Friday." (British English) vs. "The deadline for submitting papers is by Friday." (American English)

Phrasal Verbs :

British English also has distinct phrasal verbs that may differ from American English equivalents. For instance :

"Pop in" vs. "Drop in": Both British and American English use these phrasal verbs to mean "to visit someone informally." However, British English prefers "pop in," while American English may use "drop in."

"Sort out" vs. "Figure out": Both British and American English use these phrasal verbs to mean "to understand or solve something." However, British English prefers "sort out," while American English may use "figure out."

"Put up with" vs. "Tolerate": Both British and American English use these phrasal verbs to mean "to accept or endure something unpleasant." However, British English prefers "put up with," while American English may use "tolerate."

9.8 CONCLUSION :

In the realm of academic writing, British English holds a prominent position, particularly in esteemed international journals and publications. Mastering the nuances of British English allows graduate students to communicate their research effectively, seamlessly integrating themselves into the global academic discourse.

Beyond the confines of academia, British English carries significant weight in professional settings. Multinational corporations, international collaborations, and global organizations often utilize British English as their primary mode of communication. Equipping oneself with British English proficiency opens doors to a wider range of career opportunities and enhances one's ability to navigate the complexities of the globalized workplace.

British English plays a pivotal role in shaping cultural understanding and appreciation. Familiarity with British English allows one to delve deeper into the rich literary heritage, diverse cultural expressions, and historical significance of the language. Through British English, graduate students gain access to a world of literature, theatre, cinema, and other forms of artistic expression, enriching their understanding of the world's cultural tapestry.

In conclusion, exploring British English extends far beyond mere grammatical rules and vocabulary lists. It is an invitation to engage with a language that has shaped the academic landscape, facilitated global communication, and enriched cultural understanding. As graduate students, embracing the nuances of British English empowers you to navigate the academic, professional, and cultural spheres with confidence and proficiency.

9.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. Explain the origins and development of British English, tracing its evolution from Old English to the present day.
2. Discuss the key characteristics of British English, highlighting the distinctions in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation compared to American English.
3. Describe the concept of Received Pronunciation (RP) and its role as a standard accent of British English.
4. Explain the differences in vocabulary usage between British and American English, providing examples of words with distinct meanings and usage patterns.
5. Discuss the spelling variations between British and American English, highlighting the historical and linguistic factors that have contributed to these differences.

9.10 SUGGESTED READINGS :

1. Crystal, David. "The English Language." Cambridge University Press, 2002.
2. Burridge, Kate. "Blooming English: Observations on the Roots, Cultivation and Hybrids of the English Language." Cambridge University Press, 2004.
3. This lesson aims to provide a comprehensive overview of British English, encompassing various aspects of language and culture, and offering resources for further exploration.
4. Crystal, D. (2012). English as a global language (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
5. Kachru, B. B. (1996). World Englishes: Studies in variety and standardization. Multilingual Matters.
6. Mesthrie, R. (2008). Major varieties of English: An introduction to history, structure, and use. Cambridge University Press.

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Lesson- 10**AMERICAN ENGLISH****10.0 Objectives**

The aim of the present lesson is to

- briefly describe the nature of American English
- evaluate the differences between American and British English.
- acquaint the student with American spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and syntax.

STRUCTURE**10.1 Introduction****10.2 Characteristic Features of American English****10.3 Differences between American English and British English****10.3.i. Spelling****10.3.ii. Pronunciation****10.3.iii. Grammar****10.3.iv. Vocabulary****10.4 Summary****10.5 Technical Terms****10.6 Sample Questions****10.7 Suggested Reading****10.1 Introduction:**

Colonists from England who settled along the Atlantic Seaboard in the seventeenth century transplanted the English language in America. Captain John Smith founded the first permanent settlement in 1607 at Jamestown. The three main stages of European immigration are as follows: i) The first stage extends from 1607 to 1790. The population during this period was approximately four million English people; ii) The second important stage extends from 1790 to the outbreak of the Civil War in 1860. During this period immigrants from Germany, Ireland and many parts of Europe arrived in large numbers. iii) The third period extends from the end of the Civil War in 1865 to the present day. Italians, Scandinavians and slaves established their settlements in the New World during this period.

For the student of language, the most important stage is the first stage because the process of linguistic expansion was making progress on the other side of the globe. The first English-speaking settlements were established in India. In the mid-decades of the Eighteenth century, English was taken to New Zealand and Australia. By the end of the Eighteenth century, Cape Town was occupied and English came to Africa. Thus the English language had spread throughout the world. The language that first reached the shore of the New World was Elizabethan English, the language of Marlowe and Shakespeare.

‘Rich and resourceful, fluid and flexible, ready to borrow and invent, quick to clip or compound words, or to interchange parts of change, and so since the colonial period when the Old world and the New were separated by vast spans of open sea and months of travel time, the American language has sailed down its own road stead’s on a course of its own devising’ -- Lincoln Barnett.

