

# **HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE (ENG 1C03)**

**STUDY MATERIAL**

**I SEMESTER  
CORE COURSE**

**MA ENGLISH  
(2019 ADMISSION ONWARDS)**



**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT  
SCHOOL OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

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**CORE COURSE : ENG1C03 : HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

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## **Introduction**

As English Literature learners, we must know the evolution of this language over the past fifteen hundred years or more. This course offers an overview of the History of English Language from its origin to the present. This SLM will have three sections: Section A briefly considers the early development of English Language and major historical events that had been made changes in its course. Section B takes up the changes that have taken place in English through Foreign invasions in 17<sup>th</sup>, 18<sup>th</sup>, and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, besides it discusses the contribution of major writers to enrich this language. In the Section C, we trace out the evolution of standard English and the significance of English in this globalized world where technology reigns. A lot of technical words has been used in this SLM. We suggest that you go through the entire sections and prepare your own notes. Moreover, we have given a list of books for reference that will give you a thorough understanding of the origin of English language, its growth and maturity. We wish you a happy learning experience.

## **Syllabus**

### **Section A.**

Language families - The Indo-European family of languages; Germanic Family of languages and the origin of English - The early history of English language; Old English Period - Scandinavian invasions - Middle English Period: The Impact of the Norman Conquest on the English Language; - Middle English Literature. Modern English Period – Latin and Greek influence – Loan words - The impact of the Renaissance – Bible Translations. Sound changes in English – The Great Vowel Shift -

Changes in Grammar, vocabulary, phonology and morphology – Semantics – word formations.

### **Section B.**

Foreign influences on English in the Seventeenth, Eighteenth and the Nineteenth Centuries – Colonialism and the English language – Expansion of Vocabulary – Semantic change- Pidgins and Creoles. Contributions of major writers to the growth of English vocabulary.

### **Section C.**

The discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation - Attempts to reform English spelling – Evolution of Standard English - Dialects of English: British and American – English in India – English in the postcolonial world – English as a global language — The rise of ‘englishes’ – impact of Science and Technology – English in the digital age.



## Section A

### **Introduction**

This section unfolds the gradual development of English from a parent language through Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. Many historical events such as Norman Conquest, Renaissance, invasions from different places to England ...etc. have been made several changes in English language. English has borrowed lots of words from many languages. Let us trace out the evolution of English language from the historical developments of English society.

### **Language Families**

Modern Linguistic research has claimed that language can be grouped in families and many languages can be traced to a common ancestor in remote times. A large group of such related languages constitute what we call a 'language family'. The process of divergent development of a language gives rise to further languages, with common features of the parent language added to new features, resulting in a whole complex family of languages with various branches, some more closely and some distantly related to one another.

There are about 250- 300 distinctive language families in the world. The following are the major language families of the world:

Indo- European

Sino – Tibetan

Niger – Congo

Afro – Asiatic

Austronesian

Dravidian

Austro Asiatic

Altaic

Uralic

Caucasian

## **Indo – European Family of Language**

The Indo-European languages are a family of related languages that today are widely spoken in the Americas, Europe, and also Western and Southern Asia. Just as languages such as Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian are all descended from Latin. Indo-European languages are believed to derive from a hypothetical language known as **Proto-Indo-European**, which is no longer spoken.

It is highly probable that the earliest speakers of this language originally lived around Ukraine and neighbouring regions in the Caucasus and Southern Russia, then spread to most of the rest of Europe and later down into India. The earliest possible end of Proto-Indo-European linguistic unity is believed to be around 3400 BCE. It is generally believed that it was spoken by nomadic tribes which wandered in the regions around the Black Sea. They are said to have gone as far as the steppes of Siberia.

Since the speakers of the Proto-Indo-European language did not develop a writing system, we have no physical evidence of it. The science of linguistics has been trying to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European language using several methods and, although an accurate reconstruction of it seems impossible, we have today a general picture of what Proto-Indo-European speakers had in common, both linguistically and culturally. In addition to the use of comparative methods, there are studies based on the comparison of myths, laws, and social institutions.

### **The Indo-European Family**

It has been proved by the scholars that it is the parental languages of almost languages of Europe and some of the languages of Asia. It was split up into various sections and moved in different directions across the continent of Euro- Asia. Each section got isolated from the others. Each developed its parent language along its own lines. Gradually this resulted in the development of different dialects of the original language. It is believed that as a result of this two - fold process the original Indo- European was split up into eight distinct groups of dialects by 2000 B. C. or a little later. They were Eastern (Sanskrit), American, Greek, Albanian, Italic, Balto – Slavonic, Primitive Germanic and Celtic. Each of these in course of time sub divided and the process continued. According to G L Brook, the dispersal of the speakers of Indo European took place somewhere between 3000 and 2000 B. C. New research published today in the journal Nature, led by University of Adelaide ancient DNA researchers and the Harvard Medical School, shows that at least some of the Indo-European languages spoken in Europe were likely the result of a massive migration from Eastern Russia.

Several attempts have been made to explain how the differences which characterize the various Indo-European languages came into existence. August Schleicher put forward his 'Pedigree Theory' in 1866. He said that the Indo-European languages developed as a result of a series of successive bifurcations. He expressed the relations of the various Indo-European languages to each other by means of a genealogical tree, though this theory is no longer accepted. Its influence is still seen in the terminology used by linguists. They speak of the Indo-European family of languages and discuss whether one language is descended from another. This theory is objected to on the ground that there are resemblances, like those between Germanic and Celtic which cut across any such classification. Johannes Schmidt propounded his 'Wave Theory' in 1872 to explain these. According to him the original speech spread over a wide area. Gradually dialectal differences arose. In course of time these differences became so marked that they led to the creation of distinct languages. The dialect area overlapped. It accounts for the resemblances which are shared by some Indo-European languages. Though this theory does not explain all the problems involved, it provides a working hypothesis which can be modified in the light of additional theories. However, the theories about the splitting up of language tend to assume the homogeneity of the parent Indo-European language.

### **Centum and Satem Groups**

The eight branches of the Indo-European (IE) family have generally been divided into two groups, the Centum Languages (The Western Group) and the Satem Languages (The Eastern Group). This classification is based on the development of certain sound changes in some of the languages of the family, but not in all. In the Eastern branches certain consonants had differences in their development from those in the Western Group. The Indo-European velar plosive consonants /k/ and /g/ developed into alveolar fricative /sh/ or /s/ in the Eastern group. At the same time, in the Western group /k/ and /g/ were retained as velar plosives. For example, Kumtom the IE form for the word hundred developed into satem in Sanskrit, /k/ becoming /s/ and into centum in Latin, retaining the /k/

Based on this development, the Eastern group viz, Indo-Iranian, Albanian, Armenian and Balto-Slavic are called Satem languages and the Western group consisting of Hellenic, Italic, Celtic and Germanic are called Centum languages.

### **Indo-Iranian**

This branch includes two sub-branches: Indic and Iranian. Today these languages are predominant in India, Pakistan, Iran, and its vicinity and also in areas from the Black Sea to Western China.



Sanskrit, which belongs to the Indic sub-branch, is the best known among the early languages of this branch; its oldest variety, Vedic Sanskrit, is preserved in the Vedas, a collection of hymns and other religious texts of ancient India. Indic speakers entered the Indian subcontinent, coming from central Asia around 1500 BCE: In the Rig-Veda, the hymn 1.131 speaks about a legendary journey that may be considered a distant memory of this migration.

Avestan is a language that forms part of the Iranian group. Old Avestan (sometimes called Gathic Avestan) is the oldest preserved language of the Iranian sub-branch, the “sister” of Sanskrit, which is the language used in the early Zoroastrian religious texts. Another important language of the Iranian sub-branch is Old Persian, which is the language found in the royal inscriptions of the Achaemenid dynasty, starting in the late 6th century BCE. The earliest datable evidence of this branch dates to about 1300 BCE.

Today, many Indic languages are spoken in India and Pakistan, such as Hindi-Urdu, Punjabi, and Bengali. Iranian languages such as Farsi (modern Persian), Pashto, and Kurdish are spoken in Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and Tajikistan.

### **Albanian**

Albanian is the last branch of Indo-European languages to appear in written form. There are two hypotheses on the origin of Albanian. The first one says that Albanian is a modern descendant of Illyrian, a language which was widely spoken in the region during classical times. Since we know very little about Illyrian, this assertion can be neither denied nor confirmed from a linguistic standpoint. From a historical and geographical perspective, however, this assertion makes sense. Another hypothesis says that Albanian is a descendant of Thracian, another lost language that was spoken farther east than Illyrian.

Today Albanian is spoken in Albania as the official language, in several other areas in of the former Yugoslavia and in small enclaves in southern Italy, Greece and the Republic of Macedonia.

### **Armenian**

The origins of the Armenian-speaking people are a topic still unresolved. It is probable that the Armenians and the Phrygians belonged to the same migratory wave that entered Anatolia, coming from the Balkans around the late 2nd millennium BCE. The Armenians settled in an area around Lake Van, currently Turkey; this region belonged to the state of Urartu during the early 1st millennium BCE. In the 8th century BCE, Urartu came under Assyrian control and in the 7th

century BCE, the Armenians took over the region. The Medes absorbed the region soon after and Armenia became a vassal state. During the time of the Achaemenid Empire, the region turned into a Persian satrap. The Persian domination had a strong linguistic impact on Armenian, which misled many scholars in the past to believe that Armenian belonged to the Iranian group.

### **Balto-Slavic**

This branch contains two sub-branches: Baltic and Slavic.

During the late Bronze Age, the Balts' territory may have stretched from around western Poland all the way across to the Ural Mountains. Afterwards, the Balts occupied a small region along the Baltic Sea. Those in the northern part of the territory occupied by the Balts were in close contact with Finnic tribes, whose language was not part of the Indo-European language family: Finnic speakers borrowed a considerable amount of Baltic words, which suggests that the Balts had an important cultural prestige in that area. Under the pressure of Gothic and Slavic migrations, the territory of the Balts was reduced towards the 5th century CE.

Archaeological evidence shows that from 1500 BCE, either the Slavs or their ancestors occupied an area stretching from near the western Polish borders towards the Dnieper River in Belarus. During the 6th century CE, the Slav-speaking tribes expanded their territory, migrating into Greece and the Balkans: this is when they are mentioned for the first time, in Byzantine records referring to this large migration. Either some or all the Slavs were once located further to the east, in or around Iranian territory, since many Iranian words were borrowed into pre-Slavic at an early stage. Later, as they moved westward, they encountered German tribes and again borrowed several additional terms.

Only two Baltic languages survive today: Latvian and Lithuanian. Many Slavic languages survive today, such as Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, Polish, Serbian, Slovak, Russian, and many others.

### **Greek**

Rather than a branch of languages, Greek is a group of dialects: During more than 3000 years of written history, Greek dialects never evolved into mutually incomprehensible languages. Greek was predominant in the southern end of the Balkans, the Peloponnese peninsula, and the Aegean Sea and its vicinity. The earliest surviving written evidence of a Greek language is Mycenaean, the dialect of the Mycenaean civilization, mainly found on clay tablets and ceramic

vessels on the isle of Crete. Mycenaean did not have an alphabetic written system, rather it had a syllabic script known as the Linear B script.

The first alphabetic inscriptions have been dated back to the early 8th century BCE, which is probably the time when the Homeric epics, the Iliad and the Odyssey, reached their present form. There were many Greek dialects in ancient times, but because of Athens cultural supremacy in the 5th century BCE, it was the Athens dialect, called Attic, the one that became the standard literary language during the Classical period (480-323 BCE). Therefore, the most famous Greek poetry and prose written in Classical times were written in Attic: Aristophanes, Aristotle, Euripides, and Plato are just a few examples of authors who wrote in Attic.

### **Italic**

This branch was predominant in the Italian peninsula. The Italic people were not natives of Italy; they entered Italy crossing the Alps around 1000 BCE and gradually moved southward. Latin, the most famous language in this group, was originally a relatively small local language spoken by pastoral tribes living in small agricultural settlements in the centre of the Italian peninsula. The first inscriptions in Latin appeared in the 7th century BCE and by the 6th century BCE it had spread significantly.

Rome was responsible for the growth of Latin in ancient times. Classical Latin is the form of Latin used by the most famous works of Roman authors like Ovid, Cicero, Seneca, Pliny, and Marcus Aurelius. Other languages of this branch are Faliscan, Sabellic, Umbrian, South Picene, and Oscan, all of them extinct.

Today Romance languages are the only surviving descendants of the Italic branch.

### **Celtic**

This branch contains two sub-branches: Continental Celtic and Insular Celtic. By about 600 BCE, Celtic-speaking tribes had spread from what today are southern Germany, Austria, and Western Czech Republic in almost all directions, to France, Belgium, Spain, and the British Isles, then by 400 BCE, they also moved southward into northern Italy and southeast into the Balkans and even beyond. During the early 1st century BCE, Celtic-speaking tribes dominated a very significant portion of Europe. On 50 BCE, Julius Caesar conquered Gaul (ancient France) and Britain was also conquered about a century later by the emperor Claudius. As a result, this large Celtic-speaking area was absorbed by Rome, Latin became the dominant language, and the Continental Celtic languages eventually died out. The chief Continental language was Gaulish.

Insular Celtic developed in the British Isles after Celtic-speaking tribes entered around the 6th century BCE. In Ireland, Insular Celtic flourished, aided by the geographical isolation which kept Ireland relatively safe from the Roman and Anglo-Saxon invasion.

The only Celtic languages still spoken today (Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh and Breton) all come from Insular Celtic.

### **Germanic**

The Germanic branch is divided in three sub-branches: East Germanic, currently extinct; North Germanic, containing Old Norse, the ancestor of all modern Scandinavian languages; and West Germanic, containing Old English, Old Saxon, and Old High German.

The earliest evidence of Germanic-speaking people dates back to first half of the 1st millennium BCE, and they lived in an area stretching from southern Scandinavia to the coast of the North Baltic Sea. During prehistoric times, the Germanic speaking tribes came into contact with Finnic speakers in the north and also with Balto-Slavic tribes in the east. As a result of this interaction, the Germanic language borrowed several terms from Finnish and Balto-Slavic.

Several varieties of Old Norse were spoken by most Vikings. Native Nordic pre-Christian Germanic mythology and folklore has been also preserved in Old Norse, in a dialect named Old Icelandic.

Dutch, English, Frisian, and Yiddish are some examples of modern survivors of the West Germanic sub-branch, while Danish, Faroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish are survivors of the North Germanic branch.

### **Characteristic of Indo- European / Proto Indo – European (PIE) Languages**

It is believed that PIE had a limited vocabulary, but the structure of the language was very complicated. The similarities shared by the daughter languages are traceable to the Indo – European and can be considered as its characteristic features. Thus, the personal pronouns in these languages bear a very close resemblance. There is such similarity also in the case of the equivalents of the commonly used verbs ‘be’ and ‘have’ and the words denoting common and close family relationships. For example, look at the words for Modern English father:

<b>Old English</b>	<b>German</b>	<b>Latin</b>	<b>Sanskrit</b>	<b>Old French</b>
Faeder	vater	pater	pita	fader

There is no such similarity in the case of words denoting more distant relationships, like aunt, uncle, cousin etc., probably because each group coined words for distant family relationships long after the dispersal of the ancient IE tribes. Again, cardinal numbers up to ten show close resemblance. For example, look at the forms of the word three:

<b>Old English</b>	<b>German</b>	<b>Latin</b>	<b>Sanskrit</b>	<b>Old French</b>
ri	tres	treis	tri	drei

Not only the vocabulary, but the grammatical structure of the language also showed certain similarities. Grammatical categories could be classified into nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Personal pronouns and the eight case forms showed similarity. Again, the etymology of most words could often be traced to monosyllables.

E.g. Go in ‘going’, come in ‘coming’, sit in ‘sitting’.

In short, the Indo- European language had a complicated language structure and a common limited work stock.

### **Characteristics of Germanic /Proto Germanic Languages**

Of the eight language groups which descended from the Indo-European family, the most important for the students of English is Proto/ Primitive Germanic (also known as Teutonic), since English has descended from this branch. The eight language groups, in course of time, developed their peculiar feature, retaining the common features they shared with the sister languages of the I E family. The followings are some of the special features developed by the Germanic group of languages, which help us to group them together.

Germanic languages inherited the inflectional system of the Indo- European, though they were not as highly inflected as the parent language. In inflected languages like the IE languages, word order is not important, whereas in an uninflected language like English, it is crucial in determining meaning.

Proto- Germanic had only five cases, while Indo- European had eight. The five cases are nominative, accusative, dative, possessive and instrumental.

In Proto Germanic there was no one- to- one correspondence between the grammatical gender and the natural gender and each noun had to be described in terms of masculine, feminine and neuter gender. To cite an example from German

Das madchen (The girl) -- - Neuter gender

Die polizei (The Police) - Feminine gender

In Proto Indo – European, nouns had singular, dual and plural numbers, but Proto Germanic dropped the dual number, retaining only the singular and plural.

In Proto – European and Proto- Germanic, there were different declensions of nouns, for example,

Singular

Stone	Stan	stanas	-as
-------	------	--------	-----

Lamb	lamb	lambru	-ru
------	------	--------	-----

Sin	synn	synna	-a
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In PG languages there developed two kinds of adjectives, a strong and a weak form. The strong form was used as in,

god mann == good man (non-specific)

while the weak form was used as in,

se goda mann == the good man (specific)

PG had two classes of verbs, strong and weak. PG had inherited a number of strong verbs from PIE, i.e., verbs which indicate change of tense by a change in the vowel, as in write, wrote, written, and in addition, formed weak verbs in which change to tense was marked by adding an inflection like –ed or –d. By and by, weak verbs came to have greater prominence and some strong verbs were converted into weak verbs. In Modern English weak verbs are referred to as regular verbs and strong verbs as irregular.

In PG, verbs had only two tense forms, the past and the present. PIE had an elaborate system of verb conjugations in which there was a multitude of forms to indicate the tense of the verb which was reduced to two in PG.

Besides these structural characteristics, in the area of phonology too PG had distinctive different from PIE. While PIE was pitch based, PG language were stress based.

In addition, to this, some major sound changes took place from PIE to pG in the case of stop consonants. These changes are explained by Grimm's Law complimented by Verner's Law.

### Grimm's Law

The Germanic branch, as it diverged from its parent language and developed, underwent a few changes in pronunciation. The first important change is what is known as the Primitive Germanic Consonant Shift or the First Sound Shift or **Grimm's Law**. It refers to the changes which the Indo- Germanic plosive consonants underwent during the Primitive Germanic period, ie, before the Germanic parent language became differentiated into separate Germanic languages. At the beginning of the 19th century, a few eminent German philologists like Rask and Jacob Grimm observed that while the Italic group kept the IE consonant system, the Germanic group changed it in a regular and systematic manner which becomes evident if a number of Latin or Sanskrit (representing IE) words are placed alongside their equivalents in English,

(Germanic) these changes were first formulated Jacob Grimm in his *Deutsche Grammatik* (1822) and this law came to be known after him as Grimm's Law

According to this law, the Indo – Germanic voiceless stop consonants p, t, k, became voiceless fricatives f, the, h respectively.

P > f

Latin	Sanskrit	Old English	Modern English
Pater	pita	faeder	father
Pes	padam	fot	foot
Piscis		fisc	fish

T .> th

Latin	Sanskrit	Old English	Modern English
Tres	traya	thri	three
Frater	brata	brothor	brother

K > h

Latin	Old English	Modern English
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Cordem	heorte	heart
Canis	hund	hound

“It remains unclear whether Grimm’s Law was in any sense a unitary natural sound change or changes that need not have occur together. It is true that no sound change can be shown to have occurred between any of the components of Grimm’s Law. Anyway, Grimm’s Law is the most naturally presented as a sequence of changes that counter fed each other”.

### **Verner’s Law**

Grimm’s Law did not account for all the changes in question. For instance, look at Latin centum and English hundred. /k/ becomes /h/ according to Grimm’s Law, but /t/ doesn’t become /th/ but /d/. This apparent exception to Grimm’s Law was later explained by a Danish Philologist Karl Verner in 1875, and this law is known as Verners’s Law. Verner noticed that Grimm’s Law was valid whenever the accent fell on another syllable, the Germanic equivalents became **b**, **d**, and **g**. this was also in the case with **s** and **r**. Technically, this rule states that in the Germanic branch of Indo – European, all non – initial voiceless fricatives became voiced between voiced sounds if they followed an unaccented syllable in Indo – European.

### **The Origin of English: The Early History of English Language**

The English language of today is the language that has originated from dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes. English belongs to the Low- West Germanic branch of the Indo-European Family. It shares certain characteristics common to all Germanic languages.

Celtic was the first Indo- European language to be spoken in England. From Fifth century onwards we find a massive migration of Celts and Gales to this particular Island, later it was repeatedly invaded by Romans. The inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language at the time of Roman invasions. The Roman invasion led to the use of Latin in Britain, at the same time people in the country places continued to speak Celtic. Celtic forms survive in England chiefly in certain places such as ‘Dover’ and river names such as ‘Avon’ and ‘Ouse’. Celtic languages have survived until today in parts of Wales and the Highlands of Scot –land.

