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HISTORICAL, SOCIAL, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND NEUROLOGICAL EVOLUTION OF (THE ENGLISH) LANGUAGE

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CONTENTS

ABSTRACT

This dissertation seeks to bring under one umbrella the many linguistical approaches towards language study in relation to English. Linguistics has several branches, of which, Historical Linguistics, Sociolinguistics and Comparative Linguistics are quite popular and have been in academia for a long time. Psycholinguistics has entered the realm of academics rather late in terminology, and Neurolinguistics, even later, although studies related to their subject matter have been around from times of antiquity.

This dissertation explores the evolution of language and then traces the firm footing of the English Language, and its gradual but steady march of expansion.

Neurological and Psychological explanations of language evolution have been offered in the evolutionary stages, a feature which is ignored in most books on linguistics, which trace the historical origins only, and mention the Neurolinguistics and Psycholinguistics in their scope much later. This work explores the Neurological and Psychological processes at work in the processes of word formation too, along with the commonly found syntactical and semantic processes. As such, this work is innovative in its discussion and presentation of the researches on language theories across the branches of linguistics. The originality of the research is that this dissertation also contains several propositions by the author himself towards language in areas of neurolinguistics, particularly, in the naming of new terms related to language areas in the brain, and in advancing the theory in support of language being an innate quality present due to evolution, by providing a hypothesis hitherto not presented. The research also lays the foundation of a new approach for studying language acquisition, namely, formative view of language learning. The research is up to date, as it includes the latest developments in the use of English language for artificial intelligence, in the shaping of the humanoid Sophia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am thankful to my friends and colleagues, who have provided support to me in my writing career, and who urged me to write the book, because of the dearth of such books in the market.

I am thankful to the scholars who have made some very valuable images copyright free, or licensed them for use with attribution. All such instances have been cited where the images are given, with web links to the original pictures.

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I am indebted to the technological advancement, making it possible to use dictionaries in our mobile phones (the "smart phones"). All etymological entries and roots have been given by looking up the Concise Oxford Dictionary of Etymology (online app), the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (online app) and Wiktionary (online app).

The Biblical quotes which are found in the text follow the KJV edition, in modern language.

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I am exceptionally grateful to Jack Daniel for the wonderful illustration of Anglo-Saxon runes, and for keeping it in the public domain. The original image can be viewed by visiting:

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I am grateful to the faculty and other staff members of Selinus University, who have been patient to all my queries and have solved them with skill. The support which I got from them was outmatched by their cordiality and hospitality to help.

1. **PEOPLES AND LANGUAGES**

There is hardly anything English about the English language, as a mere study of its history shall reveal. This chapter will trace the origins of how it all started – how the population of the world spread and how languages came up with the spread of population.

People and Peoples

Before going further into the topic, a confusion must be cleared from which speakers of English suffer in general – the plural ending *peoples*. For most, this word does not exist, and is ungrammatical. Yet, the word is found in the Bible a lot of the times, and the preamble of the United Nations uses *peoples* instead of *people*. What then, is the distinction?

People is used in general to refer collectively to a group of persons, and as such, the word does not have a plural.

However, *people* is used not just as a noun, but as a pronoun as well. As a pronoun, it is used for the noun *nation*. As the plural of *nation* is *nations*, so, *people*, when used as a pronoun of the plural form *nations*, becomes *peoples*. It is now clear why the preamble of the United Nations states, "We, the peoples of the United Nations", referring to the many nations which have formed it.

Where it all began

High School History (which is sadly the highest degree of formal history studied by most people) tells about the river valley civilisations of the world, and charts those Ancient River Valley Civilisations (like the Egyptian, Harappan and a few more) to be the dawn of civilisation.

What the textbooks perhaps attempt to mean is that the race of men who lived earlier were not civilized (as per the modern idea), but readers definitely get the wrong message – that *there was no civilisation prior to the river valley ones, and that all of a sudden, humans evolved from apes and began to settle by the side of rivers.*

That is not so.

Anthopologists, archeologists, and linguists have all unearthed the fact that people lived before the river valley civilisations started – in fact, they migrated from a certain place and set up the river valley civilisations in the first place.

So, where were they?

If we go with Darwin's theory of Evolution – which again is widely miscommunicated – *homo sapiens* had evolved a long time before the start of the river valley civilisations. And the place where the humans first evolved has been traced to a place close to the borders of Asia, Africa

and Europe (Balter, 2015). Earlier, it was suggested that the *homo sapiens* evolved in Africa, but there have been other theories to suggest that they evolved from the Neandertals in more or less the same time in Asia, Europe and Africa. As per present day boundaries, the region falls in Asia, but the name of the continent had not developed at that time, and readers will do well to note Fig. 1, which marks the location where the humans evolved and lived at first. The region is close to the present day Sumaria. Geographically, the area is part of the southern fringes of the Eurasian Steppes, more specifically, the Pontic Steppes, which was close to the Black Sea (Fig. 2). This is known as the **kurgan hypothesis**[1], propounded by Marija Gimbutas (1973, 1997). Historians have not conferred the label of 'civilisation' on the people who dwelled in this region, but have been gracious enough to brand them as a 'culture'. Accordingly, we refer to their times as the **Yamna Culture**. When the people lived in this part is unknown, for this goes to the pre-historic times, as language was not written down as a proper system. However, by tracing back to old cultures, it has been estimated that this was around the 3rd or 4th millennia BCE.

[1] *Kurgan* is a Russian word meaning 'burial mounds', and is so named as burial mounds were found in these areas.

Besides this theory, two other theories exist, which are the Anatolian hypothesis (Colin Renfrew) and the Paleolithic Continuity Theory (Alinei Mario). However, as discussed in the chapters, researches carried out support the Kurgan hypothesis.

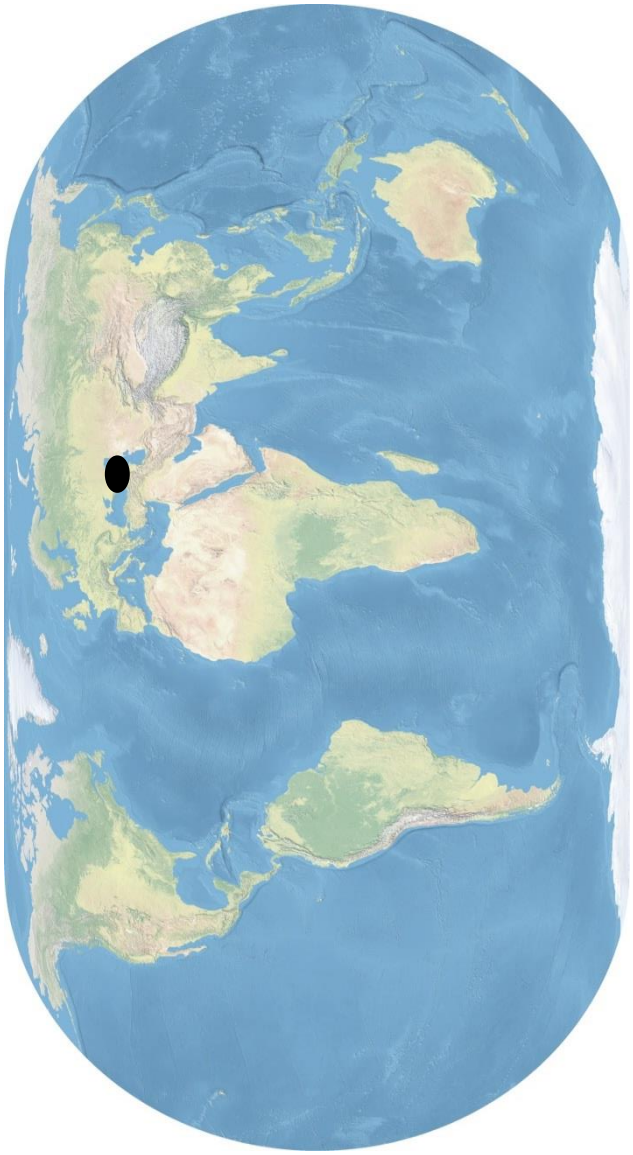

Fig. 1.1. Estimated Origin of Humans[2]

[2] The image of the world (on which the marjk has been placed) is in the public domain.

Fig. 1.2. The Eurasian Steppes (the area marked in oval is where the humans have been claimed to have originated.)[3]

As can be seen from the figures, this is close to the oldest river valley civilisation – the Mesopotamian Civilisation. It can be inferred that the earliest migration towards the set up of leading a civil life began at Mesopotamia, as it was closest to the place of origin of the human race. Recent researches conducted in a collaborative effort confirm the hypothesis. Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona carried out research whose outcome stated:

> Now, an international team of researchers, with the participation of UAB Prehistory professor Roberto Risch, has conducted a genetic study which backs this second hypothesis; they identified a massive migration of herders from the Yamna culture of the North Pontic steppe (Russia, Ukraine and Moldavia) towards Europe which would have favoured the expansion of at least of few of these Indo-European languages throughout the continent (2015).

The Spread of Peoples

As seen in figures 1 and 2, the area where our ancestors originated was really rugged and barren. That goes with Darwin's theory, for the *homo sapiens* were rather crude at first (coming from the cruder appearing Neandertals), and not at all the polished beings of the 21st century. The rugged appearance goes with the rugged clime of the places, and shows nature arming us for survival.

But why would the people spread?

Indeed, we do not know the answers to that, but the Bible records this in its own way, that at first, there was one language and all the people lived in the same place. Growing ambitious, they wanted to build a tower which would reach to the very heavens. God did not like this

[3] This image (on which the oval highlight has been made) is in the public domain.

ambitious project and divided up the languages of the people, so that they could not understand each other. They not only left building the tower, but began to leave the place, thereby starting the great migrations.

> Now the whole earth had one language and one speech. And it came to pass, as they journeyed from the east, that they found a plain in the land of Shinar, and they dwelt there. Then they said to one another, "Come, let us make bricks and bake them thoroughly." They had brick for stone, and they had asphalt for mortar. And they said, "Come, let us build ourselves a city, and a tower whose top is in the heavens; let us make a name for ourselves, lest we be scattered abroad over the face of the whole earth." But the Lord came down to see the city and the tower which the sons of men had built. And the Lord said, "Indeed the people are one and they all have one language, and this is what they begin to do; now nothing that they propose to do will be withheld from them. Come, let Us go down and there confuse their language, that they may not understand one another's speech." So the Lord scattered them abroad from there over the face of all the earth, and they ceased building the city. Therefore its name is called Babel, because there the Lord confused the language of all the earth; and from there the Lord scattered them abroad over the face of all the earth. (Gen. 10:1-9)

Although this ancient book of scriptures does tell things in its own way, it cannot be thrown away as a myth, for it simply presents the point of view of someone (arguably Moses) who lived in times when scholarship was not developed, and presents things as per the knowledge of the times. What we can get from the account supports the present-day findings so far as:

a. the people lived in the same place at one point of time;
b. they spoke the same language;
c. they migrated to many parts as other languages developed.

Why would they migrate? If we overlook their ambitious project, as stated in the Bible, we can deduce several reasons why they would do so:

a. the growth of population in a narrow place would force the people to move out;
b. the rugged nature of the place would force the people to seek other places to settle down, as it would be difficult to sustain the growing population;
c. as new languages came up, the people felt the need to group themselves as per the languages (or dialects) that they spoke.

The first two are quite clear, but the third may not be so clear to the general reader, who might ask why the languages would arise in the first place.

Reasoning would give us the possible varieties of historical explanations, aiming at sociolinguistics:

a. as the language which the people spoke was not written down, there were bound to be variations in utterance/pronunciation, leading to the set-up of many dialects;
b. with the growth of time and population, the dialectical variations would have grown bigger, leading to more gaps in communications, and that would have marked the beginnings of new languages also.

If we trace the migrations of the people as per this hypothesis, we get the following results:

a. the earliest to settle down in another place would be the people who would form the Mesopotamian civilisation;
b. next in line would be the Egyptian civilisation;
c. people would go further east would settle down to from the Harappan civilization/Indus Valley Civilisation;
d. those who would proceed to go even further would form the Chinese civilisation.

If one looks at the times of the river valley civilisations, this is supported, for the earliest to start was the Mesopotamian, and the others followed in that order.

Fig. 1.3. Migrations I: The River Valley Civilisations (1. Mesopotamean; 2. Egyptian; 3. Harappan; 4. Chinese) © Author

NOTE: The pathways shown are purely conjectural, and the migration might have taken place via other routes also. It's only the destinations which are shown.
As can be seen, these migrations are downwards and eastwards. No doubt, as population grew, migrations also took place upwards and westwards. And that is what happened, setting up the Grecian Civilisation, which later gave birth to the Roman civilisation.

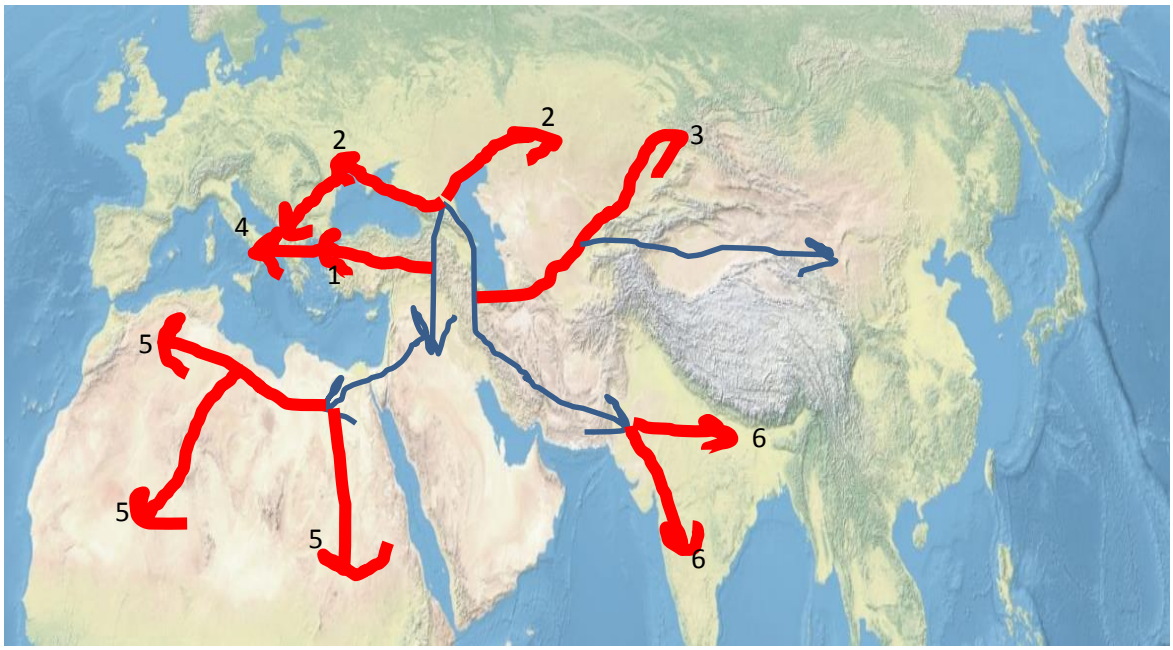

Fig. 1.4. Migrations II: The Other Civilisations (1. Grecian; 2; various tribes, ultimately spreading into Europe and the Middle East; 3. Mongolian; 4. Roman; 5. Other African settlements; 6. The spread into India) © Author

As can be seen, there is a vast rugged land on the way to China from the Eurasian steppes and the same can be said for the Greece. People began to settle down in these parts also, giving rise to the Mongolians and the other tribes which occupied the deserted and mountainous areas in both east and west. From Egypt, the people must have spread more inwards, leading to the population of Africa.

From these places, the population began to spread to other parts of the world with time.

The Neurological and Cognitive Approaches

So much for the historic/anthropological view. But this does not explain why language would arise in the first place. Indeed, answers to such questions were not available till Noam Chomsky paved the way for Cognitive approach to language study, making language firm properly as a system which arises in the mind, and as such, human beings in different parts of the world are gifted, or, empowered with certain common functions which enable them to produce languages which appear different, but follow similar patterns of origin. This led to the formation of the theory of Universal Grammar (Cook and Newson, 2014).

Although Chomsky is the one name that comes to mind in a discussion on Cognitive theories of language, Charles Darwin (1871) had mentioned language to be inherent in the biological functioning of man. Darwin had mentioned both qualities which are “instinctive” (biological) and those that need to be learned (the social aspects), in this work, *The Descent of Man*.

> As Horne Tooke, one of the founders of the noble science of philology, observes, language is an art, like brewing or baking; but writing would have been a much more appropriate simile. It certainly is not a true instinct, as every language has to be learnt. It differs, however, widely from all ordinary arts, for man has an instinctive tendency to speak, as we see in the babble of our young children; whilst no child has an instinctive tendency to brew, bake, or write. Moreover, no philologist now supposes that any language has been deliberately invented; each

> has been slowly and unconsciously developed by many steps. The sounds uttered by birds offer in several respects the nearest analogy to language, for all the members of the same species utter the same instinctive cries expressive of their emotions; and all the kinds that have the power of singing exert this power instinctively; but the actual song, and even the call-notes, are learnt from their parents or foster-parents. These sounds, as Daines Barrington[33] has proved, "are no more innate than language is in man." The first attempts to sing "may be compared to the imperfect endeavour in a child to babble." The young males continue practising, or, as the bird-catchers say, recording, for ten or eleven months. Their first essays show hardly a rudiment of the future song; but as they grow older we can perceive what they are aiming at; and at last they are said "to sing their song round." Nestlings which have learnt the song of a distinct species, as with the canary-birds educated in the Tyrol, teach and transmit their new song to their offspring. The slight natural differences of song in the same species inhabiting different districts may be appositely compared, as Barrington remarks, "to provincial dialects;" and the songs of allied, though distinct species may be compared with the languages of distinct races of man. I have given the foregoing details to shew that an instinctive tendency to acquire an art is not a peculiarity confined to man (Darwin, 55-56).

This view states that there are two aspects of language – one which is inherent to man but is not unique to man, and one which is developed by man, which is unique. Other than languages which are created by man (artificial languages and sign languages) the two aspects of language – being unique or not – belong to the same language, but in different forms and times. In other words, a child learns language, as has been established now, due to intense synaptic activity of the brain in the early states of childhood, and due to two (among others) special areas specially devoted to language – one dealing with comprehension (Wernicke's area) and one dealing with speech production (Broca's area). Advances in Neurosciences have established that the origin of language is in the brain. In fact, present researches in Neurolinguistics are also underway to show where specific aspects of grammar are located in the human brain, allowing the different connections of sentence structure to be made.

This goes to say that language originated prior to the migration of peoples just referred to. In fact, language must have originated before the first *homo sapiens* became an adult, before (s)he became aware of basic biological functioning.

Who looked after men in such conditions? As the "missing link", which solves the piece of evolutionary puzzle has not been discovered yet, one must look at the Neanderthals, who lived in Europe and Asia. The following map shows their locations.

As the theory of Darwin still holds, it must be the Neanderthals who came prior to the early humans, who must have been puzzled by the new abilities of the child in the lap in articulating words which the nursing adult was not capable of doing. The hypothesis must be correct, and it also establishes the autonomy of language – for if language was purely a social construct, humans would never have learned the use of new words and expressions and combine sentences in ways their brains are capable of doing. The sounds emanating from the primates (the Neanderthals) which came before them would have been the only sounds acquired by them, and they would have been restricted to such sounds only. And that would have been the present condition.

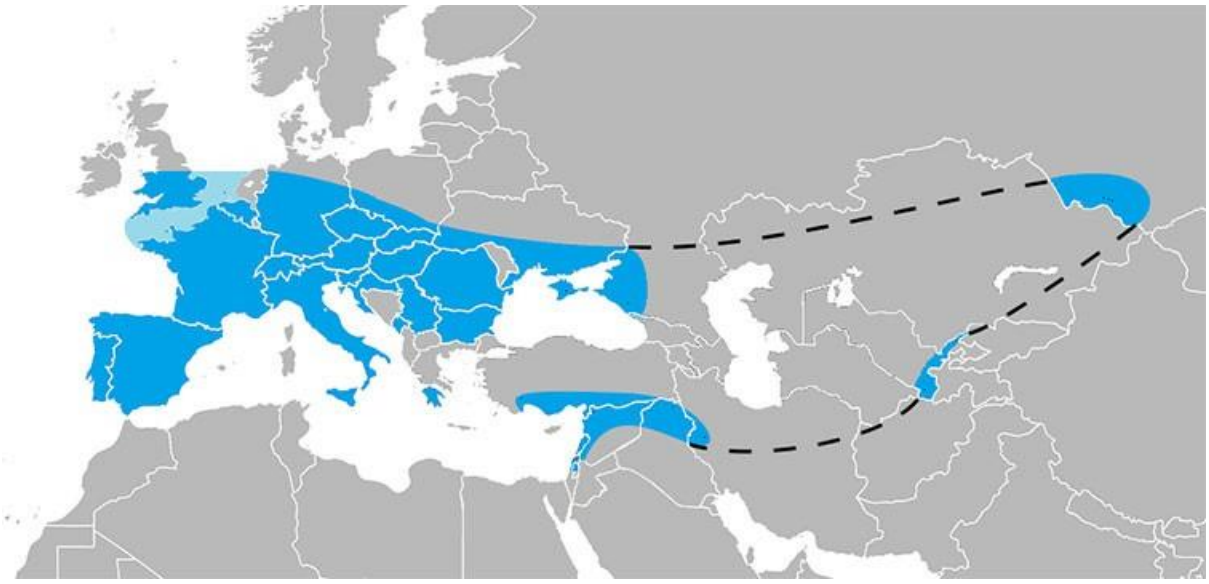

Fig 1.5. Map Showing Spread of Neanderthals. © I Ryulong[4]

The view presupposes that utterance of sounds which can be termed as "language" came with homo sapiens. However, the truth is that we do not know when language evolved. The Neanderthals might have their system of language (other than the rock art) which is unknown to us, and which will remain unknown to us, for even the earliest homo sapiens used language which was only spoken (which we have come to know of only recently, thanks to the contribution of William Jones, discussed in the next chapter). Recent discoveries have shown that the Neanderthals could use fire by hitting stones (Sorensen, Claud and Soressi, 2018). Future discoveries might unearth languages used by the Neanderthals. Nevertheless, it is safe grounds to assume as the homo sapiens who used language gave us the written forms soon enough, the Neanderthals, had they discovered, or been evolved with, language, would have left traces of it.

As that is not so, it leads us to accept the obvious, even without proof offered by Neurolinguistics – that language exists independent of the social environment, and is essentially a feature present within man, in the brain, which evolved at an unknown time in prehistory during the stages of evolution.

Another alternative is to accept the much-hyped account of aliens mating with primates to result in the mutation that humans are.

Chomsky suggests something very similar, without mentioning "alien" specifically.

> To tell a fairy tale about it, it is almost as if there was some higher primate wandering around a long time ago and some random mutation took place, maybe after some cosmic ray shower, and it reorganized the brain, implanting a language organ in an otherwise primate brain (Chomsky 2000, pg. 4).

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This accounts for the universal grammar, in a sense. Although Chomsky avoids getting into the Neurological aspects of language, one must do so now, if one has to understand language as a construct of the brain. This will be discussed in more detail in the later chapters.

The Sociological Evolution

In the light in irrefutable proof that language originates in the brain – the development of the temporal regions plays an important factor, as will be later discussed – the sociological evolution of language lost much of its footing. However, the view still stands, for language, once uttered, interacts, and thereby, forms a community consensus of certain sounds being ascribed certain specific meanings (the signifier-signified terminology in linguistics). The community consensus forms the formal boundaries of a language, and as communities differ, so do grammar structures, and so do languages.

This brings us back to the inevitable question – when the people were in one community, did they speak one language? The answer of the Bible has already been recorded. Anthropologists and linguists have named this language “Indo-European Language” from which most languages of Europe and Asia have come. This is taken up in the next chapter.

2. LANGUAGE FAMILIES AND PIE

IE and PIE

The previous chapter dealt with the migration of peoples and discussed in brief how languages might have emerged. Here, we will look at the spread of languages more broadly.

As per the Kurgan hypothesis, the peoples of Eurasia lived in the same region, and the language which they spoke at that time has been labelled **Indo-European Language (IE).** Modern linguistics have attempted to reconstruct the language as might have existed, by tracing back from the languages that came up in the river valley civilisations, and after having analysed the similarities, they have come up with a list of possible words which might have existed in the language. This re-created language has been termed **Proto Indo-European Language (PIE)**.[5] All languages coming from IE are classed into Indo-European Language Family. There is no evidence to suggest that the language spoken by the people of the Pontic steppes was IE when all the communities lived together (sadly, there is no written evidence of IE, which leads us to reconstruct the words in modern times as "proto"). In fact, Egyptian is not a language under the IE family, even though the Egyptian population came from the Mesopotamians, which came from the people living in the Kurgan region. However, in instances such as these, the lack of evidence is not grounds for denial. IE must have been spoken, and when the other heads of the family – like Greek, Hittite, etc. came up, it was with respect to their regions, and Egyptian had become rooted in another culture and clime. As discussed in the previous chapter, Egyptian came before Greece (ref. Fig. 1.3 and 1.4). So, when the head-languages of the IE family were established, Egyptian was already set as a different language, and so, it is labelled under the Afro-Asiatic family of languages. However, unlike IE, Afro-Asiatic family does not have any originating language, for reasons already discussed above.

Proof of Egyptian migrants living in close proximity to those who spoke IE is understood through similarities with the only family head old enough to be in parallel times with Egyptian (albeit it came a little later) – Sanskrit. One of the heads of IE is Sanskrit, which belongs to Indo-Iranian branch of IE (see fig. below). One language derived from Sanskrit is Bengali, spoken in West Bengal in India and Bangladesh. Although this is generally found in books of linguistics, there have been raciologists, who have stated that Bengali upper castes – the Brahmins – belong to a different race of Aryans – the Alpine, as opposed to the rest of Bengalis, who are allied with the rest of Hisdustani group – coming from Nordic race.

> Practically all the upper castes in Bengal possess the characteristic of having broad foreheads … we know how Risley had been confused by noticing the broad foreheads of the Bengali upper castes. We know that the Bengali upper castes inherited their broad foreheads from the Alpine race. We feel that these Alpine people must have traveled either from Asia Minor or Baluchistan along the coast of the western seas … it was these Alpine people who were the ancestors of upper caste Bengalis…. Though these Alpine people spoke the Aryan tongue, their language had some differences from the language of the Nordic group of Vedic Aryans who had settled in the Punjab (Sur, 1977).

[5] Whenever PIE words are used, an asterix is added before the words, so as to signify that the words are hypothetical.