The two distinct forms of English, British and American, at present had originally been one and the same language long long ago. It is most important for English speech and to the future of the English-speaking peoples that the different forms of English should be made to coalesce. In order to achieve this the Englishmen have to get rid of their prejudices against American English and the Americanisms. It is a fact that the literary language of the USA and Great Britain are more or less the same. However, we find considerable differences between American and British English in spelling, pronunciation and syntax at the lower levels of speech.

10.2 Characteristic features of American English:

Archaism, uniformity and conservativeness are the three most important features of American English. Let us examine these three briefly.

1. Archaism: One of the important qualities of American English is its archaism. There are many archaisms imported by early colonists and preserved in use in America.

- Two of the qualities that have survived in American English are the preservation of sound ‘r’ in all positions (*car, corn*) and the flat vowel ‘æ’ in words like *fast, past, path, bath, half* etc. (these were discarded in England by the end of the eighteenth century).

- In the same way long 'ē' sound in words like, 'either' and 'neither' is distinguished from 'ai' sound in England.
- Another archaism is the use of 'gotten' as a past participle (Britishers use 'got') for e.g:- *I have gotten a bike.*
- In America certain words retained their old meanings. For e.g. 'mad' in American sense is **angry**; Chaucer's '*I guess*' is in frequent use in America. Sometimes archaisms are more appropriate and picturesque than their modern equivalents. For example, American *fall* is poetic and picturesque whereas English 'Autumn' is bookish and pedantic.

2. Uniformity: Another important quality of American English is its extraordinary degree of uniformity. Early settlers in America represented various geographical and racial groups. The mingling of groups of various races and places brought about the merging of regional differences in linguistic matters. In modern times one of the characteristic features of American life is mobility. As a result of such mobility, their language is diffused all over the country. Instead of getting broken up into different regional dialects the language of the country has become more assimilated to a certain form of standard, which is based on general use.

3. Conservativeness: All transplanted languages are conservative. The English language spoken in America would undoubtedly appear conservative when we compare it with the English spoken in England. But actually when American pioneers tried to experiment life in the New World under entirely novel conditions, it resulted in the change of language rather than conservation of old features.

10.3 Differences between American and British English:

Linguists consider that American English and British English are dialects of the same language and not two different languages, because the similarities and the commonalties between them are far greater and far more significant than the differences. In spite of all the differences between the two, Standard American English and Standard British English are mutually intelligible. The areas of divergence between the two dialects or the two varieties of English lie mostly in spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary (lexis) and grammar, especially in uneducated or half-educated circles. It would be interesting to note some of the differences between the two

varieties of English. Differences in syntax and grammar are inconsequential and do not harm the general expression of the language. Now let us examine all these differences with the help of a few examples.

10.3. i. Spelling : The most outstanding differences between American and British English lie in the sphere of spelling. Noah Webster brought considerably drastic reforms in English spelling. He published an **American Dictionary of the English Language** in 1828. Soon it became the supreme arbiter of American speech, in spelling and idiom. In his spelling reform Webster was guided by commonsense and convenience. The American way of spelling English can be described as "*simple, consistent and occasionally phonetic.*" It has eliminated many superfluous letters in words and simplified troublesome consonant –clusters. Example are given below:

(i) American spelling sanctions the use of **-or** where as English people use **-our** in words like *honour, favour, labour, humour* etc.

A. E : color, labor, valor, favor

B .E : colour, labour, valour, favour

(ii) Americans use **-er** where British use **-re** as in words like *centre, metre, litre* etc.

A. E : center, liter, meter, caliber

B .E : centre, litre, metre, calibre

iii) Americans use **-ae** where as Britishers use **-e** in words like *foetus, aesthetic* etc.

A. E : esthetic , fetus,

B .E : aesthetic, foetus

iv) Americans prefer **-ense** in words like *defense, pretense* etc. where as Britishers use **-ence**.

A. E : offense, defense, pretense

B .E : offence , defence, pretence

v) Americans use the suffix **-ize** in the place of British English—**-ise**.

A E: apologize, naturalize

B E: apologise, naturalise

vi) In consonants simplification has taken place in American spelling. Where we get *double* consonants in English spelling, we get *single* consonants in American English.

A.E : traveler, jewelry, wagon, counselor, leveled

B.E : traveller, jewellery, waggon, counsellor, levelled

vii) In certain words Americans use *double* consonants where as Britishers follow *single* consonants.

A.E : instill, installment

B.E : instil, instalment

viii) Americans prefer *-ction*; while in England *-xion* is used. For example:

A.E : reflection, inflection, deflection, retroflection

B.E : reflexion, inflexion, deflexion, retroflexion

ix) More striking differences are seen in words like *axe, masque, cheque, though, through, thorough, catalogue, programme* etc. Americans spell these words as--*ax, mask, check, tho, thro, thoro, catalog, program* and so on.