According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, the English language itself really took off with the invasion of Britain during the 5th century. Three Germanic tribes, The Jutes, Saxons and Angles were seeking new lands to conquer, and crossed over from the North Sea. It must be noted that the English language we know and study today yet to be created as the inhabitants of Britain spoke various dialect of Celtic language.



When Anglo-Saxon ancestors came first to ravage Britain, eventually they had settled there. Slowly their language came to be dominant in English society. This Anglo – Saxon or Old English language belonged to the great Teutonic family of speech, which is in turn was separated into three main families – East Germanic, Scandinavian or Old Norse, and West Germanic. From West Germanic are derived the two great branches of High and Low German. Low German split up into several different languages such as Frisian, Dutch, and Flemish. It is to the last of these groups that English belongs.

The word ‘English’ is derived from the names Angles (Old English ‘Engle’). Similarly the land and its people were called Angel Cynn (Angle –Kin or race of the Angles) .Perhaps the early supremacy of the Anglian Kingdom might have been a pre- dominant factor in adopting this word. The word ‘England’ begins to take its place about the year 1000.

Historians of the English language distinguish three main stages or periods in its development. First is the Old English or the Anglo- Saxon period, extending from 600- 1100 A D ,followed by the Middle English Period from 1100 – 1500 and finally there is the period of Modern English from 1500 onwards.

### **The Old English Period**

The form of English in use before the Norman Conquest is sometimes called “Anglo Saxon’. It is also called ‘Early English’. There are different of opinion about the exact period in which the Old English period begins. According to F T Wood, this period extends from about the year A D 600 to 1100. A C Baugh in his book “*A History of English Language*” says that the Old English begins with the period from about A D 450 to 1150. C L Brook has said that the first half of the twelfth century may be regarded as the period of transition from Old English to Middle English. However, the invasion of the Germanic tribes, Angles and Saxons and the firm implantation of their language in the Britain formed a suitable starting point. They displaced the original Celtic inhabitants of Britain and gave it a new name, England – the land of Angles, and a new language, English- the language of Angles.

### **Old English Dialects**

Old English had number of Dialects as the Germanic settlers in Britain belonged to three different tribes. Based on the regions of their occupation, we recognize four distinct dialects of the period. They are,

**Northumbrian in the North** comprising the district between the Fifth or Forth and the Humber river

**Mercian**, spoken between the Humber and the Thames.

**West Saxon**, spoken in the region south of the Thames, except in Kent and Surrey

**Kentish**, spoken in Kent and Surrey

Of these, Northumbrian and Mercian, spoken to the North of the Thames were the dialects of the Angles and called the Anglian variety. Old English Poetry had its beginning in Anglian, but it has come down to us mostly in West Saxon form. It was West Saxon, the dialects of the Saxons, which gained popularity and status as the standard language, since it was patronized by King Alfred. Moreover, Wessex was the most highly civilized of all the kingdoms and the first to attain political unity and stability. Most of the important literary works of the period like *Beowulf* and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* were written in the West Saxon dialect. Kentish was the dialect of the Jutes, who were the earliest settlers.

In contrast to Modern English, Old English had three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter) in the noun and adjective, and nouns, pronouns, and adjectives were inflected for case. It was a period of full inflections because during most of this period the endings of the noun, the adjectives and the verb are preserved unimpaired.

Noun and adjective paradigms contained four cases—nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative—while pronouns also had forms for the instrumental case. Old English had a greater proportion of strong verbs (sometimes called irregular verbs in contemporary grammars) than does Modern English. Many verbs that were strong in Old English are weak (regular) verbs in Modern English (e.g., Old English *helpan*, present infinitive of the verb *help*; *healp*, past singular; *hulpon*, past plural; *holpen*, past participle versus Modern English *help*, *helped*, *helped*, *helped*, respectively).

OE was phonetic in character, its spelling representing its pronunciation closely. The two major sound changes in OE were *i*-mutation and gradation, the former taking place in early Anglo-Saxon and the latter inherited from PIE and PG.

The Germanic tribes used a kind of alphabet, called the Runic Alphabet.

This period is characterized by a homogeneous Anglo-Saxon language, remarkable for its high degree of purity, with only a small amount of Latin loan words, followed by some Norse

elements. The OE word stock was enriched by Indo – European words, Celtic element, Latin influence and the Scandinavian influence.

Another characteristic of Old English is the existence of a special poetic vocabulary. In Old English poetry, a single idea was driven home by being expressed in several different ways with the help of synonyms or near synonyms. Alliteration was used as a structural device and essential part of the system of versification in Old English. Perhaps it may be the origin of some of the alliterative phrases, such as ‘kith and kin’, friend or foe, ‘a labour of love’ found in present day English.

### **The Middle English Period**

The Middle English Period begins with the Norman Conquest of 1066, an important landmark in the history of English language and ends with the transitional period towards the close of the Middle Ages. It extends from about A.D. 1100 to about 1450. The Oxford Companion to English Literature says that the Middle English is used to describe the language from 1150 to about 1500.

Sweeping changes in vocabulary occurred, first by the Scandinavian influence and then by the Norman French. The real force of the Norse influence on the language became perceptible only in early Middle English. It was the effect of Norman Conquest and of the consequent French influence which later deprived English of its homogenous character.

From 1042 onwards, Norman- French must have been spoken at the English Court. But It could not influence the common people. They used to speak in their native language. Thus, for some year there were two languages spoken side by side: English and the Norman- French. French remained as a language of officials and enjoyed a special social status. Whereas ninety per cent of the population still spoke English. Gradually these two languages mingled together to give what is known as Middle English, the mixed Anglo – French tongue from which English is descend. F T Wood points out that this process was completed by about 1300, and it is significant that the resultant language was still predominantly a Saxon one, despite the vastly superior status that had attached to the Norman tongue for the past two centuries.

### **Middle English Dialects**

Middle English had a variety of dialects, more numerous and divergent than that of Old English.

**Northern:** This includes the dialects of counties north of the Humber and the lowlands of Scotland.

**The Midland Group:** This includes the dialects of the vast central area, north of the Thames and south of the Humber. This group can be sub- divided into East Midland, West Midland, South Midland, North Midland and Central Midland. It is the East Midland dialect which late emerged as the standard language of the period. It was spoken in and around London and as London became increasingly important as the centre of English life and affair. Moreover, it was the language that used in Oxford and Cambridge. It was the dialect in which Geoffrey Chaucer, the literary icon of the period wrote. These are the main reasons for its status as a standard language and its special literary status.

The Southern Group: This group includes the countries south of the Thames. It is further sub-divided into South-Eastern and South Western.

While studying the evolution of English during the Middle English period, we must consider four different aspects.

- Grammatical changes
- Changes in pronunciation
- Change in spelling
- Changes in and additions to, the vocabulary.

### **Middle English Grammar**

There was a remarkable simplification of the inflectional system, with the reduction of a few inflections and the period is rightly called the period of “leveled inflections”. As a result, word order became less free. All word final unaccented syllables were reduced to –e which had phonetic value. E.g. Seeke, sweete, etc.

Old English had several plural markers. In Middle English ‘-en’ emerged as the general plural marker in most of the dialects, but East Midland, the most popular dialect used –es which came to be established as the plural marker.

In Middle English the infinitive form of a verb was indicated by adding –en to it.

Later, in addition to the –en they added a ‘to’ also to the verb, i.e., to + vb + -en. Initially ‘to’ had restricted usage, indicating only the directional sense. Later it came to be used with all kinds of verbs and gradually the ‘-en’ was dropped.

In Middle English the indeclinable 'the' (ie. 'the' which does not change according to the gender and number of the noun) was added to all forms of nouns. In inflected languages like Old English it had different forms with different forms of the nouns.

The personal pronoun 'she' was introduced in this period. The dative and accusative case forms of personal pronouns were early combined generally under that the dative, 'him', 'her' and 'them'.

Gender came to be based on logic and common sense and the natural gender system replaced the grammatical one. After 1200, when English was used for writing purpose by the laymen, they adopted the simpler system of the natural gender.

### **Middle English Pronunciation**

The Old English long vowels 'e' and 'o' became 'I' and 'u' respectively.

e > I                      fet > fit

o > u                      fod > fud

The long vowels 'a', 'I' and 'u' changed into the diphthongs 'ei', 'ai' and 'au' respectively.

ei      name > neim

i > ai      fir > fair

u > au      hus > haus

### **Middle English Spelling**

Changes in spelling were due to the influence of the French and Norman French orthographic conventions. The difficulties of the French scribes who were the chief copyists led to a lot of confusion in spelling and the consequent loss of the phonetic habit of Old English. The French scribes introduced some of their own methods of spelling without any corresponding changes in pronunciation. Thus, the sound /u/ came to be represented by the spelling 'ou' and the long /o/ by 'oo'.

Eg. u > ou      hus > hous

o > oo      god > good

The hard 'c' of Old English came to be written 'k' before front vowels as in 'keep' but retained as 'c' before back vowels as in 'cool'. Thus Old English 'cuning' came to be written as 'king'. Again, the letter 'c' before front vowels came to be pronounced 's' after the French fashion, as in 'city', 'receive' etc.

In few words, mostly coming from Greek, the spelling 'ch' is pronounced as/k/as in 'chorus', 'choir' etc.

### **Middle English Vocabulary**

The French influence brought in not only grammatical and orthographic changes, but considerable vocabulary changes also. This is not surprising as French was for many years the official language of the court and was used in parliament, law courts and schools. The existence of English and French side by side for sometimes gave rise to synonyms, one from the native tongue and the other from Norman French which gradually became differentiated in meaning. For instance, 'wed' and 'marry'. The former is native and originally meant 'to take a pledge' and the latter from French means 'to become a husband'. This probably reflects the simple homely wedding of the Saxons as against the formality of marriage among the rich French nobles.

Many terms relating to food and cooking have come from French. Interestingly, the name of the animals was English, but when they were killed and served on the table, they took on French names. Thus, ox, cow, calf, sheep, goat, deer, and pig were all English but beef, veal, mutton, venison and pork were all French.

Many words relating to culinary arts were French borrowings. For example, words like sauce, soup, toast, sausage, jelly and pastry. The native word breakfast remains, but the more luxurious meals, dinner, supper and feast were French.

The Normans introduced into English words relating to the feudal system. Examples are prince, peer, duke, baron, castle etc. In fact, the now common villain is from French villain which originally meant a labourer.

The modern English legal system borrows several words from French. The word 'law' is Scandinavian, but the greater part of the English legal vocabulary has come from French. E.g. court, judge, panel, attorney, arrest etc. the manner of the phrases with adjective placed after the noun as in, proof demonstrative, attorney general, heir- apparent etc. are all from French.

Many words relating to religion, such as 'religion', cathedral, salvation, cardinal, parish etc., have come from French. Abstract qualities like grace and charity and words like discipline, save, blame etc., were at first ecclesiastical words but now belong to the common vocabulary.

Here is the list of words borrowed or came from French to English

**Astrological terms**

Influence, zenith, disaster, jovial, mercurial, saturnine

**Words associated with medieval scholarship**

Mercy, pity, humility

**Scientific terms**

Medicine, physician, surgeon, leper, plague

**Words related to dress and fashion**

Lace, frock, petticoat, pleat, apparel, veil

**Names of colours**

Vermilion, blue, brown and scarlet

**Names of precious stones**

Topaz, garnet, emerald, ruby, pearl, crystal

**Words related to Fine arts**

Letters, poetry, art, ballad, comedy, melody

**Words related to architecture**

Tower, pillar, vault, castle, aisle

We find several hybrid words in English coined by adding French suffixes to native stems or by adding Old English suffixes to French stems:

**English stem French suffix**

Break                      -age                      Breakage

Short	-age	shortage
God	-ess	goddess
Love	-able	lovable
Colour	-less	colourless
Court	-ship	courtship
Noble	-est	noblest

Using of surname became a practice in English during this period. Surnames were originally names to distinguish one man from another. Which in course of time, became family names. Surnames were derived from various sources such as personal features e.g. Longfellow, Good fellow, Longman etc., occupations e.g. Smith, Baker, Cook etc.

### **The Middle English Literature**

During this time French was the official language and it was best understood by the Upper Classes. The books they read or listened to were mainly in French. Many works from French and Latin were translated to English. The only literature in English that has come down in this period (1150- 1250) is almost exclusively religious or instructive. ‘The Acrene Riwe’, the ‘Ormulum’ (1200), a series of paraphrases and interpretations of Gospel passages, and a group of saints’ lives and short homiletic pieces showing the survival of Old English literary tradition are the principal works of this period. There are two outstanding exception, namely Laymon’s ‘Brut’ (1205), a translation of Wace, and the astonishing debate between “The Owl and the Nightingale’ (1195)

In the next century, about 1250, the English nobility separated them from the France and started to spread English among the upper class. This made a revolutionary change in the English society and led to the development of English literature. The period from 1250 to 1350 is a period of religious and secular literature in English and indicates clearly the wider diffusion of the English language. The period from 1350 to 1400 has been called a period of Great Individual Writers. The greatest among them is that of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340 -1400), the literary icon of the period. He wrote the long narrative poem, “Troilus and Creseyde”, the story of the unhappy love of Troilus and Creseyde. Chaucer’s most famous work is “Canterbury Tales”, which is the collection of tales told by a group of pilgrims riding towards Canterbury and back.

Another great poet of this period was William Longland, the author of a long social allegory “Piers Plowman”. The poem “Sir Gowain and the Green Knight”, written by an unknown author



was one of the well-received Middle English Romances. The fifteenth century is known as the Imitative period because the great bulk of poetry written during this period was written in imitation of Chaucer. It is also known as transition period, since it covers a large part of the interval between the age of Chaucer and the age of Shakespeare. Writers like Lydgate, Hoccleve, Skelton, and Hawes were quite good poets, but they are overshadowed by some of their great predecessors.

### **Modern English**

The Modern English period covers roughly the period from about 1500 which marked the close of the Middle Ages and the full tide of the Renaissance to the present day. Influence of Renaissance scholarship, Reformation, translations of the Bible, changes in the pronunciation of vowels (The Great Vowel Shift), introduction of the printing press, discoveries of new lands, tremendous growth of vocabulary and semantic changes are the main contributory factors to the development of the Modern Period.

### **The Renaissance**

The great tide of Renaissance reached England about the year 1500 and it had a marked influence upon English language and literature. In 1453, after the fall of Constantinople, the scholars who were assembled there fled to the Western Europe with much of their libraries. They settled mainly in Italy and Germany and so started the intellectual awakening of Europe. As a result of the Renaissance, large number of Greek and Latin books was being translated into English. English language borrowed many words from Latin and Greek. The term 'inkhorn terms' refers to such words and expressions borrowed indiscriminately from the classical languages. There were people who strongly argued for and against the use of such terms. At first, the new words were not easily absorbed into ordinary speech; they remained part of the vocabulary of scholarship, but gradually a number was popularized.

Words from Latin or Greek (often via Latin) were imported wholesale during this period, either intact (e.g. genius, species, militia, radius, specimen, criterion, squalor, apparatus, focus, tedium, len, antenna, paralysis, nausea, etc.) or, more commonly, slightly altered (e.g. horrid, pathetic, illicit, pungent, frugal, anonymous, dislocate, explain, excavate, meditate, adapt, enthusiasm, absurdity, area, complex, concept, invention, technique, temperature, capsule, premium, system, expensive, notorious, gradual, habitual, insane, ultimate, agile, fictitious, physician, anatomy, skeleton, orbit, atmosphere, catastrophe, parasite, manuscript, lexicon, comedy, tragedy, anthology, fact, biography, mythology, sarcasm, paradox, chaos, crisis, climax, etc.). A whole

category of words ending with the Greek-based suffixes “-ize” and “-ism” were also introduced around this time.

Sometimes, Latin-based adjectives were introduced to plug "lexical gaps" where no adjective was available for an existing Germanic noun (e.g. marine for sea, pedestrian for walk), or where an existing adjective had acquired unfortunate connotations (e.g. equine or equestrian for horse, aquatic for watery), or merely as an additional synonym (e.g. masculine and feminine in addition to manly and womanly, paternal in addition to fatherly, etc.). Several rather ostentatious French phrases also became naturalized in English at this juncture, including *soi-disant*, *vis-à-vis*, *sang-froid*, etc., as well as more mundane French borrowings such as *crêpe*, *etiquette*, etc.

One of the interesting developments related to such borrowings is the rise of number of synonyms which have made possible slight distinctions of meaning, especially in the case of adjectives. For example, the adjectives ‘royal’, ‘regal’ and ‘kingly’ are all connected with the word ‘king’, but they are slightly different from one another in meaning.

One of the interesting developments related to such borrowings is the rise of number of synonyms which have made possible slight distinctions of meaning, especially in the case of adjectives. For example, the adjectives ‘royal’ and ‘kingly’ are all connected with the word ‘king’, but they are slightly different from one another in meaning. The adjective ‘royal’ (of French origin) is the least colourful and means that which pertains to a king. Regal (Latin) suggests the pomp and splendour of kingship, i.e., the external trappings of majesty. Kingly, which is of native origin.

When new synonyms were directly borrowed from Latin, sometimes the older ones changed meaning. For e.g. the word ‘caitiff’ which came from French through Latin ‘captive’ mean prisoner. But later a new word was formed directly from the Latin ‘captive’ and we have now ‘captive’ synonyms with ‘prisoner’ and the old synonym ‘caitiff’ came to mean a ‘scoundrel’.

The Renaissance was also responsible for another feature of English, viz. the habit of using an adjective of classical derivation to correspond to a native noun. Thus we have,

<b>Adjective (Latin)</b>	<b>Noun (Anglo – Saxon)</b>
Feminine	woman
Nasal	nose
Urban	town

Masculine

man

### **The Reformation**

Another historical event that dramatically influenced the English language was the Protestant Reformation that followed by Renaissance. Protestant churches were more likely to hold services in English to distinguish themselves from the Romans who conducted services in Latin. This switch to English meant that the religious texts needed to be translated from Latin, with the intent to give the gospel to the common people through the common language. These translations contributed lots of words to English language. Most of these words expressed the disapproval of the Protestants against the Catholics. E.g.; ‘papist’, papistical, and monkish. The Catholics also had an equally rich imagination, but their terms did not take root in the Protestant soil of England. The word ‘Puritan’ first appeared in 1567. The puritans gave currency to words like ‘sanity, reprobate, conscientious, selfish and self-denial.

The Reformation allowed English to gain prestige. With English now in the religious sphere, the language could now spread from church to court and from court to school. This flexibility also led to an increased number of borrowed words from Latinate languages to compensate for a lack of vocabulary in religious and educational realms.

Also, translations of the Bible were made from Greek and Hebrew into English for a more English-authentic translation was an important outcome of the Reformation.

### **The Bible translation**

The Bible has been the most widely read and most frequently quoted of books.

When we consider the importance of the Bible on the English language, we have to take into account the various translations of the Bible, from those of Tyndale and Coverdale in the 16th century to the Authorized Version made under the direction of King James I in 1611. The Anglican Prayer Book first issued in 1549 and later revised in 1662 is another influential milestone in the development of English language.

In 1526, William Tyndale printed his New Testament, which he had translated directly from the original Greek and Hebrew. Tyndale printed his “Bible” in secrecy in Germany, and smuggled them into his homeland, for which he was hounded down, found guilty of heresy and executed in 1536. By the time of his death he had only completed part of the Old Testament, but others carried on his labours. From Tyndale, we owe such words and phrases as ‘congregation, elders (meaning priests) peacemaker, long suffering, ungodliness, weakling, stumbling, block, glad

tidings, scapegoat, godly etc. The word 'trespass' in the Anglican Prayer Book comes from Tyndale's translation. The Authorized Version has 'forgive us our debts' following the Greek and Latin texts. The other familiar phrases that we find in the Authorized Version like the 'fatted calf', eat drink and merry (St. Luke) 'the burden and the heat of the day' (St. Mathew) are the contributions of Tyndale.

From the Coverdale's translation (1535) we have got beautiful combination of words like 'loving kindness', tender – mercy, tender- hearted, avenger of blood, the valley of the shadow of the death, morning star, broken hearted, blood guiltiness etc.

The "King James Bible" was compiled by a committee of 54 scholars and clerics, and published in 1611, to standardize the plethora of new Bibles that had sprung up over the preceding 70 years. It appears to be deliberately conservative, even backward-looking, both in its vocabulary and its grammar, and presents many forms which had already largely fallen out of use. (e.g. digged for dug, gat and gotten for got, bare for bore, spake for spoke, clave for cleft, holpen for helped, wist for knew, etc.), and several archaic forms such as brethren, kine and twain. The "-eth" ending is used throughout for third person singular verbs, even though "-es" was becoming much more common by the early 17th Century, and 'ye' is used for the second person plural pronoun, rather than the more common 'you'

Many words and phrases from the Authorized Version have found their way into the language and have assumed the character of idioms and are often used with little or no consciousness of their origin. For example, we have a 'labour of love', 'clear as crystal', 'the still small voice', 'a thorn in the flesh', 'the eleventh hour', 'the shadow of death', 'a howling wilderness', 'the old Adam', 'the salt of the earth', 'to wash our hands off', 'the holy of holies', 'the lesser lights', 'the olive branch', 'a perfect Babel', 'a painted jezebel' etc.

