



UNIT - IX
HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

4 Theories

- ❖ Bow-vow Theory – imitation of sounds
- ❖ Ding-dong theory – objects in the environment
- ❖ Pooh-pooh Theory - interjections
- ❖ Ye-He-hoe Theory – grunts and groans

Place of English in the Indo –European Family

- ❖ Saten (Avestan) group of languages
- ❖ Centum(Latin) Group of languages
- ❖ West Germanic – Anglo-Frisian – English

Old English period (600 – 1100 A.D)

- ❖ Front mutation –i
- ❖ Back mutation- e
- ❖ 730 The Venerable Bede produced his Ecclesiastical History of the English People, recording the early history of the English people.
- ❖ Homogeneous language
- ❖ Nouns have 5 cases

Middle English period (1100-1500 A.D)

- ❖ Norman Conquest – 1066
- ❖ Evolved out of King Alfred's English
- ❖ Loss of inflexions or Levelled inflexions
- ❖ Hundred Year's War (1337-1453)
- ❖ Black Death (1348-50)
- ❖ Wat Tyler's Rebellion or Peseant's Revolt (1381)
- ❖ John Wycliffe died, having promoted the first complete translation of Scripture into the English language (the Wycliff Bible – 1384)
- ❖ Caxton printing press – 1476
- ❖ vast number of French words & fixed spelling due to printing press

Modern English period (1500- Present Day)

- ❖ The Book of Common Prayer was adopted and became an influence on
- ❖ English literary style - 1549
- ❖ Robert Cawdrey published the first English dictionary, A Table Alphabetical – 1604
- ❖ Authorized version of Bible king James I – 1611
- ❖ THE FIRST Daily News paper was published in London - 1702
- ❖ Samuel Johnson published his Dictionary of the English Language - 1755

Renaissance – study of classics enriched borrowings from latin & Greek

- ❖ Reformation – Translation of Bible –
- ❖ Authorised Version – 1611
- ❖ Tyndale’s Bible – 1525
- ❖ Coverdale’s Bible - 1535
- ❖ Printing Press
- ❖ Caxton -1476
- ❖ Johnson’s Dictionary – 1755
- ❖ Great Vowel Shift
- ❖ Loss of inflexions
- ❖ Great Vowel Shift

Growth of Vocabulary

- ❖ Oxford Dictionary records – 4,00,000 words (2000)
- ❖ Johnson’s Dictionary Records – 48,000 words
- ❖ Shakespeare used – 20,000 words
- ❖ Milton used – 8,000 words
- ❖ Imitation or Onomatopoea – hiss
- ❖ Syncopation – once/ones – Else/ells – vowel is removed – one syllable lost
- ❖ Telescoping – over+all = overall
- ❖ Metaanalysis – at home – a tome
- ❖ Portmanteau words – tragedy + comedy = Tragic comedy
- ❖ Back formation – begger – beg
- ❖ Misunderstanding – good bye – god be with you
- ❖ False etymology – posthumous – coming after in order of time

Change of Meaning

- ❖ Polysemy – multiple meanings
- ❖ Narrowing – specialization
- ❖ Euphemism – avoiding unpleasant references
- ❖ Extension/transference – combination of general+ special
- ❖ Polarization – emotional significance

Makers of English language

- ❖ Tyndale – Long suffering/ Peace Maker /Stumbling Block/broken hearted
- ❖ Coverdale – loving kindness/Noon Day/Kind hearted/ blood guiltiness
- ❖ Spenser - known for distinctive idiolect – spenser writ no language – Ben Johnson
- ❖ Drown shed/detainment fool – Middle English prefix ‘y’ is kept alive in spenser
- ❖ Shakespeare – orb/dwindle/this mortal coil/yeoman service/the glass of fashion/
- ❖ Daniel come to judgment/ full of sound and fury
- ❖ Milton - darkness visible/pandemonium/ moonstruck – quotations – confusion more Confounded human face
- ❖ Johnson – prefixed the dictionary with an account of grammar of a language
- ❖ Influential lexicographer- maker of prose

Linguistics

- ❖ Linguists interested in language structure consider the formal properties of language, including word structure (morphology), sentence structure (syntax), speech sounds and the rules and patterns between them (phonetics and phonology), and meaning in language (semantics and pragmatics).