A.E : ax, mask, check, tho, thro, thoro, catalog, program

B.E : axe, masque, cheque, though, through, thorough, catalogue, programme

Sometimes Americans *ignore* the last part of *-st* in words like *amidst, amongst* etc. where as they are retained in British English.

A.E : amid, among

B.E : amidst, amongst

Though American spelling habits are looked at with indifference, by the speakers of King's English, surprisingly many of the American spellings have been accepted in England. For example, the present day spellings of the words like *public, gaol, author, censor, donor, tutor, visitor, junior, tailor* etc. were originally American. Comparatively American spelling is simpler than British spelling. But it is not entirely phonetic and drastically different. Moreover present day American spelling is not absolutely what Webster originally planned it to be. For example, Webster would have liked to be *hed, prov, hiz, giv, det, dout, ruf* etc. Instead of *head, prove, his,*

give, debt, rough and so on. Finally we can say that American English spelling is midway between the ideal and the real; neither extremely unphonetic nor absolutely phonetic.

10.3.ii. Pronunciation: The differences in pronunciation between British and American English are greater than what they seem to the casual listener. The accent and intonation of American English are descended from the seventeenth century immigrants to America. It is observed that in American speech stress is weaker and intonation is more level than in British speech. The standard pronunciation in British English is called Received Pronunciation (R.P.), which is used by educated speakers in the south-east of England. The standard pronunciation in America is different which is called general American English (GAE). The following are some of the differences between the two varieties of English.

(i) In America words like *dance, fast, half, past* etc., are pronounced with a front vowel /æ/ as in *cat*; while in England they are pronounced with back vowel /ɑ:/ as in *father*.

	AE	BE
Dance	/dæns/	/dɑ:ns/
Path	/pæθ/	/pɑ:θ/

(ii) Americans pronounce words like *duke, new, dew* with long vowel /u:/; while in British speech /j/ sound is inserted between the consonant and the vowel.

	A E	B E
Duke	/du:k/	/dju:k/
New	/nu:/	/nju:/
Dew	/du:/	/dju:/

(iii) In words like *bomb, balm, caught, dock, fog, hot* the vowel has the value of the shortened form of /ɑ:/

	AE	BE
Bomb	/bɑ:m/	/bɒm/
Caught	/kɑ:t/	/kɒt/
Hot	/hɑ:t/	/hɒt/

(iv) In British English in R.P. the letter 'r' is not pronounced in word final positions and unless it is followed by a vowel. But in American English 'r' is always pronounced whether it is followed by a vowel or not. So in words like *for*, *door*, *lord*, *farm* 'r' is sounded as a fricative, as it was pronounced in Elizabethan English. But in England it is silent except in phrases where linking 'r' is present.

	AE	BE
for	/fɔːr /	/fɔː /
door	/dɔːr /	/dɔː /
lord	/bɔːrd /	/bɔːd /

➤ /r/ sound in American English is phonetically different from that of RP. During the pronunciation of this sound in AE the tip of the tongue is curled back even further than it is in RP.

(v) There are differences in stress between American English and British English. In words like *dictionary*, *necessary*, *oratory*, *secretary* the last syllable receives full value in American speech. But they get the least weight in British English.

	AE	BE
Dictionary	/'dɪkʃnəri /	/'dɪkʃnri /
Oratory	/'ɒrətəri /	/'ɒrəri /
Secretary	/'sekɹətəri /	/'sekɹəri /

According to George Arlice, a famous English actor, "*The chief fact in American speech is its sloppiness and the outstanding defect in British speech is its snippiness.*"

10.3.iii. Grammar: In Grammar and Syntax the differences between British English and American English are not great. They may relate to either morphology (structure of words) or Syntax (structure of sentences). The regular way of forming the past tense and past participle in English is by the addition of the inflectional suffix '-ed' (*play-played-played*); there are a number of irregular verbs which do not follow this rule for the formation of their tenses. (*burn – burnt – burnt* ; *take – took – taken*)

1. In American English many of these irregular verbs are regularized or treated as regular verbs. For example, see the past tense and past participle respectively in both the varieties.