The style of Authorized Version has been greatly admired by many of the best judges of English style. Poets like Coleridge, Wordsworth, Milton and Tennyson and writers like Bunyan, Browne, Carlyle, Ruskin and Newman have been influenced by the style and diction of the Bible. Macaulay praises it as a book which "If everything else in a language should perish, would alone be sufficient to show the whole extent of its beauty and power". Tennyson opines that the Bible ought to be read were it only for the sake of the grand English in which it is written, "an educational in itself". According to Coleridge, "After reading St Paul's epistle to the Hebrews, Homer and Virgil are disgustingly tame to me and Milton himself barely tolerable".

## **Caxton and the Printing Press**

One of the major factors in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press, one of the world's great technological innovations; introduced into England by William Caxton in 1476 (Johann Gutenberg had originally invented the printing press in Germany around 1450). The first book printed in the English language was Caxton's own translation, "The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye", printed in Bruges in 1473 or early 1474. Up to 20,000 books were printed in the following 150 years, ranging from mythic tales and popular stories to poems, phrasebooks, devotional pieces and grammars. Among his best sellers were Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" and Thomas Malory's "Tales of King Arthur" As mass-produced books became cheaper and more commonly available, literacy mushroomed, and soon works in English became even more popular than books in Latin.

At the time of the introduction of printing, there were five major dialect divisions within England - Northern, West Midlands, East Midlands (a region which extended down to include London), Southern and Kentish - and even within these demarcations, there was a huge variety of different spellings. For example, the word church could be spelled in 30 different ways, 'people' in 22, 'receive' in 45, 'she' in 60 and 'though' in an almost unbelievable 500 variations. The "-ing" participle (e.g. running) was said as "-and" in the north, "-end" in the East Midlands, and "-ind" in the West Midlands (e.g. runnand, runnend, runnind). The "-eth" and "-th" verb endings used in the south of the country (e.g. goeth) appear as "-es" and "-s" in the Northern and most of the north Midland area.

The Chancery of Westminster made some efforts from the 1430s onwards to set standard spellings for official documents, specifying 'I' instead of 'ich' and various other common variants of the first-person pronoun. Chancery Standard contributed significantly to the development of a Standard English, and the political, commercial and cultural dominance of the "East Midlands triangle" (London-Oxford-Cambridge) was well established long before the 15th Century, but it was the printing press that was really responsible for carrying through the standardization process. With the advent of mass printing, the dialect and spelling of the East Midlands (and, more specifically, that of the national capital, London, where most publishing houses were located) became the de facto standard and, over time, spelling and grammar gradually became more and more fixed.

Some of the decisions made by the early publishers had long-lasting impact on language. One such example is the use of the northern English 'they', 'their' and 'them' in preference to the London equivalents 'hi', 'hir' and 'hem' (which were more easily confused with singular pronouns

like he, her and him). Caxton himself complained about the difficulties of finding forms which would be understood throughout the country, a difficult task even for simple little words like eggs. But his own work was far from consistent (e.g. booke and boke, axed and axyd). Many of his successors were just as inconsistent, particularly as many of them were Europeans and not native English speakers. Sometimes different spellings were used for purely practical reasons, such as adding or omitting letters merely to help the layout or justification of printed lines.

Printing helped to bring about uniformity in the language to establish 'a standard' variety. The dialectical variations were reduced. It served to popularize and give currency to new coinages. When something is printed, it tends to become widely accepted with greater ease. Moreover, printing widened the circulation of reading. While the manuscript could be possessed only by few, printed matter could be easily circulated among a vast number of people.

Printing tended to fix spelling. The stabilizing effect of printing was not only on spelling but also on grammar, syntax and vocabulary. The decisive factor in spelling fixation was, of course, the publication of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary (1756), but Caxton's printing did impose stabilization. Changes in pronunciation, however, went on constantly, without any corresponding changes in spelling resulting in the great disparity between spelling and pronunciation.

### **The Great Vowel Shift**

A major factor separating Middle English from Modern English is known as the Great Vowel Shift, a radical change in pronunciation during the 15th, 16th and 17th Century, as a result of which long vowel sounds began to be made higher and further forward in the mouth (short vowel sounds were largely unchanged). In fact, the shift probably started very gradually some centuries before 1400 and continued long after 1700. Many languages have undergone vowel shifts, but the major changes of the English vowel shift occurred within the relatively short space of a century or two, quite a sudden and dramatic shift in linguistic terms. It was largely during this short period of time that English lost the purer vowel sounds of most European languages, as well as the phonetic pairing between long and short vowel sounds.

The causes of the shift are still highly debated, although an important factor may have been the very fact of the large intake of loanwords from the Romance languages of Europe during this time, which required a different kind of pronunciation. It was, however, a peculiarly English phenomenon, and contemporary and neighbouring languages like French, German and Spanish were entirely unaffected. It affected words of both native ancestry as well as borrowings from French and Latin.

In Middle English (for instance in the time of Chaucer), the long vowels were generally pronounced very much like the Latin-derived Romance languages of Europe (e.g. sheep would have been pronounced more like “shape”; me as “may”; mine as “meen”; shire as “sheer”; mate as “maat”; out as “oot”; house as “hoose”; flour as “floor”; boot as “boat”; mode as “mood”; etc). Chaucer’s ‘a’ in ‘fame’ sounded much like the ‘a’ in present day ‘father’. His ‘e’ in ‘see’ like the ‘a’ in ‘same’. The ‘i’ in ‘fine’ like ‘ee’ in ‘fee’. William the Conqueror’s “Domesday Book”, for example, would have been pronounced “doomsday”, as indeed it is often wrongly spelled today. After the Great Vowel Shift, the pronunciations of these and similar words would have been much more like they are spoken today, as in ‘police’, compare ‘polite’ which entered earlier. The Shift comprises a series of connected changes, with changes in one vowel pushing another to change in order to “keep its distance”, although there is some dispute as to the order of these movements. The changes also proceeded at different times and speeds in different parts of the country.

Thus, Chaucer’s word *lyf* (pronounced “leef”) became the modern word *life*, and the word *five* (originally pronounced “feef”) gradually acquired its modern pronunciation. Some of the changes occurred in stages: although *lyf* was spelled *life* by the time of Shakespeare in the late 16th Century, it would have been pronounced more like “lafe” at that time, and only later did it acquire its modern pronunciation. It should be noted, though, that the tendency of upper-classes of southern England to pronounce abroad “a” in words like *dance*, *bath* and *castle* (to sound like “dahnce”, “bahth” and “cahstle”) was merely an 18th Century fashionable affectation which happened to stick, and nothing to do with a general shifting in vowel pronunciation.

The effects of the vowel shift generally occurred earlier, and were more pronounced, in the south, and some northern words like ‘uncouth’ and ‘dour’ still retain their pre-vowel shift pronunciation (“uncooth” and “door” rather than “uncowth” and “dowr”). The word ‘busy’ has kept its old West Midlands spelling, but an East Midlands/London pronunciation; ‘bury’ has a West Midlands spelling but a Kentish pronunciation. It is also due to irregularities and regional variations in the vowel shift that we have ended up with inconsistencies in pronunciation such as *food* (as compared to *good*, *stood*, *blood*, etc.) and *roof* (which still has variable pronunciation), and the different pronunciations of the “o” in *shove*, *move*, *hove*, etc.

Other changes in spelling and pronunciation also occurred during this period. The Old English consonant X - technically a “voiceless velar fricative”, pronounced as in the “ch” of *loch* or *Bach* - disappeared from English, and the Old English word *burx* (place), for example, was replaced with “-burgh”, “-borough”, “-brough” or “-bury” in many place names. In some cases, voiceless fricatives began to be pronounced like an “f” (e.g. *laugh*, *cough*). Many other consonants

ceased to be pronounced at all (e.g. the final “b” in words like dumb and comb; the “l” between some vowels and consonants such as half, walk, talk and folk; the initial “k” or “g” in words like knee, knight, gnaw and gnat; etc.). As late as the 18th Century, the “r” after a vowel gradually lost its force, although the “r” before a vowel remained unchanged (e.g. render, terror, etc.), unlike in American usage where the “r” is fully pronounced.

So, while modern English speakers can read Chaucer’s Middle English (with some difficulty admittedly), Chaucer’s pronunciation would have been almost completely unintelligible to the modern era. The English of William Shakespeare and his contemporaries in the late 16th and early 17th Century, on the other hand, would be accented, but quite understandable, and it has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Even in Shakespeare’s time, though, and probably for quite some time afterwards, short vowels were almost interchangeable (e.g. not was often pronounced, and even written, as nat, when as whan, etc), and the pronunciation of words like boiled as “byled”, join as “jine”, poison as “pison”, merchant as “marchant”, certain as “sartin”, person as “parson”, heard as “hard”, speak as “spake”, work as “wark”, etc, continued well into the 19th Century. We retain even today the old pronunciations of a few words like derby and clerk (as “darby” and “clark”), and place names like Berkeley and Berkshire (as “Barkley” and “Barkshire”), except in America where more phonetic pronunciations were adopted.

### **Word Formation**

Around mid-seventeenth century the English language had emerged more or less in its present form, so far as grammatical structure, spelling and pronunciation are concerned, with only slight modifications later on. From the Restoration onwards the chief developments have been in the direction of an enlargement of the vocabulary on the one hand and changes in the meaning of words on the other. As knowledge grows, so language grows with it. The English language is the richest of all the languages and has the most extensive vocabulary. New words have entered and enlarged the vocabulary of English. Dr. Johnson’s Dictionary of 1755 contains some 48,000 entries while the 20th century Oxford Dictionary lists more than four hundred thousand words with the rapid progress of life and knowledge, new words became necessary to express and explain new ideas and concepts. A number of processes were responsible for the growth of vocabulary. The growth of English vocabulary has taken place mainly in the following ways:



### **Imitation or Onomatopoeia.**

This perhaps one of the oldest, is also the crudest, methods of word-making. Several words in our vocabulary today, especially those, which describe sound, are obviously imitative or onomatopoeic in character. The most representative examples are bang, pop, sniff, buzz, click, hiss, giggle, etc. The name of the cuckoo is clearly an attempt to represent its distinctive call. Quite often certain sounds seem to reflect certain ideas. For example, the consonants /p/, /t/, /k/ suggest quick action as in ‘pinch, torrent, kick’ etc. the combination of ‘bl’ suggests inflation as in ‘blow, blast, blister, bloated, bladder, and ‘st’ often suggests stability as in ‘stop, stay, station, still, stand, stable, statue . The word slithery has a slippery suggestion.

### **ii) Extension.**

This method has been very extensively used in vocabulary building. Example: The word literary now means belonging to learning or pertaining to literature. Yet Dr. Johnson’s Dictionary does not explain the word in this sense. At that time, it was used to mean “alphabetical”. The word manufacture simply means to make by hand. But in modern usage, it means its opposite now manufacture means factory – made as opposed to handmade article. Extension of meaning is another way in which vocabulary has been enriched. Take the word, for example board. This most common everyday word originally meant a plank of wood. Now its meaning has been extended to mean (i) a table (ii) the food served on a table as in the expression to pay for directors. (iii) A group of people to sit around the table as in board of directors. (iv) A smooth wooden surface as in notice board, black board. (v) The deck of a ship. (vi) Then, there are the various meanings of the verb to board, as in boarding a train, ship or a plane.

### **iii) Derivation/ Affixation**

This is a very ancient method of word formation, to be found in almost every language. Here, a simple root word is taken, and a suffix is added to it.

Example:

-dom as in kingdom, freedom.

-ship as in workship, fellowship.

In the present, modern age prefixes are used more intensively than suffixes.

Example:

Ambi- as in ambivalent

Pre- as in premature, pre-Raphaelite.

Post- as in postgraduate

Inter- as in international, interracial.

Extra – as in extraordinary, extracurricular.

Super- as in supersonic, superfast

#### **iv) Conversion**

It is one of the characteristics of the English language that it is possible to use the same word as noun, verb, adjective and many other parts of speech.

Example: 1. The Noun Park means an open place for keeping cars. From this noun is coined the verb to park meaning to drive a car to the carpark.

Example: 2. From the Noun pocket we have the verb to pocket.

Example: 3. Similar to the above examples, we elbow through a crowd, eye a person with suspicion, we stomach insults, we face danger and so on.

Sometimes an adjective gain the sense of a noun by the omission of the substantive which is originally qualified.

Example: 1 Submarine meaning a submarine vessel or a submarine boat.

Example: 2. The noun wireless means wireless telegraphy.

#### **v) Abbreviation/Shortening/Clipping**

The contracted form of a word, by and by becomes recognized as a word replacing the full form word and the full form are no more used.

Zoo for zoological garden.

Bus for omnibus.

Exam for Examination.

Maths for Mathematics.

Photo for photograph.

Bike for bicycle.

Words like exam, lab, and maths are now used in conversation and informal writing, while their full forms, examination, laboratory, mathematics are used in formal context. There are a number of commonly used words, which we do not regard as abbreviations though they once had longer forms.

Examples: Mob from the Latin 'mobile vulgus' meaning fickle crowd.

Cab from the French cabriolet.

Taxi from French Taxi metre-cabriolet.

Fan from fanatic.

Piano from pianoforte.

Cinema from Cinematograph

#### **vi) Syncopation**

This is a form of shortening or abbreviation. In this process a vowel is elided and the consonants on either side are brought together, a syllable being lost. Example: pram. Its original form was perambulator. It was syncopated to perambulator and then abbreviated to pram. Other examples are

- Once which was originally ones
- Else which was originally elles

Likewise, some past participles like born, worn, shorn, forlorn are syncopated forms. At one time they had the terminal ending –en and were used as boren, woren, shoren and forloren.

#### **vii) Portmanteau words/ Blending**

Portmanteau is a literary device in which two or more words are joined together to coin a new word. A portmanteau word is formed by blending parts of two or more words, but it always refers to a single concept.

The coinage of portmanteau involves the linking and blending of two or more words and the new word formed in the process shares the same meanings as the original words. It is different from a compound word in that it could have a completely different meaning from the words that it was coined from. Portmanteau, on the other hand, shares the same semantic features. For example, the word “brunch” is formed by splicing two words “breakfast” and “lunch”. The spliced parts “br-” and “-unch” are blended to form a portmanteau word “brunch” which is the meal taken between breakfast and lunch.

In modern times, portmanteau words have entered the English language regularly. We see their widespread coinage in different fields of life. No doubt, they are both useful and interesting. Below is a list of examples of portmanteau words nowadays.

education + entertainment = edutainment

fan + magazine = fanzine

cyberspace + magazine = cyberzine

Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge

telephone + marathon = telethon

medical + care = Medicare

parachute + troops = paratroops

motor + hostel= motel

camera + recorder = camcorder

### **viii) Telescoping**

It is a type of blending where two words are formed into one by the omission of a portion of one word duplicated in the other

Example: SLNAGUAGE from ‘slang’ ‘language’

‘to don’ was originally ‘to do on’.

‘to doff’ was originally ‘to do off’

### **ix) Compounding**

Compounding is one of the most productive word formation processes in English. It is based on putting words together to build a new one that does not denote two things, but one and that is “pronounced as one unit”. In English, compounds are not only written as single words but combined by a hyphen (e.g. small-scale). While noun+noun compounds are the most frequent, other combinations are also ample and the result must not be a noun.

Examples: bookcase, waste basket, textbook, wallpaper, fingerprint, railway, waterproof, breakfast, downfall, goldfish

### **x) Initialism & Acronyms**

Initialisms and acronyms are shortenings, built from the initial letters in a phrase or name. While acronyms are pronounced as “single words” (NASA, AIDS), initialisms are pronounced “as a sequence of letters” (DNA, USA). The difference between these two types lies in how the resulting word is pronounced in spoken language.

In English, there are lot of possibilities that speakers have at their disposal to create new words based on existing ones.

Examples: RADAR - Radio detecting and ranging

LASER - Light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation.

NATO - The North Atlantic Treaty Organization

A.M. – ante meridiem [in the morning]

B.C.E. – Before Common Era

HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus

VIP – very important person

### **xi) Words derived from Proper Nouns or Antonomasia**

A good number of words entered English language, which are derived from Personal Names. The word ‘utopian’ comes from Thomas Moore’s Utopia and the word Lilliputian comes from Swift’s *Gulliver’s Travels*. Many garments have taken their names of those who first used them or introduced to the public.

Several words were derived from place names, to denote products which originally came from that place. Example: Calico from Calicut Muslin from Mosul Millinery from Milan.

### **xii) Back formation**

If affixation means forming a word by adding an affix, then back formation is the reverse of it. It is the process by which a new word created by removing an affix from an already existing word.

E.g.: sulk from sulky

Proliferate from proliferation

Similarly, the nouns hawker, scavenger, editor, auditor have given the corresponding hawk, scavenge, edit, audit etc.

### **xiii) Corruption or Misunderstanding.**

Sometimes new words are formed by corruption or through misunderstanding. For example, the word Whitsun (the 7th day after Easter) came into existence through a corruption. It refers to the Sunday following Easter. It refers to the festival, which celebrates the descent of the Holy Spirit. The word Whitsun originated Whitsunday which meant white Sunday. On that day, all converts to Christianity wore white robes, as a symbol of purification. Then Metanalysis, whit Sunday was transformed to Whitsunday. Later, the analogy of this came Whitsun week, Whitsun tide, Whitsun Sunday, and even Whitsun Monday, which is a contradiction in terms. In the same way goodbye is a garbled form of God be with you.

### **xiv) Freak Formation.**

Certain words came into existence as a result of Freak-Formation i.e. quite unexpectedly or strangely or accidentally. Example: Teetotaler. Teetotaler (one who abstains from alcohol). This word originated as a result of stammering by an anti - alcohol advocate. He stammered while pronouncing the expression total abstainer and thus the word Teetotaler was formed.

### **xv) Reduplication**

Reduplication is a word-formation process in which meaning is expressed by repeating all or part of a word. Examples include okey-dokey, film-flam, and pitter-patter. English is replete with these playful coinages. Many are baby words: tum-tum, pee-pee, boo-boo. Some are recent slang terms: bling-bling, hip hop, cray-cray. Rhyming is also considered reduplication when the

second half of the word rhymes with the first. Product names are often formed this way. Examples: abracadabra, bees-knees, boogie-woogie, boy-toy, chick-flick etc.

#### **xiv Slang Words**

Slang words gained general acceptance and became part of English vocabulary. The very word 'slang' (cant was the earlier word) came into general use by 1756. In 1725, we find the following words were considered as slang; 'kid' (child), 'nobbed' (arrested), 'trip' (short journey), 'chap' (dealer in stolen articles), 'shabby' 'balderdash (nonsense), coax, cheat, pluck (courage), pinch (to steal). Now they are all part of 'good English'.

#### **xvii Conscious Coinages**

An invention or discovery necessitates the coinage of new words. The classical tongues have been a rich source of such coinages. 'Aviator' from Latin 'avis' (a bird) was replaced by 'airman'. From Greek we have 'oxygen, hydrogen, biology, geology, geography, astrology, telegram, telephone, etc. there are words which are half Latin and half Greek. E.g., 'automobile, television, Dictaphone. A few trade names are from the classical tongues. 'Sanitas' and 'Sanatogen' (Lat. Sanitas = health), Glaxo (Gk galaktos = milk) Ovaltine (Lat. Ovum = egg) etc.

#### **Semantic Changes**

All words have a meaning, but since English first appeared from its base language of Anglo-Saxon, the meanings of words have undergone changes. These changes include a broadening of meaning, a narrowing of meaning or a complete shift in meaning altogether. Another semantic change in English would be a change in connotations, referred to as either elevation or deterioration.

##### **1. Broadening. /Generalization /Widening or extension of Meaning**

Broadening is the change in the meaning of a word by expansion, so that the word is applicable in more contexts than it previously was and means more than it previously did.

An example of broadening is the word "business", which originally meant "a state of being busy, careworn or anxious", but has now broadened to include all kinds of work occupations.

Companion and comrade: The former originally meant "one who eats bread with another person" and the latter meant "one who shares a room"

Journey: originally referred to a day's walk or ride. Now it can be any kind of travel of any duration of time.

A common form of generalization is to extend the name of the material to the object made from it. Thus, we speak of iron, a steel, a copper (a coin and also a vessel for boiling clothes), a tin, a paper, a glass etc.

## **2. Specialization (Restriction/Narrowing)**

Narrowing refers to the opposite of broadening and is defined as a reduction in the contexts in which a word can appear. In simple terms, the meaning of the word has gotten more specific.