Phonetics

- ❖ **PHONETICS** studies speech sounds , including the production of speech ,that is how speech sounds are actually made , transmitted and received ,the sounds of speech ,the description and classification of speech sounds ,words and connected speech ,etc.
- ❖ **PHONOLOGY** studies the rules governing the structure, distribution, and sequencing of speech sounds and the shape of syllables.
- ❖ **MORPHOLOGY** is concerned with the internal organization of words. The study of the way in which words is constructed out of smaller units which have a meaning or grammatical function, for example the word friendly is constructed from friend and the adjective-forming –ly.
- ❖ **LEXICOGRAPHY**: The compiling of dictionaries. Lexicography could be seen as a branch of applied linguistics
- ❖ **SYNTAX** is about principles of forming and understanding correct English sentences. The study of how words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences.
- ❖ **SEMANTICS** examines how meaning is encoded in a language. The study of meaning; how words and sentences are related to the real or imaginary objects they refer to and the situations they describe.

- ❖ **PRAGMATICS** is the study of meaning in context. The study of the use of language in communication, particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts and situations in which they are used such as time, place, social relationship between speaker and hearer, and speaker's assumptions about the hearer's belief.
- ❖ **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**: The study of language in relation to social factors such as social class, educational level, age, sex and ethnic origin. Such areas as the study of language choice in bilingual or multilingual communities, language planning or language attitudes can also be included.
- ❖ **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**: The study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews etc.
- ❖ **STYLISTICS**: The study of that variation in language which is dependent on the situation in which the language is used and also on the effect the writer/speaker wishes to create on the reader/hearer. Stylistics tries to establish principles capable of explaining the particular choices made by individuals and social groups in their use of language.
- ❖ **LITERARY STYLISTICS**: The analysis of literary texts applying linguistic methods and theories (phonetics, morphology, syntax, discourse analysis, pragmatics, etc.) with the aim of providing retrievable interpretations which allow comparisons of different texts, genres (fiction, drama and poetry) etc.
- ❖ **PSYCHOLINGUISTICS**: The study of the mental processes underlying the planning, production, perception and comprehension of speech, for example how memory limitations affect speech production and comprehension. The best developed branch of psycholinguistics is the study of language acquisition.
- ❖ **APPLIED LINGUISTICS**: The application of the methods and results of linguistics to such areas as language teaching; national language policies; translation; language in politics, advertising, classrooms and courts (forensic linguistics).
- ❖ **COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS**: Computational linguists study natural languages, such as English and Japanese, rather than computer languages, such as Fortran, or Java. The field of computational linguistics has two aims: the technological aim to enable computers to be used as aids in analysing and processing natural language and the psychological aim to understand, by analogy with computers, more about how people process natural languages. It also includes research on automatic translation, electronic production of artificial speech and the automatic recognition of human speech.

PHONOLOGY

- ❖ A branch of linguistics
- ❖ Study of the sound structure of languages
- ❖ How speech sounds are used to convey meaning.
- ❖ **Phonemes** are the meaningfully different sound units in a certain language (the smallest units of sound). For example, 'pat' and 'bat' differ in their first phoneme.
- ❖ **Allophones** are the various ways in which the phonemes can be realized as actual phonetic speech sounds, and can give rise to different pronunciations of the same word.
- ❖ **Minimal pairs** are pairs of words or phrases in a particular language, which differ in only one phonological element, such as a phoneme, toneme or chroneme and have distinct meanings. They are used to demonstrate that two phones constitute two separate phonemes in the language.
- ❖ **Open syllable** a syllable that ends with a vowel.
- ❖ **Closed Syllable** a syllable that ends with a consonant.
- ❖ **Elision or deletion** is the omission of one or more sounds (such as a vowel, a consonant, or a whole syllable) in a word or phrase, producing a result that is easier for the speaker to pronounce. Sometimes, sounds may be elided for euphonic effect. Verb: elide.
- ❖ **Assimilation** the process by which a speech sound becomes similar or identical to a neighboring sound. eg. Handbag