Verb	B E	A E
Dream	dreamt	dreamed
Learn	learnt	learned
Spoil	spoilt	spoiled
Burn	burnt	burned

2. The past participle of *get* is always *got* in British English; But in American English *gotten* is used. For example:

He has got it. (British Eng)

He has gotten it. (American English)

3. An Englishman asks the question '*Have you got any children?*' But the American would put the same question in a different way: '*Do you have any children?*'

4. Modal auxiliary verb 'shall' is rarely used in American English and is generally replaced by '*will*'. The negative form *shan't* is rare in American English. Both use contracted form *'ll* in the place of *shall* and *will*. The contracted form *may'nt* is hardly used in American English as well as in British English. When *ought* is used in the negative in American English, the '*to*' is omitted. For example:

He ought not have said that. (American English)

He ought not to have said that. (British English)

5. When the indefinite pronoun '*one*' is used in a sentence, any co-referential pronoun in the sentence must also be *one* or a form of it in British English, where as in American English *he* or *she* can be used in the place of *one*. For example:

If one loses one's temper, one should apologize. (British English)

If one loses his temper, he should apologize.(American English)

6. In America words like *crowd*, *team*, *company*, *government* are treated as singulars; while in England they are treated as plurals. For example:

The government *have* committed themselves...(British English)

The administration *has* committed itself..... (American English)

7. Some of the most interesting differences in the use of prepositions are:

- a. An Englishman lives *in* Oxford street; An American lives *on* it.
- b. An Englishman caters *for* somebody; While an American caters *to* him.

The above are some of the differences between American and British English in the area of Grammar and Syntax. But with increased communication of modern times many of these differences are fast vanishing. A Study of the English Language

10.3. iv. Vocabulary (Lexis): According to Lincoln Barret,

"In Colonial America as elsewhere in the expanding British Empire new words were invented, improvised, borrowed and translated from native lexicons to describe new things, experiences, flora and fauna, occupations and activities for which no counterpart existed in England. New and special vocabularies came into being and as they circulated, many words worked back into the central treasury of the English tongue. "

The great variation between King's and American English are in vocabulary. American English is a great tributary in the area of vocabulary. Some of them are:

1. Red Indian words, terms from French, Dutch, Spanish, etc. were freely borrowed and assimilated into American English.
 - (i) Red Indian words: caucus, woodchuck, terrapin, skunk, hickory, chipmunk etc.
 - (ii) Spanish words: cockroach, canyon, stampede, sierra, etc.
2. Certain scientific and technological words, which are quite indispensable to English were originally made in America by dropping either the initial syllable or the trail-end syllable of the word. For example, (i) Phone from telephone; (ii) gas from gasoline; (iii) memo from memorandum; (iv) movie from moving pictures; (v) plane from aeroplane.
3. Some striking characteristic features are observed in the Idiom of American English. Frequently and very casually Americans verbed nouns. For example: *to audition, to park, to orbit, to service* etc. are very popular expressions in America.
4. In some cases verbs are converted into nouns. For example: *a dump, a strike, a probe*

5. Sometimes nouns are converted into adjectives. For example, *space age, skin-diver, London-correspondent, summit meeting* etc.

6. In some other cases adjectives are transformed into nouns. For example: *Basics, wets, drys, briefs, compacts* etc.

7. Expressions like *drive-in, check-up, feed-back, slow-down, push-over, pull-over* etc. were coined in America. But they have found their way into England also.

8. Many interesting differences are noticed in more familiar words. The following are some of the examples:

A. E		B E		A E		BE
Pitcher	-	jug		Billfold	-	wallet
Baggage	-	luggage		Diaper	-	nappy
Elevator	-	lift		Drapes	-	curtains
Engineer	-	driver		Mobile	-	cell
Morticians	-	undertakers		Druggist	-	pharmacist
Vest	-	waist coat		Kerosene	-	paraffin
Zip code	-	postcode		Mutual fund	-	unit trust
Veteran	-	ex-serviceman		Faucet	-	tap.

Though there are quite a number of differences between American and British English, they are not so great as to differentiate these two varieties of English into two different languages. Modern factors like Radio, T.V., Internet etc. work a lot to converge and unify these two varieties of English. In spite of the diversity, the essential unity has not been destroyed. George Bernard Shaw remarked that Great Britain and America are " *The two great countries separated by the same language*".

10.4 Summary:

Among the many varieties of English spoken outside England, the American variety is the most important. This variety differs from the British variety in its spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Lexical varieties between the two varieties can be traced to cultural and geographical factors. At the structural level the differences are subtle. Apart from the many

differences in the shades of meaning, there is a primary difference between American and British English in the pronunciation, rhythm and intonation of speech. The important features of American English are archaism, conservativeness and the extraordinary degree of uniformity. In the more than three centuries, which have passed since the first English settlements in America, American English and British English have developed in divergent ways.

10.5 Technical Terms

Archaism : A word or expression that is not generally used any more

Conservative : Tending not to like or trust change, especially sudden change

Dialect : A form of a language that people speak in a particular part of a country, containing some different words and grammar, etc

10.6 Sample Questions

- 1) Write about the chief features of American English.
- 2) Explain in detail the general features of American English with special reference to spelling and pronunciation.
- 3) Examine how American English differs from British English.
- 4) What is American English? In what aspects it differs from British English?