For example, the word 'girl', which originally meant a child of either gender, rather than a female child. The word has evolved to mean what was only part of its original definition, and this is semantic narrowing.

Fowl meant any bird in Chaucer and the Bible, but now it is restricted to domestic birds, and that too of a special kind.

Deer: originally meant any wild animal, but today a species of animal.

Wed: in Old English, any kind of pledge or promise, but now restricted to matrimonial pledge alone and hence means marriage.

Wife: in Old English any woman, but now woman of a status, as counterpart of husband.

Doom: meant judgment in general, but now it has the negative connotation.

Doctor meant a learned person, but now mainly of medical profession

## **3. Shift.**

Broadening occurs when over time the meaning of a word has grown to be applicable in contexts that it previously wasn't, and to mean things it previously didn't - its meaning has simply expanded.

Examples of this include brand names, a person may ask for a Kleenex instead of a tissue, or refer to a mouldable, coloured clay for children as Playdough, despite it being made by another company entirely, therefore the meaning of Kleenex has expanded from simply being the name of a brand, to being used in context as the name of the product.



A shift in meaning differs completely from broadening and narrowing in that the word now retains none of its original definition and has come to mean something else entirely. A good example of a semantic shift is the word 'gay'. Originally meaning "lighthearted", "joyous" or "happy", the word has undergone a complete shift in meaning to now refer to a homosexual person.

#### **4. Elevation.**

Elevation refers to a change in the connotations of a word, occurring in one of two ways. A word that loses its negative connotations is an example of elevation, but elevation can also occur when, rather than losing bad connotations, a word gains positive ones.

One example of elevation through loss of negative associations is intensifying expressions like 'terribly' and 'awfully'. These words have lost their negative stigmas and now mean little more than 'very', this is evident in that we can now use expressions such as 'terribly good.'

An example of a word gaining positive connotations would be "sick". It has obvious negative connotations of illness that are still connected to the word today, but it has also become a popular slang term for something cool. for example, "that's sick!"

#### **5. Deterioration.**

Deterioration occurs when a word gains association with a negative stimulus, to then hold negative connotations.

Deterioration is shown clearly in the word "accident". Once simply meaning "a chance event" the word now has associations with misfortune and injury, so we assume that when someone has "had an accident" it was not a positive experience.

#### **6. Extension or Transference**

Some words become extended in meaning, but at the same time retain their original basic meaning also. Although it is still only one word, it has the original meaning and the newly acquired one also. Examples are,

- a) To send a 'wire' means to send a message through telegram where 'wire' has an extended meaning, but it also retains the original meaning of a metallic filament.
- b) To give a 'ring' means "to telephone" where 'ring' has an extended meaning. It is used in the original sense also

c) To drop a 'line' means "to write a letter" where 'line' is used in the extended sense.

There are cases where the differentiation in meaning develops so much that are difficult to recognize any common idea behind them. The extended meaning sometimes becomes more common. For example

- a) 'Fast' originally meant to remain firm and extended meaning is quick movement.
- b) 'Brand' originally meant a burning piece of wood taken from the fire and later on such a piece of iron used for marketing or branding wine casks to indicate its quality. When the brand represents that is uppermost in our minds and the word thus come to signify quality.

In certain cases where extension was followed by differentiation, the difference in meaning came to be indicated by a distinctive spelling. For example, 'flour' and 'flower', 'curtsy' and 'courtesy', 'human' and 'humane'.

### **7. Association of Ideas**

Often there is gradual shifting of emphasis from the original basic meaning of a word to some characteristics associated with the referent and the word assumes that meaning. Examples,

Vulgarity comes from the Latin root 'vulgus' (a crowd), its basic meaning 'being' such behavior as would be expected from the 'crowd'

Villain comes from Middle English 'villein' which meant a farm hand or labourer, neutral in meaning. Because of the coarseness, uncouth behavior and total lack of refinement of such people, the word acquired its present meaning by association.

Traffic had the original meaning 'trade' or 'commerce' which involves a lot of vehicles passing to and fro through the street. Through this association with transportation the word gradually developed its present meaning.

### **8. Euphemism**

Euphemism is the figure of speech where we use a less offensive name to hide the real nature of something unpleasant or repugnant. Many words have changed their meaning, being frequently used in this way. For example

- a) Pass away for die
- b) Insane for mad
- c) Executed for hanged

**9. Prudery:** Several euphemistic expressions are traceable to prudery, a false sense of delicacy and refinement. Examples are,

- a) Paying guest for boarder
- b) Financier for money-lender
- c) Sanitary engineers for plumbers
- d) Comfort station for toilet
- e) Serviette for table napkin

### **10. Polarisation/ colouring**

A word sometime acquires a definite “colouring” or emotional significance for which there is no etymological justification. In some cases, the colouring fades away, but in others it persists, so that a modification of meaning occurs. Examples are,

- a) Gothic which literary meant “pertaining to the Goths” from the middle to the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century was used in a derogatory sense, meaning ‘barbarous, uncouth etc. In Modern English it has regained its original neutral sense.
- b) Enthusiasm in the same age meant fanaticism. Now it means great interest in or feeling for something
- c) Amateur was originally colourless, referring to a person who did something for love of it, but now it has colouring and means “unskilled people” as opposed to professionals.

### **11. Depolarisation (Loss of Distinctive Colouring)**

A limited number of words in English, generally words with a religious or political significance, especially those which in the beginnings were applied to minorities or to unpopular views, lost their distinctive colouring. They became depolarized, as the controversy died down or the suspicion subsided. For example,

- a) Christian was originally a term of contempt but later it became depolarized.
- b) Brave meant boastful in the 17<sup>th</sup> century and when applied to inanimate things it meant gaudy
- c) Policy, Politics and Politician were terms suggestive of dishonesty and trickery. All three have become depolarized and become respectable, at least nominally.

## **12. Metaphorical Application**

Almost any word can be used metaphorically but there are some words which are so frequently used metaphorically that we take them for their literal sense and fail to recognize them as metaphorical. There are two classes of such words: (1) those where the literal use is preserved along with the new metaphorical meaning and (2) those where the metaphorical sense has gained precedence over the literal one. Examples of the first category are,

- a) Bright was originally associated with light. Metaphorically we have bright face, bright idea etc. Other examples are dull, sharp, volatile etc.
- b) Sad originally meant full and through a metaphorical application of the term denoting “full of thought or seriousness” and by extension of the metaphor, “full of sorrow”
- c) Silly originally meant happy, gradually use in the sense of simple and innocent and then came the transition from simple to stupid. In such cases the literal sense has long since been forgotten.

## **13. Reversal of Meaning**

Some words changed so much as to bring about a reversal of their meaning. For example,

- a) Grocer which one meant a wholesaler now means a retail trader
- b) Scan originally was “to read through carefully” but now it is used to mean “to read through rapidly”

## **14. Popular Misunderstanding (Corruption)**

Misunderstandings are sometimes responsible for a change of meaning. For example,

- a) Demean originally meant ‘to conduct’ but owing to a mistaken idea that it related to the adjective ‘mean’ acquired its modern sense.
- b) Undulating means ‘uneven surface’ as of a hilly place. People mistook –un for a negative prefix and used ‘adulating’ in the sense of ‘flat’ or ‘level’ surface .

## **14. Proper names become ordinary Parts of Speech**

- a) Dunce has come from Duns Scotus
- b) Malapropism has come from Mrs. Malaprop
- c) Guy comes from Guy Fawkes
- d) Bedlam is from Bethlehem Hospital, the famous lunatic asylum of London.

## SECTION B

### Foreign Influences on English in the 17<sup>th</sup> 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> Centuries

English is not at all a pure language. It has borrowed many words from different foreign languages. Borrowing has considerably enriched the English vocabulary. Those words which have been adopted from foreign tongues are known as Loan Words. According to F T Wood, Loan – words have come into English by three chief means: viz.,

- a) Foreign invaders who settled in England brought in their words. For example, Scandinavian words after the Scandinavian invasion and French words after the Norman Conquest.
- b) Foreign contacts through trade, voyages, exploration etc., bring in new words. For e.g. Italian and Spanish words.
- c) Through scholarship, learning and culture, several foreign words have come in. For e.g., Latin and Greek words during the Renaissance period.

Apart from these, several historical events such as the migration due to various reasons, the vastness of the British Empire, the spread of certain religious and political movements, the development of trade and commerce with foreign countries, colonial invasions of Britain, scientific discoveries, and the revolution in international transport and communication have been responsible for such borrowings.

Let us examine the various foreign influences on the English language and the Latin, Greek, French and Indian words found in it at present.

#### **The Latin Influence**

The influence of Latin has been a continuous nature and it is considered as the earliest and the greatest influence on English language. It has enriched English vocabulary and helped to make it a varied and heterogeneous one. The Latin words in English may be divided into the following groups, according to the manner and time in which they were borrowed.

During the time of Roman occupation of Britain (55 BC – 410 BC) many Latin words related to military and administration, names of commodities and articles of food were *passed* into English. Examples: *Camp* (bottle) *segn* (banner) *mil* (mile) *win* (wine), *weall* (wall) etc.

Latin words which came in with the Anglo- Saxons. Eg: *deofol*(devil) *niht*(night), *engel* (angel) etc.

- Words associated with church

Church, bishop, candle, alms, angel, anthem, minister epistle, hymn, daily mass, psalm, pope, priest, shrine, nun, monk, disciple etc.

- Words relating to household affairs and domestic life

Cap, chest, dish, fan, fever, linen, kitchen, mat, pole, plaster, silk, Tunic, radish, oyster etc.

- Names of trees, plants and herbs

Beef, box, pine, aloes, garden, sword, grass, lily, palm, pea, pepper, plum, poppy, mallow and plant.

- Words associated with Education and bearing

School, master, grammatical, verse, metre, notary, talent etc.

- Names of animals and birds

Capon, doe, lobster, phoenix, trout, turtle, elephant

- Many Latin words relating to religion, medicine, law, alchemy, etc were introduced during the Middle English period. But these came through French and therefore regarded as French loan words. During the Renaissance, there was a flood of Latin words into the English language. The scholars and writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries seemed to be intoxicated by the newly awakened interest in Latin. Many English writers like Bacon and Moore wrote their works in Latin. The new words from Latin were at first part of the learned vocabulary, though in course of time many of them became popular and passed into the spoken language. But some of them were confined to the vocabulary of scholars and scientists. For example, 'genius', 'exit', 'medium' 'curriculum', 'axis', 'specimen', 'species', 'census', etc.

- Words associated with law

Conspiracy, custody, homicide, incumbent, legal, malefactor, minor, notary, prosecute, remit, testify, testimony.

- Words related to literature

Allegory, genius, index, intellect, summary, ornate, prosody

- Words related to theology

Incarnate, incubus, limbo, pulpit, rosary, scrip, scripture, supplicate, missal, tract.

- Words related to science and medicine

Gesture, immune, lunatic, mechanical, nervous, rational, solar, stupor, ulcer, zenith, zephyr.

Those Latin words and expressions which never have become part of the ordinary language and which have a limited use. This group may be further divided into a) Latin words and expressions found in the learned language like ‘apex, radius, dictum, quantum etc. b) Latin words and phrases which have a specialized use and which sometimes have a touch of pedantry, like, ‘prima facie, ex – cathedra, vice versa, ipso facto, veto, credo, recipe quorum . c) Latin words and expressions which had been taken to form names of patent medicines, tonics, and foods, for example, Ovaltine, Sanatogen, Wincarnis etc. d) Latin compounds and hybrid words are frequently used in science and technology. For example, locomotive, motor, radiator, tractor, Dictaphone, television, automobiles etc.

The Latin influence is seen in the use of prefixes and suffixes. Most prefixes in English are drawn from Latin. For example, pre-, ex-, inter-, extra-, super, post-, ante- etc., and suffixes like – ic, -al, -ate etc.

Latin has also influenced English spelling, pronunciation and syntax. But in the Renaissance period few words were modified by the scholars. The style of using participle was the result of Latin influence. E. g. “The train being late I could not reach on time”. The shifting of stress from the initial syllable was another effect of Latin influence. Sometimes the pronunciation of certain words was also changed consequent upon the changes in spelling. For example, in ‘debt’ and ‘doubt’ only spelling was affected by the insertion of the ‘b’ but in words like ‘perfect’, ‘fault’, ‘verdict’, ‘advantage’, ‘admiral’ and ‘assault’ spelling and pronunciation were affected. The zeal of the Renaissance scholars is seen in the incorrect modification of the spelling of words like ‘island’, ‘scissors’ etc.

Latin influence has enriched English language in many ways. As A C Baugh has pointed out Latin verbs can be considered the most important acquisitions of the English. Latin gifted several synonyms to English, and this helped the writers to express their thoughts subtly in their literary works. There have been certain disadvantages also due to the Latin influence on English. It has made English language inharmonious. The main problem lies in the pronunciation. Many of the Latin words have no fixed pronunciation. The Latin influence also resulted in the use of obscure

words and long involved sentences. It has inhibited the growth of native formations. All these factors were considered by Jespersen when he said that the Latin influence was ‘something between a hindrance and a help’.

### **The Greek Influence**

Even before the period of Renaissance, the English language contained a few Greek words. E.g. geography, theology, logic, etc. these words came through Latin. But most of the Greek words that passed into English during the period of Renaissance. The revival of the Greek learning in Western Europe at the beginning of the 16<sup>th</sup> century was one of the main reasons which speeded up the process of borrowing from Greek. The following are some of the words adopted since the 16<sup>th</sup> century: irony, alphabet, drama, elegy, dilemma, chorus, basis, larynx, epic, theory.

During the 17<sup>th</sup> century the following Greek words came into English.

Orchestra, pandemonium, museum, hyphen, dogma, clinic

The following words were adapted from Greek during the 18<sup>th</sup> century: bathos and philander

The 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries brought a wealth of scientific and technical terms. There has also been a great deal of coining and adaptation. Words like ‘psychology, neurology, oxygen, hydrogen, halogen, geography, photography, orthography, telegraph, microscope, telephone, microphone etc. It is modern medical science that is full of Greek terms, perhaps because of the pioneering work and reputation of the Greek physicians Hippocrates and Galen.

Greek has contributed many suffixes and prefixes to English language. These are found in hybrid words. E. g. a – apathy, amoral,

Anti – anticongress

di- disyllabic

hyper - hypersensitive

by - bicycle

poly – polygamy

tele – telephone

- Phone – telephone

- Gram – telegram



- Ism – communism

Greek also has been the source of a few trade names and patent medicines. Glaxo < Gk galaktos = milk, Optrex < GK optios = eye.

During the 17<sup>th</sup> century the following Greek words came into English,

Orchestra, pandemonium, museum, hyphen

The following words were adapted from Greek sources in the 18<sup>th</sup> century

Bathos and philander

During 19<sup>th</sup> century the following words were coined from Greek

Phase, acrobat, therm, agnostic.

### **The French Influence**

We have already discussed the influence of French on English vocabulary during the Old and Middle English periods. Even after the Middle English period French loan words continued to find their way into the English language. Most of the French words adopted during the Middle English period became an integral part of English. The following French words came into English during the 16<sup>th</sup> century.

Pilot, sally, rendezvous, partisan, cache, corsair, volley, moustache, promenade, machine etc.

Charles II who had long lived in the French Court ascended the throne in 1660. This intensified the French influence on English. The following words were borrowed from French during the 17<sup>th</sup> century.

dragoon, parole, reprimand, ballet, burlesque, chagrin, champagne, coquette, liaison, par excellence, native, rapport, forte, muslin, soup, group, penchant etc.

Towards the close of 18<sup>th</sup> century the following French words were adopted into English. The French Revolution was responsible for the adaptation of some of these words.

Regime, crops, manœuvre, espionage, depot, fusillade, salon, bureau, canteen, nuance, belles – letters, brochure, picnic, etiquette, ennui, police, coup.

The following words were borrowed from French during the 19<sup>th</sup> century. It was considered as the richest of all periods in French loan words since Middle English times.

1. Words relating to Food

Restaurant, menu, chef, fondant, etc.

2. Words relating to dress.

Rosette, fichu, profile, crepe

3. Words relating to literature and art

Literature, cliché, renaissance, baton, matinee, motif, macabre

4. Diplomatic words

Attaché, prestige, impasse, charged' affaires, debacle, raison d' etre, rapprochement, etc.

5. Military words

Barrage, communiqué, chassis, etc.

The two world wars in which England and France were allies have helped the process of borrowing French words during the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

E, g. garage, vers libre, fuselage, hanger, limousine, camouflage, etc.

### **Italian and Spanish**

During the Middle English period, quite a number of words borrowed from Italian and Spanish. Words borrowed from Italian during the Renaissance period were mostly connected with fine arts and warfare. E. g. opera, sonnet, stanza, canto, piano, cameo, cornice, cupola, replica, gondola, grotto, fresco, studio, parapet, alarm, bandit, traffic, contraband, etc. Later borrowings were miniature, vendetta, arcade, prima donna, macaroni, carnival, niche, Madonna, portfolio. The most recent words are fascism and fascist.

- Most of the Spanish words came though trade and commerce and war.

Armada, cargo, canyon, renegade, cannibal, spade, bravado, siesta, escapade, stampede, cocoa, potato, cockroach, cigar, and cafeteria are some of the examples.

The bulk of the Spanish words came into English from the mid-16<sup>th</sup> to the mid-17<sup>th</sup> century. It may be noted that American English contains more Spanish words than British English. E. g. booby, ranch, stevedore, bonanza, mustang, etc.

### **Dutch Influence**

In the Renaissance period, many loan words from Low German from which we have Dutch, Flemish and the dialects of North Germany came to English. These regions had close commercial contacts with England ever- since the Norman Conquest and many of the words relate to sea faring and trade. E. g. skipper, yacht, clock, smack, sloop, cruise, trek, buoy, spool, smuggle, etc.

### **German Influence**

We can find very few German words in English. The common words are Kindergarten, poodle, zeitgeist, dachshund, carouse, leitmotif, waltz, yodel, weltan schaunge, etc. Many words relate to mineralogy and other sciences, paraffin, cobalt, quartz, nickel, zinc, etc. Words relating to military sphere are blitzkrieg, plunder, rucksack, zeppelin, Gestapo, Nazism, Third Reich, etc.

### **Russian Influence**

Many borrowings from Russia were in the last 50 years owing to the very great importance of the new Soviet civilization. E. g. Mammoth, Cossack, steppes, Bolshevik, Menshevik, kopek, troika, vodka, samovar, pogrom, nihilism, commissar, robot, sputnik, Tsar, etc.

### **Words from Arabic**

It was by way of Arabs or moors of Spain and of Arabic speaking great medieval centers of science and culture that important technical terms came into English in the later Middle Ages. We have orange, lemon, fakir, imam, harem, Allah, hookah, madrasah, alkali, algebra, purdah, almanac, elixir, alchemy, Moslem, Islam, camphor, mosque, giraffe, sherbet, minaret, etc.

### **Hebrew words**

Hebrew has contributed many religious terms such as Jehovah, Amen, cherub, seraph, jubilee, Sabbath, manna, Messiah, rabbi, etc.

### **Indian Influence**

Indian words are found in English as early as the 17<sup>th</sup> century. E.g. Begum, Bungalow, cot, etc. But it was in the 19<sup>th</sup> century when British imperialism was in its peak in India; large number of Indian words came into English. E, g. Calico, curry, pyjamas, puttees, sahib, nabab, chutney,

gunny, loot, jungle, maharaja, shampoo, bangle, chit, moksha, bhakthi, avatar, karma, yoga, swastika, etc.

### **Words from other countries**

**Malay:** sago, bamboo, raffia, ketchup, gutta-percha, bantam, caddy, amok, etc

**Japan:** Kimono, geisha, mikao, harakire, karate, judo

**China:** Mandarin, rickshaw, silk, tea

**Australia:** boomerang, kangaroo, budgerigar.

### **Pidgins and Creoles**

A pidgin is a restricted language which arises for the purposes of communication between two social groups of which one is in a more dominant position than the other. The less dominant group is the one which develops the pidgin. Historically, pidgins arose in colonial situations where the representatives of the colonial power, officials, tradesmen, sailors, etc., encountered natives. The latter developed a jargon when communicating with the former. This resulted in a language based on the colonial language in question and the language or languages of the natives. Such a language was restricted in its range as it served a definite purpose, namely basic communication with the colonists. In the course of several generations such a reduced form of language can become more complex, especially if it develops into the mother tongue of a group of speakers. This latter stage is that of creolisation. Considering the following examples: The British begins a business in China. He does not know any Chinese to communicate with his customers, and his customers do not know any English either to communicate with the businessman. So a Chinese - English pidgin originates. Example (II) An American begins a business in Africa. He does not know the local language, and the people do not any English, An African- Pidgin takes birth.

Creoles are much expanded versions of pidgins and have arisen in situations in which there was a break in the natural linguistic continuity of a community. This occurred when two individuals speaking the same pidgin united, and their children were reared by both. These creoles may remain as ordinary languages till they are in the similar environment. They may gradually lose their identity by the process of decreolization.