Relations between Bengal and Egypt were hinted at by Chatterji (1960), who stated, "It is believed that some of their religious notions and practices maybe found as a substratum in the cults and religious ideas of the subsequent peoples who established themselves in India" (3). Other than the Bengalis who felt their connection with Egypt, there have been some Indians who have traced certain similarities with some Sanskrit and some Egyptian words.

> In a treaty between the Hittites and the Mitanni, Indic deities Mitra, Varuna, Indra, and Nasatya (Ashvins) are invoked. A text by a Mitannian named Kikkuli uses words such as aika (eka, one), tera (tri, three), panza (pancha, five), satta (sapta, seven), na (nava, nine), vartana (vartana, round). Another text has babru (babhru, brown), parita (palita, grey), and pinkara (pingala, red). Their chief festival was the celebration of *vishuva* (solstice) very much like in India. It is not only the kings who had Sanskrit names; a large number of other Sanskrit names have been unearthed in the records from the area (Kak, www.hinduwisdom.info).

The scholarship of the text mentioned above remains in doubt, and more serious research is needed in this area.

Other Language Families

Although Marija Gimbutas suggested the Kurgan hypothesis, she was not the first person to think that people and languages might have come down from the same place. Sir William Jones, who founded the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, had propounded a similarity between languages, resulting in succeeding scholar's outputs. We shall study his contributions in later chapters. What we have now are the languages of the world classed into several language families.

Ethnologue has classed the languages into 142 language families, of which six are major (www.ethnologue.com). It must be noted, however, that the language families are listed as per the country where a language is spoken, and not necessarily on the basis of the migration discussed in the first chapter. For example, Hindi is classed as an IE language, coming down from Sanskrit, but Mandarin Chinese is classed as Sino-Tibetan, although the migration of peoples into China took place from the same place in the Pontic Steppes. The case of Egypt has already been commented on. Perhaps a re-mapping is needed, but is not done for the arduous task that it is. Perhaps the apparent dissimilarity was also a determining factor in making what are obviously some heads of a bigger language family into language families altogether. In other words, the Chinese script does not appear like the rest of the of the scripts of IE languages, and the same may be said for Egyptian. However, the undeciphered Indus Valley Scripts (carved in stone tablets) bear similarity with the Chinese script, giving hypothetical proof that the two communities had migrated from the same steppe region. As the Indus Valley scripts are not deciphered, there family identity remains in the dark. If one examines the Anglo-Saxon scripts, the similarity with certain scripts is seen. But alas, the Anglo-Saxon script was discarded, and it is only the linguists who take any interest in the Anglo-Saxon script, that too, for reading the Anglo-Saxon poems more intelligible for Anglo-Saxon scholars.

Following are the maps of the six major languages, which, as per Ethnologue, account for two-thirds of the total languages of the world.

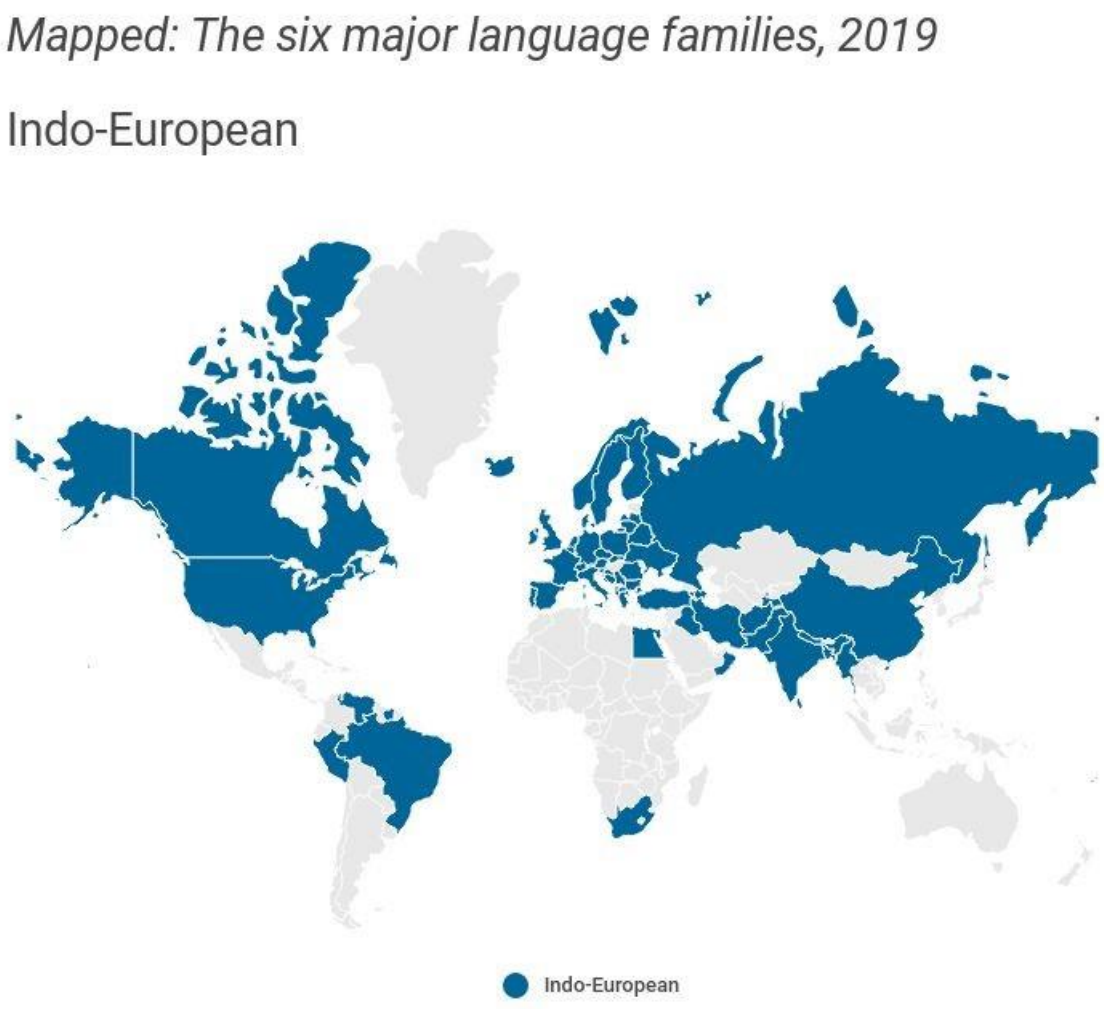


Fig. 2.1. Indo-European Languages Mapped by Ethnologue.[6]

[6] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

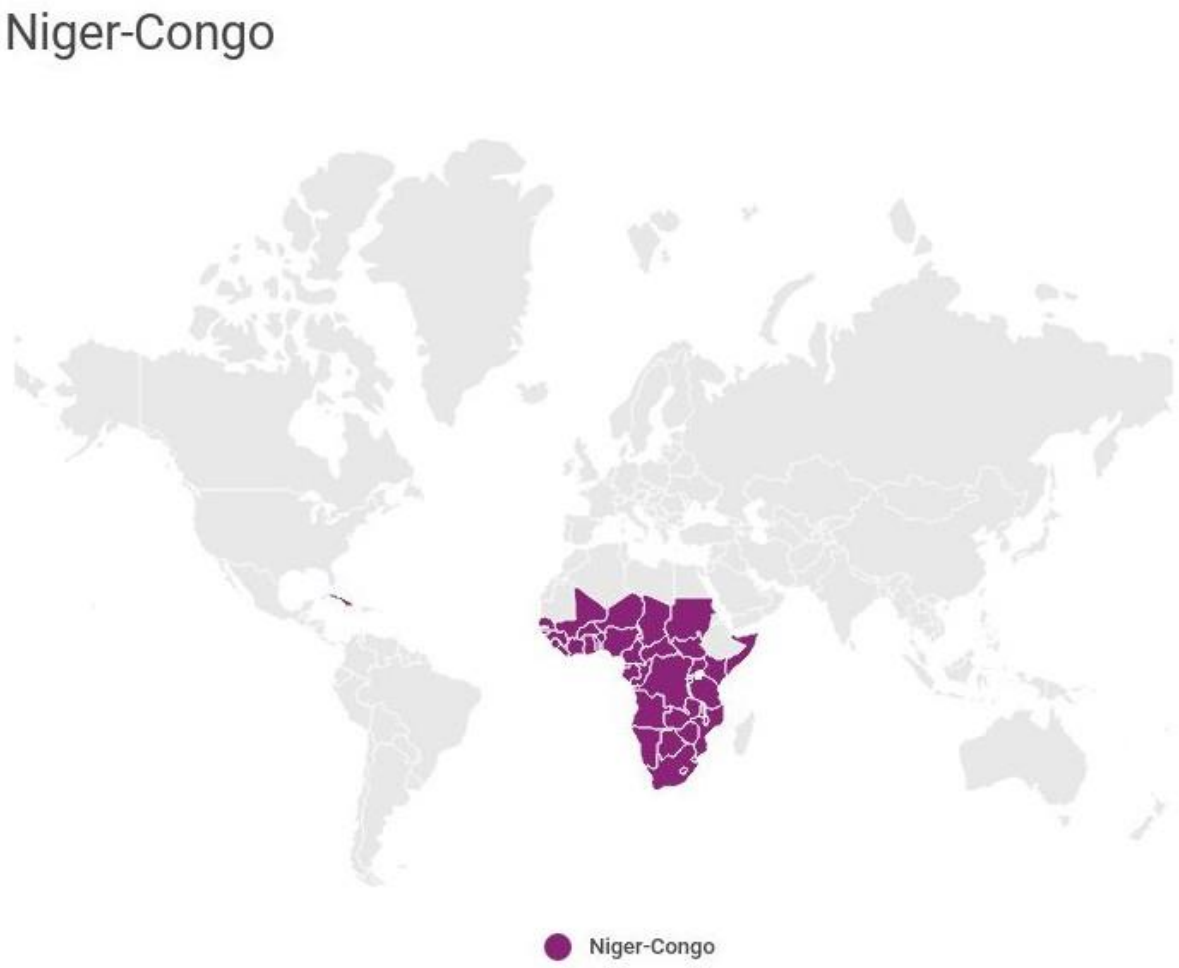


Fig. 2.2. Niger-Congo Language Family Mapped by Ethnologue[7]

[7] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

Fig. 2.3. Afro-Asiatic Language Family Mapped by Ethnologue[8]

[8] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

Fig. 2.4. Austronesian Language Family Mapped by Ethnologue[9]

[9] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

Fig. 2.5. Sino-Tibetan Language Family Mapped by Ethnologue[10]

[10] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

Fig. 2.6. Trans-New Guinea Language Family Mapped by Ethnologue[11]

As can be observed from the maps, several language families share the same countries. For example, China has been mapped under Indo-European, Austronesian and Sino-Tibetan. That is because the maps are location markers only, and a country with more than one language (or, with languages belonging to more than one language family) will feature in more than one map.

[11] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

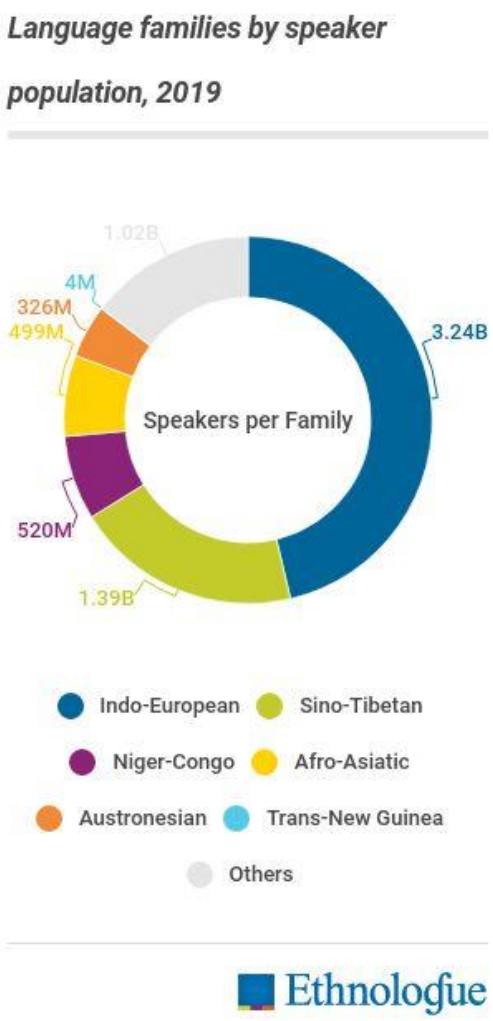


Fig. 2.7. Language Families Pie Chart on Speaker Count, provided by Ethnologue[12]

As can be observed, Indo-European has the largest number of speakers. Like the modern periodic table of elements, languages keep on being added to the charts. Some charts make a division of the languages into two groups: the **eastern (Satem group of Languages)** and the **western (Centum group of Languages)[13]** while others choose not to do so, as they realize that there are a lot of languages which are central, and it would be quite wrong to arbitrarily make them take sides. Fig. 2.8 gives the chart of the IE family of languages, as per the present classification. Due to lack of space, the chart has been broken to parts for better viewing.

[12] http://www.ethnologue.com/guides/largest-families

[13] These names tell us a lot about the pronunciation variations. The words stand for the same meaning: 100. The PIE word for it is **kmtóm*. In Latin, the /k/ sound is retained, while in Sanskrit, it changes to 'sh' /ʃ/ (Wrenn, 12)

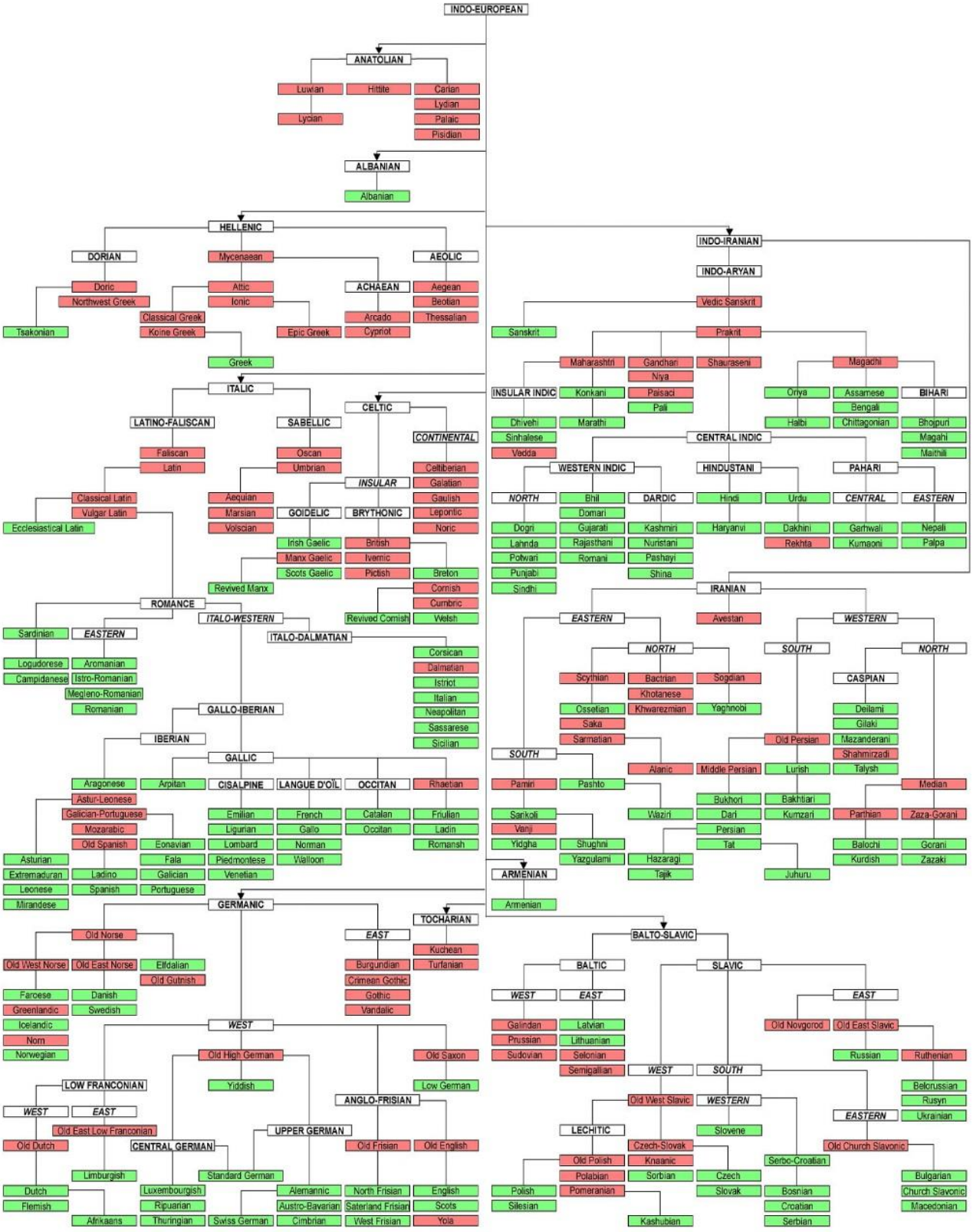
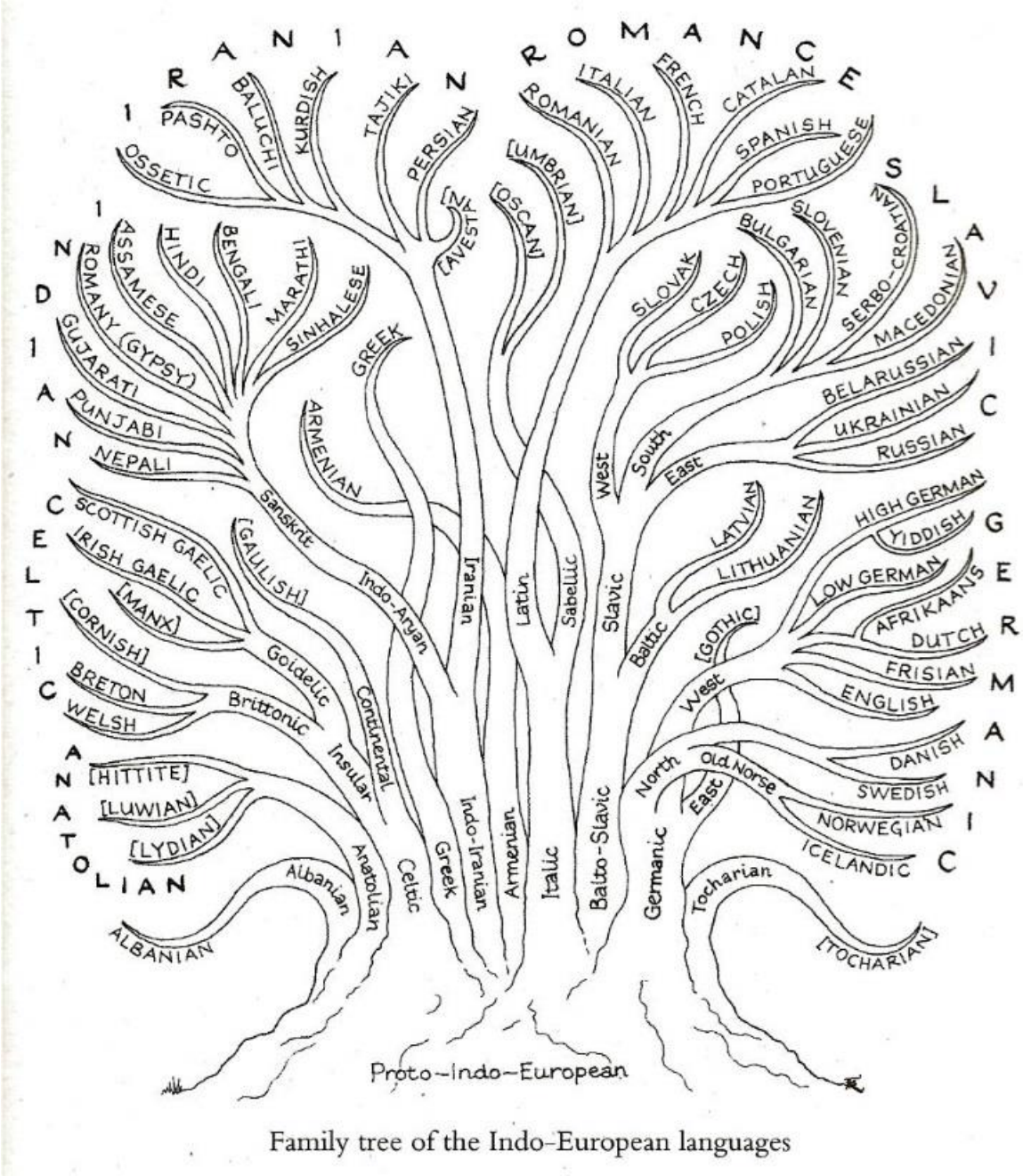


Fig. 2.8. The Indo-European Languages

While this image may not be so simple on first look, one only has to follow the arrows leading directly from the top, and discover the heads: Anatolian, Albanian, Hellenic (also labelled Greek

directly in some charts), Indo-Iranian, Italic (also labelled Latin directly in some charts), Celtic, Germanic (also called Teutonic in some charts), Tocharian, Balto-Slavic. The blocks which are darkest are the ones which are extinct.

Let us now look at a language tree, which might be easier to follow.



Family tree of the Indo-European languages

Fig. 2.9. Family-Tree of the Indo-European Languages.[14]

[14] Created by EnriBrahimaj. Used under Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 4.0 International License. <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=48372426>

Note that the ten labels stated at the bottom are the ten heads, and other languages have spread from these. Although not a detailed chart, this is useful to get the categories from which the other languages spread. The lists add up to ten, and includes the additions in the categories, which was earlier held to be eight for a long time. These ten categories can be divided as per the Centum and Satem group as given in the following figure.

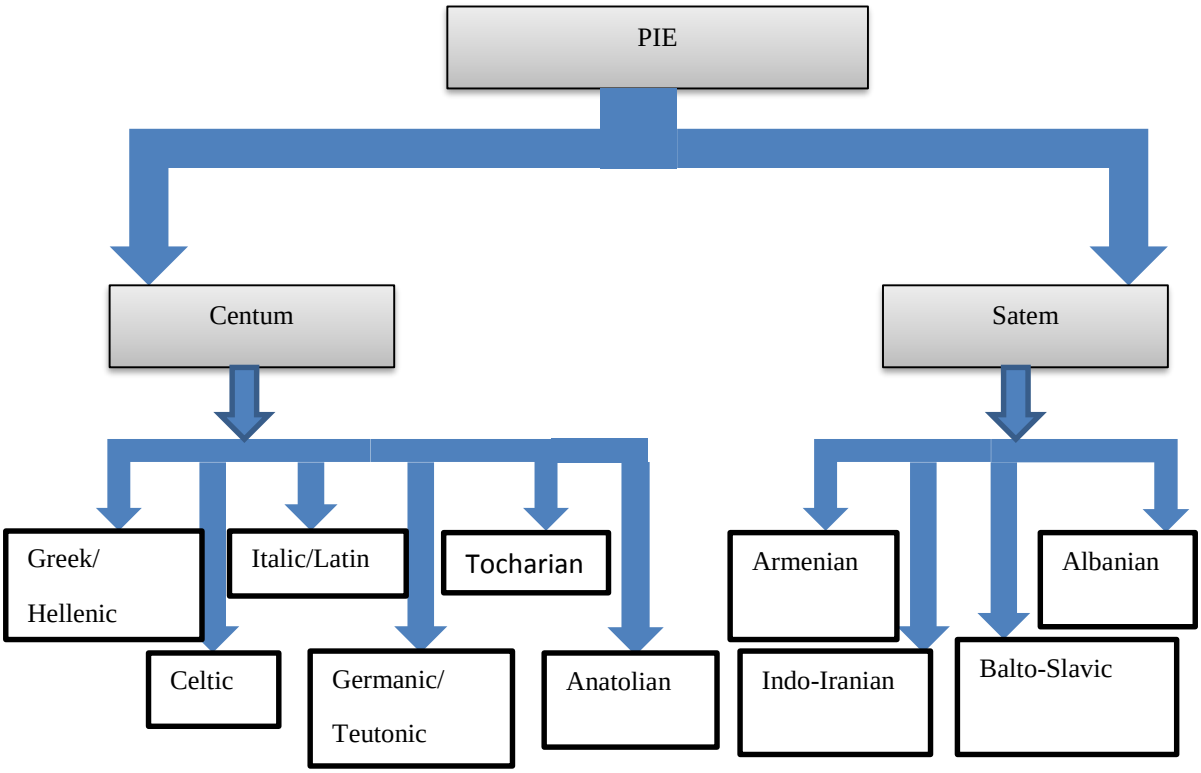


Fig. 2.10. The Two Groups of Indo-European Languages and Their Heads © Author

Of these groups, we will be concerned with only four of the Western Groups: Greek/Hellenic, Celtic, Italic/Latin and Germanic/Teutonic. For the ease of study, languages with an asterix before them refer to languages that are no longer spoken, and those which are in bold refer to languages still spoken today.

The Greek/Hellenic Group

It has been conventional to categorise the languages which belong to this group as "Greek", but it would be more proper to give the label "Hellenic" as there were tongues other than Greek in this group.

As can be seen, only Modern Greek and an isolated Tsakonian are the languages still alive in this group. Greek falls as one of the classical languages, although Classical Greek is no longer spoken. However, this language – classical or modern – has influenced the English Language in a great way, as we shall see in later chapters.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="6">HELLENIC</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Dorian</td><td colspan="3">Mycenaean</td><td>Aeolic</td></tr>
<tr><td>*Doric</td><td rowspan="4">*Northwest Greek</td><td rowspan="3">*Attic</td><td>*Classical Greek</td><td>Achaean</td><td rowspan="2">*Aegean</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Tsakonian</td><td>*Koine Greek</td><td>*Arcado</td></tr>
<tr><td>Modern Greek</td><td rowspan="3">*Cypriot</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">*Ionic</td><td>*Beotian</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">*Epic Greek</td><td>*Thessalian</td></tr>
</table>

Table 2.1. The Hellenic Group of Languages

Italic/Latin Group of Languages

It is essential to know this group, for this is one of the major groups of European languages. Although some charts head this group as "Italic"[15], Italy had not risen as a nation when Latin was spoken. It was more of a city-state, the Roman Empire, as we know, named after Rome. So, some charts label this group as Romance language, the term bearing no semblance to people using these languages to express their amorous feelings. French comes from this group, and is often hailed as a "Romantic" language, which is really wrong, for the proper terminology is "Romance language" and the first word of that label is derived from Rome, and not from feelings of love. It is really a misfortune that in popular usage by the English-speaking communities, other Romance languages are deprived of this birthright!