10.7 Suggested Readings

Leonard Bloomfield : *Language*

Otto Jespersen : *The Growth and Structure of English Language*

Thomas Pyles : *Words And Ways of American English*

A.C. Baugh : *History of English Language*

P.Gopi Chand

LESSON – 11

GENERAL ENGLISH IN INDIA

Objectives :

- To understand the historical context of Indian English and its evolution over time.
- To identify the unique features of Indian English in terms of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and idiom.
- To analyse the social and cultural significance of Indian English in the context of India's linguistic landscape.
- To evaluate the impact of Indian English on education, employment, and global engagement in India.

Structure of the Lesson :

- 11.1 Indian English
- 11.2 The Arrival of English and the Transformation of India
- 11.3 The English Education Act of 1835
- 11.4 Characteristics of Indian English
- 11.5 Indian English : A Dialect with Unique Vocabulary
- 11.6 Indian Loan Words in English : A Legacy of Linguistic Exchange
- 11.7 Indian Phrases : Unique Expressions of Indian English
- 11.8 The Indian English Accent : A Phonological Perspective
- 11.9 Unique Tenses and Aspects in Indian English
- 11.10 Indian English Vs. British English
- 11.11 Self Assessment Questions
- 11.12 Suggested Readings

11.1 INDIAN ENGLISH :

Indian English (IE) is an umbrella term for all the varieties of English used across India and by the Indian diaspora. The English spoken on the Indian subcontinent has some distinctive characteristics that set it apart from other International varieties of English such as RP (Received Pronunciation) and the GA (General American). These differences arose as a result of a long period during which English was in constant contact with languages spoken natively in India. As a result, the variety of English spoken on the subcontinent is frequently called Indian English. Unlike, other English varieties, there is no standard form of Indian English, and it regarded as a variety of British English. English has evolved into a lingua

franca in India, serving as the language of the nation's cultural and political elite, granting fluent speakers significant economic, political, and social advantages.

11.2 THE ARRIVAL OF ENGLISH AND THE TRANSFORMATION OF INDIA :

The arrival of the English East India Company (EIC) in the early 17th century marked a turning point in India's history, introducing the English language to the subcontinent. Initially established as a trading post, the EIC's influence gradually expanded, leading to the eventual colonization of India.

During the initial stages of colonization, the British employed an indirect rule system, utilizing local leaders as intermediaries due to language barriers. However, this situation evolved, and by 1765, the establishment of British Raj marked the beginning of direct British rule over most of India.

India's vast resources and strategic location made it an attractive destination for British expansion. The EIC's victory in the Battle of Buxar in 1765 and the subsequent decline of the Mughal Empire paved the way for British dominance. This dominance extended to Bengal's lucrative trade, eclipsing the influence of Dutch and French companies.

The British recognized the importance of English as a tool for efficient administration and economic development. They believed that promoting English education would reduce reliance on interpreters and facilitate communication between the British and Indian populations.

A debate ensued regarding the appropriate educational model for India. The Orientalists, led by Dr. H. Wilson and H.T. Prinsep, advocated for the preservation of native languages like Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian as the primary mediums of instruction. They believed that the EIC should promote oriental learning rather than Western education.

Opposing this view were the Utilitarians, also known as Anglicans. They championed the adoption of English as the language of education across the colony. Their argument centered on the benefits of English proficiency for Indians, enabling direct communication with the British and reducing the need for interpreters. They believed that English education would facilitate administrative efficiency and economic progress.

The British Raj's emphasis on English education left an indelible mark on India's linguistic landscape. English became the language of administration, higher education, and the elite, while regional languages continued to thrive in daily life.

Today, India's multilingual landscape reflects its complex history and cultural diversity. English remains an important language for communication, education, and global engagement, while regional languages continue to hold cultural and emotional significance.

The introduction of English education in India was a complex process driven by a confluence of factors, including the influence of Christian missionaries, the economic and administrative needs of the British East India Company, and the evolving political landscape of India.

Christian missionaries played a pivotal role in the early stages of English education in India. They established schools and colleges across the country, providing education to both boys and girls, often from marginalized communities. These missionaries believed that English education was essential for the spread of Christianity, as it would provide Indians with access to the Bible and Christian literature.

As the British East India Company's influence in India grew, it recognized the need for a common language to facilitate communication and administration. English, with its established global presence, emerged as the preferred choice. The Company believed that promoting English education would create a pool of Indians who could assist in the administration of the colony, reducing the need for expensive British expatriates.

11.3 THE ENGLISH EDUCATION ACT OF 1835

In 1835, a landmark decision was made with the passage of the English Education Act. This act directed the East India Company to divert funds from traditional Sanskrit and Persian education towards promoting English education. The Act's proponents, such as Thomas Babington Macaulay, argued that English would serve as a unifying language, enabling Indians to participate in the global cultural and intellectual exchange.

The English Education Act had a profound impact on India's educational landscape. English became the language of instruction in higher education and gradually gained prominence in secondary and primary schools. This shift created a new elite class proficient in English, who played a significant role in India's social, economic, and political development.