The interest of linguists in these languages has increased greatly in the last few decades. The main reason for this is that pidgins and creoles are young languages. In retracing their development, it may be possible to see how new languages can arise. Furthermore, the large

number of shared features among widely dispersed pidgins and creoles leads to the conclusion that creoles at least show characteristics which are typical of language in the most general sense, the features of older languages, such as complex morphology or intricate phonology, arising due to the action of various forces over a long period of time after the birth of these languages. In type, creoles are all analytic and generally lack complexity in their sound system.

There have been several theories / hypotheses explaining the development of Creoles and Pidgins.

1. Monogenesis hypothesis (Taylor, 1960): Modern Pidgins and Creoles had all evolved either from the Mediterranean lingua franca used for trade since the Middle Ages or the Portuguese lingua franca used on the West African coast from the 16<sup>th</sup> to the 17<sup>th</sup> century.
2. Nativization (Schuchardt, 1914): Creoles emerged from Pidgins by Nativization. It refers to the acquisition of the Pidgins as mother tongues and vernaculars and the ensuing complexification and stabilization of their structures.
3. Substrate hypothesis: It refers to the basilectization process where the Modern Creoles are changed under the selective influence of the languages previously spoken by their speech community.
4. Superstrate hypothesis: It explains the origin emphasizing the influence of the non – standard varieties of the lexifier.
5. Bioprogram hypothesis (Bickerton, 1981): It assumes that children, who appropriate the lingua francas of their parents as vernaculars, would have assigned them a grammar inspired by Universal Grammar. This common kind of genesis would account for structural similarities among Creoles.
6. Imperfect second language learning: This often happens in the learning of L2. Very often it happens due to the imperfect planning of the system of teaching a second language.

## **Contribution of Major Writers**

### **Shakespeare's contribution**

Shakespeare is one of the makers of English language, a fearless experimenter, whose language reflects the freedom and freshness and the energy and exuberance of the Elizabethan age. According to Otto Jespersen (*The Growth and Structure of English Language*), “Shakespeare's contribution in English philology is the richest ever employed by any single man.” There is incredible potency of vocabulary used by Shakespeare in the dialogues of his plays.

The most striking factor about Shakespeare's vocabulary is its amplitude. The number of words used by him is roughly approximated at 21000. His plays portrayed the vast variety of the English society in which he lived and his language reflects the tendencies current in his time. He himself experimented with all kinds of innovations, dialectical adaptations and archaism.

Many of the common phrases and expressions used by Shakespeare have become household terms. (even the word household is Shakespeare's coinage). E. g. "We have tower of strength, seamy side of life, primrose path, the stricken deer, milk of human kindness, salad days, life's fretful fever, to be or not to be, a foregone conclusion, yeoman service, more sinned against than sinning, single blessedness, a sea change, a Romeo and Sir Oracle"

Shakespeare sometimes makes a dramatic use of certain dialectical words, e. g. in "blood – bolstered Banquo (Macbeth), the dramatist makes use of the West Midland dialectical word "bolter" with superb dramatic effect. In "As You Like It" and "King Lear" Shakespeare incorporates provincialisms very effectively. In "Henry V", we find a successful attempt at the dialect of the Scots, the Irish, the Welsh and the English army. A more significant achievement is the rustic dialect of Edgar disguised as a peasant in King Lear. Shakespeare makes use of a modified South Western dialect. His native Warwickshire dialect might have suggested the idiomatic phrase to "to speak within door".

Shakespeare has coined several new words with prefixes like, -em, en-, un- etc, enkindle, enrapt, embattle, unavowed, enmesh etc. Many words make their first appearance in Shakespeare e.g., dwindle, lonely, auspicious, etc. this does not mean that he coined them, might have introduced them from the spoken or learned languages. All the words and phrases coined by Shakespeare have not stood the test of time. Some words have been rejected by later generations and certain others have been discarded in the natural progress of the language.

Shakespeare uses double comparatives and double negatives frequently in his works. E.g., nor hath not, braver, worsen, morehotter, morelarger, mostunkindest and most heaviest, etc. Similarly, he did not always use the words where they should be according to the rules of grammar, as I "we send to know that willing ransom he will give for" what ransom he will willingly give", "the whole ear of Denmark" for "the whole of Denmark", "Lovers absent loves" for "loves when lovers are absent.

Shakespeare adds new colours to ordinary words. E. g., *air* is used in the sense of aspect, manner, melody. They include 'capable (having ability, gifted), censure (adverse judgment) cheap (costing little effort) cloud (v) (overspread with gloom), common (vulgar tongue), condolent

(tangible expression of sympathy) conveyance ( vehicle), dateless (endless) directly (at once) discharge (emission, payment, performance ) distemper (illness, intoxication) drown ( to make completely drunk) and dull ( tedious)The freedom with which Shakespeare altered the parts of speech is remarkable. E. g., verbs are used as adjectives, adjectives as verbs, and nouns as verbs.

Shakespeare had an indifferent attitude towards English Grammar. He focused mainly on phrasal verbs rather than grammatical correctness. We can find an irregularity and a freedom in his use of grammar as in his use of words. Besides these, we can see many constructions which are archaic in character and, here and there, a construction which are ungrammatical.

### **Chaucer and the English Language**

Chaucer employed in his work the East midland dialect, and by casting the enormous weight of his genius balance decided once for all which dialect was going to be the standard literary language of the whole of the country for all times to come. None after him thought of using any dialect other than the East Midland for any literary work of consequence. Though it contains a large number of French words, he naturalized these words in the language. All the great writers of England succeeding Chaucer are, as John Speirs says, “masters of the language of which Chaucer is, before them, the great master.”

Chaucer’s language shows Modern English grammar in its making. The Old English inflections have been simplified. The plural suffix is -s, though the -en form (sometimes as -ne) is also seen. E. g., eyen. The genitive case ending is mostly -s, though there are a few –s-less genitives e.g. Lady Grace church door. The adjective is nearer to Modern English, Chaucer having done away with the elaborate Old English inflectional system. To denote the plural and the feminine, Chaucer sometimes has the –e form eg. “his horse was goode or vogue sonne. The comparatives and superlatives of adjectives have –er and –et as in Modern English. The definite article in Chaucer is the indeclinable “the”. Pronouns are mostly as in Modern English, though the genitive and dative cases are still “here” and “hem”. Verbs have the weakened -en ending in the infinitive –to seken, seken, to seke (to seek). –th or- ith the normal descendant of Old English suffix is still retained for 3<sup>rd</sup> person present singular. The Modern English -es ending is seen only thrice in the whole of Chaucer -eth form is now considered archaic. His syntax is loose and conversational, perhaps because the English language was in a transition and hence there is no rigidity or formalization.

## **Edmund Spenser**

Though “poet’s poet”, Spenser doesn’t rank high among the makers of English. In the late 16<sup>th</sup> century, he tried some linguistic experiments in his masterpiece “The Shepherd’s Calendar”. For his “Fairy Queen” he tried out various kinds of archaism in style, accident and vocabulary. He experimented with dialectical words found in early authors and rustic provincial terms heard among his contemporaries.

The words and forms of Spenser’s poetic diction were partly drawn from the language of an older generation, partly from provincial speech and partly invented by him. As Ben Jonson remarks ‘Spenser writ no language’ because the artificial dialect of his poetry was not a form of language actually spoken by anyone at that time s, it was no mere affectation or fondness for the use of philological novelties that made the poet choose a kind of pseudo-archaic language for his poetry. He chose this artificial dialect because it was the only suitable medium for expressing his peculiar tone of thought and feeling. Though a large number of words which he invented or revived have already become obsolete, the literary vocabulary of English still retains some traces of his influence. We owe to him the word ‘braggadocio’ (empty boasting) which is the name of the vainglorious knight of the Faerie Queene. The phrase ‘squire of dames’ also occurs in the same work, though most users of the expression now have no idea of its source. The adjective ‘blatant’(loud and noisy) is first recorded in Spenser and as it has not been traced to any other source, is believed to be his coinage. Another word which has in all probability been invented by the poet is ‘elfin’(fairy like). The compound word ‘derring do’ (daring to do), which Scott borrowed from Spenser and popularized is a favorite word of modern chivalric romance. In the making of the language of romantic English poetry the ‘Faerie Queene’ has had a considerable part. Spenser took the phrase ‘lond of Faerie’ for his own poem, embellishing the word ‘faerie’ with all kinds of new romantic connotations, so that it has become through his influence a especially productive word in later English poetry. This ‘faerie’ with so much romantic poetic suggestiveness, has become through Spenser a separate term from the ordinary word ‘fairy’(of the same origin) which exists along with it.

## **John Milton**

John Milton is undoubtedly one of the greatest poets of England. Milton stands beside Shakespeare in many ways. He too coined new terminologies in English and created new metaphor like epic similes. He too borrowed the words from other foreign languages into English. Many of his coined words are still active. Words coined by him are: ‘embellishing’, ‘slow-motion’, ‘reforming’, ‘besotted’, ‘padlock’, ‘disregard’, ‘enjoyable’, ‘chastening’, ‘defensively’, etc. Most



famous of his original coinage is “Pandemonium”, a hybrid word. Certain other words which make their first appearance in Milton (according to Oxford Dictionary) are “Anarch (chaos), gloom (darkness), irresponsible, consolidate and adjectives “Titanic, Olympian etc.”.

Milton’s love of Latin makes him use the Latin syntax in many of his poems. Certain words are used in the primary Latin sense. E. g., Virtue, argument etc. Archaisms and dialectical terms are used by him to give special effect, e.g.: clomb, frore etc. The word “dingle” (a dialectical word) is used in the sense of “dell”.

Though he was not a spelling reformer, he was concerned with the problem of spelling. He attempted to make the spelling conform to pronunciation. E. g., ‘Sovran, artic (arctic) iland (island) dropt, etc. He tried to distinguish between the stressed and unstressed forms of the personal pronoun, “mee, shee, hee, their”, for the emphatic forms, and “e, she, he, their” for the weaker ones. Though many of his spelling devices did not have any lasting influence on the language, they show his sensitiveness to the existing problem.

## SECTION C

### Discrepancy between Spelling and Pronunciation

There is an apparent discrepancy between the spelling and pronunciation in Modern English. This is because English is not a phonetic language. Certain languages like Malayalam are phonetic languages. In these languages' words are spelt as they are written.

A letter of the English alphabet represents different pronunciations. Let us take first letter of the English alphabet. It is pronounced differently in different words:

'A' is pronounced /a:/ in 'father'; /æ/ in 'cat'; / / in 'what'; /ei/ in 'chamber'; /e/ in 'any'; / :/ in 'all'; / / in 'above' and so on.

The letter 'c' is pronounced

/k/ in 'cat', and /s/ in 'centre'.

The combination of 'ch' has different pronunciation such as

[ t ] in 'child'

/k/ in 'character'

[ ] in 'machine'.

There are only 26 letters in the English orthographic alphabet, but there are 44 phonemes. So naturally the same letter must represent different pronunciations, for example, the letters c, q and x. They are a waste as these can be represented in other ways.

### **Change in Pronunciation**

In English, pronunciation goes on changing from time to time. But spelling remains fixed. Words were pronounced in a particular way in Chaucer's time but in Shakespeare's time they were pronounced differently. Modern English pronunciation is different from the pronunciation at the time of Daniel Jones.

### **Conventions in the system of spelling**

The English spelling system has been developed in different time period. Some of the spelling systems go back to Old English and others were introduced during the period of Norman

and French ascendancy which followed the Norman Conquest. This may be the reason for the difference between the spelling of the sound /s/ in 'mouse' and /c/ in 'mice'. The 's' is a native spelling, but the 'c' is the French spelling. The influence of the Latin spelling conventions had also contributed to this confusion. It is natural that the influence of foreign spelling conventions should be more strongly marked in loan words, especially because many of them were borrowed from the medium of literature. The earliest loan words into English like 'chalk' and 'chase' were borrowed, are followed. Thus, in English there is 'ph' for 'f' in many words of Greek origin such as 'telephone' and 'philosophy'. 'c' as a spelling for 's' before front vowels in words such as 'cede', 'receive' came from French. Some modern English words have two pronunciations because they reached Modern English by way of more than one root. Take for example, the words 'cinema' and 'Celtic'. The 'k' follows the pattern of words taken directly from Greek or Latin but 's' is found in words that were borrowed directly from French.

### **Spelling Reforms in English**

Many attempts have been made to reform English spelling over years. The concept of correct spelling might be emerged partly after the advent of printing press and partly from the Renaissance interest. It was only gradually, over centuries, that the availability and example of dictionaries and the pressures of formal systems of education led individuals to strive to observe the conventions of print.

One of the earliest spelling reformer, according to David Crystal in *Evolving English*, was the thirteenth century versifier Orm who in his "Ormulum" made consistent use of various spelling devices, especially the doubling of consonants.

How we turn thoughts and experiences into speech and text will always be idiosyncratic. It used to be more so: people wrote as they spoke, so variation in dialect beget variation in text. With the printing press came partial standardisation. English after Caxton was gradually codified but remained heterogeneous and subject to constant change and stresses. That it drifted more in spoken than written form is another reason for the disparity between its spelling and pronunciation.

Reform efforts began seriously in the 16th century with Sir John Cheke and Sir Thomas Smith, who reconstructed ancient Greek pronunciation and then applied themselves to English; Smith published a 34-letter alphabet to better map onto its sounds. In 1568 Thomas Smith published a dialogue concerning the "Correct and Emended Writing of the English Language". Consistency with spelling often went with scholarly temperament. Sir John Cheke, developed a spelling system in which he doubled long vowels (e.g. taak, haat, maad, etc.), discarded final '-e'

(e. g. give, believe), always used ‘I’ for ‘y’ (mighti, dai) and so on. Momentum continued in a different direction with John Hart, who found English ‘learned hard and evil to read’, full of confusion, disorder, ‘vices and corruptions’. In his ambitious *Orthographie* (1569) – one of three books he wrote on the topic – he set out a bold form of spelling based on speech sounds and aimed at correcting the ‘many abuses’ of English writing.

Hart’s preference for omitting superfluous letters was followed by the schoolmaster Richard Mulcaster, whose influential proto-spelling-dictionary *Elementarie* (1582) listed thousands of words in regularised spelling patterns. Mulcaster wanted to ‘thoroughli rip up the hole certaintie of our English writing’ for the greater good of England. In 1662 the Royal Society was founded. It soon created a committee for ‘improving the English language’, including spelling reform. But it seems the committee – which featured John Dryden, John Evelyn and a score of other luminaries – lasted just a few meetings.

The tendency towards uniformity had been increased steadily during the first half of the seventeenth century. The English spelling in its modern form had been practically established by about 1650. “The New World of English Words” was published by Milton’s nephew Edward Philip

Dr. Johnson was one of the leading figures who took initiative to fix English spelling. Dr. Johnson compiled his “Dictionary of the English Language in 1747. He thought that the language should be “fixed” in an enduring best form as well as to spelling, for it was already by his time well on the way of fixation. In 1873 Isaac Pitman proposed a supplementing reform in his *Phonetic Journal*, adding 15 new letters to the ‘23 useful letters’ of the existing alphabet (*c*, *q* and *x* were dismissed). Benjamin Franklin tried a similar tack. A more radical, supplanting approach was favoured by George Bernard Shaw (who, incidentally, wrote in Pitman’s shorthand). Shaw left money in his will towards the effort, and a competition was held to find the best submission.

Noah Webster’s efforts to reform spelling were far more successful. Though most of his recommendations in the early 19th century was not taken up (*soop*, *aker*, *thum*, *wo*), the few that were altered US English in characteristic ways. Within a century, several dedicated spelling-reform groups had sprung up on either side of the Atlantic, among them the Spelling Reform Association (1876), Simplified Spelling Board (1906) and Simplified Spelling Society (1908), now the English Spelling Society. Webster’s reforms invited counter-reforms to repair the resulting rift between UK and US English. In 1968 Robert Burchfield (editor of the *OED Supplement*) and Philip Gove (editor-in-chief of *Webster’s Third New International Dictionary*) discussed trading off spelling changes to bring the dialects closer together. But nothing came of it.

History indicates, however, that in order to succeed, any planned changes must be minor. Substantial reforms would require centralized authority and a critical mass of collective, coherent will – neither of which seems likely. For many people the discontinuities would be an unacceptable price for the practical gain, to say nothing of the political and logistical obstacles to reforming so mutable, diverse and global language.

Writing serves as an approximation or extension of speech and is subject to mistakes and meanderings just as our minds are. Fads and anomalies of one century can become routine in the next. Reform would somehow have to keep up. If reformers all agreed on a system, they might stand a chance – but there are almost as many proposals as there are reformers. Their ambitions of orthographic engineering are likely to be frustrated.

Language is a dynamic phenomenon beyond the total control of any entity – be it a person, institution, or social movement. Standardisation establishes vital common ground, yet within the blurry borders of standard English, many varieties cohabit, including forms of spelling. Dictionaries belie the extent of variation by presenting a single spelling of each word.

## **Dialects of English**

### **British and American English**

British and American English have a common root but in more than three centuries after the first settlement, each has developed their own divergent ways and has their own accepted standard forms and dialects. American English has been developed – both in speech and written language – new elements in vocabulary, phrasing, structure and pronunciation. At the same time, it has preserved many old usages of British English which has already disappeared from Britain.

There is not much differences have been found in these languages. Most British and American speakers can easily understand each other, though slight changes can be found in their pronunciation. The written languages are very similar in two countries. The major differences between these two varieties of English can be grouped under four headings: Grammar, vocabulary, spelling and Pronunciation.

### **Grammar**

In certain cases, British people use present perfect tense whereas the Americans use simple past tense.

E.g.

British: He has just gone out

American: He just went out.

In American English the auxiliary 'do' is used with the verb 'have'

British: Have you got any issue?

American: Do you have any issue?

The American past participle of 'get' is 'gotten' but it is 'got' in British English.

e. g.

British: I have really got to know him

American: I have really gotten to know him.

Needn't, which is commonly used in British English, whereas in American English in its place is 'don't need to'.

In British English 'at' is the preposition in relation to time and place. However, in American English, 'on' is used instead of the former and 'in' for the latter.

Americans sometimes use 'his' where the British say 'one's'.

British: One should love one's country.

American: One should love his country.

British speakers often say, 'I have done', 'I can do', 'I might do' etc. in cases where Americans would just say 'I have', 'I can', 'I might', etc.

There are some differences in the use of prepositions and adverb particles, some examples are given below:

British

American

Check something

check something out

Do something again

do something over

Fill in a form                                      fill in/out a form

Protest against something                      protest something

Stay at home                                        stay home

Vocabulary

British    American

Flat    Apartment

(motor ) car                                        automobile

Taxy     cab

Sweets    candy

Cupboard    closet

Tin    can

Lift    elevator

Petrol    gas

Dynamo     generator

Main road    highway

Engine    motor

Film    movie

Angry    mad

Trousers    pants

Railway    railroad

Shop     store

**Spelling**

- a) In American English, final ‘l’ is not usually doubled in an unstressed syllable.

British: Traveller, leveling

American: traveler, leveling

- b) Some words end in '-ter' in American English, and in '-tre' in British English

British: theatre, metre, centre

American : theater, meter, center

- c) Some words end in '-our' in British English, but in '-or' in American English.

British: labour, honour, colour

American: labor, honor, color

- d) Some words end in '-ogue' in British English, but in '-or' in American English

British: catalogue, dialogue, analogue

American: catalog, dialog, analog

- e) Many verbs in American English end in '-ize', but in British English they end in either '-ise' or in '-ize'.

British: realize or realise

American: realize

- f) The spelling is different in some individual words.

British	American
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Aluminium	aluminum
-----------	----------

Analyse	analyze
---------	---------

Cheque	check
--------	-------

Install	install
---------	---------

Plough	plow
--------	------

Pretence	pretense
----------	----------



Tyre                      tire

### **Pronunciation**

- a) Vowels are often nasalized in American English. But vowels are not nasalized in British pronunciation.
- b) Most vowels are pronounced a little differently in British and American English.
  1. The vowel / / as in 'home' is pronounced with a monophthong in American English.
  2. The vowel / / as in 'post' is pronounced in American words without lip – rounding and sounds like the vowel / / as in 'palm'.
  3. The vowel / / as in 'father' is pronounced as /æ/ in American English.
- c) In standard British English 'r' is only pronounced before a vowel. In American English 'r' is pronounced in all positions in a word, and it changes the quality of a vowel that comes before it.
- d) Words ending in '-title' are pronounced with /tail/ in British English, and /-tl/ in American English.