We shall not examine this group by forming a table, as that would be really complex, and Fig. 5 provides a wonderful illustration of all the sub-groups in this category. Let it suffice to say that Latin comes from this group, and Latin is itself derived from Greek in terms of the race of people, although the language has taken such a script that this is assigned a separate group, and Latin gave birth to French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese and many other languages of the region. However, it is really a misfortune that although Greek has survived, Latin has not. Latin is no longer spoken (except for academic and religious purposes) and is considered a dead language. However, although it is not spoken as a language by the general community of people, scientists recourse to it all the time when they make their scientific names, for the scientific names are all Latin words, or derived from Latin words.[16]

---

[15] This should not be confused with Italian, which is a language altogether.

[16] It is because of the "foreign" origin that the scientific names are written in *italics*, with the first letter of the first word in upper case, and the remaining words in lower case. When hand-written, these words need to be underlined, to highlight the "foreign" origin. A lot of persons, ignorant of the origin of the words, find all academic books which don't underline these words to be erroneous! Indeed, books need not underline the words as they have the option of turning them to italics. It is only when they are hand-written that they need to be underlined, as they cannot be written in italics when one writes manually.

Later chapters will evaluate the Celtic Group and the Germanic Group of Languages and place the origin of English.

3. THE BIRTH OF LANGUAGE – NEUROLOGICAL ANALYSIS

It has already been discussed that advances in Neuroscience have shown that language has biological origins. While the role of society cannot be denied, for children who are kept away from human contact do not develop languages (Aitchison 22), language in this regard, acts like a seed. In fact, one might think of the parable of the sower about the kingdom of God while thinking about language: the potential for becoming a tree is there in the seed, but a lot depends on the ground fertility, the space for growth, and nurturing. A child who is isolated from humans, and does not learn language, is actually a child whose language potential does not expand; does not develop. It is rather like a seed which has fallen in infertile ground, and so, there is no growth.

Corollary experiments which chimps and apes have shown that such species, even though they are nearest relatives of humans, are actually not capable of producing language as humans would, and most success has come only from teaching sign language or making them press keys (Aitchison 17-39). Experiments by Gardner and Gardner (1969) and Terrace (1979) have shown the maximum extent possible to make chimps and apes learn human language using signs and keys, with the invariable conclusion that humans possess a natural gift for learning language as other creatures possess natural gifts in other areas. That again brings one back to the biology of it all.

The Physiognomy of Speech in Humans

When one refers to language, there are several perspectives. Is one speaking linguistically (referring to language system as a science) or is one referring to language in general ("Mind your language!")? If one considers "language" as a term in linguistics, there is no one definition like Newton's laws of motion, and there are varieties of opinions. Present statements made on language seek to sum up what has been discussed and accepted over the years. It is on such grounds that one linguist, or psycholinguist, may accept that other species have "language" while another might reject the same. This work shall, while referring to language, take the side of those who prefer humans to have been gifted with language, for, even though Darwin might claim that some birds "can talk" (55), that talk is not as humans do, it is merely a repetition of select sounds, which the some birds are able to mimic after great deal of difficulty. As is seen in general, birds of the same species may not be able to master repetition of the same sound. While one trainer would succeed, many would fail. If one considers the communication of birds with fellow birds, there is debate whether that communication may be considered under the term "talk". So, terms like "bird-talk" "parrot-talk" are rather general, and should be avoided by linguists.

So, communication and language are two different terms altogether. In communication, one can resort to a lot of mediums which do not involve language – gestures top the list. While certain customized and systemized gestures carry the label "sign language", they are restricted, and not any and every gesture would become a "language".

A lot of researchers are rather misled in this regard – while attempting to prove that other creatures possess "language", they end up proving that they use a communication system, as permitted by the physiognomy of their species.

What makes humans possess language is a certain evolutionary development in their brains – the development of the temporal lobe.

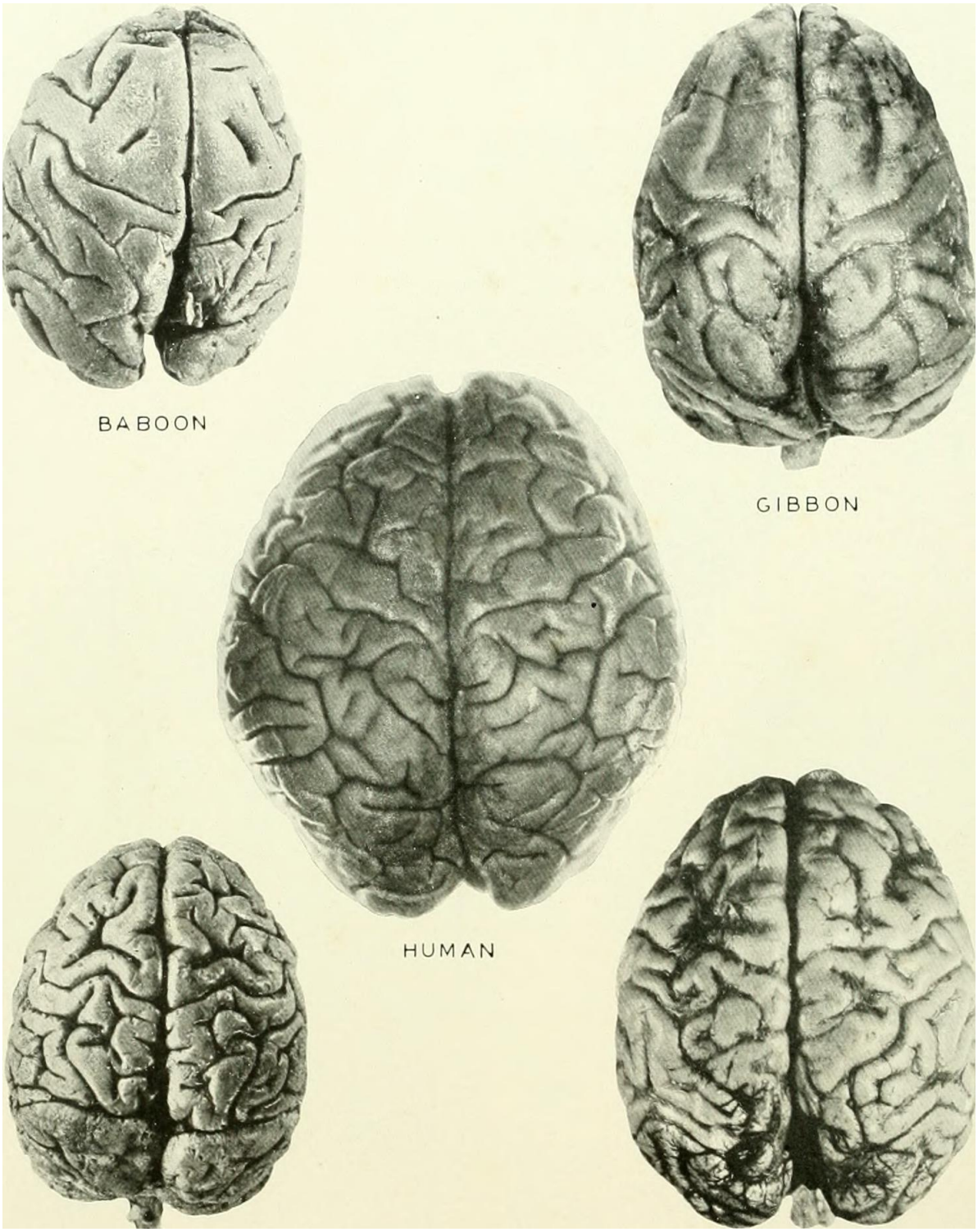


Fig. 3.1. The Human Brain Compared with Others[17]

[17] Free image from Wikimedia Commons <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:The_brain_from_ape_to_man;_a_contribution_to_the_study_of_the_evolution_and_development_of_the_human_brain_(1928)_(20219595418).jpg>

The image above shows apparent differences in the brains of humans with that of baboons and gibbon, as studied by Tilney and Riley (1928). The following image shows the four lobes of the human brain.

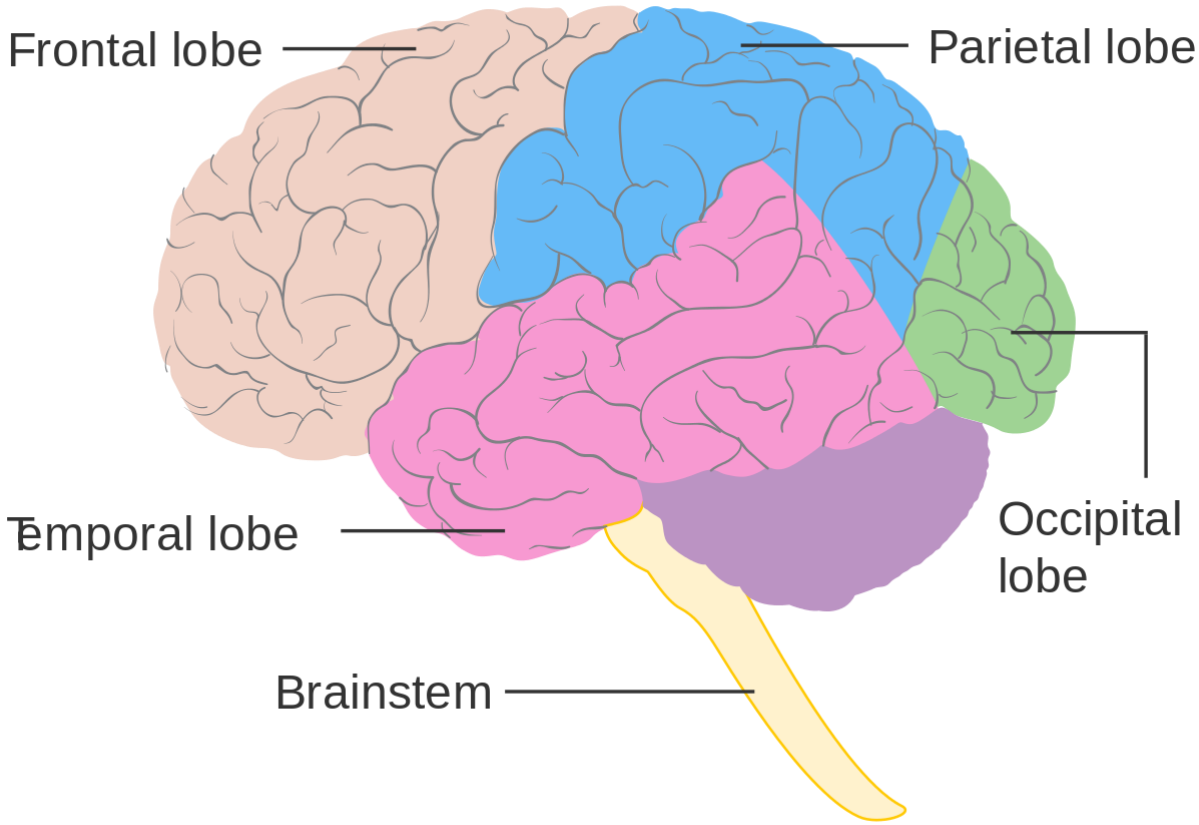


Fig. 3.2. The Four Lobes of the Human Brain[18]

Two notable discoveries in two regions of the brain led us to understand that language originates and evolves in the brain, in specific regions.

The discoveries also made it clear that language has two distinct and anatomically separable parts – production and comprehension. All studies involving languages in animals are primarily focused on the production part (and are, therefore, misled), while studies have shown that it is in fact, in comprehension that language originates. Production (Utterance) may or may not happen (a person may respond to someone or not) but that does not mean that a person has not understood what has been said. Two prominent regions are Broca's area and Wernicke's area. The areas have been marked in the following figure.

[18] Licensed to be re-used under Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 4.0 International license by Cancer Research, UK and Wikimedia Commons.

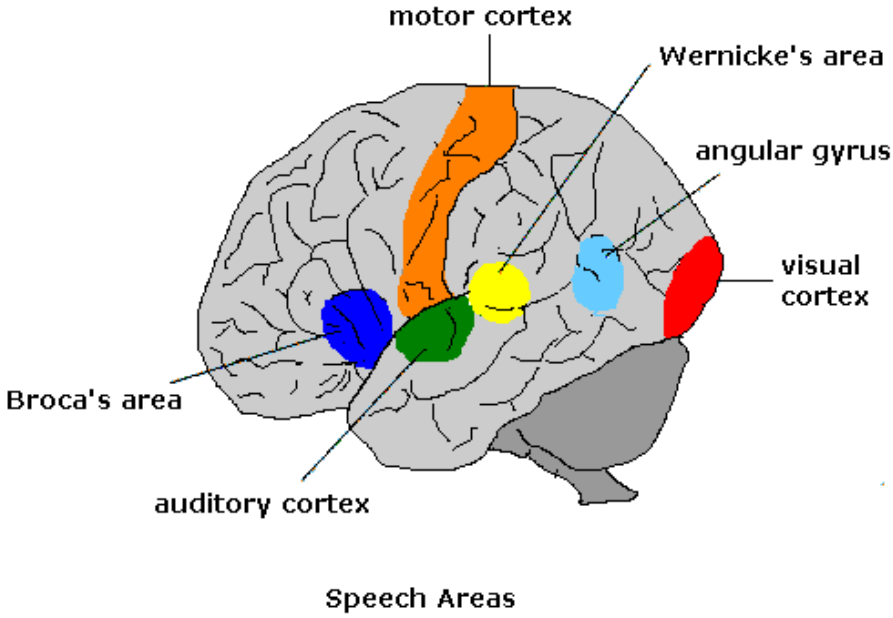


Fig. 3.3. Broca's area and Wernicke's area

<http://www.witchhazel.it/sunflower_images/sun_brain3.gif>

Contribution of Broca

Paul Broca is credited to lay the foundation stone of Neurolinguistics (although studies on language and the brain were carried out from classical antiquity by the likes of Plato and others) when he presented his theory in 1861 based on his patient Leborgne "Tan" (so nicknamed as this was the only output from the patient who suffered from language problems). In dissecting his brain, Broca was able to locate the region (based on visible brain damage) which he believed caused the problem in language. The area was named Broca's area and as the patient suffered from speech production, it was and is still held that Broca's area plays a pivotal role in language production. This area is "the third frontal convolution (gyrus) (pars triangularis and pars opercularis) in the left hemisphere" (Ahlsén 17). Broca called the disorder "aphemie" (lack of ability to speak) but the this falls under what Neurology calls "aphasia" now.

Broca's contribution is important as

a. he identified a key region in the functioning of a specific activity in the brain (promoters of such specialization models were called "localists", as they wanted to localize function to specific locations in the brain);
b. he gave a boost to the localists, that specific functions are located and controlled from specific parts of the brain;
c. he proposed the theory that language is lateralized, as the problem was located in left hemisphere, it was grounds to suggest that language is localized in the left hemisphere of the brain.

The lateralization of language in the left hemisphere has been subsequently proved in later researches, which show a connection between handedness and language. One's handedness is often inversely proposal to the localization of language in the hemisphere. In other words, it has been suspected, revealed and confirmed (Knecht et al, 2000) that if a person is right-handed, language will be localized to the left hemisphere, but if a person is left-handed, there are more chances that language will be localized in the right hemisphere.

> In most people the left hemisphere of the brain is dominant for language. Because of the increased incidence of atypical right-hemispheric language in left-handed neurological

> patients, a systematic association between handedness and dominance has long been suspected. To clarify the relationship between handedness and language dominance in healthy subjects, we measured lateralization directly by functional transcranial Doppler sonography in 326 healthy individuals using a word-generation task. The incidence of right-hemisphere language dominance was found to increase linearly with the degree of left-handedness, from 4% in strong right-handers (handedness = 100) to 15% in ambidextrous individuals and 27% in strong left-handers (handedness = –100). The relationship could be approximated by the formula: $likelihood\ of\ right-hemisphere\ language\ dominance\ (\%) = 15\% - handedness\ (\%)/10$. These results clearly demonstrate that the relationship between handedness and language dominance is not an artefact of cerebral pathology but a natural phenomenon (Knecht et al, 2000; quoted Mallik, 2018, p. 29).

Contribution of Wernicke

In 1874, Carl Wernicke presented his theory on language problems, based on Broca's findings. Wernicke stated that while Broca's area was concerned with speech production, another area was concerned with language comprehension – the ability to understand language in the first place, without which production will not take place. This area was termed as Wernicke's area, "the posterior part of the first or superior temporal gyrus and adjacent areas (parts of the angular gyrus, the supramarginal gyrus, and the second temporal gyrus are included)" (Ahlsén, 19). Wernicke's findings are important as

a. he stated that problems in language could be caused not just in the two areas, but also in the connection between them (which he called "language gyrus"), and the aphasia resulting from this improper connection, or, problems in the connecting pathway between Wernicke's area and Broca's area would be "conduction aphasia";
b. he gave the idea of flow of information from one part to another;
c. bridged a gap between the localists and the associationists (who held that higher functions were possible due to connections between various parts of the brain and are not isolated to specific centres only).

Wernicke's theory suggested that

> each item is born out of associations that are repeated and stabilized, so that for example the visual image alone is enough to evoke the other representations. Through the association paths, we move from "primary images" in one sensory modality to "secondary images," which combine and unite all the images of an object, and then on to "tertiary images," which are the foundations of abstract concepts and words. Consciousness of the external world is, at all times, the result of the state of all these connections (Ahlsén, 20).

Recent Developments

Biology and genetics have progressed to suggest a language gene, or rather, a gene which results in the defects in language (other than those suffered in injury), named FOXP2, and research is ongoing to know more about it (Aitchison 57).

Neuroscience has progressed a lot since Wernicke, and with the aid of scanning devices, like PET, EEG, MRI, fMRI, it has now been noticeably seen that language areas are spotted in the right hemisphere also (Mallik, 2015, p. 39-44).

It has been observed that there are areas in the right hemisphere which are parallel to the language areas in the left hemisphere. In the right hemisphere, these areas are devoted to understanding prosody and intonation. While a lot of times, these areas are classed as areas which related to "music", they play an important role in language, for the same sentences can vary in meaning with change of tone. A change of tone can turn a statement to an exclamation, express anger or happiness. These are essentially functions of language, and are not exclusive to music. So, as

Nilanko Mallik has suggested (2015), a change in terminology is required, with the language areas being broadened to language regions. The following table is reproduced from the research.

Language Regions (Instead of "areas")	
Right Hemisphere (Figurative and Prosodic)	Left Hemisphere (Literal, Semantic and Lexical)
1. Figurative and Prosodic Comprehension (instead of sensory prosody)	3. Semantic and Lexical Comprehension (instead of language comprehension); Wernicke's region (instead of area)
2. Figurative and Prosodic Production (instead of motor prosody)	4. Verbal output/production (instead of language production); Broca's region (instead of area)

Table 3.1. Proposed Terminology of Language Regions in the Light of New Findings[19]

The following figures illustrate the four regions labelled.

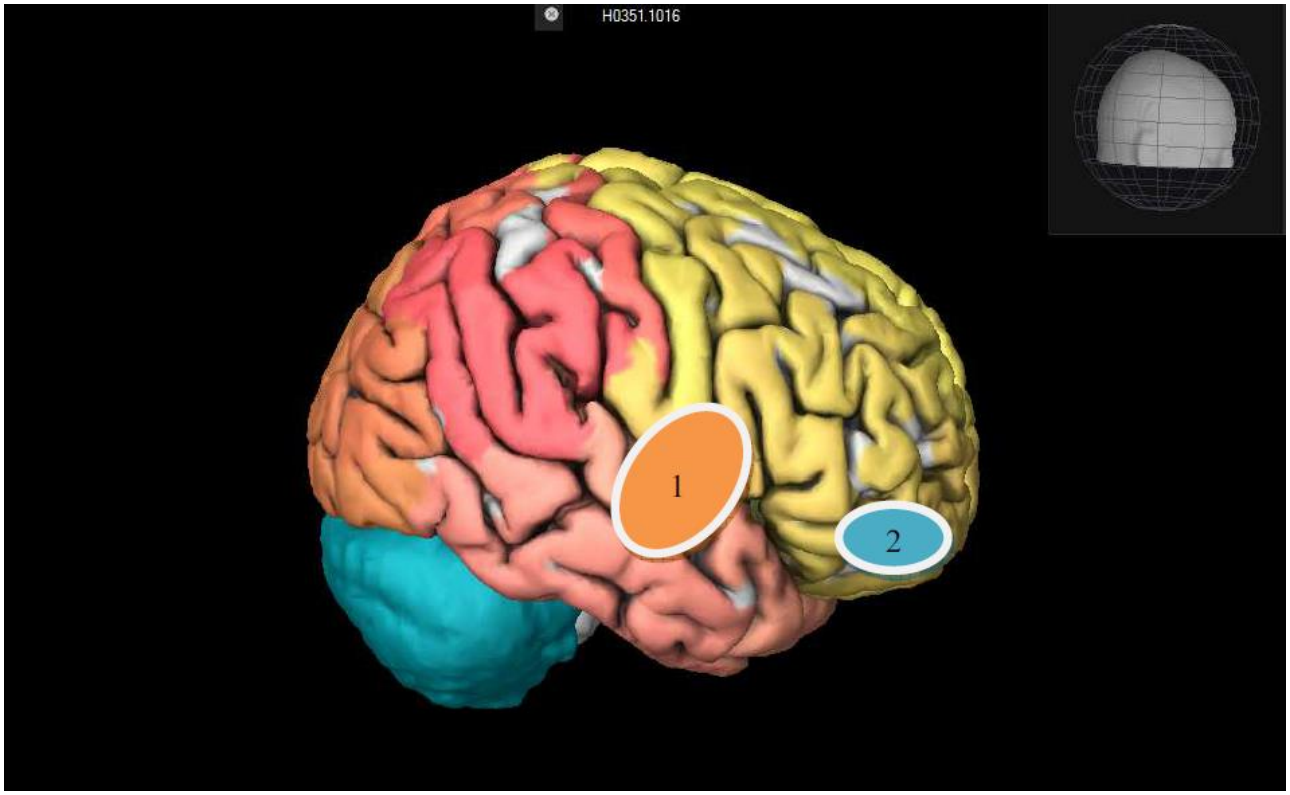


Fig. 3.4. Proposed Language Regions in Right hemisphere. © Author, 2015

[19] Reproduced from Mallik, Nilanko. "Neuronal Network and Language: A Need for Change and Expansion of Terminology." *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Thought*, 5(5). Pg. 42, 2015.

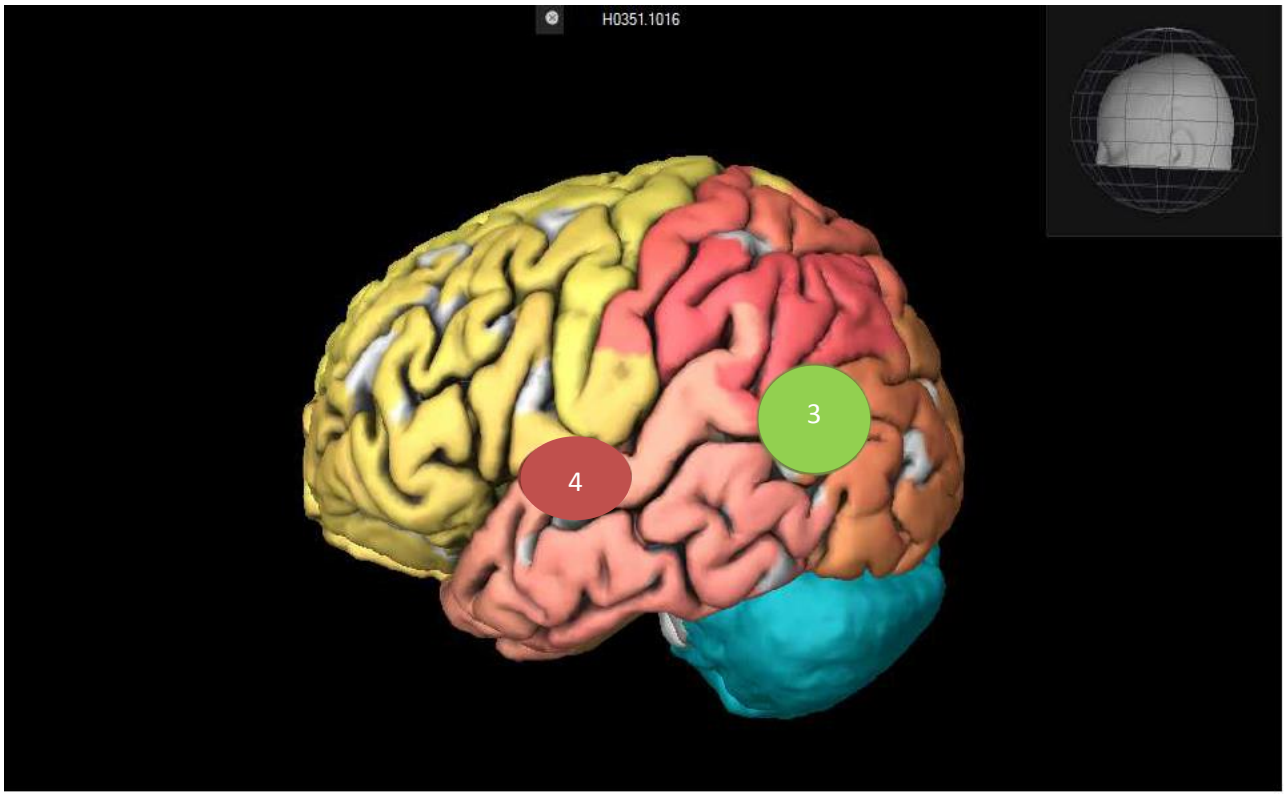


Fig. 3.5. Proposed Language Regions in Left Hemisphere, © author, 2019

4. THE BIRTH OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE – HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

Previous chapters examined the migration of peoples and looked at language families. We shall now examine the Celtic and the Germanic Groups under IE, which were not examined earlier as these groups are directly linked to the origin of English, and therefore, it is fitting that they be discussed here.

The Celtic Group of Languages

The Celts were the earliest settlers of Britain. So, technically, the English Language should come from this group. Unfortunately, it does not. That is because the Celts were invaded by the Romans and a group of tribes, called the Anglo-Saxons, who were to re-shape the English language. The Celtic group, is not, however, without trace. When the Anglo-Saxons invaded, the Celts receded to the West and North, and so, Cornish, Welsh and Scots Gaelic and Irish Gaelic are the languages which are the markers of the Celtic group, although the Scots Gaelic and the Irish Gaelic are considered to be dialects more than languages.