The introduction of English education in India was a complex and multifaceted process, driven by a combination of religious, economic, and political factors. Christian missionaries played a crucial role in establishing English schools, while the British East India Company recognized the language's practical utility for administration and communication.

The English Education Act of 1835 marked a turning point, formalizing the promotion of English education and shaping the linguistic landscape of India for decades to come. India, a nation of remarkable diversity, boasts a rich and intricate linguistic landscape, with over 120 major languages and 1500 minor languages spoken across its vast expanse. Amidst this linguistic tapestry, Hindi and English stand out as the official languages, serving as unifying threads that bind the nation together.

English, a legacy of India's colonial past, has evolved into an indispensable tool for communication, education, and global engagement. Despite its relatively small number of native speakers, English plays a pivotal role as a lingua franca, bridging linguistic divides and enabling seamless communication among India's diverse population.

The decision to retain English as an official language following India's independence proved to be a strategic move. English has opened doors to international opportunities, providing access to higher education, scientific advancements, and a vast literary world. It

has also facilitated cross-cultural exchange and economic growth, enabling India to connect with the global community.

However, the significance of English extends beyond its practical utility. It has become an integral part of India's cultural identity, enriching the nation's literary and artistic expressions. Indian English, a unique dialect that blends local influences with the global language, reflects the country's vibrant cultural heritage.

English holds a unique position in India's linguistic landscape, serving as a lingua franca, a bridge between the country's diverse languages and a gateway to global opportunities. However, India's contribution to the evolution of English extends beyond its role as a user of the language.

India's multilingualism, with its prevalence of bilingualism and trilingualism, has provided a fertile ground for the development of Indian English, a distinct dialect characterized by unique pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Indian English has enriched the global tapestry of English, adding new dimensions and nuances to the language.

Contrary to the notion that Indian English is inferior to its British or American counterparts, it is important to recognize its inherent value and the unique linguistic heritage it represents. Educated Indians, while often adopting British or American accents, do so not out of a perceived lack of prestige but rather to enhance communication and understanding in a globalized world.

India's role in the evolution of English is not merely about adopting and adapting the language; it is about contributing to its global vibrancy and diversity. Indian English, with its distinctive features and rich cultural context, stands as a testament to India's enduring influence on the world's linguistic landscape.

11.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIAN ENGLISH :

Indian English is distinguished by several unique features, including :

Pronunciation : Indian English speakers tend to pronounce certain vowels and consonants differently from native speakers of British or American English. For instance, the vowel 'a' in words like "cat" and "hat" is often pronounced as a longer, more open sound.

Grammar : Indian English sometimes exhibits grammatical variations, such as the use of the present progressive tense for habitual actions and the omission of articles in certain contexts.

Vocabulary : Indian English has incorporated words from Indian languages, such as "jugaad" (an improvised or clever solution) and "tiffin" (a light meal).

Idioms and Expressions : Indian English is rich in idioms and expressions that reflect the cultural nuances of India. For example, "saving face" means maintaining one's honour or reputation.

Social Significance of Indian English :

Indian English has played a significant role in shaping India's linguistic landscape and cultural identity. It has served as a lingua franca, bridging communication gaps among the country's diverse population. English has also opened up educational and employment opportunities for millions of Indians, connecting them to the global stage.

Indian English stands as a testament to the country's complex and multifaceted history. It is a language that has evolved through contact, adaptation, and innovation, reflecting the unique cultural and linguistic tapestry of India. As India continues to navigate its linguistic landscape, Indian English remains a vital force, shaping the nation's communication, education, and global engagement.

11.5 INDIAN ENGLISH: A DIALECT WITH UNIQUE VOCABULARY :

Indian English, a distinct dialect of the English language, has emerged from the centuries-long interaction between English and the native languages of India. Just as Standard British English and Standard American English exhibit differences in vocabulary, Indian English possesses its own unique set of words, reflecting the cultural and linguistic influences of the Indian subcontinent.

Among the notable features of Indian English vocabulary are :

Adopted British words : Indian English has adopted and adapted words from British English, often with slight modifications in meaning or pronunciation. For instance, "chapals" refers to sandals, while "bungalow" designates a single-story house.

Neologisms : The Anglo-Indian community, with its blend of British and Indian ancestry, has contributed neologisms, or newly coined words, to Indian English. Examples include "ladyfingers" for okra and "finger chips" for French fries.

Words from Indian languages : Indian English has incorporated words from various Indian languages, particularly Hindi. These include "biodata" for a curriculum vitae (CV), "kindly" used as a polite request marker, and "freeship" denoting a scholarship.

Indian English also demonstrates a unique usage of certain words and phrases. For example, "picture" is commonly used in place of "movie" or "film," while "prepone" and "postpone" are used to mean "bring forward" and "delay," respectively.