### **Regional Dialects**

Variants of the same language occurring in different regions of a vast geographical area are called dialects. A dialect is not a substandard variety of a language rather it is the reflection of the cultural and social diversity of a country. It is a dialect that becomes a standard language. If the form of speech transmitted to a child is a distinct regional dialect, that dialect is said to be the child's vernacular. Jeff Siegel observes, "as opposed" to a national dialect, a regional dialect is spoken in one particular area of a country. In the USA, regional dialects include Appalachian, New Jersey and Southern English, and in Britain, Cockney, Liverpool English and 'Geordie' (Newcastle English) ..... In contrast to a regional dialect, a social dialect is a variety of a language spoken by a particular group based on social characteristics other than geography. (Jeff Siegel, *Second Dialect Acquisition*, Cambridge University Press, 2010)

In each dialect the linguistic system used by the speakers is different in many aspects. Dialectal differences occur chiefly in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. English dialects differ greatly in their pronunciation of open vowels. In Received Pronunciation, there are four open back vowels, /æ /, but in General American there are only three, /æ /, and in most dialects

of Canadian English only two, /æ / . Words like bath and cloth have the vowels / / in Received Pronunciation, but /æ / in General American.

### **English In India**

The place of the English language in India since Independence must be seen against the background of developments in the years of British rule. Education in the English language had been introduced both to provide recruits for the subordinate services and to teach Indians the rudiments of a culture which was commended as superior to their own. Thomas Babington Macaulay's historic 'Minute' on Indian Education of 2<sup>nd</sup> February 1835 is generally perceived to be the starting point of English education in India. Macaulay's 'Minute' was instrumental in establishing English as the medium of instruction in educational institutions of higher learning. But, even prior to this institutionalization, there were attempts at English education in India by several independent and other organizations. The first serious venture into India by Englishmen began with the establishment of the East India Company by the granting of a charter by Queen Elizabeth I, to a few merchants of the City of London, giving them monopoly of trade with the East, on 31<sup>st</sup> December 1600. By 1611, British factories began to be established in different coastal places in India. Over two centuries of contact with the British was obviously going to have an impact on the language situation of the country. The events relating to language cannot be divorced from the politico-historical, cultural and religious factors that shape a nation.

The period 1844 to about 1905, until the beginning of nationalism, saw a series of policy decisions by the British administration that implemented English education in different ways. This period was also the beginning of the era of Commission Reports. Hardinge, the Governor-General, decided to open subordinate office jobs to Indians. The purpose was to encourage the use of English and provide cost-economic status to the British.

The first major Commission Report on Indian Education was written by a committee under the presidentship of Charles Wood, in 1854 and it is called the Magna Carta of Indian Education, it made several recommendations, the most important being the establishment of universities. The other major suggestions were that: teacher-training institutes should be set up; the vernaculars and classical languages should be encouraged and taught; English should be used for higher education and the vernaculars taught at lower levels; attention should be shifted to educating the masses, etc.

Later, control of the education departments was transferred first to the provinces, and, from 1921 onwards, to Indians. The issues concerning education were deliberated upon by several committees. However, a major issue during this period, in anticipation of independence, was what

the national language of the country was to be. Indian national leaders met in Calcutta at a conference in 1916 and advocated the use of Hindustani as the national language of India. The Constituent Assembly discussed whether Hindi or English was to be the official language of the country. The President of the Assembly, Dr Rajendra Prasad (later, President of India) exercised his casting vote in favour of Hindi. Thus, Hindi became the official language of the country. However, English was retained as an official language for all the purposes that it was used for until independence, for a period of fifteen years from the adoption of the Constitution up to 1965.

Realizing that the language issue would be a great threat to the unity of the country, Nehru, the prime minister of India, did not like to entertain the Hindi, English controversy any longer. He felt that it was better to adhere to English as an official language for the whole country for two reasons: It was establishing itself as a world language and it was India's main means of access to scientific and technological research.

In 1959, Nehru promised that no language would be imposed as official language, and English would remain as an associate, additional language for an indefinite period. The language riots were soon followed by the anti-Hindi riots in Tamil Nadu. In response to these riots, and since the report of the Official Languages Commission, the 1963 Official Languages Act was passed (and amended in 1967), continuing the use of English indefinitely. Thus, the current official position of English is almost equal to that of Hindi. The story of English in India is the story of language debates and the process of institutionalisation in the education system.

English has become one of the essential languages in India. The medium of higher education has been completely changed to English. English medium schools were started everywhere, and parents preferred to send their children to English medium schools and this became a status symbol. To promote standard English and to improve the quality of language learning, an institute for training of teachers of the English language was set up (Central Institute of English Language and Foreign Language (CIEFL), later it becomes known as EFLU) at Hyderabad in 1958.

After the globalization, English has attained a new status in India. Global exchanges, new trade agreements and the expansion of IT industry enhance the demand for English as a common means for communication.

## **INDIAN ENGLISH**

Indian English (IndE) has become a reality for more than half a century now. Different varieties of English are indeed used in the various parts of the country. This is mainly due to the

large number of languages used as mother tongues in India. All these varieties have been influenced by the first languages of the people, and thus we have Hindi English, Tami English, Bengali English, Malayalam English, and so on. Each of these varieties is different in some way. When we examine these varieties we can certainly find certain common features. If we put the common features together and remove from each variety of certain gross regional features, a variety of English will emerge, which may be called Indian English.

There is plenty of evidence to show that the users of IndE draw freely on the possibilities of borrowing, word formation, and semantic change to expand their communicative possibilities. They also innovate vocabulary according to their own expressive and referential needs. Many loan words suit the purpose of communicating India's socio-cultural reality, such words are found in India's quality newspapers predominantly in reviews, critiques of classical concerts, and in the review of Indian movies. But in newspaper reporting loan words are comparatively rare. The Hindi loan with 'Vidhan Sabha' and 'time pass' is commonly heard in Hindi-speaking areas. 'Petrol bunk' is found almost exclusively in newspapers from south India. The items 'lathicharge', 'bandh', 'dharna' 'rasta roko' and the hybrid, compound 'road roko' as well as the coinages 'speed money', 'hydel', 'senti', 'enthu', and 'posh' were seen in Indian quality newspapers. The loan words 'hartal' and 'gherao', the coinages 'eve-teasing', upgradation, 'delink', chargesheet, 'incharge', 'undertrial', 'funda', 'sympathy', 'wave', 'month-end', 'January-end', 'parliament session', 'telephonic conversation', 'departmental store', and 'meet' to denote 'political meetings' are employed in journalistic writing.

Stylistic differences are found in the analysis of the online newspaper corpora of India's quality newspapers. For example, The Hindu mostly uses the solid spelling 'lathicharge' and the hybrid compound 'road roko' to refer to the blocking of roads. The Hindu omits the plural '-s' in currency statements like 'Rs 100 lakhs' and 'Rs 100 crores'.

There are numerous lexical differences between BrE and IndE. 'Uplift' for 'upliftment' is common in IndE. Similarly 'lectureship', 'dentenu' 'to demit', 'untoward', and 'thrice' are used in high numbers in IndE instead of 'lectureship', 'detainee', 'to console', 'unexpected' and three times respectively. In the use of function words, IndE differs from both BrE and AmE. In IndE 'whilst', 'amidst' and 'till' are used in the place of 'while', 'amid' and 'until'.

IndE shows more affinity to BrE than AmE in lexical usage. In the use of the lexemes 'pavement', 'working day', 'railroad', and 'public transport' and also in the area of spelling the position is in favour of BrE. AmE and IndE are alike in using 'price hike', 'taxi-stand', 'garbage', 'full-fledged' and 'alternate'. IndE does not prefer 'ancient' to 'old', 'demise' to 'death', 'bosom'

to 'chest', 'comely' to 'pretty'. There is no proof for IndE using nominal or adjectival compounds. But it shows a preference for individual compounds like 'Parliament session', 'telephone conversation', 'sympathy wave', etc.

Lexico-syntactic differences between IndE and other varieties of English are rarely of a qualitative, more often of a quantitative, and register-specific kind. Among the verb-particle combinations with 'up', 'down', 'off', 'away', and 'out', only about three percent were found to differ in use from the norms of standard English, the majority of which appeared in the category of student writing. IndE journalism uses the particle verb 'contest from' to say that 'someone runs for office in a particular constituency'. In the case of the particle web 'take out' IndE uses to mean someone 'leads' a protest demonstration. IndE uses the verb 'enjoy' intransitively to mean that 'someone has a good time'. The term 'avail' is used in IndE to mean 'to take advantage of'.

Sometimes differences between IndE and other varieties of English are restricted to specific domains to use. 'Comprise of' for example, has spread into India's quality newspapers. The verbs 'find out' and 'find', 'lower down' and 'lower' are also found in IndE more than elsewhere in the English speaking world. Similarly, the verb particle combinations 'request for', 'stress on', 'emphasize in "discuss"', 'investigate into', and 'urge for' have been integrated to various degrees across text categories.

There are also some other uses of words in IndE that are not part of innovation but remnants of nineteenth-century English. The use of the word 'bunk' (as in bunk school) and the use of 'avail' (as in 'to avail an opportunity') are two specific examples. The bare infinitive is often used after 'with a view to' in IndE. But these are not found in the use of IndE in more formal and professional language use.

### **Morphosyntax and Grammar**

Contemporary IndE syntax, on the whole, differs only moderately from Standard English. In the use of definite and indefinite articles, nouns, tense forms, interrogative constructions, and focus elements there is agreement with Standard British English. But there are some innovative modifications. The definite article is often used with proper names and with nouns denoting institutions of human life (e.g., police, society), the use of the past perfect with preterit meaning.

Certain usages that have been dropped out in BrE and AmE are continued in IndE. The use of 'legislation', 'equipment', 'agitation', and 'machinery' as count nouns, the use of the plural aircraft, and the use of police with a singular verb and pronominal concord, etc. are found in IndE. The use

of direct quotes in news reportage is a more common phenomenon in IndE newspapers. In that instance, IndE newspapers are slightly more advanced than BrE newspapers.

Besides, there are differences in count and number divides, use of 'since elements' with the present tense, use of the present perfect with adverbials of the past, variation in the formation of direct 'wh-questions' and uses of 'only' as presentational focus adverb. On the whole, India's quality newspapers adhere most closely to the international usage standard. But student essays are furthest removed from this standard.

### **Pronunciation**

The CIEFL (Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, now EFLU University) Hyderabad, has devised a model of spoken English called GIE (General Indian English). According to this, there are phonological differences between IndE and BrE. They are briefly described below:

#### **Differences between the vowel systems of RP and GIE**

1. As against, RP / /, and / :/, GIE has only / /. 'Cot' and 'caught' are pronounced alike.
2. As against RP central vowels / /, / :/, and / /, GIE has only / /
3. GIE has two pure vowels /e:/ and /o:/ in the place of RP diphthongs / I/ and / .../.
4. The GIE vowel in words like bet, bed, etc. is openers than its counterpart in RP, the symbol being / /.
5. The GIE vowel in words like part, calm, etc. is more front than the back.

#### **Differences between the consonant systems of RP and GIE**

1. GIE has dental plosives /t/ and /d/ in the place of RP dental fricatives / / and /ð/.
2. GIE has retroflex plosives / / and / / in place of RP alveolar plosives /t/ and /d/.
3. In place of RP /v/ and /w/ GIE has only one consonant /v/.

## **INDIAN WORDS IN ENGLISH**

The British rule in India, which lasted for more than two centuries, necessitates the give – and – take of English words into the very many Indian languages, and a large number of words from these languages into English. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary has listed more than 2000 Indian words in its Indian supplement. A good number of them are original words from Indian languages; some are currently in British English but are used in different senses in India; some words represent usages and idioms peculiar to Indian English, though the words they contain exist in British English. The list also includes several proper names of particular people, gods, places or words derived from them.

Words that entered English from Indian languages can be generally classified under certain categories. They can pertain to Indian philosophy, the Hindu religion, words that became popular during the freedom movement, words related to objects, animals, customs, ideas, etc., proper nouns and their derivatives, and so on. Those words that cannot be easily accommodated under any of these categories are listed under the heading 'miscellaneous words'.

### **a) Words of Hindu religion and Philosophy**

Adharma Advaita, Amrita, Ananda Marg, Agraharam, Arjuna award, asura, atman, avatar, Bhagavadgita, Bhagavan, Brahma, deva, dharma, Diwali, Durga, Ganapati, Garuda, Gayatri Mantra, guna, Indra, Janmashtami, Jataka, prana, sastra, jiva, jnana, pooja (puja), pujari, Punya, Purana, Raksha Bandhan, Rig Veda, sacred thread, Samskara, Shakti, Shanti, swastika, Upanishad, etc.

### **b) Words representing things, animals, customs, ideas, etc.**

Bandikoot, banyan, bhai, beebi, beedi, chakra, saras, challan, chilli, dal, Devanagiri, dyana, didi, divan, durbar, falluda, finger chips, foreign liguor, gadi, ganja, garammasala, gomasta, gopuram, grass cutter, henna, himsa, hot-water bag, jack fruit, jiggery, jilebi, kumkum kurta, laddu, lathi, lota, lungi, masala, match box, match stick, matra, maya, mehr, mela, mirchi, mudra, mulligatawny, naga, natya, neem, nimbu, pada, padam, paddy, paisa, pan, pan masala, pandal, paneer, pani, pant piece, papadam, pindropsilence, posh puri, purnima, pardah, pustak, pyjama, raga, ragi, raja, rasa, rasam, rasagula, rikshaw, roti, rudraksha, samhita, sari, sati, sena, sharbat, shikar, sindur, sloka, Stepney, stridhan, stupa, supari, tali, toddy, tulsi, vada, vahana, veena, vrata, yoni, yuga, etc.

**c) Words from Indian Freedom Movement**

Bandh, Dhandi March, dharna, gherao, jatha, satyagraha.

**d) Proper Nouns and their Derivatives**

Barath, Gandhi, Gandhian, Ghurkha, Himalayan, Hindustani, Hindutva, HOli, IGNOU, India rubber, Indo-anglian, Indo-Aryan, Indo-Iranian, Jain, Krishna, Kumbhamela, Mahabharata, Moghul, Nataraj, Netaji, Nizam, Pandava, Patel, Punjabi, Rajastani, Sanskrit, Santhal, Shiva, Sindhi, Sudra, Sufi, Vaishnava, Vaishya, Valmiki, Varuna, Veda, Vedanta, Vinobha, Vishnu.

**e) Miscellaneous Words**

Anganwadi, ashram, autorikshaw, Ayurveda, beegum, bhakta, bhakti, bhikshu, chup, cooli, curry leaf, cut throat, dhobi, dost, huzoor, janta, jati, jawan, kabaddi, kachra, Kendra, khadi, khaki, khana, khasi, kho-kho, king cobra, kirtan, kisan, kumar, kumara, latrine, mahal, maharaj, maharshi, mazdoor, munshi, murdabad, namaskar, nawab, Naxalite, non-vegetarian, oil bath, Padmabhushan, Padmashri.

**f) Words related to culture and other religions**

Some words related to some of the special cultures of the various religions and organizations also got transferred to English. Examples are Aryan, Arya Samaj, Ashok Chakra, baba, babu, Bakrid, Bradshaw, Bharatanatyam, Carnatic, caste, dada, devadasi, Dravidian, maulana, Mehr, Muharram, Mussalman, Naik, Nair, Onam, pariah, padre, Ramzan, Shariat, etc.

The classification given above is quite arbitrary; some of the words included in one group may fit in another group also. The selection of words has been made at random. Students are advised to go through the full list of Indian words given in the Indian supplement of Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

Indian writers in English are responsible for the use of several Indian words in English. R.K. Narayan, Raja Rao, Mulk Raj Anand, Kamala Das, Nizzim Ezekiel, Sarojini Naidu, and V.S. Naipaul are some such writers.

The English people have been always ready to accept words from other languages. The opening of the colonies all over the world provided them the opportunity to come across numberless languages in the various countries of the world. New words are still being added to the English language every day. This will go on until there is a change in the attitude of the English People.



## **ENGLISH IN THE POST-COLONIAL WORLD**

Control over language is one of the main features of imperial oppression. The imperial education system imposes a 'standard' version of the colonizer's language as the norm and marginalizes all 'variants' as substandard. Language becomes a medium through which a hierarchical structure of power is perpetuated. It is through the medium of language the concept of 'truth', 'order', and 'reality' becomes established. Such power is rejected in the post-colonial context. To emphasize the complex ways in which the English language has been used in these societies and to indicate their sense of difference, a distinction is made between the 'Standard' British English inherited from the empire and the 'English' which the language has become in the post-colonial countries. Thus the English of Jamaicans is not the English of Canadians, Maoris, or Kenyans. So a distinction is to be made between English and English, to indicate the various ways in which the post-colonial communities use the language. This distinction between English and Englishes point to the claims of a powerful 'centre' and a multitude of intersecting usages which can be called as 'peripheries'. The language of these 'peripheries' has created a great bulk of literature in the modern period.

### **Abrogation and Appropriation**

There are two distinct processes in post-colonial writing; The first is the abrogation or denial of the privilege of 'English' which involves a rejection of the metropolitan power over the means of communication. The second is the appropriation and reconstruction of the language of the centre – the process of capturing and remoulding the language to new usages. This marks a separation from the site of colourful privilege. Abrogation, in other words, is the refusal of the categories of the imperial culture, its aesthetic, its illusory standard of normative or 'correct' usage, and its assumption of a traditional and fixed meaning of words. The first stage consists in the de-coloring of English. Then comes writing in English. Appropriation is the process by which the language is taken and adapted to suit the colonizers' cultural experience, or as Raja Rao puts it, to convey in a language that is not one's own the spirit that is one's own. Language is adopted as a tool to utilize it in various ways to express widely differing cultural experiences. All post-colonial literature is cross-cultural because they represent different 'worlds'. There is a gap between one culture and another. So, the processes of abrogation and appropriation continue without break. The speech habits of the people are influenced by the local language, and people in a locality begin to use local English.

## **Language in Post-Colonial Societies**

Three main types of linguistic groups are found within post-colonial discourse: monoglossic, diglossic, and polyglossic. Monoglossic groups are those single language societies using English as a native tongue. Diglossic communities are those in which most people speak two or more languages, such as in India, Africa, and the South Pacific. In diglossic societies, English has generally been adopted as the language of the government and commerce, and the literary form of English varies much from the central language. Polyglossic communities occur mainly in the Caribbean, where a multitude of dialects is mixed to form a generally comprehensible linguistic continuum. The formation of such English may take place in two different ways: on the one hand, regional English varieties may introduce words which become familiar to all English speakers, and on the other hand, the varieties themselves produce national and regional peculiarities which distinguish them from other forms of English.

According to C.D. Narasimhaiah, "English is not a pure language but a fascinating combination of tongues welded into a fresh unity". A language is a versatile tool; English is continually changing and 'growing' (becoming an English) because it realizes potentials which are then accorded to it as properties. English has been used by a greater variety of people. For this very reason, new Englishes are being formed continuously.

## **Language and Abrogation**

In the early period of post-colonial writing, many writers were forced to search for an alternative authenticity other than the centre to which they did not belong. The everyday experience of marginality was opposed to the notions of centrality and the authentic. Therefore, the centrality and authenticity themselves were questioned, challenged, and finally abrogated.

The process of decolonization became a search for an essential cultural purity. Writers argued that not only was the notion of authentic experiences as false as the concept of the 'centre' but that the inauthentic and marginal was the 'real'. The post-colonial experience refutes the privileged position of standard code in the language and any monocentric view of human experience. Vernacular terms and grammatical forms began to be used. This can be demonstrated by an example. In 'The Voice' (1964) Gabriel Okara attempts to develop a 'culturally relevant' use of English by adapting Ijaw syntax and lexical parameters to English. This gave rise to lexical terms which have various meanings depending on how they are employed in the text. A significant example of this is the use of the terms 'inside' and 'insides', which are employed in a variety of ways in the novel. Several meanings are possible for these terms: 'emotions and feelings "self-

preferentiality', 'outlook on life', 'personality', 'intellectual perception', 'understanding', intellectuality, 'heart' and 'mind'. The expression 'sweet inside' is highly metaphorical. The employment of such terms shows that language exists neither before the fact nor after the fact but in the fact. The English language becomes a tool with which a 'world' can be textually constructed. The most interesting feature of its use in postcolonial literature may be how it also constructs difference, separation, and absence from the metropolitan norm.

### **The Creole Continuum**

One way in which the post-colonial discourse abrogates the centre and leads to new theories is the extension of the concept of the Creole continuum in the polyglossic communities of the Caribbean. The polydialectal culture of the Caribbean reveals that the 'lects' or distinguishable forms of language use can have a central function in the development of a local variety of English. Such a theory focuses on the variations generated in the habits of speakers rather than on the grammatical 'standard' and can be observed in the working of the Creole continuum.

The theory of the Creole continuum is a typical example of a post-colonial approach to linguistics. It reaffirms the notion of language as a practice and reintroduces the 'marginal' complexities of speakers' practice as the subject of linguistics. This undermines the tradition of post-Saussurian linguistics.