The Celtic Group can be divided into two categories: the Insular Celtic Group (forming the British Isles) and the Continental Celtic Group (the regions in the mainland of Europe).

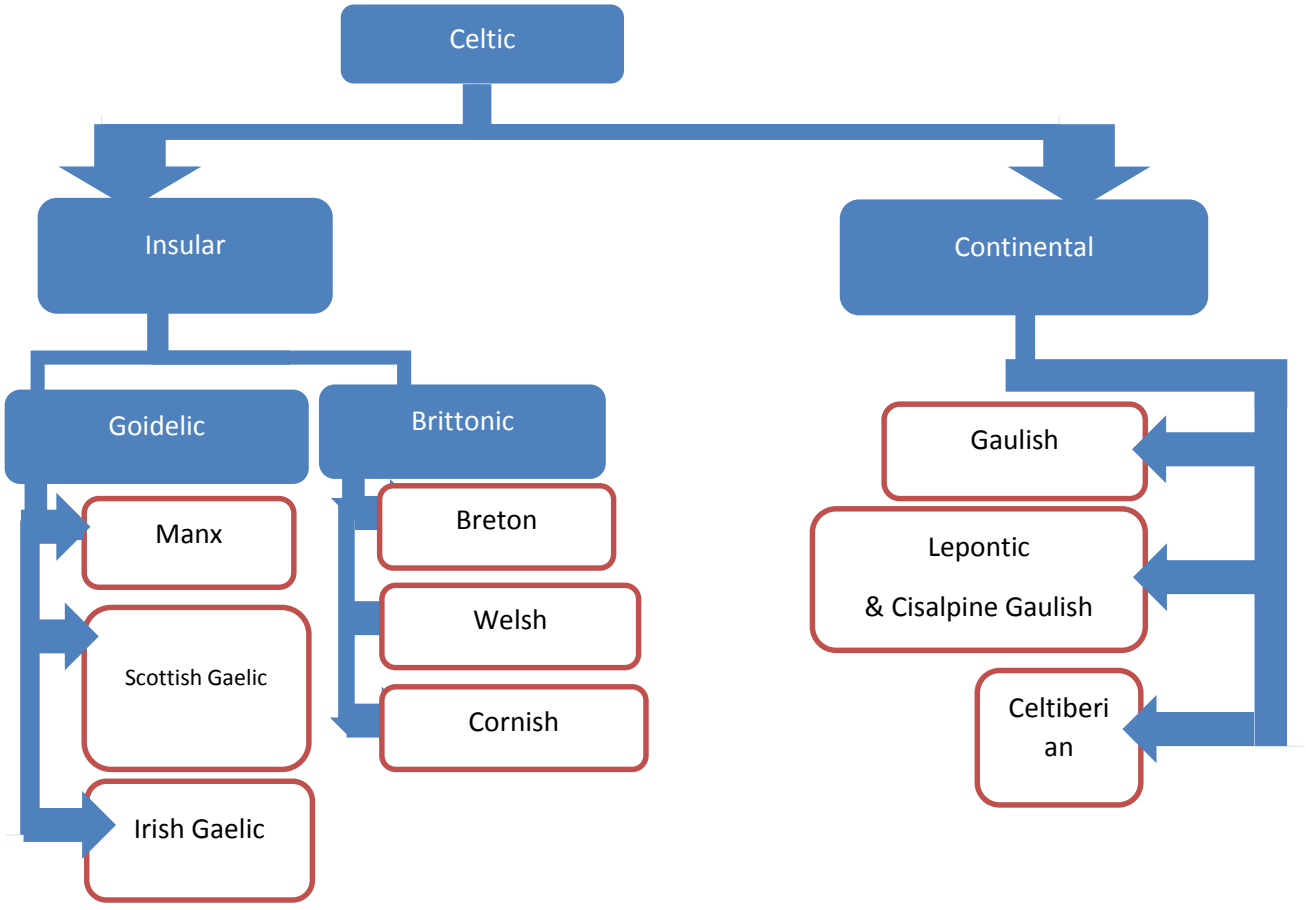


Fig. 4.1. The Celtic Group of Languages © Author

The Germanic Group of Languages

By a process of elimination, students must have been able to figure out by now that if this is our last group of study, and if we have not looked at the birth of the English language, it must have been from this group.

That is so.

English belongs to the Germanic group of Languages. It must be specified here that the word Germanic should not be mistaken for Germany or German. German refers to the nation as it came to be later, and German is an adjective of Germany. Germanic, on the other hand, refers to the group of languages as well as the peoples, who lived in the region which later became Germany and its surrounding areas. As Germany is the most prominent nation of the group, the label 'Germanic' has been ascribed to this group. The following chart examines the languages of the Group.

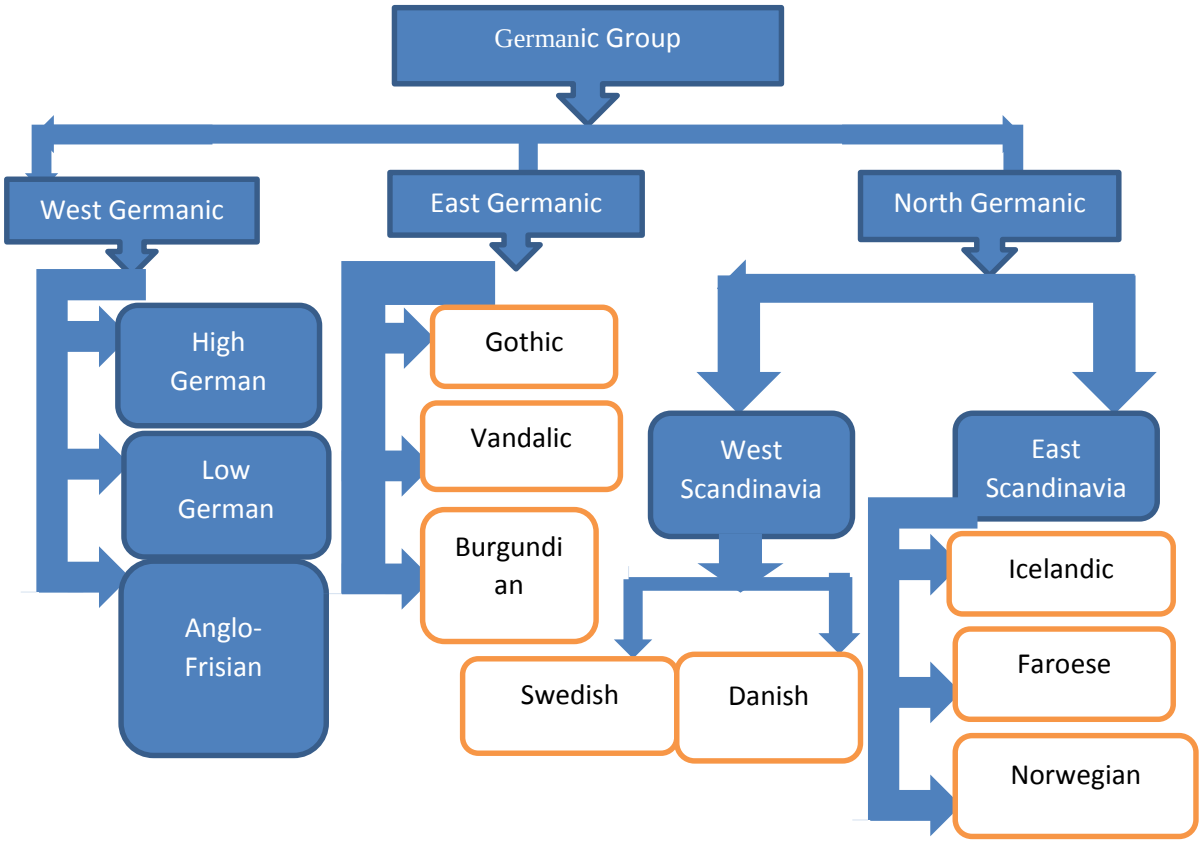


Fig. 4.2. The Germanic Group of Languages © Author

In this figure, it has not been possible – due to lack of space – to list the languages under the three divisions of the West Germanic Group. So, we shall take this up in a new chart.

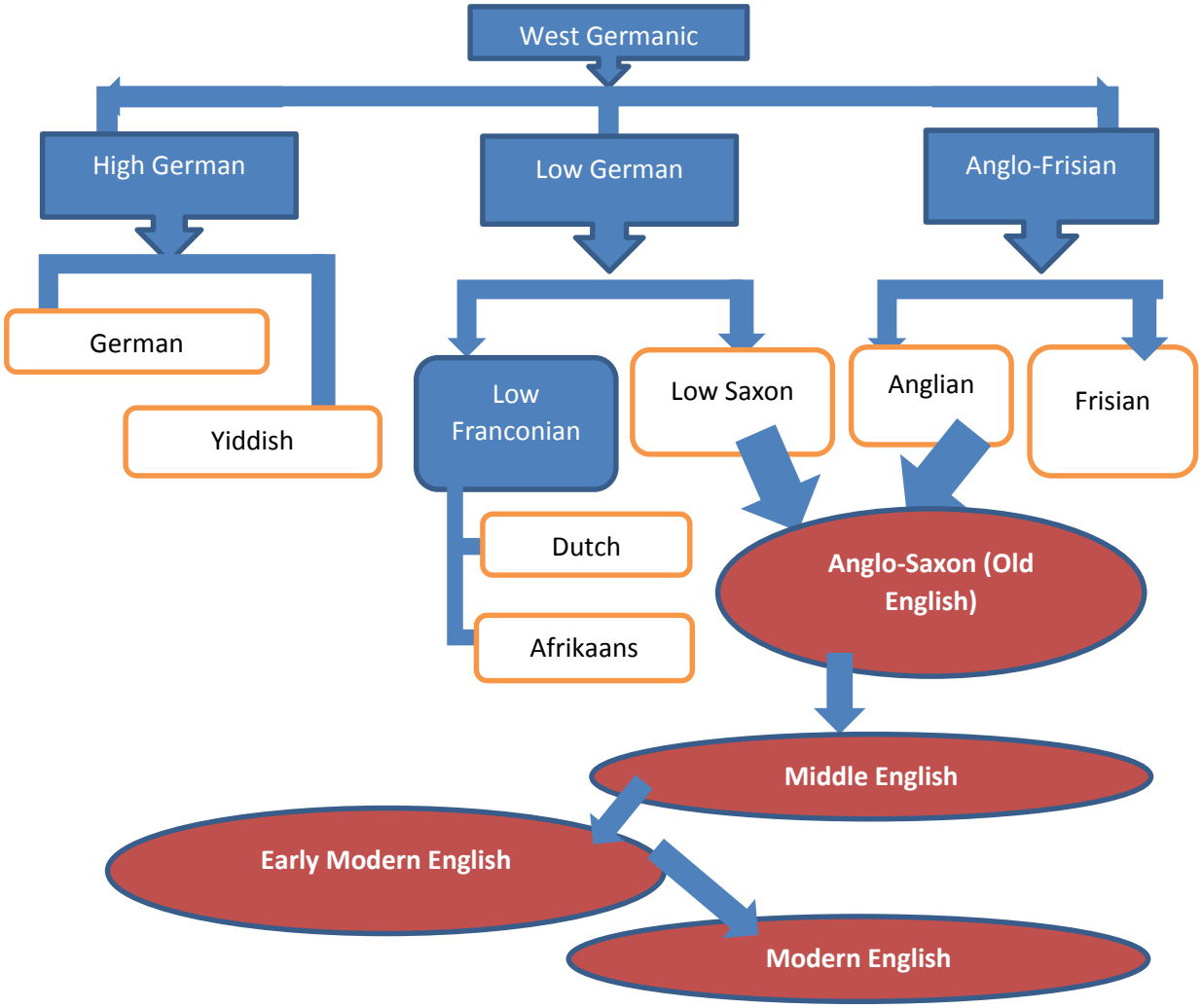


Fig. 4.3. The West Germanic Group © Author

As can be seen from this chart, the origin of the English Language is from a literally "low" beginning, and it is a great credit that it has risen to be the only global language at present.

Earlier scholarship used to consider English as part of the Low German group altogether, but recent re-charting of the language groups have made a division in the language of the Saxons and and the Angles (Anglian), who together formed the Anglo-Saxons who invaded Britain. The language that came up is known as Old English. So, students must be able to distinguish between Anglo-Saxons and Old English. Anglo-Saxons refer to the tribes who invaded Britain, and Old English is the language that they spoke. Of course, they did not add the word "Old" before English, and that is a modern coinage, to distinguish the English that they spoke and the English which developed in the succeeding ages.

As seen in chapter 2, Anglo-Frisian and Low Saxon belong to two different groups, and one should avoid the mistake made by the earlier scholars to group Anglo-Frisian under Low German. So, English, when it rose, was a combination of Low Saxon and Anglian tongues.

How English Got Its Name

As studied in the previous chapter, the Celts were the earliest settlers of Britain, and the language which they spoke was Breton. When the Romans came to this isle, they called it Britannia, which later became Britain.

When the Anglo-Saxons came, they seated their languages on the new land, and English was born.

The word English comes in the following way:

Æglisc (this was the word for the language of the Ængles) > Englisc > English.

In the same way, we get the name England:

Ængla + land = Ænglaland > Ængland > England

The Growing Phases of English

From the birth of the English Language, which occurred in the 5th century CE, the English Language has kept growing in leaps and bounds, although there have been times of sudden growth and times of near-extinct situations. The following labels have been attributed to English with regards to the various phases of its growth:

1. Old English (from 450-1066AD) – this is the earliest phase, and relates to the time of the Anglo-Saxon rule in England.
2. Middle English (1066-mid 1500AD) – this is the time when the French invaded England, and English became highly influenced by the French Language.
3. Early Modern English (mid 1500-1900) – Scholars now refer to the time of Renaissance and the few succeeding centuries in England as Early Modern period. Accordingly, the English of the times is labelled Early Modern English. Readers should note that the end of he period is purely conjectural. Books may stretch the end of this phase to the end of the 20th century also, or may even end it at the start of the 19th century (1800).
4. Late Modern English (1901 onwards) – we are at present in this phase, although present trends in the English language may soon cause the labelling of another phase. The Late Modern English is also called Modern English in general terminology.

5. THE ENGLISH SCRIPTS – FROM ANGLO-SAXON TIMES TO PRESENT

We have looked at the birth of the English language from the migration of peoples, and have marked the various phases in the growth of the language. In this chapter, we shall consider how it expanded with the centuries, and how it came to be influenced by so many other languages. However, before one examines the Anglo-Saxon script, the history of writing must be examined.

The earliest examples of art are similar to painting. Rock art was the medium of expression, and often, that is all that can be said about the written language as well, due to dearth of proper language systems, as opposed to the paintings. The Neanderthals are known to have some kind of art form, but no language script has been discovered so far, as has already been commented upon in chapter 1. The following figure shows markings on rocks, supposedly made by the Neanderthal man.

Fig. 5.1. Art Expressed on Rock, Possibly by Neanderthal Man, found in Gorham's Cave, Gibraltar. © AquilaGib (Stewart Finlayson, Gibraltar Museum)[20]

As can be seen, there are marked similarities with the writing systems of the later river valley civilisations, but due to lack of data, further research is not possible at this time to explore the communication system (in writing) of the Neanderthals.

[20] licenced under CC BY-SA 4.0, from Wikimedia Commons

Homo sapiens, quite like the Neanderthals, began to express their art (and written language) in rocks. The writing carved into such rocks is known as cuneiform script (cunis in Latin means wedges), as the writing appeared to have "wedges" instead of being round or curvy in shape, which was obviously due to difficulty of producing round/curvy shapes in stones and rocks and the comparative ease of producing straight, pointed shapes. Ancient Egyptian and Indus Valley scripts are examples of cuneiform scripts.

The Celtic Script

It has been stated earlier that the Celts were the first human settlers of Britain, who were pushed to the west and north when the Anglo-Saxons attacked from Europe. Lisa Hendry states the following regarding the first *homo sapiens* in Britain: "The earliest direct evidence is a jaw fragment found in Kent's Cavern, Devon. Scientific analysis estimated it to be at least 40,000 years old" (2017).

The Celtic alphabet has been laballed "ogham" alphabet, although there are many dialectical variations. The language of the Celts, now regional dialects in Scotland and Wales, also had cuneiform structures, but at this stage, earned the label "runes".

> Runes, in all their varieties, may be regarded as the "national" script of the ancient North Germanic tribes. The origin of the name *rune* (or *runic*) is probably related to the fact that the ancient Germanic tribes, like many other peoples, attributed magic powers to the mysterious symbols scratched on armour, jewels, tombstones, and so forth. This is given credence by two related Germanic forms that mean "mystery, secret, secrecy": the Old Germanic root *ru-* and the Gothic *runa*. The most interesting runic inscriptions are those that were cut for magical purposes and those that appeal to deities (Diringer and Olson, "Alphabet").

The greatest name associated with the Celts is one of legend, myth and history: King Arthur, who was mistaken for an Anglo-Saxon for a long time (from the times of the French invasion of England in 1066AD), but was a Celtic ruler who had fought against the Anglo-Saxons, if he ever had existed.

Fig.5.2. Celtiberian Script – The First Botoritta Bronze Plaque, excavated in Contrebia Belaisca, Spain.

The Anglo-Saxon Script

The Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes (who, unfortunately, did not find mention in the name) and a cousin – Picts – came to Britain from Europe, and settled for themselves. The Picts decided to explore the far north of the British Isles.

However, before the Anglo-Saxons came, there were the Romans (43-410AD). The Romans left their influence in the names of some places. This is known as the **first classical influence**.

So, although the first phase is the Old English period, this Old English is not just the tongue of the Anglo-Saxons. They took the names of the places from the Romans and the Romans had taken them from the Celts. Before the Roman invasion, the Celts were divided among themselves and there was no sense of unity. Although they never achieved total unity even after the coming of the Romans, they got an idea of being different and distinct from the Romans.

> Prior to the Romans, Britain was a disparate set of peoples with no sense of national identity beyond that of their local tribe. In the wake of the Roman occupation, every 'Briton' was aware of their 'Britishness'. This defined them as something different from those people who came after them, colouring their national mythology, so that the Welsh could see themselves as the true heirs of Britain, whilst the Scots and Irish were proud of the fact that they had never been conquered by Rome (Ibeji, 2011).

The Roman rule ended when the Anglo-Saxons invaded England, for the emperor did not come to the aid of the Romans living in Britian. The Anglo-Saxons stayed in Britain, driving the Celts to the West and North.

The alphabets of Old English were highly different from modern English. The given figure charts the Old English Alphabets.

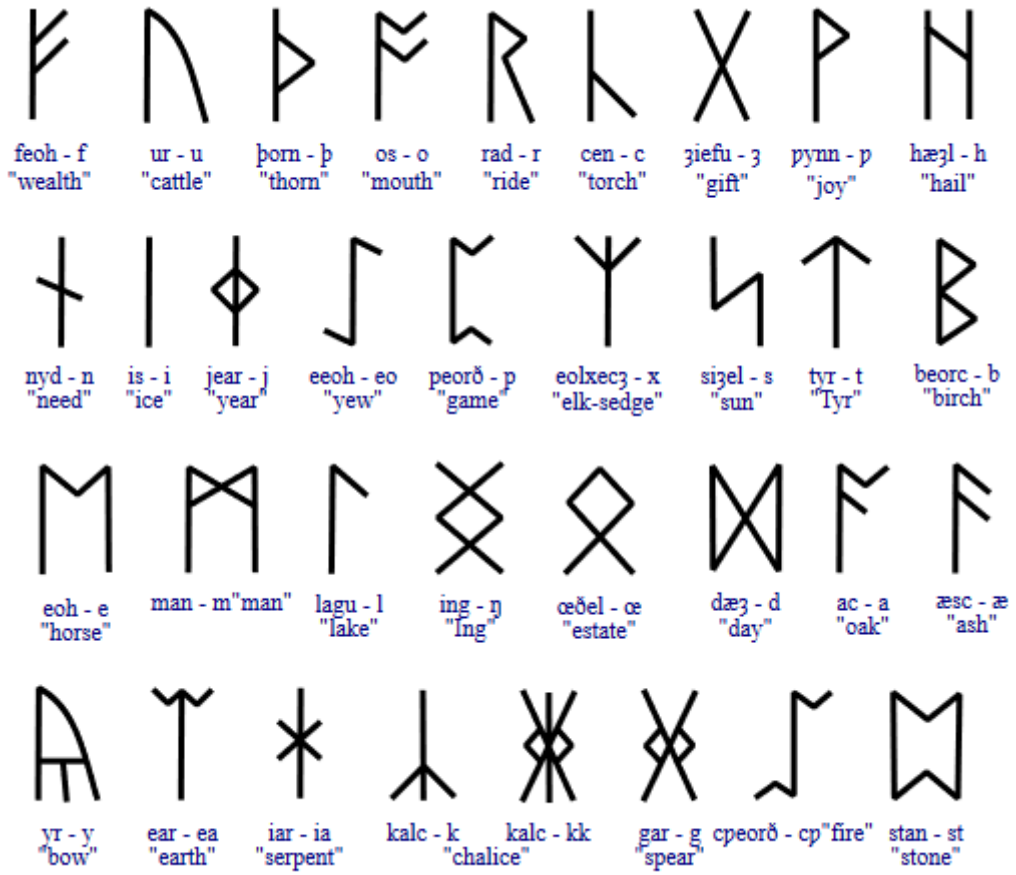


Fig. 5.3. The Anglo-Saxon Runes (Futhark/Futhork)[21]

The Anglo-Saxon alphabets were in runes, which were conically shaped markings. The early Germanic script has 24 letters, and were divided into three groups. Each group had 8 letters, and the groups were known as *ættir* (one must notice the similarly in sound with "eight"). The first letters of the first group were, in present English transcription, *f, u, th, a, r, k,* giving us the name of the alphabet "futhark" (Britannica), which has the deviant spelling "futhorc". With time, the number of alphabets increased to 28, and by 900AD, they were 34 in number. As seen from the runes, the writing was very different, and if one were to see the Anglo-Saxon writing, it would no doubt, pose difficulty in reading. However, when the words are read out loud, or when one hears the Anglo-Saxon words, the similarity is seen, for the pronunciation of the words of Anglo-Saxon have not changed much, if one rules out the ever-changing British accent. Following are some of the Anglo-Saxon words:

yldra – elder; *min* – mine/my; *broþer* – brother; *æfter* – after; t*īd* – time

We have already noted how English and England come from Old English words. Other then these words relating to the national identity, the Anglo-Saxons also gave us words for the two genders: man and woman. *Man* comes from Old English (OE) word *mann* and woman comes from OE *w-īfmann*. It would be quite interesting to note that in Old English, *wīf* meant what at present we understand as *wife*. *Wīfmann* therefore means "wife of a man", and curiously, that is the identity not of wife, but for *woman*, for although in Modern English, *wīf* means *wife*, *wīfmann* means *woman*. So, a woman, speaking etymologically, has her identity rooted to a man, and is regarded as a wife from her identity of a woman!

Wīfmann > *wimman* > *wiman* > *woman*.

There were four Old English dialects:

a. West Saxon – spoken in the court of the king;
b. Mercian – spoken in the midlands;[22]
c. Northumbrian – spoken in the regions of Northumbria;
d. Kentish – spoken in the regions around Kent.

To add to the complexity, the Anglo-Saxon tongue was not the only one spoken besides the Celtic tongues. During the Anglo-Saxon period came the Scandinavian invasions, and they left their mark in a lot of words.[23] This is another reason why the period is called Anglo-Saxon, but the language is Old English.

So, Old English comprised some traces of Celtic Breton, some Roman (Latin) words (and numbers), some Scandinavian words along with the Anglo-Saxon ones.

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[21] It is also a custom to spell the last alphabet as "c", although the sound is /k/.

[22] Modern English has come from this dialect.

[23] The Scandinavian influence will be studied in chapter 5.

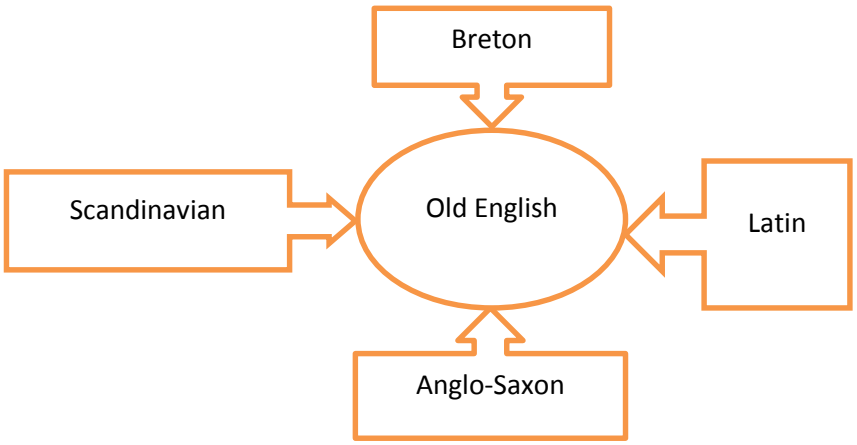

Fig. 5.4. The Influences on Old English © Author

As a result, the Anglo-Saxon script changed from its early use to its last days (before the Middle English phase began). As noted in the online book "Scripts" by the School of Advanced Study, University of London, we can have Old English written in half-uncial script of Latin, or Insular script of Celtic, the Anglo-Saxon miniscule (after the Scandinavian invasion) and later, the Caroline miniscule.

Middle English – The French Influence on Script and Pronunciation

The Normans came to conquer Britain, and the rule passed to them in 1066, at the battle of Hastings. William, the Duke of Normandy, became the ruler in England.[24] The Anglo-Saxon domination ended, and English entered the complexities of middle age: the Middle English period, which was the time when English was highly influenced by the French. The present alphabet that the English system follows is due to the French influence.[25] The Anglo-Saxon script was disbanded, with the exception of certain alphabets, and they too, are now removed, and have no place except as some phonetic symbols.

French became the official language of Britain, while the language of the Church remained Latin, and the language of the commoners was Anglo-Saxon, and they were in pressure to adopt the French Language. A lot of hard vowels were lost during this phase, as the French style themselves on the softness of utterance. The French influence was, therefore, seen in everything except religious words.

With time, however, the Norman French living in England developed a hybrid culture (as is bound to happen, and did happen later with the English who settled in the United States) and stopped persecuting the Anglo-Saxon language, and the English language began to take a new shape as a

[24] By England, I do not refer to the British Isles, but to England only (and not Wales, Scotland or Ireland). It was not till the time of James I that Scotland became allied with England, and the official unity was to take place even later.