11.6 INDIAN LOAN WORDS IN ENGLISH: A LEGACY OF LINGUISTIC EXCHANGE :

The linguistic exchange between India and the English-speaking world has not been one-sided. Over 900 words of Indian origin have found their way into the Oxford English Dictionary, enriching the global language with terms that reflect Indian culture and traditions. Examples of Indian loan words include :

1. Candy : Confectionary sweets, borrowed from Hindi "khanda."
2. Jungle : A dense, impassable forest, originating from Hindi "jangal."

3. Pajamas : Loose-fitting sleeping attire, derived from Hindi "payama."
4. Cot : A small bed, originally derived from Hindi "khat."
5. Shampoo : A hair cleanser, borrowed from Hindi "champoo."
6. Bungalow : A single-story house, originally from Hindi "bangla."
7. Loot : Meaning plunder or stolen goods, this word has its roots in Hindi.
8. Pepper : A spice from the black pepper plant, originating from Sanskrit "pippali."
9. Mango : A tropical fruit, derived from Hindi "amba."

The presence of Indian loan words in English underscores the dynamic nature of language and the cultural exchange that has shaped the global linguistic landscape.

11.7 INDIAN PHRASES - UNIQUE EXPRESSIONS OF INDIAN ENGLISH :

Indian English, a distinct dialect of the English language, has evolved over centuries of interaction between English and the native languages of India. One of its defining features is the use of "Indian phrases" that are unique to Indian speakers and unlikely to be heard outside of India or the Indian diaspora.

Some view Indian Phrases as mistakes or deviations from Standard English, while others recognize them as valid expressions that reflect the cultural and linguistic context of Indian English. This debate stems from the differing perspectives of prescriptivism and descriptivism in language.

Prescriptivists advocate for adherence to established rules and usage norms, believing that language should conform to a set standard. Descriptivists, on the other hand, focus on observing and describing language as it is actually used, recognizing that language is constantly evolving and adapting.

Indian Phrases, from a descriptivist perspective, are an integral part of Indian English and contribute to its unique identity. They provide a window into the cultural nuances and expressions of Indian speakers, enriching the linguistic landscape.

Here are some examples of Indian Phrases and their meanings in Standard British English :

1. "Good name": This term is used to inquire about someone's first name.
2. "Sleep is coming": This expression signals that someone is about to go to bed.
3. "Eating my brain": This expression conveys the feeling of being overwhelmed or preoccupied with something.
4. "Cousin-brother" or "cousin-sister": These terms are used to describe someone very close to you, similar to a close friend or confidant, but not necessarily a blood relative.

5. "Do the needful": This phrase suggests taking the necessary action or completing a task as required.
6. "Stay organized and focused": This phrase is a reminder or instruction to maintain organization and focus on a task.
7. "Passed out": This phrase indicates that someone has graduated from school, college, or university.
8. "Collect and manage all your study": This phrase means to gather and organize all study materials.
9. "Years back": This phrase means "years ago."

Indian Phrases serve as a reminder that language is not static; it is a dynamic and ever-evolving entity that reflects the cultural and linguistic diversity of its speakers. Indian English, with its unique expressions and nuances, stands as a testament to the adaptability and creativity of language.

11.8 THE INDIAN ENGLISH ACCENT: A PHONOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE :

The Indian English accent, a distinctive variation of the English language, has evolved from the intricate interplay between English and the diverse linguistic landscape of India. To understand its nuances, we must delve into its prominent phonological features.

Indian English, much like British English, is primarily non-rhotic, meaning the /r/ sound is not pronounced at the end of words. However, this feature varies across India, with Southern Indian English typically exhibiting rhoticity. This increasing rhoticity is attributed to the influence of American English, widely encountered in movies and media.

Indian English often lacks diphthongs, the combination of two vowel sounds in one syllable. Instead, these diphthongs are replaced with the corresponding long vowel sound. For instance, /əʊ/ is pronounced as /o:/. Additionally, Indian English typically features unaspirated plosives, such as /p/, /t/, and /k/, meaning there is no audible release of air when these sounds are produced.

The 'th' sounds, represented by /θ/ and /ð/, are often absent in Indian English. Instead, Indian English speakers may aspirate the /t/ sound, releasing a pocket of air when pronouncing it. Furthermore, there is often no audible distinction between the /w/ and /v/ sounds, leading to homophones like 'wet' and 'vet'.

The phonetic spelling of Indian languages has significantly influenced the Indian English accent. As Indian languages are pronounced almost exactly as they are written, speakers of Indian English often apply this approach to English pronunciation. This results in variations such as pronouncing the full vowel sound instead of the schwa /ə/, maintaining the /d/ sound at the end of words, and pronouncing typically silent letters.

Additionally, Indian English is characterized by an overuse of the progressive/continuous aspect, evident in the addition of the -ing suffix to stative verbs. This

overuse is attributed to factors such as overteaching grammatical structures, the influence of non-standard British English varieties during colonial times, and the influence of direct translation from Tamil and Hindi.