Writers in this continuum employ highly developed strategies of code-switching and vernacular transcription. This achieves a double purpose. On the one hand, it abrogates the standard English and on the other, it appropriates English as a culturally significant discourse. The theory of the Creole continuum overturns 'concentric' notions of language which regard 'standard' English as a 'core'. Creole is no longer a peripheral variation of English. It is a fact that English literature extends itself to include all texts written in language communicable to an English speaker. Elements of a very wide range of different dialects contribute to this, and the only criterion for their membership of English literature is whether they are used or not, a number of conclusions may be made from the observation of the Creole continuum which is true for all language use:

- The language is constituted of several overlapping dialects or distinguishable forms of language use.
- The variants or 'edges' of language are the substance of linguistic theory.
- The characteristics of language are in actual practice rather than a structural abstraction.

The above conclusion affirms the plurality of practices and so the linguistic theory of the Creole continuum offers a paradigmatic demonstration of the abrogating tendency in post-colonial literary theory.

### **Language and Subversion**

Some Caribbean theorists propose a distinctively political basis to the operation of the linguistic continuum. In Cliff Lashley's view, 'the official pre-emption of native conceptual space' by the imperial English resulted in the subversive practice of Jamaican adaptive code-switching, in which the Jamaican capacity to encode and decode any native linguistic-cultural sign by either of the two semiological systems is advantages; Lashley and other critics prefer to see a relationship of subversion being invoked here, not a subversion of language alone, but of the entire system of cultural assumptions on which the texts of the English canon are based and the whole discourse of metropolitan control within which they were able to be imposed. Such subversion has been characteristic of much West Indian literature and culture.

### **The Metonymic function of language variance**

It is in the practice of post-colonial writing that the abrogation of authenticity and essence most often takes place. In monoglossic, diglossic and polyglossic cultures, post-colonial writing abrogates the privileged centrality of 'English' by using language to signify differences. It does this by employing language variance, the 'part' of a wider cultural whole which assists in the process of language seizure. The introduction of language variance in this way could be seen to propose a metaphoric entry for the culture into the English text. A metaphor has always in the Western tradition had the privilege of revealing unexpected truth. According to Homi Bhabha, when the tropes of the post-colonial text are read as metonymy, language variance itself in such a text is far more profoundly metonymic of cultural difference. The variance itself becomes the metonym, the part that stands for the whole. That overlap of language when texture, sound, rhythm, and words are carried over from the mother tongue to the adapted literary form, or when the appropriate English is adapted to a new situation is something with the writers may take as evidence of their ethnographic or differentiating function – insertion of the 'truth' of culture into the text. It is commonly believed that in this way words somehow embody the culture from which they are derived.

### **ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE**

The fact that English is a global language has been already accepted by people all over the world. Newspapers and magazines have presented to the world the scenario suggesting the

universality of the language's spread and the likely hood of its continuation. Though the British Empire is in full retreat, English is still reigning in all its majesty in all these countries. The special editions of several major newspapers and magazines present the English language as an apt symbol for the themes of globalization, diversification, progress, and identity. Television programmes and series, too, addressed the issue and achieved worldwide audiences.

English news appears in headlines in many countries. Here certain questions are relevant. What does it mean exactly? Is it saying that everyone in the world speaks English? This is certainly not true. Is it saying that every country in the world recognizes English as an official language? This also is not true. If English is your mother tongue you may have mixed feelings about the way English is spreading around the world. You may feel pride that your language is a successful one. If there is one predictable consequence of a language becoming a global language, it is that nobody owns it anymore. Or rather, everyone who has learned it now owns it – 'has a share in it' might be more accurate – and he has the right to use it in the way they want.

If English is not your mother tongue, you may still have mixed feelings about it. You may be strongly motivated to learn it because it will put you in touch with more people in the world than any other language. Having made progress, you will feel pride in your achievement. And if you live in a country where the survival of your language is in danger by the success of English, you will become resentful and angry. Such feelings are natural and would arise whichever language emerged as a global language. Conflicts connected with language have involved fears, strikes, deaths, and a lot of destruction. Language is always in the news, even more when a language aspires to the status of a global language.

### **What is a global language?**

A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every county. 'Special role' here can mean several things:

\* Countries in which large numbers of people speak the language as their mother tongue. In the case of English, it is the mother tongue in Britain, the USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, several Caribbean countries, and a sprinkling in other countries (Spanish leads in this with some twenty countries in which it is the mother tongue).

\* A language can be made the official language of a country, to be used as a medium of communication in such domains as government, law-courts, the media, and the educational system. This is often described as a second language. This was the status of English in Ghana, India, Nigeria, and Singapore.

\* A language can be made a priority in a country's foreign language teaching, even though this language has no official status. Russian, for example, held privileged status for many years among the countries of the former Soviet Union. English is now the language most widely taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries such as China, Russia, Germany, Spain, Egypt, and Brazil.

\* English may share the status of official language with other languages, that is, it may have a 'semi-official' status, performing certain official roles (e.g., India, has acknowledged a special status of English in its Constitution); some make no special mention of it (e.g., Britain).

\* There are several reasons for choosing a particular language as a favoured foreign language. They include historical tradition, political expediency, and the desire for commercial, cultural, or technological contact. The 'presence' of the language can vary according to governmental support, access to libraries, schools, and institutes of higher education.

\* Though distinctions such as those between 'first', 'second', and 'foreign' language status are useful, but we must be careful not to give them a simplistic interpretation. Whatever be the status, the fluency, and ability should not be compromised.

\* Because of the three-pronged development – of a first language, second language, and foreign language features – it is inevitable that a global language will eventually come to be used by more people than any other language.

### **What makes a global language?**

\* Number alone is not the criterion to decide a global language. Latin was the international language throughout the Roman Empire. This was not because the Romans were more numerous than the peoples they subjugated. The reason is that they had power, military power, and also ecclesiastical power of Roman Catholicism.

\* There are very close links between language dominance and economic, technological and cultural power, too. Without a strong power of base, no language can make progress as an international language.

\* Only a language with aesthetic qualities, clarity of expression, literary power, or religious standing. Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Arabic, and French are among those which at various times have been lauded in such terms and English is no exception. English has less grammar than other languages, English doesn't have a lot of endings on its words, the gender system is easy to learn, etc., are some of the comments in favour of English.

\* The above-mentioned points are misconceptions. Latin with rigorous inflections becomes an international language. French, Greek, Arabic, Spanish, and Russian are highly inflected languages. The statement that English has no grammar also is not true. "The comprehensive Grammar of the English Language" contains 1800 pages.

\* The 'welcome' given to foreign vocabulary places English in contrast to some languages which have tried to keep it out (e.g. French in which a new word can be added with the sanction of the French Academy, which is almost impossible)

\* A language does not become a global one because of its intrinsic structural properties, or because of the size of its vocabulary, or because it has been a vehicle of great literature in the past. Take Latin, for example.

\* A language has traditionally become an international language for one chief reason: the power of its people, especially their political and military power. Greek became a language of international communication in the Middle East about 2000 years ago only because of the power wielded by Alexander the Great. Latin became known throughout Europe because of the power of the Roman Empire. Arabic became the language across northern Africa and the Middle East because of the spread of Islam, and so on. English also spread in the same way.

\* International language dominance is not solely the result of military power. Economically powerful ones can also expand it. Industrial and technological progress can also contribute to the development of a language.

\* English was apparently 'in the right place at the right time'. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, Britain had become the world's leading industrial and trading country. By the end of the century, the population of the USA was larger than that of any of the countries of Western Europe, and the economy was the most productive. British political imperialism had sent English around the globe, during the nineteenth century.

### **Why do we need a global language?**

\* In an international meeting of monarchs or ambassadors, the need for a common language arises.

\* When communities want to trade together to act as a lingua franca the need for a common language is felt. Sometimes they communicate with each other using a simplified language called a pidgin. Many such pidgin languages survive today.

- \* The geographical extent to which a lingua franca can be used is entirely governed by political factors. So a particular lingua franca is usually limited to a small area. To communicate with people beyond that area, a common language would be required.
- \* For international communication; especially international organizations like UN, the World Bank, Unesco, Unicef, World Health Organization, and so on are examples.
- \* Usually a small number of languages have been designated as the official language for an organization's activities. For example, when the UN was established in 1945, it had five official languages – English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese. All participants at an international meeting automatically use a single language. English is the best-suited language for this purpose.
- \* Air transport is another area where there is the need for a common language. At present English is the medium of international air traffic.
- \* Similarly telephone, radio, television, etc., are devices that have accessibility almost everywhere. If there is a common language people can share programmes through these devices.
- \* There has never been a time when so many nations were needed to talk to each other so much. There has been no other time as now when people travel so much so many distant countries. For all these what people need is a common language.

### **What are the dangers of a global language?**

- \* A global language may cultivate an elite monolingual linguistic class. The presence of a global language will make people lazy and hasten the disappearance of a minority language. Some argue that when a world language is in place, other languages will simply die away.
- \* Many think that all languages would be a good thing for such people. Some would support a universal artificial language (such as Esperanto). Some would wish a desirable return to the 'innocence' that must have been present among human beings in the days before the 'Tower of Babel' (Reference to 'Genesis').

(This last point can be quite easily dismissed: the use of single language by a community is no guarantee of social harmony or mutual understanding, as seen in the world history).

The above arguments were made regarding English. But they may be also applicable to any language that is aspiring to become a global language:



- \* Linguistic power: Those who speak a global language as a mother tongue will have certain advantages over those who speak it as a second or foreign language.
- \* Linguistic complacency: This means where a global language eliminates the motivation for adults to learn other languages. For example, an American or British tourist who travels the world assuming that everyone speaks English, does not care to learn other languages. This has happened in North America, Brazil, Australia, Indonesia, and parts of Africa.

### **Could anything stop a global language?**

Any discussion of an emerging global language has to be seen in the political context of global governance as a whole. In January 1995, the Commission on Global Governance published its report, "Our global neighbourhood". A year later, the commission's co-chairman commented that people were unhappy and critical about not stressing the need for a global language. He admitted that they were right in one respect, but were wrong in the sense that we have a world language.

The short answer to the question of whether anything could stop a language, once it achieves a global status, is 'yes'. If language dominance is a matter of political and especially economic influence, then a revolution in the balance of global power could have consequences for the choice of a global language. In a changed scenario, the universal language maybe Chinese or Arabic or even some Alien tongue.

A rather more plausible scenario is that an alternative method of communication could emerge which would eliminate the need for a global language. A chief possibility is an automatic translation. David Crystal predicts that the accuracy and speed of automatic translation are undoubtedly going to improve dramatically in the next twenty-five or fifty years.

Any language that becomes a global language should be one of opportunity and empowerment, one that guarantees the needs. Those making the decisions need to bear in mind that we may well be approaching a critical moment in human linguistic history. A global language may emerge only once. From the points discussed above, all the signs suggest that this global language will emerge only once. From the points discussed above, all the signs suggest that this global language will be English. But we have still a long way to go before a global lingua franca becomes a universal reality. Despite the remarkable growth in the use of English, at least two-thirds of the world population does not yet use it.

## **The Rise of Englishes**

David Crystal in his book "English as a Global Language" quotes Salman Rushdie's words from his essay, "Commonwealth Literature does not exist", "the English language ceased to be the sole possession of the English some time ago". Even the largest English speaking nation, the USA, has only about 20 percent of the world's English speakers. No one can now claim the ownership of English. According to Crystal, this is the best way to describe a Global language. Its usage is not restricted by countries or governing bodies.

The loss of ownership is, of course, uncomfortable to those, especially in Britain, who feel that the language is theirs by historical reasons. But the fact is that the speakers of English as a second language outnumber the speakers of English as the first language. According to statistics, in 2002 the growth rate of L<sub>2</sub> speakers of English is 2.4 percentage but that of L<sub>1</sub> is only 0.88 percent. Within the next thirty years, there would be 50 percent more L<sub>2</sub> speakers.

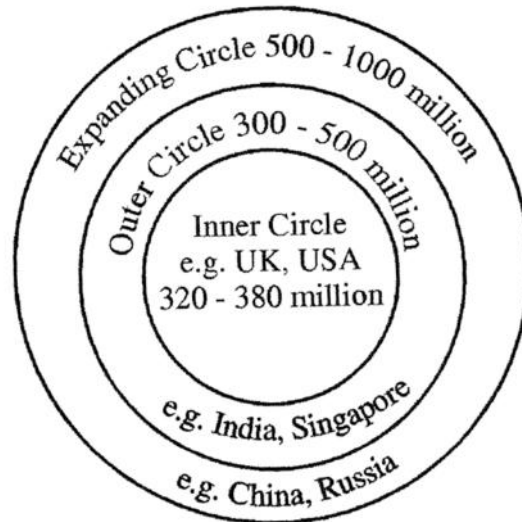
The population of India has doubled since 1960 and passed a thousand million in 1999. India's population growth is larger than that of China (1.7 percent in the late 1990s, as opposed to 1.1 percent in China). If the current English learning trends continue, this differential will continue to widen.

The spread of English around the world has already demonstrated that language will become open to the winds of linguistic change in totally unpredicted ways. The change has become a major topic of discussion only since the 1960s, and from this time onwards these changed varieties are known as "new Englishes". The different dialects of British and American English provide the most familiar example. These two varieties emerged almost as soon as the first settlers arrived in America. By the time Noah Webster was writing his dictionaries, there were hundreds of words that were known in the USA and not in Britain. Pronunciation began to change quite markedly and, spellings were also in the process of change. To-day there are thousands of differences (especially in vocabulary) between British and American varieties of English. To quote George Bernard Shaw's words, they are "two countries divided by a common language".

In quite a short time American English has settled down in its new identity and despite its dialect differences was capable of providing a united, literary standard that the new nation was able to recognize and to which it would respond.

The forces that shaped the development of American English are many and various. They have been summarized by US dialectological Frederic G. Cassidy.

Webster and many others argued that the USA should have a national or federal language independent of British English. Spelling reform also was attempted, and we find some differences between the British orthography and the American. Labour-labor, metre-meter, programme program, etc. are examples. Several attempts were made to found an academy under the leadership of Thomas Jeffer. Just as such an attempt failed in Britain, in America also other forces were at work and it did not come true.



From "English As a Global Language" –David Crystal

Many distinctive forms also identify the English of the other countries of the inner circle (see the diagram below): Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Caribbean English, and within Britain, Irish, Scots, and Welsh English. Among the counties the other circle, several varieties also have grown in distinctiveness in recent decades. There is one group in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Srilanka, often collectively called South Asian English. There is another group in the former British Colonies of East Africa. Other varieties have emerged in the Caribbean and parts of South East Asia, such as Singapore.

These Englishes are somewhat like the dialects recognized within Britain. But the difference is that they have developed at an international level, applying to whole countries or regions. Instead of affecting mere thousands of speakers, as is typically the case with rural or urban regional dialects, they apply to millions. New national dialects of English emerge when groups become separated by thousands of miles.

Dialects emerge because they give identity to the groups which own them. If you wish to tell everyone which country you belong to, an immediate and direct way of doing it is to speak distinctly. Those differences become especially noticeable in informal settings, as can be heard at a discussion group on the Internet.

International varieties express national identities and they reduce the conflict between intelligibility and identity. If a speaker from country A is using English, there is an intelligibility bond with an English speaker of country B, and this is reinforced by the existence of a common written language. On the other hand, if speaker A is not using exactly in the same way of speaking as speaker B, then both parties retain their identities.

This tendency of increasing different identities could be seen in the second half of the twentieth century when the number of independent nations dramatically grew, and the membership of the United Nations more than tripled. As a consequence, a large number of Englishes evolved. When a country became independent, the natural reaction would be to say goodbye to the colonial master's language and to look for indigenous languages to symbolize the new nationhood. But in the case of English, it worked the other way. In Nigeria, there were some 500 languages to choose from. In such situations, the only solution was to keep using the former colonial language. Gradually local distinctive mode of expression emerged, and in some cases began to be recorded, in the form of regional dictionary projects.

### **The linguistic character of New Englishes**

It is somewhat possible to answer the question of why English has become a global language. But we are still in darkness to understand what happens to the language when new languages develop from it. Historical experience alone cannot serve as a real guide. Several of the "New Englishes" in the past has been studied – notably, American and Australian English – but the way the language has evolved is likely to be very different. However, it is possible to identify several types of changes that are taking place and to gain some sense of their extent, from the case studies carried out. Here we shall discuss the grammatical and lexical issues and also some broad reference to non-segmental phonology.

### **Grammar**

When comparing British and American English, we find that grammatical differences are few and negligible. In American English the past participle of 'get' is 'gotten'; the British 'one should love one's country' becomes 'one should love his country' in American English; the British

'Have you (got) a sister'? becomes 'do you have any sister'? in American English, etc. are the few grammatical differences.

Two points are relevant in this regard. First, grammars, especially those motivated by teaching considerations, have traditionally focused on Standard English, and the same standard books were used. However, we know from international dialectology that it is here where grammatical distinctiveness is most likely to be found. New Englishes which like intranational dialects are very much bound up with issues of local identity is likely to display a similar direction of development. Second, because new varieties are chiefly associated with speech, rather than writing, they have attracted less attention. In all authentic books on English emphasize words used in writing than those used in conversations.

Traditionally, the national and the international use of English have been why people who are not just literate, but for whom literacy is a significant part of their professional identity. Educated usage has been a long-standing criterion of what counts English. The influence of the grammar of written English has thus been pervasive, fuelled by a strongly prescriptive tradition in schools an adult reliance on usage of manuals which emphasized writing over speech. Grammars devoted to speech are rare. But as English becomes increasingly global, we must expect far more attention to be paid to speech. There is every chance of new spoken varieties grow up which are only partly related to the written tradition and which may even be independent of written English. We cannot predict the grammatical changes which will take place in global spoken English.

In the more recently recognized new Englishes we find large differences compared to the ones we find between standard British and American English. David Crystal has given many tables of such grammatical changes in his "English as a Global Language". All these, he says, have been taken from Biber et al. (1999).

Just a few illustrations are given below:

- i) Why + you constructions in colloquial Singapore English: 'Why you eat so much'?

(There are parallels to this in British English and American English: "Why eat so much?" "Why do you eat so much?")

- ii) "You hold on, OK" which is somewhat impolite in British and Standard English but not considered offensive in colloquial Singapore English.

One of the grammatical features likely to occur in New Englishes is the gradual disappearance of modals. The 'core' features of English grammar will become a major feature in New Englishes.

### **Vocabulary**

Most application in a New English relates to vocabulary, in the form of new words, borrowings, word formations, word meanings, collocations, and idiomatic phrases. As soon as a language arises in a fresh location, new words enter a language. Borrowings from indigenous languages are especially noticeable. For example, the first permanent English settlement in North America was in Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607, and loan words from Indian languages were introduced into contemporary writing immediately. Captain John Smith, writing in 1608, describes a "raccoon"; "totem" is found in 1608; "caribou" and "opostum" are mentioned in 1610. Many Amerindian words became a permanent part of American English in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. But a vast number of loan words did not become part of Standard American English. In Australia also not many words were added from indigenous languages. But in contemporary New Zealand, words from Maori are increasing.

All the standard processes of lexical creation are encouraged when analyzing the linguistic distinctiveness of New Englishes. Several studies of Pakistani English have shown the important role played by the various kinds of word-formation. Compounding from English elements is found in such items as 'wheel cup' (hubcap) and 'side hero' (supporting actor), with some elements proving to be especially productive: lifter (shoplifter) has generated many new words such as 'car lifter', 'luggage lifter', 'book lifter', etc. There are also found many words with distinctive suffixation, using both English and Urdu base. Examples are 'reunification', 'cronydom', 'abscondee'[, 'wheatish', 'oftenly', 'upliftment', etc.

Sometimes a word or a phrase from a well-established variety is adopted by a New English and given a new meaning or use, without undergoing any structural change. In Jamaican English, for example, we find such meaning changes as 'cockpit' ('type of valley') and 'beverage' in the restricted sense of 'lemonade'. In Ghana, we find 'beary' in the sense of 'gorgeous' and 'brutal' in the sense of 'very nice'.

A list of lexical examples can be found in many New Englishes. Whether a word is restricted to only one country or whether it is used also in nearby countries is not clear. This is a special problem in South Asia and West Africa where the linguistic identity of several adjacent countries is in question.

When local vocabulary from all sources is collected, a regional dictionary can quickly grow to several thousand items. There are over 3000 items recorded in the first edition of the Dictionary of South African English, and later editions and collection show the number to be steadily growing. (There are 2500 entries added in 1996 edition). South African Indian English alone has 1,400. The Dictionary of New Zealand English has 6,000 entries. The Concise Australian National Dictionary has 10,000. There are over 15,000 entries in the Dictionary of Jamaican English and 20,000 in the Dictionary of Caribbean English.

Even in countries where the number of localized words is small, their effect on the character of the local English can be great for two reasons. The new words frequently used within the local community, and these words tend not to occur in isolation. If the conversation is about local politics, then the names of several political parties, slogans, and the allusions are likely to come into the same discourse.