[25] The English, although Germanic in origin, follows the Roman script due to this invasion. French, as studied in chapter 2, comes from Latin, and the group is often called the Romance languages group. So, the script which French language follows is the same as Latin, i.e., the Roman script, as the empire was once called.

result of this hybridization. There was no standard spelling rule, as the language was undergoing a change.

This, no doubt, proved extremely beneficial for writers, who recorded new usages in their writings and have been credited by modern scholars as the originators of the new words and usages. **Geoffrey Chaucer**[26] is the greatest name in Middle English period for enriching the language with new words and usages, and for writing in a manner which others looked up to for beauty and elegance.

The English script, when read at this time, would look familiar on sight, if one is able to look past the decorative cursive style of writing. However, pronunciation was highly different, and there were some symbols which are no longer used. These continued in the Renaissance, and it is only a recent development that the present English script is used, and that too, is undergoing several changes.

The Early Modern English Script

The Renaissance is often clubbed under "Early Modern Age" as this marks the start of modern thoughts in philosophy.

Notable features of the script of this age is the use of *ſ* to stand for "s" in the lower case (see fig. below).

This age retained the use of "V" in a lot of places where "u" is now used, and vise versa, due to the influence of French and Romans (Latin script) mentioned earlier. Love was spelled as "loue" due to French influence on spelling and pronunciation and "ensuing" was spelled as "ennsving". The following figure from one of his most famous sonnets illustrates these aspects.

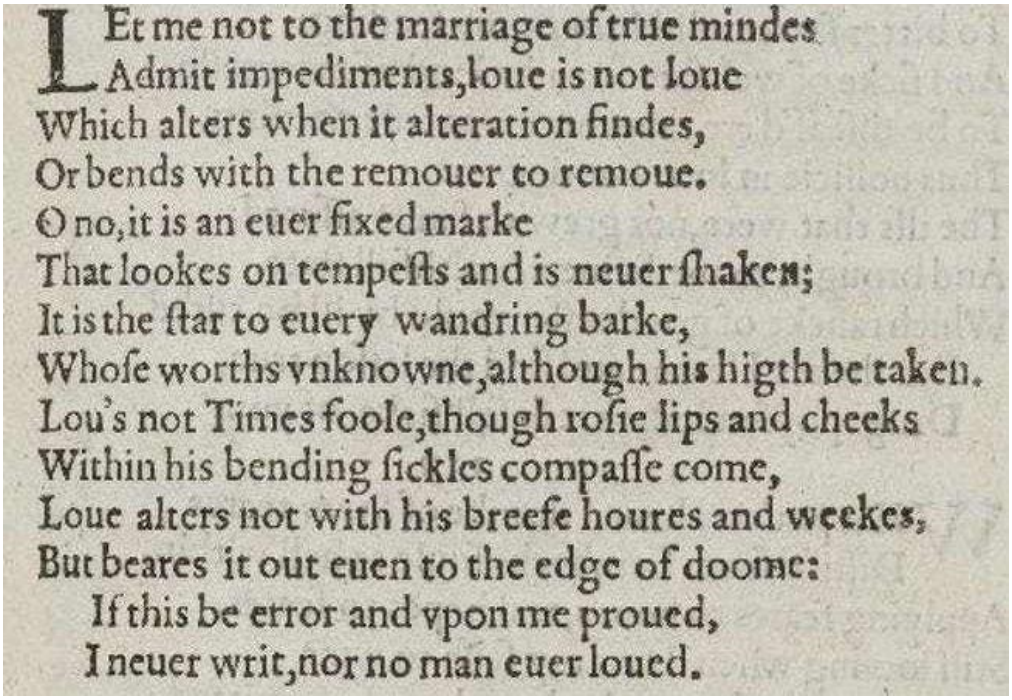
LEt me not to the marriage of true mindes
Admit impediments, loue is not loue
Which alters when it alteration findes,
Or bends with the remouer to remoue.
O no, it is an euer fixed marke
That lookes on tempeſts and is neuer ſhaken;
It is the ſtar to euery wandring barke,
Whoſe worths vnknowne, although his higth be taken.
Lou's not Times foole, though roſie lips and cheeks
Within his bending ſickles compaſſe come,
Loue alters not with his breefe houres and weekes,
But beares it out euen to the edge of doome:
If this be error and vpon me proued,
I neuer writ, nor no man euer loued.

Fig. 5.5. Shakespeare's Sonnet 116.

[26] Chaucer's contribution will be discussed in chapter 9 of section II.

As can be observed, it was also not the custom to place the apostrophe before “s” for forming possessions, so one would spell “Times foole” instead of “Time’s fool”. The excess use of “e” is a carried forward feature from the French influence of Middle English period.

6. COGNITION AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The Content View

Psycholinguists have been debating about cognition and language for a long time, with the present trend being on the need of Psycholinguistics to rely on evidence from Neuroscience. Chomsky still holds prominence in this field, although the ground has been slippery for more than a decade. Chomsky is of the opinion that a person if born with the knowledge of language and that is how one is able to use it. The child possesses what he labels as "universal grammar" or UG: "UG is a characterization of those biologically determined principles, which constitute one faculty of the human mind, the language faculty" (Chomsky, 1986: 24). A person has "switches" which a person sets when one hears a language.

> We may think of UG as an intricately structured system, but one that is only partially 'wired-up'. The system is associated with a finite set of switches, each of which has a finite number of positions (perhaps two). Experience is required to set the switches. When they are set the system functions
>
> (Chomsky 1986: 146).

Aitchison calls this Content Cuthbert view, as opposed to the other Process Peggy view (2008: 124).

While Chomsky's ideas may seem vague, and Chomsky has himself changed and abandoned most of his views regarding the transformational grammar and his theories about innateness of language (2000 and 2002), one might still see some truth if one considers the following observation.

A child learns the basics of language before going to pre-school/kindergarten. In other words, when one is in such formal institutes, one can already speak and has begun to recognize the alphabets, thanks to the training of the parents who are eager to see their child speak and demonstrate his/her possession of language.

Let us consider this process more carefully. When a parent tries to make a child learn the alphabets, the parent has an illustrated book in hand, and makes the child see the alphabet and repeats the sound. After several attempts, the child is successful in repeating the sound and the parent is proud. Parents may also consider whole words at this stage "A for apple, B for ball" as per the prescriptions of tradition and apparent directions of such books for learning the English Alphabet. The child is, after a while, able to point at the illustration for "ball" when the parent makes this sound, and might also point at the a ball in reality, trying to speak the words, although it would take a while before the child is able to utter words which involve combinations of CVC (consonant-vowel-consonant). At this stage, one has only to ask, how does the child understand what the parent is saying, to understand that Chomsky, although on slippery ground, still has a footing.

To elaborate this, the following aspects need to be understood about the child:

1. (s)he is able to understand that the sound /eɪ/ corresponds to the inscription 'A' in the pages;
2. (s)he is able to understand that the picture associated with 'A' corresponds to the writing 'apple';
3. (s)he is able to understand that the writing 'apple' is to be pronounced 'apple';

4. (s)he is able to make a distinction between the written markings and the sounds made and also make a connection between the two;
5. (s)he is able to understand that the parent is speaking in a language, and although she does not know the alphabets, she is able to make sense of what is being said, which is visible from the end result of later utterances;
6. (s)he is able to ignore the difference in sound in the utterance of /eɪ/, for the marking 'A' and /æ/, for the starting sound of 'apple' /æpl/;
7. (s)he is able to process the syntax in which the parent speaks, so that other words, whose meanings are not known, are (must be!) processed by the brain for their function, e.g. "This is A", "A for apple" and so on.

All of this process, so apparent and surprising, is of course not understood by the parent (unless the parent is skilled in Psychology or Linguistics), and has so far, not been considered by the linguists, who have focused on the child's uttering the words in various circumstances or ages, but have ignored to consider the cognitive processes that must go on in the child's brain for him/her to comprehend the words in the first place.

This leads one to the following inferences:

1. Comprehension precedes production;
2. There is a "language faculty" which is responsible for comprehension in the first place, else, the child would never have made sense of what was being spoken. As studies in aphasia have shown, such is the cases of those suffering from Wernicke's aphasia, where patients are unable to comprehend (Mallik, 2018).

What this suggests is that Neurolinguistics need to find out another area, or, other areas, responsible for storing knowledge to make comprehension possible in Wernicke's area.

The Process View

The process view has taken more interest, partly due to the obscurity of Chomsky's ideas about switches and UG, and his gradual shift towards more abstract forms. The Process view is supported by researchers like Aitchison and Tomasello (2003) and Slobin:

> The child's mind is somehow 'set' in a predetermined way to process…human language…That is not to say that the grammatical system itself is given as innate knowledge, but that the child has innate means of processing information and forming internal structures, and that when these capacities are applied to the speech he hears, he succeeds in constructing a grammar of his native language (1971: 56).

As can be observed, Slobin carefully shifts the focus from "knowledge" to "information" about structures. However, as he realizes, there is an innateness about language, and he uses the expression, although shifting its focus.

So, the process view, as per Slobin, does not denounce the innate hypothesis, but merely shifts its focus. It denies that "knowledge" is innate, but that "processing information and forming internal structures" is innate. As any Neuroscientist would assert, this view is more aligned with Neuroscience, because it endorses the function of the brain in storing information and processing them to come to comprehension.

Indeed, as suggested in earlier research, there are other areas besides Broca's and Wernicke's and one has to consider the prosodic areas in the opposite side also, and come to new terminology, expanding the areas of language (Mallik 2015). Innateness, therefore, comes down to the processes of the brain which are at work for comprehending languages in the first place. Let us now look at another view of language learning, one which is coined by the author.

The Formative View of Language Learning

Let us now focus on an earlier stage of language learning, before a parent attempts to teach from books of alphabets. As a child learns to utter sounds, vowels come out, and sounds of consonants are extended to sounds of vowels. So, /m/ becomes extended with /a:/, leading to the long /ma:/ and the delighted mother. The brain of the child at this stage does not have enough control, and there is no stop after uttering /ma:/ and as a result, the child often repeats the sound. So, most of the children would say /ma:ma:/, /ba:ba:/, /pa:pa/, /da:da/ and so on. More shatteringly, as studies have shown, a child does not necessarily attach meaning to these sounds. Children have been shown to utter /ma:ma/ or similar sounds when their mothers are not around, and they clearly do not call for their mothers at that time, and they have also been seen attaching this word to other objects (McNeill 1970).

What this means is:

1. the child hears the sounds and stores the sounds;
2. the child identifies objects or people associated with the sound (in other words, stores the images associated with the sounds);
3. the neural pathway, through repetition of signals, becomes set for each sound and visualisations, and that is the formation of memory for these sounds connected with the objects/beings/images;
4. after the connection is established, comprehension takes place each time the child (to the stage of adulthood and old age) hears the sound, for the connection visual image stored with the auditory signal is processed;
5. when a child is prompted to speak, the child understands (s)he needs to respond by hearing a prompt word, which is different in its intonation from the prompt word uttered when one only had to comprehend (this is where the prosodic regions come into play).

Let us examine how these aspects are valid for the child in learning a language, and how this connects both the content and process views of language. If one takes these into consideration, one understands:

1. *why* a child utters the same sound for different objects/beings – the neural network, storing information (to refer to Slobin) is triggering a response when a child sees the object/being associated with a particular sound, and as these associations are more than one in number, the child utters the same sound for a variety of objects/situations/beings;
2. *how* a child is able to "know" (to refer to the content view) what the parent tries to teach the child (refer to points 5 and 7 for the content view above) – the child is not successful at first, but his brain works it all out after a few times that "A" sounds /eɪ/, and apple begins with /æ/, and that the same alphabet can be seen in the word "apple" (the child is able to recognize the similar marking) and that the image sounds /æpl/ and the markings "apple" stand for a word, together sounding /æpl/;
3. *why* and *how* a child repeats instruction – the use of prompt words.

The third point needs more clarification. It has been presumed by Tomasello (1992) that verbs are the key words which help a child learn a language more than other words. The research is supported by a lot of evidence. While verbs may be learned more by children as part of their vocabulary, what prompts the child to speak in times of instructions are other prompt words, like *this*, *for*. English language learners learn the alphabets hearing these common expressions from their parents:

"*THIS* is A"

"A is *FOR* apple".

More than the verb "is" and its function, the child picks up on "This" and "for", processed by the Semantic and Lexical Comprehension region (Mallik 2015), or SLC region. When the parent wants the child to repeat, the parent asks,

"What is *THIS*—?"

"A is *FOR*—?"

The dash represents the extension of the words. The parent supplies the dash in the tonal utterance, expecting the child to fill that up, just as there would be a dash if the child were to write the word down. The child had heard the sound of *this* and *for* earlier, and had recognized them as distinct entities in SLC, but now hears the same words in a different tone, and a new set of meaning is made, involving the region of Figurative and Prosodic Comprehension (Mallik, 2015) or FPC region.

So, the prompt words are *this* and *for*, and they have at least two tonal variations for the child:

THIS, FOR (requiring the child to understand)

THIS—, FOR— (requiring the child to repeat).

It must be understood that both the sets will register differences in meaning, involving FPC and SLC, for as the child hears the tones (as opposed to only reading them), the child forms associations of meanings in collaboration of both the regions.

After several attempts, where the parent might have to fill up the gaps at first, the child successfully understands that *THIS—, FOR—* is different in function from *THIS, FOR* and when the child hears the tone which requires him/her to say, (s)he is able to say, which involves the Verbal Output/Production region (Mallik 2015) or VP/VO region. to the delight of the parents.

This view, propounded in this research, is given the name Formative View. Not only does the view talk about the formation and associations of the words with objects/beings/situations, but also talks about the associative function of language regions in storing knowledge (involving auditory and visual input processing in the temporal lobe and occipital lobe, respectively), comprehension (involving SLC and FPC regions) and production (involving VP/VO region). The child, at this stage, is unable to produce the tonal variations involving Figurative and Prosodic Production region (Mallik 2015) or FPP region, but is able to master the art slowly, although not everyone gains equal expertise in uttering words in varied tones.

The fact that information must be stored for comprehension to take place is also suggested by studies on aphasia, which clearly show that a patient is not able to comprehend language only to

a *certain* extent. At no point of time does comprehension become *zero* in terms of percentage. Also, the fact that Wernicke's aphasia can be treated (Mallik 2014, 2018) leading to recovery of patients, show that the storage of information is not lost, and once recovered, a person can again comprehend language. Moreover, during the stage of Wernicke's aphasia, a patient is bound to make wrong comprehension instead of no comprehension, which again shows that the information is stored, but the connections are severed.

All of this support the formative view put propounded here. The formative view of language learning, coined by the author, does not stop at a child acquiring language, but extends the way for future research to show that language is in a constant state of formation.

7. STANDARDISATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A. The Great Vowel Shift

The Great Vowel Shift refers to the collective changes in the English pronunciation (and subsequently, affecting the spelling of the language) that took place during c. 1400-1600.

As a result of this,

i. the *e* at the end of words became silent;
ii. the long vowels of Middle English (ME) were affected;
iii. the way of the entry of diphthongs was made in the English language;
iv. spellings changed to suit the change in pronunciation, and for a long time, a variety of spellings were used, till they were standardized in the 15th and 16th centuries.

The Great Vowel Change is treated by scholars as an upward change in vowel pronunciation – a chain reaction. However, there is still a debate whether it was a push chain or a pull chain.

To study the Great Vowel Change, the following chart needs to be studied.

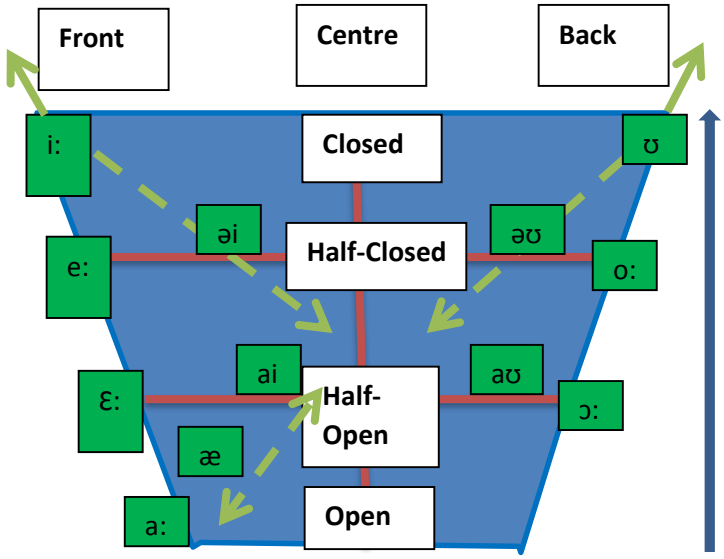

Fig. 7.1. The Vowel Shift Chart

The chart often baffles students, but is really very helpful, and once learned, it helps one remember a lot of the changes.[27]

The words in white boxes refer to the position of vowels in the mouth while uttering. So, vowels can be

i. open, like /a:/

[27] Although it must be admitted that one needs to know the sounds that relate to the phonetic symbols used in the figure.

ii. half-open, like /Ɛ:/, /ɔ:/,
iii. half-closed, like /e:/, /o:/
iv. closed, like /i:/ or /ʊ:/

They can also be uttered from

i. the front of the mouth, like /a:/, /Ɛ:/, /e:/ and /i:/;
ii. the back of the mouth, like /ɔ:/, /o:/, /ʊ:/

The symbols which have two figures in the boxes are diphthong.[28]

As can be seen from this chart, it is easy to remember the vowels and place them in their respective groups, if one remembers the chart.

It will be noticed that there are arrow marks to the left and right. This represents what was earlier referred to as the "upward shift" that this is considered to be. With the influence of the French language, pronunciation change, and sounds were modified. The sounds which were on the lower levels were modified in their pronunciation to shift upwards, creating space for later entry of more sounds. Before one can proceed further, one needs to familiarise oneself with the pronunciation of the sounds that are listed. The alphabets in bold signify how the symbols needed to be pronounced.

/a:/ f**a**ther

/Ɛ:/ d**ay**

/e:/ br**ea**k

/i:/ r**ee**d;

/ɔ:/ h**o**t;

/o:/ **o**val;

/ʊ:/ tab**oo**.

/æ/ b**a**t

/ai/ b**y**e

/əi/ h**i**

/əʊ/ ch**ow**mein

/aʊ/ sh**ow**

In the change, the vowels moved upward in the chart. In other words, the pronunciations changed.

/a:/ moved up from its place to where /e:/ was, and this is how we pronounce at present.

[28] A diphthong is a combination of two or more vowel sounds. Earlier, there used to be triphthong (fusion of three vowel sounds), but that has long gone out of use. So, diphthong is what remains. Although they contain two sounds, as there is no division between them, they are regarded as one sound. All the diphthongs are long vowel sounds, as it takes time to utter the fusion sounds.

In ME, “April” was spelled as “Aprill” and the first sound was as given above for /a:/. It changed to /e:/ and this is how we pronounce “April” now.

/Ɛ:/ also changed to the place above it, /e:/, and so, its sound was also modified.

What was originally /e:/ also underwent change. It moved upward to the next level, /i:/, which is a long “ee” sound.

/i:/ also moved upward, and went out of the chart, to become a diphthong, which has been given by giving a downward arrow on the left side. It expanded to become the sound of the alphabet “I”, /əi/, then /ai/.

In the same manner, /ɔ:/ went upwards to be pronounced as /o:/, and what was originally /o:/ began to be pronounced /ʊ:/.

/ʊ:/ in turn went outwards, to become the diphthong /əʊ/ and then /aʊ/.

This is where the debate exists between the push-pull aspect of the change. It is not clear whether the change came from below upwards or from top down. In other words, did /a:/ change to /e:/ first, and the others accordingly, ultimately pushing out the /i:/ on top, or did /i:/ expand to become a diphthong, creating a space and making way for the others to step up? As /a:/ has clearly jumped a space, some argue that it was from top-down (pull-chain).

As can be seen, the chart also shows that /ai/ underwent another change, and fused to /æ/. This is where the ones in favour of push-chain can say that it is not a modification of /ai/ to /æ/ but a variation of /a:/ to /æ/. Had it been the other way round, one would have fallen back to /a:/ once more. As that did not happen, there is ground for the argument that it was a push-chain, i.e., from bottoms-up.

Four results of the Great Vowel Change have been discussed already. Besides these, there were a few more.

v. The consonant ‘x’ /h/ was removed when it occurred in the middle of words and as a result, the preceding vowel sounds became longer and was finally replaced with a diphthong. This is called **compensatory lengthening.**

ME spelling	ME pronunciation	Late ME pronunciation	ModE pronunciation	ModE spelling
droghte	/droxt/	/dro:t/	/draut/	drought
nyght	/nixt/	/ni:t/	/nait/	night

Table 7.1. Compensatory lengthening

vi. ‘X’ /h/ was not only turned into a vowel by compensatory lengthening, but also to the alphabet ‘f’ in some dialects.

ME Spelling	ME pronunciation	ModE pronunciation	Mod E spelling
Laughen	/lauxen/	/la:f/	laugh

Table 7.2. Compensatory lengthening leading to /f/

The chart which has been given is simply the first phase of the Great Vowel shift, explaining the initial positions of the vowels and how they changed. Appendix B charts some of the other vowels.

B. The Consonant Shift

Unlike the Great Vowel Shift, the consonant shift is not so unified. In fact, it is an agglomeration of separate (though linked) findings related to historical linguistics. The "Consonant Shift" has been so labelled to fall in with the "Vowel Shift", when, in truth, it should be studied under separate heads, which are:

1. The findings of William Jones
2. Grimm's Law
3. Verner's Law

The Findings of Sir William Jones

Sir William Jones was the founder of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal. He was an avid reader of the classical tongues, and while in India, he immersed himself to study the Indian languages, particularly, Sanskrit. He noted that there were some similarities which Sanskrit had with Greek and Latin, and this led him and others to speculate the possibility that there was one common ancestor for all languages, leading to decades of excavating research, ultimately leading to the establishment of PIE, which has been discussed in earlier chapters.

The findings of Jones are historically important, as it shaped the work of later scholars.

Grimm's Law (1st Consonant Shift)

One of the Grimm brothers, Jacob Grimm, made further progress down the line which William Jones went, and came up with a pattern for noting the similarities, in a way of explaining the differences. His findings are labelled as the 1st **Consonant Shift**. He noticed the following similarities.

First Consonant Shift Patterns	
Latin and Romance Languages	**Germanic Group**
p	f
t	th
c /k/	x (h)
g	k
d	t
b	p

Table 7.3. Pattern Between Latin and Roman Languages and Germanic group of Languages, as per Grimm's Law

The alphabets in the left correspond to the alphabets in the right, with other slight modifications in vowel arrangements. This will become clear through the study of some examples.

Latin and Romance Languages	Germanic Group
pater, psces pyro, ped	father, fish, fire, foot
tu, tres	thou, three
casa, cornvum, cannabis, curres	house, horns, hemp, horse
gelu, gamel	cold, camel

Table 7.4. Some words in Latin and Romance groups and Germanic Group, as per 1st Consonant Shift

Although Grimm's Law explained how different languages have same origin and its only by keeping in mind which consonants were changed that one can come to an understanding of the vocabulary of the other languages, the findings were not far from complete. In fact, some inconsistencies were noticed. It was often noticed that words did not always follow the set pattern for change. The following are the chief exceptions:

Exceptions in the 1st Consonant Shift	
Latin and Romance Languages	**Germanic Group**
p	b
t	d
k	g

Table 7.5. Exceptions in the 1st Consonant Shift

These exceptions prompted the need for further research, which led to the second stage.

Verner's Law (2nd Consonant Shift)

In 1876, Karl Verner published his work that became known as **The Second Consonant Shift**, with the subtitle, **An Exception to the First Consonant Shift**.

He discovered that the exceptions too, were part of the pattern, and that what was discovered earlier was simply the first part. He stated that p, t, and k(c) of the Latin and Romance languages changed to b/v, d/ð, g/w respectively, but only when these alphabets did not occur at the start or end of words. For alphabets at the start and end of words, the former finding of Grimm were valid. So, we can now have a modified table.

Consonant Correlations as per Verner's Law		
Latin and Romance Languages	Corresponding Germanic Group (when the alphabets are positioned at the start or end)	Corresponding Germanic Group (when the alphabets are positioned in the middle)
p	f	b, v
t	th	d, ð
c /k/	x (h)	g, w

Table 7.6. 2nd Consonant Shift – Alphabet Patterns

Verner's Law also explained a process known as **rhotacism**, where 's' turns to 'r'. Earlier, a discrepancy was noticed in the spelling pattern, just like for the other consonants. Applying the rule already learned, this was explained.

> 's' at the start or end of words remains 's';
>
> 's' in the middle of words changes to 'z' and then to 'r'.
>
> e.g. 'corpus' (Lat.) > corporation.

C. The Dictionaries

With so many variations in the language due to the many influences, the meanings, spellings and usages were not proper. The first recognizable effort towards making dictionaries was naturally, to make word translations between languages (Latin-English or French-English). John Simpson states that the first credit for this goes to Sir Thomas Eliot Knight, *The dictionary of syr Thomas Eliot Knyght* (1538),[29] followed by Claudius Hollyband's *Dictionarie French and English* (1593)[30] and John Florio's *Worlde of Wordes* (1598)[31] (OED online).

> The first book generally regarded as the first English dictionary was written as Robert Cawdrey, a schoolmaster and former Church of England clergyman, in 1604 Cawdrey made use of wordlists published earlier in educational texts, such as Richard Mulcaster's *Elementary* (1582) and Edmund Coote's English *Schoole-maister* (1596) (Simpson *OED Online*).

Simpson goes on to state that next in line was John Bullokar's *English Expositor* (1616), Henry Cockeram's *English Dictionary* (1623), and Thomas Blount's *Glossographia* (1656). These dictionaries were called "hard word dictionaries" (Simpson *OED Online*) as they concerned with providing simple explanations of the hard words which have crept in the language from many places.

Edward Phillip's *New World of English Words* (1658) marked a change, as it was subtitled 'A general dictionary', although it dealt with the hard words. Elisha Coles published his English Dictionary in 1676, and although it included hard words, it had other canting and regional terms, a(s) well as everyday terms" (Simpson *OED Online*).

Dr. Johnson's Dictionary

The dictionary which is recognized by scholars as the first proper effort of making a dictionary was by Dr. Samuel Johnson, labelled *Johnson's Dictionary,* but published as *A Dictionary of the English Language* (1755).

> First published in 1755, the dictionary took just over eight years to compile, required six helpers, and listed 40,000 word….In all, there are over 114,000 quotations in the dictionary (British Library Board).

---

[29] This was a Latin-English dictionary.

[30] This was a French-English dictionary.

[31] This was an Italian-English dictionary.