MORPHOLOGY

- ❖ The study of the internal structure of words
- ❖ **Morpheme**: minimal meaningful unit
- ❖ **Free morpheme**: Free morphemes can function independently as words (e.g. town, dog) and can appear with other lexemes (e.g. town hall, doghouse)
- ❖ **Bound Morphemes**: Bound morphemes appear only as parts of words, always in conjunction with a root and sometimes with other bound morphemes. For example, un- appears only accompanied by other morphemes to form a word. Most bound morphemes in English are affixes, particularly prefixes and suffixes, examples of suffixes are: tion, ation, ible, ing, etc. Bound morphemes that are not affixes are called cranberry morphemes.
- ❖ Bound morphemes can be further classified as derivational or inflectional.
- ❖ **Derivational morphemes**, when combined with a root, change either the semantic meaning or part of speech of the affected word. For example, in the word happiness, the addition of the bound morpheme -ness to the root happy changes the word from an adjective (happy) to a noun (happiness). In the word unkind, un- functions as a derivational morpheme, for it inverts the meaning of the word formed by the root kind.

- ❖ **Inflectional morphemes** modify a verb's tense or a noun's number without affecting the word's meaning or class. Examples of applying inflectional morphemes to words are adding -s to the root dog to form dogs and adding -ed to wait to form waited. In English, there are eight inflections.

Allomorphs

- ❖ Allomorphs are variants of a morpheme that differ in pronunciation but are semantically identical. For example, in English, the plural marker -(e)s of regular nouns can be pronounced /-z/, /-s/, or /-iz/, depending on the final sound of the noun's singular form.

Idiolect

- ❖ In linguistics, an idiolect is an individual's distinctive and unique use of language, including speech. This unique usage encompasses vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Idiolect is the variety of language unique to an individual.

Dialect

- ❖ a variety of a language that signals where a person comes from. The notion is usually interpreted geographically (regional dialect), in relation to a person's social background (class dialect) or occupation (occupational dialect). The word dialect comes from the Ancient Greek dialektos "discourse, language, dialect," which is derived from dialegesthai "to discourse, talk." A dialect is chiefly distinguished from other dialects of the same language by features of linguistic structure—i.e., grammar (specifically morphology and syntax) and vocabulary.

Transformational Generative Grammar

- ❖ A theory of grammar that accounts for the constructions of a language by linguistic transformations and phrase structures.
- ❖ Following the publication of Noam Chomsky's book Syntactic Structures in 1957, transformational grammar (also known as transformational-generative grammar) dominated the field of linguistics for the next three decades.
- ❖ "The new linguistics, which began in 1957 with the publication of Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures, deserves the label 'revolutionary.' After 1957, the study of grammar would no longer be limited to what is said and how it is interpreted. In fact, the word grammar itself took on a new meaning. The new linguistics defined grammar as our innate, subconscious ability to generate language, an internal system of rules that constitutes our human language capacity. The goal of the new linguistics was to describe this internal grammar.

- ❖ Unlike the structuralists, whose goal was to examine the sentences we actually speak and to describe their systemic nature, the transformationalists wanted to unlock the secrets of language: to build a model of our internal rules, a model that would produce all of the grammatical--and no ungrammatical--sentences.
- ❖ When it comes to syntax, [Noam] Chomsky is famous for proposing that beneath every sentence in the mind of a speaker is an invisible, inaudible deep structure, the interface to the mental lexicon. The deep structure is converted by transformational rules into a surface structure that corresponds more closely to what is pronounced and heard. The rationale is that certain constructions, if they were listed in the mind as surface structures, would have to be multiplied out in thousands of redundant variations that would have to have been learned one by one, whereas if the constructions were listed as deep structures, they would be simple, few in number, and economically learned.
- ❖ Transformational Grammar and the Teaching of Writing
- ❖ Though it is certainly true, as many writers have pointed out, that sentence-combining exercises existed before the advent of transformational grammar, it should be evident that the transformational concept of embedding gave sentence combining a theoretical foundation upon which to build. By the time Chomsky and his followers moved away from this concept, sentence combining had enough momentum to sustain itself.
- ❖ The Transformation of Transformational Grammar
- ❖ Chomsky initially justified replacing phrase-structure grammar by arguing that it was awkward, complex, and incapable of providing adequate accounts of language. Transformational grammar offered a simple and elegant way to understand language, and it offered new insights into the underlying psychological mechanisms.
- ❖ The tinkering failed to solve most of the problems because Chomsky refused to abandon the idea of deep structure, which is at the heart of T-G grammar but which also underlies nearly all of its problems. Such complaints have fueled the paradigm shift to cognitive grammar.