The Indian English accent, shaped by its unique phonological features, reflects the dynamic interplay between English and the diverse linguistic tapestry of India. Understanding these features provides insights into the cultural and linguistic context in which Indian English has evolved.

Main phonetic features of Indian English :

- > Alveolar retroflex stops of /t/ and /d/ as [ʈ] and [ɖ], although in educated speakers it is replaced by alveolar plosives like in British and American English.
- > Rhoticity after vowels, although the educated new generations tend to avoid the phenomenon.
- > No distinction between long and short vowels. Not clear distinction between /ɒ/ and /ɔ:/
- > Trap-bath slip: a vowel split in which the phoneme /æ/ was lengthened and merged with the long /ɑ:/
- > Drop of –ed ending after /k/ and /t/
- > Voiceless plosives /p/, /t/ and /k/ are un-aspirated in initial word position.
- > [V] and [W] merge that are pronounced interchangeably regardless of the spelling, although not in the Punjabi, Marathi, Assamese and Bengali varieties.
- > Th-stop or lack of interdental: /θ/ is pronounced as think /t/ and /ð/ as in words like this /d/
- > Use of dark [ɪ] for all the realizations of the phoneme “I”
- > Replacement of two adjacent vowels by a single long vowel followed by /r/ sound.

11.9 UNIQUE TENSES AND ASPECTS IN INDIAN ENGLISH :

The intricate relationship between English and the diverse linguistic landscape of India has given rise to unique features in Indian English, including deviations in tense and aspect usage. These deviations reflect the influence of native Indian languages on Indian English grammar.

Indian English often exhibits a disregard for the strict sequence of tenses typically observed in Standard English. This means that past, present, and future tenses may be used interchangeably, regardless of the temporal context.

Indian English speakers may employ the Past Perfect or Present Perfect tenses to express actions that would normally be conveyed using the Simple Past tense. For instance, instead of saying "I ate lunch," one might say "I have eaten lunch" or "I had eaten lunch."

In some cases, Indian English speakers may use the Past Perfect tense to indicate actions that are still relevant to the present, a role typically served by the Present Perfect tense. For example, instead of saying "I have lived here for five years," one might say "I had lived here for five years."

Indian English speakers may sometimes use the Simple Present tense to express actions that are ongoing or habitual, a function typically fulfilled by the Present Perfect Progressive tense. For instance, instead of saying "I have been studying for two hours," one might say "I study for two hours."

A distinctive feature of Indian English is the use of the progressive aspect with verbs of perception and state, which are typically considered non-continuous in Standard English. For example, one might say "I am seeing this movie" or "I am knowing this person."

Indian English is characterized by an overuse of the Present Continuous tense with stative verbs, which describe states rather than actions. This usage is often observed in expressions like "I am wanting a cup of coffee" or "She is having many sarees."

The unique tense and aspect usage of Indian English has influenced Indian English poetry, with poets like Nissim Ezekiel incorporating these features into their works. This reflects the naturalization of English within the Indian linguistic context.

Another notable feature of Indian English is the formation of questions without inverting the subject and auxiliary verbs. This deviation is attributed to the influence of regional languages, where question formation does not involve subject-auxiliary inversion.

Indian English is characterized by the widespread use of question tags like "isn't it" and "no?" regardless of person, tense, or auxiliary verb. This usage is influenced by Hindi, where similar question tags are used extensively.

These unique aspects of tense and aspect usage in Indian English demonstrate the dynamic nature of the dialect and its adaptation to the grammatical norms of the Indian linguistic environment. The interplay between English and native Indian languages continues to shape the evolution of Indian English, fostering a distinct variety of the language.

11.10 INDIAN ENGLISH VS. BRITISH ENGLISH :

All of the features of Indian English discussed at so far are the characteristics that make it differ from British English. Let's look at some example sentences highlighting the difference between British and Indian English.

Indian English – "My dad is sitting on my head!"

British English – "My dad is stressing me out!"

Indian English – "I belong to Kerala"

British English – "I live in Kerala."

Indian English – "I did my graduation at the University of Edinburgh."

British English – “I did my undergrad degree at the University of Edinburgh.”

Indian English – “I’m shopping in the departmental store.”

British English – “I’m shopping in the departmental store.”

Indian English – “I need to prepone the meeting.”

British English – “I need to bring the meeting forward.”

As India continues to navigate its linguistic landscape, Indian English remains a vital force, shaping the nation's communication, education, and global engagement. It is a language that continues to evolve and adapt, reflecting the

11.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS :

1. What are some examples of Indian English idioms and expressions?
2. How does the Indian English accent differ from other accents of English?
3. What are some of the unique grammatical features of Indian English?
4. What is the role of Indian English in shaping India's national identity?

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