This dictionary provided a lot of illustrated examples to substantiate the meanings of words, though many times, the instances would refer to the places from which the words were compiled, instead of hunting for other instances of similar usage.

Nevertheless, this is considered a landmark in the making of the English Language, as has been told in the overview to this section.

Oxford English Dictionary

Work began for the Oxford English Dictionary in 1879, on the idea of the Philological Society of London (the idea came much earlier, but work officially began from this year). Oxford University Press was assigned with the task of making what was then called *New English Dictionary (NED*). It took more than fifty years to get the first edition published, under the editorship of James Murray. The first edition was published in 1928, and included new and obsolete words, with detailed explanations and etymology of each word, along with the record of the earliest usage of each word. A reprint with a supplement was issued in 1933, as the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED).* The OED was published in many volumes (the first edition had 12 volumes), and till the present year, there have been two further editions of OED, making a total of three editions. The second edition was published in 1989 (project began in 1984) in twenty volumes, called OED2. In keeping pace with the technological demands, the OED took out a CD-ROM edition in 1992 launched itself online in 2000 (OED Online), and work is still going on for OED3.

8. PROCESSES OF WORD-FORMATION

A. Semantic and Syntactic Processes

I. FROM PHONEMES TO PARAGRAPHS

Phonemes and Alphabets

Phōnē in Greek means 'sound'. A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound. An alphabet is the written representation of a unit of language system, while a phoneme is a unit of sound. Unlike the alphabet, which varies from one language to another, a phoneme is universal. The sound, which is uttered by a human, can be uttered by any human. A **phonetic symbol** is the written representation of the sound. Just like a phoneme, the phonetic symbol is universal. Using the phonetic symbol, one can accurately pronounce a word, as the symbols don't represent the alphabet, but the sound which is uttered.

In the examples given below, there are some alphabets from two language systems – English and Hindi. While the alphabets differ, they have the same pronunciation while uttering it with other alphabets to make a word. So, the phonetic symbol remains the same for both of them.

English	Hindi	Phonetic Symbol
B	ब	/b/
K	क	/k/
L	ल	/l/
S	स	/s/

Table 8.1. Alphabets and Phonemes

In the table which has been given, it will be noticed that only some consonants were given as examples. That is because for vowels, one alphabet will have many sounds, so, there are quite a few phonetic symbols for each vowel.

So, there are only a few vowel alphabets in the English language, but the vowel sounds are many.

It is advised that the reader looks at Appendix A and familiarises himself with the phonetic symbols and their respective sounds (those which are needed in the English language), as agreed upon by the **IPA**.[32]

[32] International Phonetic Association. IPA also stands for International Phonetic Alphabet.

It should also be made clear at the start that in the table given above, the alphabets are different from the symbols. In other words, while the alphabet is typed 'B', it is pronounced as /b/ when combined with other letters. If one refers to the alphabet, the pronunciation again changes. It becomes /biː/.

This becomes better to understand if one looks at a vowel sound. Let us consider the first letter of the English alphabet: A, and examine the many sounds it has to offer.

/eɪ/, /æ/, /ɑ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/

So, one alphabet yields five sounds! And this is just if one considers standard English. There are other sounds in other languages related to this letter only!

Although this is the case with most language systems, it is not so for all. In Hindi, the script is pronounced as it would when combined with other letters.[33] So, it is easy to learn, and erases the confusion of erratic spellings.

It will have been observed that all the symbols are placed within slashes. That is how the symbols are made to differ from the alphabets. It was earlier the custom to place the phonemes within third brackets, and old editions on the subject, or even new editions by linguists and philologists who follow the old convention, will place them by giving: [ ]. But the use of slashes is sanctioned by the Oxford Dictionary.

So, 'b' is an alphabet, but /b/ is a phoneme, and a phonetic symbol.

Syllables and Diphthong

Letters combine to group themselves into the smallest cluster that they can, which must have one vowel sound, and such a cluster is called a syllable. A diphthong is a fusion of two vowel sounds, and it's treated as one long sound, as there is no division between the vowels. So, a syllable is a group of words with only one vowel sounds or a diphthong. A word can be monosyllabic (having one syllable) or disyllabic (having two syllables) or trisyllabic (having three syllables) or multisyllabic (having four or more syllables).

Syllabic Divisions				
Monosyllabic	**Disyllabic**	**Trisyllabic**	**Tetrasyllabic**	**Multisyllabic**
bit	read-er	a-ma-zing	a-ma-zing-ly	se-con-da-ry
beat	hon-our	beau-ti-ful	Tri-syl-la-bic	in-ef-fi-cient

Table 8.2. Division of words into syllables. The hyphen represents the syllabic breaks.

Sentences and parts of speech

As can be seen, syllables combine to form words, and words combine to form sentences. The art of sentence construction has changed through the ages, and a slight familiarity will tell the readers that although people spoke in prose, writing first featured poetry, and it took a long time for prose to be

[33] This is true for consonants, but not for vowels in Hindi.

written. The construction of sentences applies to prose, but not to poetry, which has its own structure, and words can be arranged in a manner as per the requirement of a poem and poet. But as the rules are at present, a sentence is a group of words with a subject and a predicate. The subject is the focus of the sentence, and the sentence is about the subject. Whatever is written in the rest of the sentence is about the predicate, and the predicate elaborates the subject. The subject need not be at the start of the sentence, and the subject can be understood from the relation of other words. These other words – and indeed, the subject also – serve some function, and accordingly, they are labelled. There are eight such broad functions, and they form the parts of speech.

Noun – a person or thing, any name;

Pronoun – a word used instead of a noun;

Adjective – a word which says something about a noun;

Verb – a word which informs us of the action carried out by a noun/pronoun, and also helps us to determine the number (singular-plural) and time (tense);

Adverb – a word which elaborates an adjective or verb, or another adverb;

Conjunction – a word which joins other words, clauses or phrases;

Preposition – a word which tells the position of a noun/pronoun;

Interjection – a word which is used as a kind of expression.

Present rules of sentence construction state:

1. a sentence must have a noun/pronoun and a verb,[34] and the verb must be of complete predication, else other words will be needed to fill up the incomplete sense;
   e.g. He <u>slept</u> (verb of complete predication)
   She <u>was</u> happy (verb of incomplete predication)

2. adjectives must come after the verb, or else be placed before the nouns;
   e.g. He became <u>excited</u>
   <u>Brave</u> soldier
3. in questions, the auxiliary verb comes before the subject;
   e.g. Has he slept well?
   Was she happy?

Phrases and Clauses

A phrase is shorter than a sentence. It is a group of words which come together in a cluster. A phrase does not contain a subject.

The boys played in the sand.

[34] The rules relate to the written word, and not to what is spoken. In fact, even in written English, this rule is not always applicable, as one-word sentences are on the rise, particularly, when they are found as responses to questions, or when the words are onomatopoeic.

In this sentence, the subject is “the boys” and the following are the phrases:

played in;

in the;

in the sand

As they phrase are groups of words, they serve functions, just like parts of speech. However, there are only selective functions that they can serve, and so we get five types of phrases:

Noun phrase – a phrase where the words collectively serve the function of a noun (answers *what*);

Adjective phrase – a phrase where the words collectively serve the function of an adjective (answers *who* or *which*);

Adverb phrase – a phrase where the words collectively serve the function of an adverb (answers *why, where, when* or *how*);

Phrasal verb – a phrase formed using a verb and a preposition

Prepositional phrase – a phrase containing a preposition and its compliment

A clause is a group of words which contain a subject and a predicate. The structure of the predicate determines whether the clause can stand as a sentence of its own (**principal/main clause**), or whether it depends on the main clause (**subordinate clause**). A principal clause makes a **simple sentence**, while two or more principal clauses, joined by conjunctions, make a **compound sentence**. Subordinate clauses are grouped into three types as per their functions:

Noun Clause – which serve the function of a noun (answers *what*);

Adjective clause – which serve the function of an adjective (answers *who* or *which*);

Adverb clause – which serve the function of an adverb (answers *why, where, when* or *how*);

As subordinate clauses also need a main clause, they give rise to sentences with both main clause and subordinate clause. Such a sentence is called **complex sentence**.

Paragraph

A paragraph is a thematically linked group of sentences. There is no fixed length of a paragraph, and sometimes, an isolated sentence can form a paragraph by itself. However, each paragraph should be carefully linked with the ones before and after it.

Paragraph style differs according to subject matters. An academic paragraph will differ from a paragraph of a newspaper article, which will again differ from that of fiction or other books. Students are advised not to imitate the style of one paragraph for all types.[35]

[35] It is generally advised that one can understand the art of sentence construction from a newspaper article. Such advice should not be followed for the reason explained above.

II. COMPOUNDING AND AFFIXATION

We have studied how various words have enriched the English language, and now we shall study how words are formed in the first place from existing words or prefixes or suffixes.

Compounding

Compounding is a process of forming new words from existing words by combining the words. In other words, two words combine to form one new word, and the new word gives a new meaning altogether.

e.g. foot + ball = football;

some + time = sometime;

night + owl = nightowl;

air + plane = airplane

home + coming = homecoming

high + way = highway

The original words which come together may be nouns, verbs or adjectives, but the new word which is formed is a noun.

Over a long period of time, the stressed element of a compound may also change in pronunciation, so that the origin becomes obscured.

e.g. garlic (gore + līc);

holiday (holy + day)

sheriff (shire + reeve)

tadpole (toad + poll)

woman (wīf + man)

After a compound is formed, it may also undergo phonetic changes, and one of the parts may be used to freely attach with other words to form new words. The part which is so freely used becomes an affix. Such an example is the word *līc*, which ultimately got downgraded to *-ly*, and is widely used to add adverbial forms. This leads us to another process of word-making, affixation.

Affixation

As the name suggests, an affix is "fixed" with other words. Unlike compounding, an affix is not treated as a whole word. An affix can be divided into two parts:

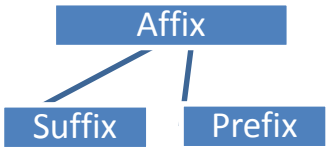

Fig. 8.1. Parts of an Affix.

A **prefix** is a syllable which is attached before a word (called root) and gives a new meaning to the word. A prefix, when written in isolation, must have a hyphen after it.

e.g. a- + forestation = afforestation

de- + forestation = deforestation

It should be noted that as *a-* is only one alphabet, it takes longer to pronounce the first letter of the root word, when joined with it. To make the new word more stable, the first letter of the root word is doubled. So, in the example given above, two *f*'s are added. In the next example, *de-* has got two letters and is more stable. It is able to join with the root word without doubling the first letter of the root word.

In the examples given above, it will also be noticed by a careful reader that the word *forestation* is itself formed by the root word *forest*, to which some letters are added. This is a suffix.

A **suffix** is formed by one, two or three syllables, which don't make a word, which are attached to the back of the root words. Unlike a prefix, a suffix does not change meaning; it merely adds new parts of speech. A suffix, when written in isolation, must have a hyphen before it.

e.g. forest + -ation = forestation

The prefixes have come down to the English language from Latin and Greek endings, mostly, and they carry the meaning which they had in the classical tongues.

Some Common Prefixes	
anti- (opposite)	antigen
com- (with)	compute, compound, community
de- (down)	describe, deject
dis- (negative)	discard
ex/e- (out)	exhale, external, eject
in- (in)	inject, inhale, internal
inter- (outside)	interject

intra- (inside)	intravenous
mis- (negative, in the sense of wrong)	misguide, misunderstand
non- (negative, ruling out existence or proposition)	non-violent, nonsense
pre- (before)	prescribe
pro- (for)	produce
re- (again, up)	reject, refer, reorder
un- (negative, not)	understand

Table 8.3. List of Common Prefixes, with examples.

Here are some commonly used suffixes.

Some Common Suffixes	
-ate	subjugate, designate, nominate, negotiate
-(a)tion	adotation, supplication, humiliation, subjugation, civilisation, urbanisation
-able	countable, relatable, suitable, adjustable, believable
-an	Indian, American, Mexican
-ed/t	learned/learnt, dreamed/dreamt, blessed, honoured, swept
-ee	trainee, referee
-er	kidnapper, fertiliser, painter, carpenter, dresser, barber, robber
-ic(al)	critic(al), Arabic, alphabetic(al),

	musical, theatrical, numeric(al), practical, astronomical
-ie	movie, selfie, cookie, bookie
-ing	compromising, going, singing, raining, smoking, talking
-ise/-ize[36]	nationalize, customise
-ism	Hinduism, Judaism, nationalism
-ist	maoist, communist, linguist, feminist, sexist, racist, scientist
-ly	nicely, wisely, happily, easily, fatherly, motherly, gradually, noticeably
-wise	likewise, otherwise
-y	messy, cloudy, noisy, crazy

Table 8.4. Some commonly used suffixes with examples.

It will be observed from the table of suffixes that some form nouns, while some form verbs, and so on. So, we can have another table, classifying the suffixes as per their parts of speech.

Suffixes as per Parts of Speech			
Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
-(a)tion, -ee, -er, -ie, -ist, -an -ism	-ate, -ed/t, -ing, -ise	-ed, -ing, -y, -able, -ic(al), -ist	-wise, -ly,

Table 8.5. Suffixes as per parts of speech

It will be observed that:

i. there are some suffixes which have more than one part of speech (-ing, -ed, -ist);
ii. there are some suffixes which build upon existing suffixes (root + -ate + -ation; root + -able + -ly; -root + -ic + -ly; root + -ise + -e);
iii. there are suffixes which can be shortened (-ical > -ic; -ed > -t).

It will also be observed that the word *scientist* does not fit in with the rest of the group. The others in the group of *-ist* relate to people who follow a certain person or philosophy, as well as to adjectives

[36] 's' is for BrE and 'z' is for NAmE.

related to the noun from which they have been formed. However, *science* is not a person or philosophy, nor a verb, to which the suffix *-ist* should be added. This coinage has been branded by English philologists as typically American, without regard to the rules of word-making. However, in defence, it can be said that a *scientist* is a believer and practitioner of *science*. Another suffix which relates to one's beliefs is -ism, as can be noticed in the table.

III. SHORTENING AND BLENDING

It has already been seen how some suffixes have been shortened, e.g. -ical to -ic. In a similar manner, entire words can be shortened.

Shortening can have these forms:

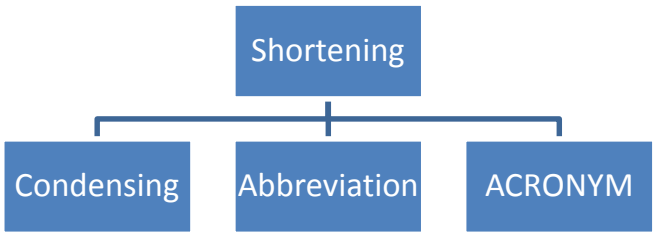

Fig. 8.2. Various forms of Shortening to form new words. © Author.

Condensing

Condensing is a process of shortening long words to suit conveniences of speaking and writing.

Elizabeth > Eliza, Liza, Lizz, Beth

Michael > Mike

Charles/Christopher > Chip

Photograph > photo[37]

Autorickshaw > auto[38]

Gymnasium > gym

[37] As can be understood, this was formed by compounding photo and graph. Due to condensation, it broke up again, and 'photo' and 'graph' now mean different things. While it can be understood that 'photo' is the shortened form of 'photograph' the word 'graph' now applies to its Greek root meaning, that of writing. So, it is now used to refer to charting.

[38] Same instance as that of the former example.

Situational comedy > sitcom

Sometimes, words, after condensing, often become so detached from their origin that they take on new identities, while the old forms remain with different meanings.

e.g. omnibus > bus

caravan > van

bicycle > bike[39]

cabriolet > cab

taximeter cabriolet > taximeter cab > taxi-cab > taxi[40]

acute > cute

Abbreviation

In abbreviations, words are shortened in spellings and a full-stop is given to signify that it is an abbreviation. The books of the Bible and Shakespeare's works are some of the most popularly used abbreviations.

e.g. *Matt.* i.e. The Gospel According to Matthew

Ham. i.e. Hamlet, the Prince of Denmark

These abbreviations are so popular that they have become the convention, and one has to refer to them in this manner only, that is, one cannot write *hmlt* to refer to the play, one has to write *Ham.* only.

However, in many instances, one has the liberty to make up abbreviations, that is, one can customise abbreviations which are not conventionally used. Such a list must be listed at the start, or at the first time the abbreviation is used. Such instances are often seen in academic books and articles.

e.g. international can be abbreviated to *internl.* if one wishes. One would have to mention the this at the start, before the text begins, or mention the abbreviation the first time within brackets after writing the full word, i.e., one may write *international (internl.)* and then write the abbreviated form throughout.

---

[39] This word is commonly misunderstood in India for 'motorbike'. Bike is the short form of 'bicycle'. 'Bike' is not the shortened version of 'Motorbike'. 'Motorbike' is a compound word, to refer to a bike which runs on motor (as opposed to manual use of legs).

[40] As can be seen, *taxi* and *cab* have different origins, but present-day users often confuse the two, as *cabs* have now gone out. What people call *cab* is actually *taxi*, where one's fare is metered. A *cab* was simply a carriage – horse drawn. When metered vehicles came, *taximeter* was added to *cabriolet*, and then people began to condense the name.

Some abbreviations have become so popular that they are now considered full words by the Oxford Dictionary, and so, they do not need a stop after them.

e.g. Mr, Mrs, Ms

However, Dr. Rev. and Prof., when referring to designations of persons, should carry stops.

Abbreviations are also formed by taking the first letters of the words, a process often termed as **Initialism**.

e.g. OT = Old Testament

IPA = International Phonetic Association

OUP = Oxford University Press

CUP = Cambridge University Press

SMS = short messaging service

ATM = Automated Teller Machine

There can be same abbreviations for different organisations and societies. As has already been noted in this book, IPA also stands for International Phonetic Association.

Names of countries are often abbreviated, particularly for sports labels:

IND – India

ENG – England

AUS – Australia

The same applies to teams, which are not countries:

MAN – Manchester United

Countries and nations which exist as a group are also referred in abbreviated form:

UK – United Kingdom

US – United States

UN – United Nations

Sometimes, abbreviations cane be regionally and locally understood, but not globally. They may apply to particular community, subject, but not to others:

OT – Occupational Therapist; Operation Theatre

Oxon. - Oxonian (a student of Oxford University)

MLA – Modern Language Association; Member of Legislative Assembly

Degrees are often abbreviated:

BA – Bachelor of Arts

BSc. – Bachelor of Science

MPhil – Master of Philosophy

PhD – Doctor of Philosophy

DLitt.[41] – Doctor of Letters

Acronym

An acronym is different from an abbreviation. An acronym too, takes the first letter of each of the words, but is different because the word so formed by taking the initials, is pronounced as a whole word. In other words, US and UK are abbreviations, because each of the alphabets are pronounced separately, but LASER is an acronym, as the letters are pronounced as a word /leɪzə(r)/. Another difference is that acronyms are generally used to refer to a term or process more often than a place or thing.

LASER – Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation

RADAR – Radio Detection and Ranging

SONAR – Sound Navigation and Ranging

IELTS – International English Language Testing System

TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

As acronyms are pronounced as words,[42] they are often not capitalized in present day usage.[43] This has resulted in new words to be formed from the acronyms, which will be studied in back-formation.

Sometimes, people like to believe that the generic words are actually acronyms, and invent forms by taking the initials and applying them to words, so that the entire cluster relates to the situation. This

[41] It is no longer the convention to give stops after in the middle, after each initial. However, if it ends in a shortened form of a word, a stop is used, like BSc. The stop is used after Sc., but not after B.

[42] The American convention is that for four words or less, the acronyms need to be capitalized.

[43] This does not apply to names of organisations or departments like UNESCO.

is called **folk etymology**. Given below are few such examples. The full forms are totally unauthentic, and should not be used.

Sitcom – single income, two children, oppressive/outrageous mortgage.

SOS – save our souls

News – North, East, West, South

ATM – Any Time Money

Some acronyms, like abbreviations are local and limited.

e.g. CHIP – Children's Health Insurance Programme;

CHiP – California Highway Patrol

Blending

In blending, two words are fused, but unlike compounding, it's not an addition. Parts of both words may be lost in varying degrees, so it the new form is truly a blend – a mixture – of the earlier forms. The original words continue to exist in their different meanings. There is a better name for this kind of word – a **portmanteau** word.[44] The process is linguistically called a **grammatical contamination**

e.g. fantastic + fabulous = fantabulous

breakfast + lunch = brunch

smoke + fog = smog

slimy + lithe = slithy

brother + romance = bromance

biology + electronic = bionic

Bombay + Hollywood = Bollywood

motor + hotel = motel

modulation + demodulation = modem

Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge

web + log = blog

British + sitcom = Britcom

IV. BACK-FORMATION AND CONVERSION

[44] This was first used by Lewis Carroll in *Through the Looking Glass* to refer to the process of blending.

Back-formation (coined by James Murray in 1889) is a curious process of word formation, one which appears interesting to linguists, baffles students and fools general speakers of the tongue. Barber et al (2009) state that in back formation, verbs are formed from existing words by the general population, under the presumption that the existing words have come from pre-existing verbs, and that one can go back to the verb formations. In this way, the people coin the verb forms of many words, which did not, in fact, have any verb form earlier!

This mistake is made due to some noun endings. Nouns like *peddler, beggar, editor, burglar, sculptor, writer* existed by themselves. The deceptive appearance of the words suggested to the speakers that the words have been formed with the addition of the noun suffix *-er* (or its variations, *-ar, -or*), and they removed the ending of the words to get the verbs (Barber et al, 236). Accordingly, we have the verbs *to peddle, to beg, to edit, to burgle, to sculpt* and *to write.*

It was told in the previous chapter that laser, as the acronym is often written in normal case (not in all capital letters), has given rise to new words. Laser also ends in *-er* and the people, in their eagerness to coin new words, have formed the verb *to lase*, as in "The dye, under appropriate laboratory conditions, will lase" (Akmajian et al 43).

The word *back-formation* has itself undergone a process of back-formation. From this earlier existing word, the new verb *to backform* has come up.

A few other examples of backformation:

to resurrect < resurrection

to laze < lazy

to gull < gullible

The online resource of Oxford Dictionaries states "The name 'Troynovant' is a back-formation from 'Trinovantes', the name of the powerful British tribe that lived north and east of London" (en.oxforddictionaries.com).

Conversion is a process by which new words are formed (as new parts of speech), with new meanings (sometimes), without the spelling undergoing any change. So, unlike back-formation or affixation, it does not add or subtract syllables. Basically, in this process, the usage of a word undergoes change. Linguistically, this process is also called **neologism**, in which new usages of existing words are formed, as was noted in Shakespeare's contribution to the English Language.

e.g. market (noun) > market (verb)

I need to go to the market (noun)

I need to market my new book (verb)

doom (noun) > doom (verb)

Macbeth met his doom in the hands of Macduff (noun)

Macbeth was doomed by his action of murder (verb)

black (adjective) > black (noun)

> black (verb)

I am wearing a black jacket (adjective)

My favourite colour is black (noun)

You need to blacken the shoes (verb)

referee (noun) > referee (verb)

The referee must be impartial (noun)

He refereed the match (verb)

dog (noun) > dog (verb)

A dog is considered to be a man's best friend (noun)

The boy began to dog the person in the hope of getting more information (verb)

V. LOANS AND EPONYMS

Loans

There are two types of loans – those borrowed from other languages and those borrowed from one's own languages, through other dialects.

Accordingly, we have:

1. **Internal Loans** – those words which are taken up in a language from other regional dialects existing within the land;
2. **External Loans** – those words which are taken up in a language as a result of interaction with other languages. This will be discussed in detail later.

Internal Loans

It has been discussed how English ousted the Celtic group of languages which were spoken earlier, and how the speakers of the latter went up to Scotland, Wales and also to Ireland. In the wave of the French attack and their subsequent rule, the Anglo-Saxons too, went up, and the Gaelic tongue spoken there came under the influence of Anglo-Saxon once more, along with the previous influence of Latin (due to the Church fathers, who spoke in Latin, and from the remains of the Roman invasion which was before the Anglo-Saxon invasion). Gaelic never got the opportunity to expand itself as a language

proper, unlike English, and became extremely regional and limited, retaining its mark as a dialect along with others. The English of Scotland was called *Inglis* and later as *Scots* (Knowles 130, Murison 6-8). This *Inglis* was itself a dialectical variation of English, and was used as early as 14th century (Knowles 131). As it grew and became known as *Scots*, its interactions with Gaelic made it acquire some **Gaelic words** (along with the other dialects) and when James VI of Scotland came to England as James I after the death of Elizabeth I, there was a great interaction of *Scots* with *English*. The need was felt to make Scotland utter the East Midland dialect (which was used in London, the capital of the kingdom), and so, Scottish English was refined even further, but some words of **Scottish dialects** crept in the standard English. Some of these words are as given.

bard, bonny, bracken, eerie, glend, kipper

Like Scottish dialects, **Irish Gaelic** also influenced English. Some of the popularly used Irish words are given below.

*bog, clock (*from *clocca*), *galore, phony* (from *fainne*)[45]

There are **Welsh words** which have crept in the English language:

Bach, penguin, Taffy, cariad,[46]*Prodnose, moochin*[47]

Words also crept in **from lower ranks of society** into standard English.

banter, coax, fun, gadget, snob, dig[48]

Eponyms

This is a process by which words derive from existing names of people and places. The following words come directly from **names of people**:

boycott – named after Charles Boycott;

Einsteinium – named after Albert Einstein;

Mt. Everest – named after George Everest;

guillotine – named after Dr. Joseph Guillotin

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[45] This is the etymology of the word, but it has come from *fawney rig*, which was a party trick involving a gilded brass ring (Phelan 2016). Fawney comes from *fainne*, but in English, it comes from *fawney*, possibly.

[46] The last three are reported by bbc.co.uk

[47] These two entries have been the contribution of Dylan Thomas (OED Online, reported in bbc.co.uk).

[48] to appreciate something; be engaged in something highly. It is believed that this usage is of African American vernacular origin (Wiktionary).

pasteurization – named after Louis Pasteur;

newton, ohm, watt – named after the persons respectively;

dahlia – named after Anders Dahl;

cardigan – named after James Brudenell, the 7th Earl of Cardigan.