### **Code-Switching**

Code-Switching refers to the process in which people rely simultaneously on two or more languages to communicate with each other. Even in British English, we find instances of clause or sentence chunks being borrowed from a foreign language. Code-switching is increasingly noticeable in newly emerging Englishes. Any loan word can be taken as a minimalist example of code-switching, but the notion is more pervasive when it is found in stretches of utterance which can be given a syntactic structure. David Crystal cites an example given by McArthur, of a leaflet issued by the Hong Kong bank in 1994 for Filipino workers in Hong Kong who send money home to their families. It is a bilingual leaflet, in English and Tagalog, but in the Tagalog section, a great deal of English is mixed. This kind of language is often described using a compound name – in this case, 'Taglish' (for Tagalog English).

Mixed varieties of language involving English are now found everywhere. *Franglais*, *Tex Mex*, *Chinglish*, *Japlish*, *Singlish*, *Spanglish*, *Denglish*, *Manglish* (Malayalam English), etc. are some examples.

Mc Arthur aimed to draw attention to the remarkable messiness which characterizes the current world English situation, especially in second language contexts. A New English is not a homogenous entity with clear cut boundaries, and easily definable phonology, grammar, and lexicon. On the contrary, communities that are putting English to use are doing so in several different ways. To quote McArthur, "stability and flux go side by side, centripetal and centrifugal forces operating at the same time". Hybrid languages come up in almost all countries. In Malaysia,

for example, there is 'Malenglish'. David Crystal gives a sample conversation between two lawyers. One is a Tamilian and the other is Chinese. Both have learned English and Malay as additional languages. The conversation brings to light the highest degree of hybridization. This kind of hybridization can also be seen in Creoles.

### **Other Domains**

Grammar and vocabulary are not the only domains within which linguistic distinctiveness manifests itself among the New Englishes: pragmatic and discursal domains also need to be taken into account. But the problem is that no systematic study of these aspects is available. All that we have is a collection of isolated observations.

Here a distinction is to be made between 'syllable-timed' languages and 'stress-timed' languages. Phonetic languages are mostly syllable-timed, but unphonetic languages are generally stress-timed. French, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Hindi, Yoruba, Telugu, Indonesian, and the majority of languages of the world are syllable-timed. English, Russian, Arabic, Portuguese, Swedish, Thai, German, and Welsh are examples of stress-timed languages.

What is meant by syllable-timed and stress-timed? In syllable-timed languages, every syllable has equal stress. The difference is made between long syllables and short syllables. A syllable becomes long when there is a long vowel in it; a short syllable is the one with a short vowel. All the languages of India except Sindhi are syllable-timed.

In stress-timed languages, the stressed syllables occur at equal time intervals. In other words, whether there is or there is not one or more unstressed syllables between two stressed syllables, the time interval between them will be the same. The following example may make it clear.

My 'friend has ar' ranged for my re' turn' trip.

In the above sentence, there are ten syllables. But only four of them are stressed. Between the first two stressed syllables, there are two unstressed syllables; between the second and third stressed syllables there are three unstressed syllables; between the third and fourth stressed syllables, there are no unstressed syllables. The time intervals between the stressed syllables will be the same regardless of the presence or absence of unstressed syllables.

British and American Standard English follow a stress-timed rhythm. Even in second language situations, this system is followed in pedagogy. But, when the first language of the



second language speakers is syllable-timed, there is the possibility of mixing up syllable-timed and stress-timed rhythms.

## **THE FUTURE OF ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE**

English is already an international language. Various factors opened the way of English to an international level. Historical and political reasons are there. The establishing of colonies in various parts of the world allowed the entry of English into those countries. As the language of the rulers, English got more acceptance in a large number of countries such as France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, and China where English was introduced as a foreign language particularly suitable to use as a language for higher education.

The international organization like the UN, the UNESCO, WHO, and so on accepted English as their medium. The world leaders who speak different languages felt the need for a common language, and the lot fell on English. English is also the medium of International Air Traffic. English is a rich language with rich literature. Books on science and technology are available in plenty in English, and so it is the best medium for education in these subjects. English is spoken as the first language in several countries (Britain, America, Australia, Canada, Newzealand, South Africa and so on). It is used as a second language or a foreign language in almost all other countries (India, Pakistan, Srilanka, Bangladesh, France, Russia, China and so on).

English has certain features that make it unique. These include:

### **\* Cosmopolitan Vocabulary**

The most prominent among the assets of the English language is its mixed vocabulary. English is classified as a Teutonic language. It belongs to the group of languages to which is included German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, Swedish and Norwegian. English shares with these languages a similar grammatical structure and many common words. Besides, English shares a large number of words from Greek, Latin, French, and some through the Romance Languages. Thousands of words from all the known languages in the world also were added to the English vocabulary. We have discussed this with plenty of examples in the earlier part of this book.

### **\* Inflectional simplicity**

All the classical languages and most other languages of the world are fully inflected. Inflection refers to the part of the same word ending with different terminations. English was fully inflected in its early periods. But modern English is free from inflection to a large extent. This is a feature that makes English more convenient than many others.

## **Nature Gender**

English enjoys an exceptional advantage over all other major European languages in having adopted natural gender as against grammatical gender. Natural gender means that all that is male is masculine, all that is female is feminine, and that which is neither male nor female is neuter.

The above features are of great advantage in facilitating the learning of English by foreigners. At the same time, there are certain difficulties that foreign students encounter in the matter of English. The chaotic character of spelling, word accent, intonation, the discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation, etc., is difficult areas.

## **The Future of English as an International Language**

The course of the English language is going to be influenced by those who speak it as a second or foreign language as by those who speak it as a mother tongue. The total number of mother-tongue speakers in the world is steadily falling. A linguistic fashion can be started by a group of second/foreign language learners or by those who speak a Creole or Pidgin variety, which then catches on among others. As the numbers grow, and second/foreign speakers gain in national and international prestige, it is likely that some of the traditional rules of concord change according to the fashion of New Englishes (e.g. furnitures, kitchenwares, etc. may become part of standard educated speech).

The new varieties of English will become powerful and prestigious. Though there are few studies about this, impressionistically, we can see several of these linguistic features increasing in their respective countries. New words are introduced, and they are written without inverted commas or gloss. These words first come with some effort but soon become popular. An example may be the popularity enjoyed by Maori words in Singapore English. Some of the Maori grammatical features such as the dropping of the definite article are also found in it. These local words begin to be used by politicians, religious leaders, socialites, pop-musicians, and so on, and ultimately they become respectable terms.

These people who are important in their countries as politicians or pop-stars or the like, start traveling abroad. The rest of the world look up to them, and when they speak in an international gathering (political, educational, economic, artistic) they may use deliberately or unselfconsciously, a word or phrase from their own country which would not be found in the traditional standards of British or American English. Had it been in the past, it would have been condemned as a wrong usage. But to-day if the visitors are people of more importance than the visited, their new words will be accepted as correct usage. Thus linguistic features are raised from

a national level to an international level. These days, regional national varieties of English increasingly are being used with prestige at the international level.

When actual examples of language in use are analyzed, in such multilingual settings as Malaysia and Singapore, we immediately encounter varieties which make use of the different levels of code-mixing. Conversations of that kind, between well-educated people, are now heard at grass root level in communities all over the English speaking world. Though there are attempts made by some heads of governments to discourage the use of non-standard English, New Englishes tend to become standardized.

Despite such efforts, New Englishes are thriving. Singlish must now be a significant presence in Singapore, both for its attraction and condemnation. And the nature of the reaction also well illustrates the nature of the problem which all New Englishes encounter, in their early stages. It is the same problem that older varieties of English also encounter; the view that there can only be one kind of English, the standard kind, and that all others should be eliminated. This view first became dominant in the eighteenth century; Britain and a few other countries have taken some 250 years to achieve it in educational curricula. The contemporary view, as represented in the UK National Curriculum is to maintain the importance of Standard English while at the same time maintaining the value of local accents and dialects. The reasoning behind this is that language has many functions.

The same arguments apply, with even greater force, on a global scale. English is developing a strong non-native presence and at all levels. Teachers of English as a second or foreign language have to deal with the situation, with students increasingly arriving in the classroom speaking a dialect which is marked differently from Standard English. The question of how much local phonology, grammar, local vocabulary, and pragmatics should be allowed in is difficult and contentious. However, there is a trend around the English speaking world to approve of many expressions that were penalized as local and low class. How far this trend develops depends on economic and social factors more than anything else. If the people who use these new varieties become more influential, attitude will change and shortly we shall find ourselves an English language that contains large areas of contact influenced vocabulary borrowed from other languages.

There are already over 350 languages given as vocabulary sources in the files of the Oxford English dictionary. There are already over 250 words with Malay as part of their etymology in the OED. So, the foundation had already been laid. The contact language words of the future will of course include more alternative rather than supplementary expressions-localized words for

everyday notions, such as tables and chairs, rather than for regionally restricted notions such as fauna and flora.

### **The Impact of Science and Technology on the English Vocabulary**

Some of the political and social events in the nineteenth century and the early twentieth century affected the English-speaking countries. But more influential in this respect are the great developments of science and technology. Intellectual activity during this period was amazing. There was rapid progress in science. A period of great enterprise and activity seems generally to be accompanied by a corresponding increase in new words. This becomes true when all the people participate in that activity and share in its benefits. As a result of this, industry develops, interests in sports and amusements increase, standards of living rise, and so on. In proportion to these developments, new words also come up.

### **The Growth of Science**

Science plays a very important role in our day-to-day life. The best example is the tremendous progress that the medical field has achieved. In diagnosis, treatment, prevention, and cure of disease, bacteriology, biochemistry, etc. science has had a remarkable role. Now we enjoy the comforts from the telephone, electric refrigerators and the hydroelectric power plants. Both from pure and applied fields of science thousands of new words have been added to the English vocabulary.

### **Medicine**

Acidosis, anemia, appendicitis, arteriosclerosis, bronchitis, diphtheria, and names of numerous other diseases and ailments are newly coined words, Homeopathic, Osteopathy, bacteriology, immunology orthodontia, etc. form another group of new words. Clinics, administer an antitoxin, or an anesthetic, and vaccinate are another set. Besides, there are the names of new drugs like aspirin, iodine, insulin, morphine, strychnine. To them, we can add the names of antibiotics. Such as penicillin, streptomycin, and all sorts of sulfa compounds. We also speak of adenoids, endocrine glands, and hormones. The stethoscope and the bronchoscope are other words connected with medicine.

This is also the case with every other branch of science. From the field of electricity we can think of words like dynamo, commutator, alternating, current, arc, light, etc. In physics, words like calorie, electron, tonization, ultraviolet rays, the quantum theory, and relativity appeared. Also, the words atom, atomic, energy, radioactive, hydrogen bomb, chain reaction, etc. were added.

Chemistry got the words alkali benzine, cyanide, creosote, nitroglycerine, radium, etc. New terms also appeared in psychology such as apperception, egocentric, extravert, introvert, hallucination, inhibition, inferiority complex, and psychoanalysis.

Scientific discoveries and inventions in various fields also contribute to new terms. The automobile industry uses many old words in new senses. 'To park' suggests to an ordinary person to leave one's vehicle along the side of a street or road or in parking space. But it is an old word, as a military term (to park cannon) and later as carriages. The word automobile and the more common word in England, motor car, are new, but such words as sedan, coach, coupe, run about are terms adapted from earlier types of vehicles. New words like carburettor, spark plug, choke, clutch, gear shift, piston rings, throttle, steering, wheel, self-starter, shock absorber, radiator, hood (bonnet) windshield, bumper, chassis, hubcap, tubeless tyres etc. are in common use now.

The moving picture and the radio are other fields in which new words made their entry recently 'Cinema' and 'Moving picture' began to be used from 1800. 'Motion picture' came later, Screen reel, newsreel, film, scenario, projector, close up, fade-out, feature, animated and cartoon are now common. The word 'radio' began to be used from 1925. Many technical terms such as the variable condenser, radiofrequency, transformer, input, inductance, kilocycle became popularly used later. Several other expressions like listen to, standby, hook up, selectivity, loudspeaker, aerial, antenna, FM (Frequency Modulation) are also used now.

World-wars also contributed largely to the vocabulary of English. Many military terms appeared during the First World War; air raid, battleplane, antiaircraft gun, tank, whippet (-a small tank), and blimp (a small dirigible). Other expressions popularised by the war were dugout, machine gun, periscope, no man's land, slacker, trench foot, cootie, and war bridge.

World War II was less productive concerning new words. But a few ones like blackout, blitz, blockbuster, drive-bombing, evacuate air-raid shelter, etc. were contributed by it. Many of the newly coined words are not listed in the dictionary. In course of time, they will appear in the various lexicons.

### **English in the Digital Age**

The technologies enabling print-based books are 'natural' to English studies. Stuart Lee argues for the close synergy between IT and the study of literature, based on a list of core literacy skills for English studies listed in 'The English Bookmarking Statement' namely, the close reading and analysis of texts; the ability to articulate knowledge; sensitivity to the contexts that shape texts, their production, and reception; and biographic skills. In this list, the core skills required for the

study of printed texts are thought of as the same for electronic texts. The increasing number of primary texts collected and available through the Web is one of the main reasons why students rely greatly on electronic resources and why electronic texts increasingly find their way onto the syllabi.

According to Alan Liu, there is a close relation existing between textuality and the information technologies that control and manipulate. Liu argues that the best strategy for the survival of the humanities is not to ignore but to engage IT to imagine and promote a knowledge society that is congruent with the tradition of humanities scholarship, as opposed to that of post-industrial capitalism.

Jim O' Loughlin presents a similar argument. The decline in humanities funding and student numbers coincides for the most part with the large-scale adoption of computers in the educational environment. This coincidence makes O'Loughlin speculate that, in a digital age, the humanities are no longer perceived as offering the computer-based knowledge that is identified with the kind of "cultural capital" sought from institutions of higher education. The challenge of providing subject-specific context for the acquisition of computer literacy poses both problems and possibilities.

The recent concept in copy protection is Digital Rights Management (DRM) such as the e-Book reader. DRM has had limited success but is becoming more ubiquitous (Apple's iPod and iTunes service used DRM technology, as does just anything built for Windows)

Independent of issues of copying and distribution, one of the most significant effects of the spread of networking and computer literacy has been the blurring of the line between software and writing. The act of "publishing" a text has become more national than practical for anyone who has access to Web and a bit of HTML

Digital cameras are nearly ubiquitous as sound and video editing software. There is, of course, the perennial question of plagiarism. Companies are claiming to be able to spot plagiarists. The expansion of intellectual property law combined with the new possibilities resulting from the internet and the widespread of software and network raises both practical and theoretical questions for the humanities.

### **English Studies and IT: A Natural Synergy**

UK's Quality Assurance Agency in its 'English Benchmarking Statement' identifies the following key skills as guidelines to instill in students: critical skills in the close reading and analysis of texts:

- ability to articulate knowledge and understanding of texts, concepts, and theories relating to English studies;
- sensitivity to generic conventions and to be shaping effects upon communication, authorship, textual production, and intended audience;
- responsiveness to the central role of language in the creation of meaning and a sensitivity to the affective power of language;
- rhetorical skills of effective communication and argument, both oral and written;
- command of a broad range of vocabulary and an appropriate critical terminology;
- bibliographic skills appropriate to the discipline, including accurate citation of sources and consistent use of conventions in the presentation of scholarly work;
- awareness of how different social and cultural contexts affect the nature of language and meaning;
- understanding of how cultural norms and assumptions influence questions of judgment;
- comprehension of the complex nature of literary language, and an awareness of relevant research by which they may be better, understood.

The above guidelines had in mind the study of literature through the printed medium. But these could apply to any form, including electronic texts. The skills needed to analyze and criticize the production and dissemination of electronic texts are available on the World Wide Web. As the Web is authored by literate people wishing to communicate some information or to provide access to a set of sources, readers can interact with the information in a certain way. Two well-known theorists behind the "web" are Ted Nelson and George Landow, who have good literary backgrounds. The following quote from a recent English Subject Centre report seems to be relevant in this regard:

"The possibilities for the applications of IT in English are potentially extensive since the advent of the World Wide Web (www) has resulted in a proliferation of textuality. English is pre-eminently placed to engage critically the textual and discursive production that attends the Internet Age. The subject as a whole, however, has not embraced this opportunity" (Hanrahan, 200-3).

## **English Studies and IT**

Three areas could be seen to be enforcing the adoption of IT into the English syllabus. The first is what it means to be 'literate' in the twenty-first century. The use of IT has been recognized as a basic literary requirement for all professional, and many social, activities, Elizabeth Daley, Dean of the School of Cinema-Television at the University of Southern California, has proposed a good model for this. In her article "Expanding the Concept of Literacy" she makes the following suggestions:

1. The multimedia language of the screen has become the new vernacular.
2. The multimedia language of the screen can construct complex meanings independent of the text.
3. The multimedia language of the screen enables modes of thought, ways of communication, and conducting research, and methods of publication and teaching that are essentially different from those of text.
4. Lastly, following the previous three arguments, those who are truly literate in the twenty-first century will be those who learn to both read and write the multimedia language of the screen.

Many students have already attained literacy as it is defined by Daley. All our graduates must achieve these in some way before they move to the job sector or postgraduate study. It is not solely the responsibility of the English department to instill these new literacy skills. This should be included in the English syllabus.

It is important for another reason, too. All the jobs our students will go into will require IT skills. Brennan and William (2003, 2004) have noted that one of the key areas where job-seeking English graduates felt as a disadvantage was that they lacked the necessary IT skills. The following is a quote from a recent report on IT and English, prepared by the English Subject Centre:

“While most students of English know how to word process, use e-mail and probably make use of limited search facilities, the integration of the new technology into the experience of English education nationwide HEFCE summary report of the Quality Assessment round in English (93-94) ----- highlighted this area as a deficit in English" (Hanrahan 2002, 3).

- Make more use of electronic resources in the teaching of literature, and more importantly, to train students on how to use these resources in the areas of American and British



literature. Students will become familiar with the Internet, which will then be accepted as another resource, like the library.

- Another solution is the creation of resources such as a website to support a popular subject. The main advantage of this is the ability to produce something that specially targets local teaching needs.
- The third option is to consider in addition to the syllabus namely modules aimed especially at the interaction between English and IT, in a manner that is both applicable and appropriate to literature students. It will be like the E-Lit option currently offered at Oxford University.

### **The Introduction of 'E-lit: IT and English Language and Literature' – the Oxford Model**

At the University of Oxford third-year, English literature students are offered a series of options, one of which is E-lit: IT and English Language and Literature. This is an assessed course with the marks ultimately going towards their final honours. This is a new course. It aims to introduce students to the potential uses of IT in the study, publication, and authorship of English literary works and English language use.

The structure of the course is set at 1.5-hour classes, followed by three weeks of unsupervised work on the student's project. The learning outcomes of the course expected are the following:

- How new technologies directly impact the way people research and teach English literature and language.
- How the world of writing and publishing is changing because of the information age, plus obtaining an overall view of the current electronic publishing industry.
- The history of the main computer-based English literature/language projects from the earliest ideas in the 1940s up to the present day.
- What English literature/language resources are available on the Web and how to evaluate them.
- What a hypertext novel is, and what an electronic book is, and how they are written, read, and published.

- How the computer can help in analysing literary texts (that is, authorship studies) and equally important how it can be used to help in the study of the English language.
- Essential transferable skills will be invaluable when seeking a job or research position in academia, the media, publishing, teaching, and so on.

In short, students should be able to use most of the computer applications employed by literary scholars, use the Web effectively to create a web-site, design web pages, and evaluate web sites.

The course is assessed in two forms. During the six weeks of classes the students are asked to submit two essays, these are commented upon, but not graded as such. The first one usually takes the form of selecting a web site or an electronic resource related to English literature, and the students are asked to critically evaluate it using guides presented as well as their skills acquired during the previous two years of study. The second essay concentrates on the use of electronic text analysis tools to pursue literary and linguistic studies. The course is generally taught by three lectures, and outside of class, contact is maintained via bulletin board within a virtual learning environment.

The second form of assessment is summative and is graded. In the sixth week of the course, the students are presented with a list of "topics". They are asked to choose a topic and to build a website around it aimed at the first-year undergraduate audience. Besides, they should supply a 300-word essay/report to support the site.

### **The merits and demerits of the course**

The reason for the success of the course is that it was designed as a collaborative effort among the three lecturers. A lot of student activity is involved in the course. There used to be plenty of discussions, and students got the opportunity to make their observations and express their critical views. The main strength of the course was the amount of effort put into student support.

There were also some negative observations of the course. When it came to the final assessment assessors and students encountered problems and students were in anxiety about the criteria by which they were going to be assessed. Assessors found it difficult to decide the merit of the performance because students learned through different technologies. To solve this problem they produced a set of evaluation criteria for the students as well as the assessors.

## Evaluation of the course

A variety of methods were employed to assist in the evaluation such as online student feedback questionnaires; peer observation by colleagues who were asked to sit in the class and observe any problems or issues and suggest possible improvements; and internal review at the end of the course. These evaluation methods yielded a considerable amount of information, which the three lecturers teaching the course analysed.

Courses such as the one discussed above are apt for the E-Lit option for several reasons. The notable presence of student activities comes first. The breaks within the lectures allow engagement between lecturers and students and the opportunity for collaboration between students.

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