Oscar Award – named after Oscar Pierce;

Nobel Prize – named after Alfred Nobel;

quisling – named after Vidkun Quisling, a Norwegian politician

Eponyms can be formed by adding the suffix -ism to refer to a **doctrine or a practice**.

vandalism – named after the tribal group Vandals;

chauvinism – named after Nicholas Chauvin, referring to one's fanatic belief in the superiority of one's gender;

Marxism – related to the tenets of Karl Marx;

Darwinism – advocating to the principles and theories propounded by Charles Darwin;

sadism – named after A.F. Sade, referring to the theory of satisfaction caused by hurting others;

Sometimes, eponyms can be inspired by geography or mythology.

marathon – named after the place Marathon, a town in Attica, Greece;

Olympian – referring to Mt. Olympus, the abode of the Greek and Roman Gods;

Herculean – referring to great task or effort, after the classical hero Hercules;

Achilles' Heel – referring to one's drawback in an otherwise perfect setting, which can prove fatal, named after the classical hero Achilles, who could be hurt only in the heels, and that is how he died.

B. The Influences on Vocabulary

I. BY NATIONS AND COMMUNITIES

THE EUROPEAN INFLUENCES

It must be made clear at the start that this chapter deals separately with the many European nations which influenced the English language, but not necessarily in the order in which they influenced the language.

If readers wish to get an idea of the time-frame of the many influences, they are advised to read the previous chapter, if they have not done so already. The previous chapter lists the gradual expansion of the English Language, while this examines the influences in greater depth.

THE FRENCH INFLUENCE

As discussed earlier, the Norman Conquest led to the establishment of French as the official language of England. The French left their influence on the language in every field, except perhaps the religious field, which was still the domain of Latin.

A careful reader might ask why we label this as French Influence, instead of calling this as Latin influence altogether, as French came from Latin? The answer is that while French did come from Latin, the words which the English language borrowed from French were not in the spellings that were there in Latin, and even if they were, those words did not come due to the classical influences, but due to the French contact.

We shall examine the French influence by categorizing the words as per their topics:[49]

Words related to food

> Mutton (*moton)*; beef (*boef)*; pork (*porc*); venison (*venaison*); veal (*veau*); sausage (*saussiche*); lime (*limo*).

It has been a humorous observation (Wallis, 1653) that food items, after being prepared, become French, while the animals, when alive, remain Anglo-Saxon, for the animals which give us the first few food items listed above are in the Anglo-Saxon tongue (*gāt* > goat; *scēap* > sheep; *cū* > cow; *picga (OE) > pigga (ME)* > pig; *dēor* > deer; *cealf* > calf).[50]

Words related to occupation/position

> Admiral (*amiral*); chef (*chef*); soldier (*soldier*); captain (*capitain*); minister (*minister*); chancellor (*cancelier*); servant (*server*); tailor (*taillour*); mason (*masson*); carpenter (*carpentier*).

Words related to Administration and Governance and Law

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[49] In these lists, the words within brackets are the French spellings, so that the advanced learner can get a sense of how much was borrowed, and where the modification took place.

[50] One may still have humour to ask what these food items were called before the French came with their supply of words!

Government (*gouvernement*); court (*cour*); crown (*couronne*); sovereign (*soverain*); parliament (*parlement*); power (*poeir*); judge (*juge*); jury (*juree*); plaintiff (*plaintif*); attorney (*atorne + tornor*); defendant (*defendeur*); prison (*prisun*[51] > *prison*).

Words related to religion

Religion (*religion*); Saviour (*sauveour*); trinity (*trinite*); Virgin (*virgine*); saint (*saint*).

Words related to dress and fashion

Apparel (*appareillier*); costume (*costume*); dress (*dresser*); garment (*guarnement* > *garnement*).

Words related to Learning and the Arts

Colour (*colour*); paint (*peindre*); pillar (*piler*)[52]; porch (*porche*); zero (*zero*); cipher (*cifre*); tower (*tor* > *toer* > *tour*);[53] table (*table*); chair (*chaire*).

The lists given above are only some very common words, in fact, they form the tip of the iceberg. If one looks at all the loan words which the English took as "loan"[54].

Other than the loan words, the English Language saw new words being formed from Norman French which already had equivalent words in Old English. In other words, the French **substituted** the Old English words. The following list charts the Anglo-Saxon words and the French additions, and readers will at once get the elegance associated with the French words, which goes to say that these words were the words of the ruling class.

Anglo-Saxon	**Norman French**
Begin	Commence
Hide	Conceal
Hinder	Prevent
Inner	interior

Table 8.6. List of Anglo-Saxon and French Substitute Words

[51] This form is given by C. L. Wrenn (53), although the dictionary gives *prison* as the French form.

[52] Readers can understand how *piler* not only gave us the word *pillar*, but *pile* as well. When we pile things up, they do take the form of a pillar!

[53] Wrenn (53) mistakes the French origin of this word as *tur*. While *tur* was the word which was used, it was not French but Anglo-Saxon. The French word is as shown within brackets, marking its gradual change.

[54] In Philology, these are actually labelled as "loan words" (words which are directly taken from another language, with little or no variation in spelling).

French did not always replace the existing Anglo-Saxon words. Sometimes, French suffixes were attached to OE words, and vice versa, to get new words.

Faint + ness = faintness

Conceal + ment = concealment

Thunder + ous = thunderous

Besides these ways of enriching the English vocabulary, the French also helped the English **derive** a lot of words.[55]

e.g. *mutin* (Fr.) – mutiny, mutinous, mutinously, mutineer.

Although the French dominion ended after a few centuries, words kept on being added – even in the 18th and 19th centuries (words like *rapport*, *penchant*). However, this handbook examines the influence of the French language due to the Norman conquest.

SCANDINAVIAN INFLUENCE

As discussed in the previous chapter, this relates to the Scandinavian invasions which took place during the Anglo-Saxon rule. The influence on the language is Danish, Dutch, Norwegian, Swedish and Icelandic. Collectively, this is also known as the **Viking invasions and the Norse influences**. The word *Viking* is an Old English word, meaning "robber" or "pirates". As the Scandinavians came from the sea up north, plundered and left (although there were pockets of their dwellings in Anglo-Saxon times), that is how they were perceived.

If one looks at the list of words English has borrowed from people whom they branded as "pirates" and "robbers", one would be astounded at their penchant for learning – even as they were being invaded! However, that is not the situation. It is not possible to learn a language during the time of invasion, and it is less likely that one would use the language in one's daily activities if such feelings of animosity were associated with the language.

The Scandinavians influenced the English language not through their acts of war, but peace. As told above, they did not just plunder and leave; some of them settled down in Britain, and after some negotiations, peace treaties were signed, which permitted the dwellers to remain.

> In the peace of Wedmore (878), King Alfred…was fain to leave them more than half of what we now call England; all Northumbria, all East Anglia and one half of Central England made out the district called the Danelaw (Jespersen 57).

[55] The difference between a derived word and a loan(ed) word is that a derived word undergoes change in form, which is noticeable, and one word can beget many new words, whereas for loan words, the word is directly borrowed from another language, with or without minor changes in spellings.

As a result, the "Vikings" now were in regular contact with the people, and in this manner, their words seeped into Old English. Following are some of the Scandinavian **loan words**.

> from (earlier form "fro") (*frá*); kirk (*kirkja*);[56] skirt (*skyrta*);[57] birth (*burðr, byrd*); gift (*gipt*); skin (*skinn*); hit (*hitta*); take (*taka*); gape (*gapa*); cross (*krus*);[58] ransack (*ran-saka*); loan (*lán*); ill (*illr, illa, ilt*); both (*bāthir*)

In the list which follows, the loan words have changed spellings greatly with times, and the < sign places the word which came later on its left, while the earlier word is on the right of the sign.

> egg < æg < ey (verb) (*eggja*);
>
> edge < ecg (*egge*);
>
> heathen < hæthen (*heiden*);
>
> loath < lath (*leed*);
>
> true < trīewe < trēowe (*trouw*, *trygg*)[59]
>
> bench < benc (*bank*)[60]
>
> law < lawe (*lagu*)

The settlement of the Scandinavians resulted in the naming of places, and some of the place names which exist today bear marks of the historic settlements. **Place names** ending in *–dale (-del), -beck (-bech), -thwaite, -by, -toft* and *–thorpe (torp)* are examples.

> Arundel, Bedale, Kirby Lonsdale, Rochdale, Selby, Thornaby, Whitby, Wetherby, Grimsby, Moorthorpe, Bishopsthorpe, Linthorpe, Wisbech, Applethwaite, Langthwaite, Brimtoft, Nortoft.

There are a lot of words which are similar in form in both Anglo-Saxon and the varied Norse tongues. The present English form might have been influenced by a **mixture** of their interaction. The list which follows mentions some of the words, but it would not be wise to label them as Norse words, for they were present in the Anglo-Saxon (Mercian or other dialects) tongue, too.

Fish	Fisch (ME) < Fisc (OE)	Fisk (Danish)
Leap	Lepen (ME) < Hlēapan (OE)	Lopen (Dutch)

[56] This was the word for *church*. One can see how the *k* changed to *ch* with time.

[57] In Old Norse, the word means "shirt" but in Old English, it became "skirt"!

[58] Used in the sense "offend", although this was more intense than the present usage of the times, and at present, the word would be "fierce".

[59] *Trouw* is Dutch and *trygg* is Swedish. Jespersen (62) gives the Swedish word to be the origin of *true*, but if one truly looks with an analytical eye, one would notice more similarity with the Dutch word.

[60] Notice once more ho the *k* changes to *ch*.

Kettle	Ketel < Chetel (ME) < Cytel/Cetel/Citel (OE)	Ketill
Root	Rōt (OE)	Rót
Thrall	Thral < threl (ME) < þrl (OE)	þræll

Table 8.7. Modern English Words from ME, OE and Norse Interactions

Sometimes, the interaction of two or more languages on the same word has given rise to two or more words whose roots are the same.

Word in Modern English	Word in OE or ME	Word in Old Norse
Whole/Hale[61]	Hool (ME) < Hāl (OE)	Hel (Danish)
Shriek/Screech <Scritch[62]	Schrichen (ME) < Scriccettan (OE)	Skrika (Swedish)
Rear[63]**/Raise**	Raisen (ME) < Reisen (ME)	Reisa
Shirt/Skirt	Sherte/Shirte < Schirte (ME) < Scytre (OE)	Skyrta
Bleak/Black/Bleach	Bleach < Bleke (ME); Blak/Blac (ME) < Blāc (OE)	Bleike, Bleikr
Lift/Loft	Lofte (ME) < lyft (OE)	Lopt

Table 8.8. Different English Words from OE, ME and Norse Interactions

Other than words, the Norse influence is believed to be felt in **English Grammar** as well. It has been suggested by some philologists (like Jespersen, Baugh and Cable), that the Scandinavian influence was on the following aspects:

a. The use of *shall* and *will* in Middle English (which also continued in Early Modern English);
b. The use of the genitive before the noun (in OE, it was after the noun);
c. The use of the relative clause without the use of a pronoun;
d. The omission of the conjunction *that*.

Kirch (503-510) is of a different opinion, and expresses doubt on the attribution of these features to be due to the Norse influence.

[61] Both come from the same root words, although meanings have changed in modern times.

[62] This form is now obsolete.

[63] *rear* now means back.

THE INFLUENCE OF GREEK AND LATIN

Let us now turn our attention to the Greek and Latin influences. As discussed in the previous chapter, these two languages influenced English at three different times. We shall study the classical influences under these three periods of influence.

The 1st Classical Influence: The Roman Invasion

In 55 BC, Julius Caesar invaded England, but that was not an invasion where Caesar stayed. In 43 AD, Claudius undertook another invasion of Britian, and the centre and southeast England came under the Roman empire. Under Vespasian, south and southwest England were brought under the Roman Empire. The Roman Empire prospered and fell in England, just in tune with the Empire in mainland Europe. By 410, all Roman forces were withdrawn from England, and the Anglo-Saxons did not face resistance from the Romans. However, it must not be missed by the readers that although the Latin influence began with the Roman invasion before the coming of the Anglo-Saxons, the steady borrowing of words continued even in the Middle English period, till another influx occurred during the Renaissance, which marks the second phase of the Latin influence.

The influence of Latin during this time was two-fold:

a. military and administrative;
b. religious (after the Roman Empire embraced Christianity)

The Latin influence of this time is seen in **place names** ending in *–chester/caster* (which came from the Latin *castra*, and was modified in OE to *cæster* and later became *chester*).

Lancaster, Manchester, Leicester, Gloucester.

Regarding the **Latin loan words**, it is difficult to examine which were used in the first period, as writing was not so extensive, and Latin influenced the English Language twice later. Therefore, as the records were not mighty, the absence of a recorded word does not mean it was not used earlier. However, we shall not dwell on the possibility of whether or not such were in vogue before their recorded time, but dwell on the words whose records we do get in Old English period.

<u>Latin words related to City, Commere and Administration</u>

street (*strata*); mile (*milia*);

<u>Latin words related to Food and Drinks</u>

vine, wine[64] (*vinum*), cup (*cuppa*), cheese (*caseus*).

<u>Latin words related to religion</u>

[64] Wine was influenced by both Latin and Old English (*wīn*).

minster, monastery (*monasterium*); monk (*monachus*); priest (*presbyter*); bishop (*episcopus* L. > *bisceop* OE > *bisshop* ME); mass (*missa*); gospel (*evangelium* L. tr. as gōdspel OE).[65]

Latin words related to grammar and language

noun, name (*nomen*);[66] verb (*verbum*); preposition (*praeposition*); logic (*logica*); geometry (*geometria*); scholar, school (*schola*);

Latin words related to dress and parts of the body

cap (*cappa*)

Other than the loan words and the influence on the names of places, we find Latin influence in shaping the English language well beyond the language itself, for **the calendar** which is used now (the Julian Calendar)[67] made its mark during the first phase of the classical influence, thanks to Julius Caesar and Augustus Caesar. Given is the list of the months and their origin.

January – Janus (god of openings);[68]

February – Februa (feast of purification);

March – Mars (god of war);

April – Aprīlis

May – Maius (from Maia, goddess associated with the earth)

June – Junius (from Juno, the wife of Jupier and Queen Goddess);

July – Julius (named after Julius Caesar);

August – Augustus (named after Augustus Caesar);

September – Septem (meaning *seven* in Latin);[69]

October – Octo (meaning *eight* in Latin);

November – Novem (meaning *nine* in Latin);

December – Decem (meaning *ten* in Latin).

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[65] Gōd (Good) + spell (tale).

[66] A good dictionary of etymology will show that *name* came earlier, and *noun* came during the Middle English period. Here, I have listed both as they come from the same root.

[67] The Julian Calendar has undergone modifications by the Gregorian Calendar, which was brought to pass in 1582.

[68] He had one head facing front and another facing back. In a way, this looks ahead at the new year, while looking back at the year which has just ended.

[69] It will not go unnoticed by an observant reader that the seventh month is actually the ninth month, and the following months are wrong in their numbering by the count of two. The reason is that earlier, there were ten months, and they became twelve after the insertion of July and August, so the other months shifted by two places, but their names did not change!

Greek loan words in this phase are scanty, and the ones which were in use also had Latin forms. However, the following are words which have known and reputed Greek origins, and have been known to exist in English Literature before the English Renaissance.

> Bible (*Byblos* > *biblios*); atom (*atomos*); peripatetic (*peripatētikos*); academy (*akadēmeia* < *Akadēmos*); tragedy (tragōidia); comedy (*kōmōidia*); canon (*kanōn*)

2nd Classical Influence (The Renaissance or Early Modern Influence)

In the second phase, both Greek and Latin made their influences be felt separately, as both were studied till university levels.[70] We will limit the Early Modern Influence to the end of the 18th century.

Let us first examine some of the **Latin loan words**.

Latin words related to Studies

> lens (*lentil* > *lent-* > *lens*); pendulum (*pendulus*); laboratory (*laborare*); apparatus (*apparare*); manuscript (*manu* + *scriptus*); dogma (*dogma*); psychology (*psychologia*)

Latin words expressing attributes

> complex (*complexus*); elaborate (*elaborates*); intricate (*intricatus*); immense (*immensus*); medium (*medius*); bonus (*bonus*)

Latin words expressing traits

> Miser (*miser*); ignorant, ignoramus (*ignoramus*); inert, inertia (*inert-/ iners*); insomnia (*insomis*)

Latin words related to buildings, places and spaces

> museum (*museum*);[71] area (*area*); vacuum (*vacare* > *vacuus*); nucleus (*nux*)

Greek loan words in this phase must not be overlooked, although they are few and it is not sure whether they are from Greek or from Latin, as the words exist in both the languages in very close forms, and have come at the same time (when both Latin and Greek were studied). I have selected few whose Greek origins are reputed, although they all have Latin forms.

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[70] We need not bother ourselves with the fact that most of the Latin words are from Greek, and make the mistake of saying that the first classical influence was Greek and not Latin, by keeping in mind the interaction with the language directly. Just as French comes from Latin, but there are words in English due to the French influence (and not when Latin had its influence), in the same manner, during the first phase, English was influenced by the speakers of Latin and not Greek.

[71] There is a Greek origin for this word (as for most Latin words) but as can be seen, English has borrowed this directly from Latin, without any change of spelling.

The most important Greek word in the English Language is perhaps Alphabet (*alphabētos* < *Alpha* + *Beta*). Some other words are given below.

> animate (*anemos*); chorus (*choros*); epic (*epikos*); bathos (*bathos*); pathos (*pathein*); climax (*klimax*); philosophy (*philosophos*); orchestra (*orchēstra*); drama (*dran*); thermometre (*thermē* + *metron*)

We will now examine the **joint contribution of Greek and Latin** in this phase. A lot of words have been added to the English vocabulary by the combined root words of Latin and Greek. The following are some of the **derived** words.

e.g. *Pod and Ped*

Greek *pod* and Latin *ped* both mean foot. From these root words, we get a combination of words in the English Language:

> tripod, podium, biped, pedestal, millipede.

Tres and Tri

Latin *Tres* and Greek *Tri* have both contributed to the word *three*, and many compound words are formed with *tri*, as has already been noted in the example of *tripod*.

Perhaps the most recognizable contribution of the joint venture of Latin and Greek come in the **list of words derived from numbers**. The following table illustrates this.

Number	Greek root	Latin root
1	enas	unus
2	di-	bi-
3	tri	tres
4	tetra	quartus
5	pente	quinque
6	hex-	sex
7	hepta	septem
8	oktō	octo
9	ennea	novem, nonus
10	deka	decem/dec-
100	hekaton	centum

1000	chilioi	mille

Table 8.9. Basic numbers and their Greek and Latin Roots

As can be seen, these classical roots have been turned to be the first words in many compound words which have formed down the centuries. So, although some of the derived words came later than the Early Modern Age, it must be remembered that the flow began from this period.

Latin and Greek suffixes, not recognized by the general readers as Latin and Greek suffixes, have made a similar contribution. Let us turn our attention to some of them.

Some Common Prefixes					
ad-	**de(s)-**	**re-**	**com-**	**in-**	**e(x)-**
administer	declare	react	combine	inside	exhale
adjust	deject	reject	concede	inject	eject

Table 8.10. Some Words Derived from Common Classical Prefixes

Some Common Suffixes				
-ite	**-ism**	**-ocracy**	**-ative**	**-(a)tion**
ignite	heathenism	democracy	formative	confirmation
infinite	cynicism	autocracy	native	moderation

Table 8.11. Some Words Derived from Common Classical Suffixes

In these two tables, only some words have been given, but the readers can form the idea of the processs which went about forming new words from them. It must be clarified over here that some of these words existed earlier, and some of these words have direct Latin origins from their roots. However, these forms were added using these prefixes and suffixes.

Readers will study this in more detail in the chapter on affixation.

Latin and Greek adjectives are formed from words, which might exist as OE or ME words in the noun forms.

OE/ME WORD	**NEW ENGLISH WORD as Adjectives**

	from Latin roots
moon	lunar
sun	solar
earth	terrestrial
heaven	celestial
star	stellar
mouth	oral
tooth	dental
hearing	aural
sight	visual
speech	verbal
son	filial
father	paternal
mother	maternal
brother	fraternal

Table 8.12. English Adjectives from Latin Roots

Latin and Greek endings have also led to the coinage of **new words related to people and things from other nouns**:

Horace + ian = Horatian; Newton + -ian = Newtonian; utopia + -ian = utopian

Pindar + -ic = Pindaric; Homer + -ic = Homeric

3rd Classical Influence (The Age of Scientific Terms)

Although words kept on being added to the English language in all the centuries, the third phase can be marked by a revolution in the growth of new words, which were mostly in the field of science, in the form of scientific words. Other words too, were added, but the majority of the words were scientific and medical. Not all these words are directly borrowed from Latin and Greek. Some were borrowed, and some were derived, and some were fused and some were invented by associating the nature of the product/element/thing discovered with the etymological meaning of the classical words. We will study the words from 19th century (1800) onwards to fall under this group.

Latin words

opus (*opus*); bacillus (*baculus*, alt. of *baculum*); curriculum (*curriculum*)

In the words which follow, it is only the given forms which are the modern coinages. Other words formed from them existed earlier. See the footnote for *scientist* for further explanation.

Homo sapiens; scientist (*scientia*)[72]; cubism (*cubus*); imagism (*imagin-*, *imago*)

Greek words

[72] The word science, coming from the same root, was coined earlier, as early as the 14th century. The rest of the words are also of the same type: *cube* and *image* had existed earlier.

pylon (*pylōn*); thermos (*thermē*); periscope[73]; motorcycle (*movēre* + *cyclus*); phone, phoneme, phonetics (*phōnē*); telephone (*telē* + *phōnē*)

Other than enriching the English language with new words from roots, Greek and Latin have also added to the language with their isolated **alphabets, which have been turned to symbols**. A lot of the Greek alphabets are used as mathematical symbols or symbols in equations in a lot of subjects. It is only a pity that most students do not know that the symbols belong to a language, and think of them as part of the subjects (like mathematics, statistics, physics and so on). Some of the alphabets have also been added into the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet), like theta (ɵ) and eth (ð).

ITALIAN INFLUENCE

Any student of Western Classical music will know that the terms of music which are studied are all Italian, as the system of notation was standardized at a time in Italy when Latin had disintegrated and Italian had taken its place. So, although the names of the notes are Latin (as the system was older than Italian), most of the musical terms associated with the system of notation were Italian. It will be exhaustive to give the full list of the musical terms, so, only a few have been given. Other than words related to music, Italian also gave the English language some new food terms.

Italian words related to Music

tempo (referring to the speed or pace, as tempo means time); *forte* (meaning loud); *piano* (soft)[74]; *crescendo* (rising in intensity); *adagio* (slow); *sostenuto* (sustained); *presto* (sudden and quick); *agitato* (restless and agitated); *alto* (high); *soprano* (above); opera; sonata (*sonate*, meaning to sound)

Italian words related to food and drink

pizza, pasta

Italian words related to Literature and the Arts

sonnet (*sonetto*); tercet (*terzina*); quartet (*quartetto*); sestet (*sestetto*)

Other Italian words

mafia; lava; spade; balcony (*balcone*); profile (*profilo*); casino (*casa*); carnival (*carnevale*); parapet (*parapetto*); traffic (*traffico*)

[73] Although the word has got Greek roots, this has been classed under International Scientific Vocabulary (as per Webster's Dictionary)

[74] The instrument known as piano is the shortened form of *pianoforte*, which means loud and soft. This instrument was a later development from the previously existing harpsichord, where one could not play louder or softer.

It must have been noticed by the observant reader that a lot of the words (particularly those related to music) which have come from Italian have come as direct borrowings, without any alteration of spelling.

SPANISH INFLUENCE

The Spanish influence upon the English language came from two places:

a. Spain
b. Mexico and Latin America (where Spanish is spoken)

As we are dealing with the European Influences, we will restrict ourselves to the influence from Spain.

> matador (*matar*); armada (*armata*); siesta (*siesta*); sherry (*xeres*); cargo (*carga*); tomato (*tomate*).

THE AMERICAN INFLUENCES

Europe began to colonise the Americas in the early 17th century. Britain and France both fought for the territories which later passed to Britain through the treaty of Paris in 1763. The thirteen odd colonies of Britain which settled in the eastern parts of "The New World" soon began to grow a feeling of dissent with their kinsmen who stayed in the isles. Needless to say, as known to all, they were the first to rise against the British Empire, and gained their independence. They declared themselves to be independent even before they gained it, in the famous Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776. Their war lasted till 1783 (paralleling the French revolution) and they were supported by France (who obviously wanted their rival, Britain, to lose). In the Peace of Paris (1783), the war officially ended.

However, what we now know to be the world's fourth largest country did not come into being at that time, for the rest of North America was filled by native Americans, who had probably come from Asia, across Bering land bridge. It is believed that from this extreme north (now Alaska), they spread inwards, even to South America. The thirteen colonies which gained independence as United States began to expand and subjugate the native Americans, and gradually, the present structure of the United States came to be.[75]

THE (NORTH) AMERICAN ENGLISH (NAME)

The founders of the United States set up their differences with the United Kingdom, and this was highly felt in the making of a dictionary of the American peoples, now famous as ***Webster's Dictionary***, which is canon for American English. We will study the features of NAmE under some heads.

Archaism

It would come as a surprise to the readers to know that many of the words of NAmE retain some old forms of the English Language, whereas the British English (BrE) has moved on to new forms. This is called archaism – the tendency of American English to retain some old forms and usage.

Forgotten

The past participle of *forget* is now *forgotten*, and this is due to the American influence. The British use is *forgot*. However, we don't find BrE to state "I have forgot it", but rather, "I have forgotten it", due to the American influence. If, however, one looks at the times of the Renaissance and even a few centuries later, one would find instances of "have forgot". Such instances abound in the plays of Shakespeare. So, once upon a time, BrE used "have forgot", then, they *forgot* it and started using *forgotten* as the past participle, as the Americans influenced them to take back this form, which they were using from the start.

[75] It took as long as 1867 (when Alaska was purchased). The Spanish American War was then fought, in which Spain had to relinquish its claim on the American soil, in 1898.

Gotten

The similarity with *forgotten* can be easily noticed, but this word has not gained popularity in British English. BrE uses "have got" instead of the American "have gotten", yet "gotten" was once the British form, which shifted to the United States, and the UK has not "got" back to its homeland yet.

Mad

NAmE use of the word is not just for insane, but for angry as well. This was once the use in BrE, but was lost in time, and drifted away to the New World.

Sick

BrE now restrict the use of this word to nausea, but once, it meant ill-health, as is the use in NAmE, and this usage, like *forgotten*, is again gaining popularity.

Platter

BrE uses the word plate, or dish, but platter was the word once used, and is still in vogue in NAmE.

Fall

While BrE uses this word as a verb, NAmE uses this word in its old use – Autumn. The logic is that this is the season marked by the falling of the leaves.

Differences in Vocabulary

NAmE is marked by its different accent from that of BrE, but perhaps the most distinct feature of NAmE is the list of words whose meanings differ in the two nations. The following list illustrates this.

BrE	**NAmE**
railway	railroad
driver	engineer
guard	conductor
luggage	baggage
goods train	freight train
point	switch
level crossing	grade crossing
lorry	truck
motorway	expressway

dual carriageway	divided highway
boot	trunk
silencer	muffler
windscreen	windshield
lift	elevator
post	mail
hoarding	billboard
nappy	diaper
underground	subway
barrister	lawyer
dustman	garbage collector
stupid	dumb
lumber	timber
trousers	pants
pants	underwear
waistcoat	vest
vest	undershirt

Table 8.13. Differences in American and British Vocabulary

These often tend to be quite confusing for non-native speakers of the language, who learn "English" without noting the difference between these branches.

Differences in Spellings

If one were to think that the exhaustive list of words whose usages are different was the only hard task in learning the difference between the two languages, one would be very wrong. One of the first things America did after independence was to establish its language as being different from the British rulers from whom they gained independence. So, they set up their own spellings for many words to mark this change. The Webster's Dictionary, consulted worldwide, is actually an American dictionary set to mark this milestone, and record the American English. Following is a list of words whose spellings differ.

BrE	NAmE
colour	color
honour	honor
waggon	wagon
plough	plow
cheque	check
traveller	traveler
counselling	counseling
theatre, centre, metre, fibre	theater, center, meter, fiber
defence, offence	defense, offense
practise (verb)	practice (verb)
axe	ax
tyre	tire
storey	story
civilisation, Tsar	civilization, Czar
tranquillity	tranquility

Table 8.14. Differences in American and British Spellings

Differences in Pronunciation[76]

The most noticeable difference that would strike the ears of all listeners of English is the pronunciation of the alphabet "a" in words like *fast, path dance* and so on. NAmE pronounces them with /æ/ while BrE pronounces them as /ɑ:/. Interestingly, this is a feature of archaism as well, for once upon a time, the BrE pronounced the words with /æ/ sound.

Another difference, quick to be picked by all ears, is the use of /i:/ in NAmE and /aɪ/ in BrE in words like *either*, *neither* and *director*.

[76] Refer to Appendix A for the pronunciation of the phonetic symbols.

A third major difference in pronunciation is in the utterance of "R". in NAmE, "R" is often pronounced where it is silent in BrE.[77] Examples of such words are:

> *are, art, brother, father, mother, sister*.

THE EASTERN INFLUENCES

Even though the influence of American English on British English began through the process of Colonisation (they were British colonies which asserted their independence), it was not limited to the colonial times, and as the influence was more mutual, it has been discussed separately in the previous chapter. This chapter shall give a brief overview of the eastern lands which influenced English, as a result of the process of colonisation.

INDIAN INFLUENCE

The British ruled India for about 200 years, and were interacting with India for a longer period. Rudyard Kipling's *The Jungle Book* mentions a lot of Indian words. Before one discusses Indian influence, one must keep in mind that India has many languages, and there are similar words in more than one language. So, all controversies have been avoided, and the 'Indian' spellings (phonetically) nearest to the English spellings of the words have been chosen.

It must also be kept in mind that India has faced a lot of invasions, and its languages have also been influenced. So, not all Indian words are 'Indian' in origin, so to speak. Some are hybrids and some are loans from other languages, and some show influences in their inflections. In the list which follows, the words are given as Indian words, as they are recognized as Indian words and as the English were influenced by these words when they interacted with India, though the origin of the words may often lie in other lands.

> sahib/saheb (*sahib*); pundit (*pandit*); coolie (*kūli*); bunglow (*banglā*); sari (*sān*); thug (*thag*); topi (*topi*); payjama (*pāy + jāmā*)[78]; dharna (*dharnā*); avatar (*avatārā*); chakra (*chakra*); raj(a); (*raja*); biryani (*biriyani*)

CHINESE INFLUENCE

The Chinese influence on the English language has been mostly in the fields of martial arts and food. The following words would be easily familiar to a person who is loves the sport and loves Chinese food.

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[77] In BrE, the "r" at the end of words is silent, unless the next word begins with a vowel. In that case, /r/ is pronounced. Such instances are cited by giving the phonetic symbol within brackets in the dictionary entry.

[78] i.e., garment for the legs.

yang (*yang*); yin (*yin*); kung fu (*kūng* fū); chow mein (*cháau-mihn*); feng shui (*fēngshui*); ketchup (*kōe-chiap, kē-tsiap*); tai chi (*tai chi*); wushu (*wǔ + shù*); tea (*dé*); typhoon (*daaih-fùng*).[79]

JAPANESE INFLUENCE

JAPANESE INFLUENCE ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE HAS SIMILAR FOOTING: THEY ARE MOSTLY RELATED TO MARTIAL ARTS AND FOOD, AND SOMETIMES, WARFARE.

karate (*kara + te*)[80]; kata (*kata*); judo (*jū + dō*)[81]; jujitsu/ju-jut-su/jiu-jit-su (*jujutsu*); hara-kiri (*hara + kiri*);[82] bonsai (*bonsai*); soy (*shōyu*); sudoku (sudoku)

ARABIC INFLUENCE

Arabia was famous for trade and commerce. However, the words don't always relate to business.

harem (*harem*); mufti (*mufti*); nadir (*nazir*); sultan (*sūltān*); algebra (*al + jabr*); alchemy (*al + kimiyā*); alcohol (*al + kūhl*).

II. By People

Chaucer's Contribution

As has been noted in the previous pages, Chaucer has been hailed as the Father of English Literature and Language. Chaucer's contribution can be summed up under the following heads:

A. Contribution towards Language
B. Contribution towards Literature (in particular, poetry)

Let us look at the two heads in detail.

A. Contribution towards Language

Before Chaucer – and even in his time – there was no fixed rule for spellings in English. The pronunciation varied greatly due to the French influence, and Norman English was simply an agglomeration, without any specifications. When it came to writing, there was no standard. The

[79] This word comes to the English language from Chinese, but the origin of the word is Greek – *typhōn* (violent storm).

[80] The meaning of the two words is bare hands.

[81] The words mean gentle art.

[82] The words mean belly cutting. The term means suicide. It was the samurai custom of driving the sword inside oneself.

languages were in four dialects – East Midland, Kentish, Northumbrian, The Southern. Chaucer took up the Midland dialect and his writings made it prominent, so much so that that is the dialect from which Modern English has followed. So, his efforts at writing standardized a dialect, setting it out as the standard for the language.

Not only did he set a dialect as the future standard dialect of the official British English, he also brought about a change in the manner of speaking the language. Words and expressions such as "said," "tell", "guess" without which we cannot frame sentences in reported speech, were used by him a lot to enrich the vocabulary.

Although Chaucer wrote in English, the French language did leave its mark in his writings, and consequently, in the English language. His use of French words and idioms certainly helped popularize the French vocabulary, and in a lot of cases, French spellings. Although spellings have changed since Chaucer's time, a study of his spellings would show the effect of French influence on English in shaping its pronunciation. So, although French influence was due to political reasons, Chaucer certainly helped popularize it.

His use of idioms and phrases helped shape the language, and this trend increased, till the English language became filled with lots of rhetorical lines in the Renaissance. Chaucer shows restricted and proper use of idioms, and not an unnecessary urge to sound one's trumpet in one's knowledge of idioms. "Not worth an oyster" is an example.

B. Contribution towards Literature

Chaucer's contribution towards literature is particularly recognized in the genre of poetry and its versification.

Chaucer is credited for the use of Rime Royal[83], also known as Chaucerian Stanza, which consists of a verse of seven lines in iambic pentameter, with the rhyme scheme of *ababbcc*. He used this in *Troilus and Criseyda*. He also used the Octosyllabic Couplet in English metre, which contains each line in a tetrameter and two lines rhyme successively. This becomes the Heroic Couplet, when each line is an iambic pentameter and two lines rhyme successively. The Heroic Couplet was used extensively during the Neo-Classical age.[84]

The descriptions found in *The Canterbury Tales* show remarkable skill on how to keep the meter and use apt words to bring out a vivid pen-picture of the characters. His style no doubt influenced later poets, and the style of description can be seen even in the Romantic age, where essayists and novelists used poetic descriptions (even though the sentences were in prose). Matthew Arnold (1880) has rightly stated, "With him is born our real poetry".

[83] Modern spelling is Rhyme Royal.

[84] For a detailed study of metre, students may consult *Compact English Prosody and Figures of Speech* (Mallik, 2009).

Shakespeare's Contribution

Although Chaucer is hailed as the father of English Literature and Language, Shakespeare's reputation is far greater and wider. He has added to the English language a vocabulary of more than 3000 words, and his estimated vocabulary of words is way higher than that of the average English speaking person.[85]

William Shakespeare lived during the time of the English Renaissance, and his writing career spanned from 1590-1612 roughly. At that time, spelling and writing rules were not standardized (just as it was in the time of Chaucer). When they were standardized centuries later, his plays were popularly performed, and often, his expressions were used by other playwrights, leading to the adding of the words in the Oxford Dictionary and Dr. Johnson's dictionary.

The use of Neologism

Renaissance literature was influenced by theology, philosophy and physical sciences. Many writers faced difficulties in expressing ideas (which were due to the classical influences). Shakespeare adopted, borrowed and invented words and phrases, and used them in new ways (called **neologism**).

In *Antony and Cleopatra*, we find the line "the wild disguise has almost/Anticked us all" (*AC* II.7), where "antic" refers to a fool, and is rightfully a noun. In this line, Shakespeare turns it into a verb with the meaning "to make a fool of", and that is familiar to us today, so much so that we have a new meaning even in the noun form "antics" (plural), which refers to such activities of fooling. In the same play, we have the line "some squeaking Cleopatra boy my greatness" (*AC* V.2), where "boy" is used as a verb instead of a noun, alluding to the practice of young boys playing the roles of women.

Coining new words

Although this handbook will not give the full list of the thousands of words he coined, some popular ones have been stated. It will surprise the reader how many of these expressions we use today.

Words related to body

eyeball, hot-blooded, bare-faced, blood-stained, new-fangled

Words related to traits, moods and conditions of behaviour

fashionable, gloomy, lonely, laughable, premeditated, excitement, amazement, impartial, drugged, obscene, worthless, flawed

Words related to objects and places

sea-change, birthplace, touchstone, blanket, bedroom, addiction, hob-nob[86]*, majestic, monumental, moonbeam, Olympian, summit*

[85] It might be surprising to know that rappers have an estimated vocabulary far greater than William Shakespeare! This is due to the fact that the English language in the 20th and 21st century is far wider in its stock of words than at the time of Shakespeare. So, the credit is more to the expanded and still expanding language.

[86] Although the word sounds like a floating object, it is not so. It means a biscuit. The idea is that it is dipped in the tea and then eaten.

Words related to types of People

bandit, cut-throat, epileptic

Words related to Actions

advertising, blushing, puking, vaulting, secure, imped, gossip, mimick, torture, undress, unsex

Other Words

unreal, ode, exposure

'Knock-knock' Jokes

The very popular 'knock-knock' jokes have been inspired from the infamous porter scene in *Macbeth.* The drunken porter utters, "Knock, knock, knock! Who's there?" (*Mac.* II.3). The jokes follow the following format:

Joker: Knock, knock!

Person: Who is it?

After this, the joker mentions the first name, and the person again asks "Who?" and the joker replies by adding something funny with the name. The drunken porter in *Macbeth* utters something witty about each of the imaginary persons who appear to enter through the "hell-gate".

Coining of Idioms and Phrases

Apart from the words that he coined, he also coined a lot of idioms and phrases.

catch a cold – suffer from cold;

fair play – when someone does something with strategy, yet in an honest manner;

it's Greek to me – when one does not understand the meaning of something;

method in madness[87] - taken to mean literally, that a mad person also exhibits systematic patterns of behavior;

all that glitters is not gold – things can be fake;

break the ice – behave cordially;

the dog will have its day – every person who is ignored and abused and ill-treated will face reversal of situation;[88]

naked truth – truth not disguised and told fully, even if it hurts;

be all and end all – a kind of master-strike, which will not have further consequences, but will give victory;

heart of gold – a generous heart;

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[87] The words are from *Ham*., where Polonius says, "Although it seems mad, yet there's method in it".

[88] This stems from the belief in Fortune's wheel.

brevity is the soul of wit – to speak less is clever;

mind's eye – foresight, also, memory;

eat out of house and home – one who lives a wayward life;

it smells to heaven – a bad deed which reeks up to heaven and will be punished in time;

salad days – good, pleasant days;

green-eyed jealousy – a very jealous person;[89]

primrose path – a sweet and pleasant path, a glorious path (literally, one which is strewn with roses so that the feet is not hurt)

wild goose chase – futile search

with bated breath – by holding one's breath and watching/waiting for something

Innovative Wordplays/Puns/Quibbles

Shakespeare's works are highly famous for their use of puns and wordplay. Actors often take up many meanings of a word and use them in different sentences to show the different meanings (and the resultant confusion creates comedy). A few have been given below.

As, painfully to pore upon a book
To seek the *light* of truth, while truth the while
Doth falsely blind the eyesight of his look.
Light, seeking *light*, doth *light* of *light* beguile;
So ere you find where *light* in darkness lies,
Your *light* grows dark by losing of your eyes. (*LLL*, I.1)

The passage plays on the word *light*, but one line has become more popular, almost a proverb: *light, seeking light, doth light of light beguile*. This line is explained in the lines which come before it. The meaning is mind's eye/intelligence, seeking knowledge, does cheat the eyes of their power of eyesight.[90]

Ask for me tomorrow and you will find me a *grave* man. (*Rom.* III.1)

These words are uttered by Mercutio after he is stabbed. He is a character who likes to joke, and even at the moment of death, he makes a final joke. The pun lies on the word "grave". One meaning is that from tomorrow, he will stop joking and be serious, and the other meaning is that he will be a man for the grave, that is, he will be dead.

[89] From here, we get the fanciful image that a person turns green when jealous.

[90] The idea is that a person, in his desire to know more and more, searches in books, even by the light of candles while reading at night, and so, would gradually lose his eyesight by over-straining the nerves.

> Not I, believe me: you have dancing shoes
> With nimble *soles*: I have a *soul* of lead (*Rom.* II.4)

These words are uttered by Romeo, and the pun lies on 'sole'-'soul'. On the one hand, he means that the others have light soles fit for dancing, but his soles are heavy. On the other hand, he means that their souls are carefree, while his is burdened (with feelings of love).

Sonnets 135 and 136 give a brilliant example of wordplay, one which is famous, as it involves the name of Shakespeare himself. Sonnet 136 has been given below.

> If thy soul cheque thee that I come so near,
> Swear to thy blind soul that I was thy '*Will*,'
> And *will*, thy soul knows, is admitted there;
> Thus far for love my love-suit, sweet, fulfil.
> *'Will' will* fulfil the treasure of thy love,
> Ay, fill it full with *wills*, and my *will* one.
> In things of great receipt with ease we prove
> Among a number one is reckon'd none:
> Then in the number let me pass untold,
> Though in thy stores' account I one must be;
> For nothing hold me, so it please thee hold
> That nothing me, a something sweet to thee:
> Make but my name thy love, and love that still,
> And then thou lovest me, for my name is '*Will*.'

Every play contains wordplays, and the few that have been given, including one from the sonnets, serve to illustrate the point. Prof. Michael Dobson of the Shakespeare Institute at the University of Birmingham, states

> We'd be missing many, many interconnections between cultures and between the past, the present and the future….The fact that the modern world has any notion of 'world literature' at all is based on the way in which Shakespeare has been translated and adopted in each national literature in term (Editors, *Discovery*, July 2014).

Milton's Influence

Milton, the puritan poet, influenced not just the writers of his time, but also of later times. As can be understood by general knowledge, the influence is greatly due to Milton's *Magnum opus*, *Paradise Lost*, the first English epic in blank verse.[91]

Influenced by Milton's style in *Paradise Lost*, the **blank verse** began to be experimented with. Although it went to a period of hibernation during the Neo-Classical Age which followed him, where the Heroic Couplet was in vogue, it revived once more in the hands of the Romantic poets. William Wordsworth, one of the founding fathers of the Romantic group of poets, wrote quite a number of

[91] Although Beowulf can be classified as an 'epic', the term that is applied for Beowulf is "heroic poetry", and it was definitely not in blank verse. *Paradise Lost* follows all classical conventions and makes it English due to it's language, and Christian due to its theme.

poems in blank verse, some of which are rather long in narrative, appearing to imitate the narrative style of Milton with his long flow of words, as seen in the epic. *Tintern Abbey* is an example.

Writers did not only take the verse form, but the **themes of the verses** as well. Milton's language was dignified and eloquent in a circumlocutory manner, and poets of the age, and the following ages imitated that in their poems. So, poetry became filled with rather dignified expressions, expressing a grand thought. Shelley was much influenced by the themes of his verses, and called Milton a republican.

> We owe Milton to the progress and development of the same spirit [of awakening to the tyranny of the Catholic religion]: the sacred Milton was, let it ever be remembered, a republican and a bold enquirer into morals and religion (Jones 490).

It has been stated that the Neo-Classical age popularized the heroic couplet. This does not go to say that Milton did not have any influence on the writers of the age. Pope, one of the stalwarts of Neo-Classical age, imitated Milton's **style of presentation** in his attempts to bring out mock-heroic poems. *The Rape of the Lock* is the best example, where Pope uses several elements of presentation – even to the extent of lines – from Milton, only turning them to rhyme at the end (Mallik 2017: 153, 170, 172,174). Other than *The Rape of the Lock*, Pope imitates and alludes to Milton several times in the *Dunciad* and *Alcander, Prince of Rhodes* (Mehmet, Durmaş, 61).

Other than the blank verse and the themes, Milton influenced later poets to take up his style of sonnet, called the **Miltonic Sonnet**. Miltonic sonnet is written using iambic pentameter, and follows Petrarchan sonnet in rhyme scheme. However, there is no break between stanzas, so the rhyme scheme becomes *abbaabbacdecde*. The division into octet and sestet does not occur and it becomes unified. Wordsworth was greatly influenced by this form, and wrote quite a few sonnets in this manner, the most famous of which are *Milton* and *London 1802*.

Milton did not just influence the English writers, but **Americans** as well.

> They turned to Milton for poetic, moral, and religious instructions…copies of his works were available in the colonies long before he became a famous figure among the people (Mehmet, Durmaş, 62).

The influence of Milton extended well beyond literature. **Musicians and composers** were also indebted to him. Lawes set *Comus* to music, while Purcell worked upon *L'Allegro* and Handel took up *Il Penseroso*. Parts of *Paradise Lost* were taken up time and time again by several composers for *oratorios* and for other musical forms.

Milton's contribution can be summed up by the comment of Edward Dowden:

> The influence of Milton…was threefold – an influence on poetic style, independent in a great degree of poetic matter; secondly, an influence alike on poetry and style; thirdly, an influence on thought…The first of these modes of influence is chiefly connected with Paradise Lost, the second with Milton's earlier poems, the third with his prose writings (qtd. Shawcross 41).

THE CONTRIBUTION OF JAMES JOYCE

James Joyce is often ignored in books of philology, as he lived in the same age as the philologists did when they wrote their books, or even later. However, a 21st century edition of a book on English

Language would do a great injustice to the language if it were to overlook the contribution of James Joyce. Although his words are not used in vogue, his style is interesting, as he often fused words to come up with new words.[92] Sometimes, he also used Neologism to coin new parts of speech of existing words.

Botch-up – this word had existed as a verb, and meant to "to cobble together" or "repair hastily" but Joyce used this form as a verb in *Ulysses* – "botch-up of a concert" (a total mess).

Sausage – sausage had existed earlier as a noun, but Joyce used it as a verb to mean "to subject a person or thing to treatment reminiscent of the manufacture or shape of a sausage" (OED).

Monoideal – this was coined from the existing word monoideism – a psychological term referring to a single fixation. The OED describes monoideal as "expressing or conveying only one idea".

Mrkgnao – this was Joyce's version of "meow" as used in *Ulysses*: "*Mrkgnao*! the cat said loudly. She blinked up out of her avid shameclosing eyes, mewing plaintively and long, showing him her milkwhite teeth."

Peloothered – this meant someone very drunk, as used in *Dubliners*. The word was probably inspired from *blootered*.

Yogibogeybox – this word is a compound word of three existing words - word of three existing words – *yogi*, *bogey* and *box*. The compound word is used in *Ulysses* to refer to the container/box in which a spiritualist carries all their equipment.

Quark – this is perhaps the most famous coinage of James Joyce, which is used in quantum physics and chemistry. The word features in *Finnigans Wake*. US physicist Murray Gell-Mann discovered the particles and originally called them "quorks". Noting the uncanny similarity in the property of these particles to cluster in groups of three, with the line in *Finnigans Wake* "three quarks for Muster Mark!" he decided to change the word to "quark" and credit Joyce.

III. BY THE BIBLE

As the name 'Bible' means 'The Book' it would have been extremely ironical if the book had not left a mark on the language. Before discussing the influence on the language, however, it is essential to have some background knowledge about the history of The Bible.

The History of the Publications

'The Bible' as recognized by us today is not what existed earlier, and even today, is not the only form that exists. The Bible is a collection of writings – each of which is called a book. The books are arranged in two parts – The Old Testament (before the birth of Jesus) and The New Testament (from the time of Jesus).

[92] As this is a handbook, its limited scope prevents detailed discussion on Joyce, but advanced learners should be able to dig out more material on him.

The books of the Old Testament were written in Aramaic language, and ancient Hebrew language.[93] They, along with the books of the New Testament, were translated into Greek first, and then into Latin (called the Latin Vulgate, or simply, The Vulgate), after the conversion of the Romans to Christianity. Meetings were held to discuss which books would be kept and which would not. The Church fathers made a selection, and the scriptures which were taken formed the **Canon**. Later on, some more books were added to the canon, like the Gospel According to John. The ones which were not accepted formed the **Apocrypha**. It is only recently that separate publications have been taken out, which feature only the rejected books, and they are labelled as **The Apocryphal Bible**. In general terms, when one uses 'Bible', one means the Christian Canonised version.

The Canonised version in Latin continued for few centuries in England, till the coming of King James I. The first full English Bible was under the direction of **John Wycliffe**, a professor at Oxford University and a theologian. The hand-printed books of the Bible were produced through 1380s and 1390s. This is known as the "Early version". Later on, John Purvey took out a "Later Version" of the books, making them easier to read, but retaining much of the original poetry of expression (Bible versions, 'Wycliffe'). Preachers used popular portions of the Bible as translated by Wycliffe, and his translation also influenced later translators.

William Tyndale came up with his version of The Bible in 1500s, and relied a lot on the phrasings of Wycliffe. His book was possible due to the printing press, and was mass produced. "Tyndale never published a complete Bible prior to his execution, as he only finished translating the New Testament and roughly half of the Old Testament" (Bible versions, 'Tyndale').

However, the most famous version – one that is still followed – is the one published by **King James I** in 1611, known as King James Version (KJV) or King James Bible (KJB) or the Authorised Version**.** This version was influenced by Tyndale (Lesnch 28), and as that was influenced by Wycliffe, it can be argued that KJV is influenced by Wycliffe's version.

The Influence

The KJV is known for its dignified style, lending it the quality of the "Authorised version". Although in modern times, simpler versions have been taken out,[94] the KJV remains seated high on the throne amongst all English translations.

Let us now turn to a statistical survey of the KJV's influence. It contains about 6000 different words, and of that, 93% are English words, and only 7% are classical in origin. The average length of the words is only four syllables, and so, the words are not that difficult to read.

The KJV has given us a lot of new words and phrases, some of which are **loan words**:

camel, cherub, jubilee, manna, shibboleth, sycamore, hallelujah, amen, sabbath.

A lot of **idioms** have been added to the English Language from their appearance in the KJV:

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[93] It is often claimed by the Jews that the Christian Bible has often changed the original scriptures while translating.

[94] *The Good News Bible*, for example, which is an American version, making the language simple enough for modern readers to understand. Even KJV has undergone a modern edition, so that, the dignity blends with simplicity, leading to ease of understanding.

Hide your light under a bushel (to hide one's talent and potential); *fell flat upon his face* (when one's plans fail miserably); *put the words into (the) mouth* (to make someone utter what you want him/her to say); *thorn in the sight* (an obstacle in path); *apple of the eye* (favourite); *beside himself* (mad); *eleventh hour* (in the last moment, when it's almost too late).

There are also idioms which have entered English from their being **translated from ancient Hebrew**:

in deep water (in deep trouble/problem); *wheels within wheels* (very complicated structure/situation, more problematic than thought of); *you can't make a leopard change its spots* (you can't really change someone's inherent habits); *to see the writing on the wall* (to be able to understand beyond the appearance); *a president with feet of clay* (a weak ruler).

The KJV also abounds in **aphorism**. The popularity of the aphorism listed below speaks for the influence:

Gird up your loins (prepare for a situation); *an eye for an eye* (a revenge motive); *give up the ghost* (to die); *nothing new under the sun* (heaven sees all, nothing can be truly hidden); *no peace for the wicked* (the wicked are restless by nature, and will be condemned to hell later); *bottomless pit* (whose end cannot be seen); *fall on stony ground* (suffer serious defeat); *the parting of the ways* (when friends or other important persons leave each other's company because of difference in opinions).

Some **expressions have shortened** over time, and only parts are used:

Out of the mouths (directly from source); to turn the other cheek (to show benevolence to aggressive actions); *spare the rod* (stop harsh punishment).

Some **Biblical names of characters and places** have become so popular that they have become types, and are often used as metonymies:

- *from Adam* (from one's family roots);
- *Adam's apple* (metonymy for the male voice box, the larynx, as the stories - Non-Biblical – go that the seed of the Apple was stuck in Adam's throat)
- *Doubting Thomas* (can be labelled on someone who needs proof to believe anything, as Thomas did not believe the resurrection of Jesus till Jesus appeared to show the marks of wounds);
- *David and Goliath* (labels for two people, one of whom is a bully and the other appears meek and mild, but the meek and mild overcomes the bully);
- *As old as Methuselah* (Methuselah lived to a grand old age, so this name is used for people who are very old as well as to things which are old-fashioned and orthodox);
- *Judas the traitor* (can be labelled on someone who betrays, as Judas betrayed Jesus);
- *Sodom and Gomorrah* (labels for places which have been destroyed);
- *Armageddon* (label for a great battle, possibly a global warfare);
- *The Promised Land* (label for property which is promised to be given to someone, and also for lands which one holds in high esteem, for ancestral reasons. Israel is the Promised Land of the Jews).

The **Psalms** of the Bible offer **excellent poetry**, whether they are read aloud or sung. A famous example is Psalm 23, from which the expression "valley of the shadow of death" has become quite popular, along with others, like "my cup overflows", the most popular being the opening of the Psalm, "The Lord is my Shepherd".

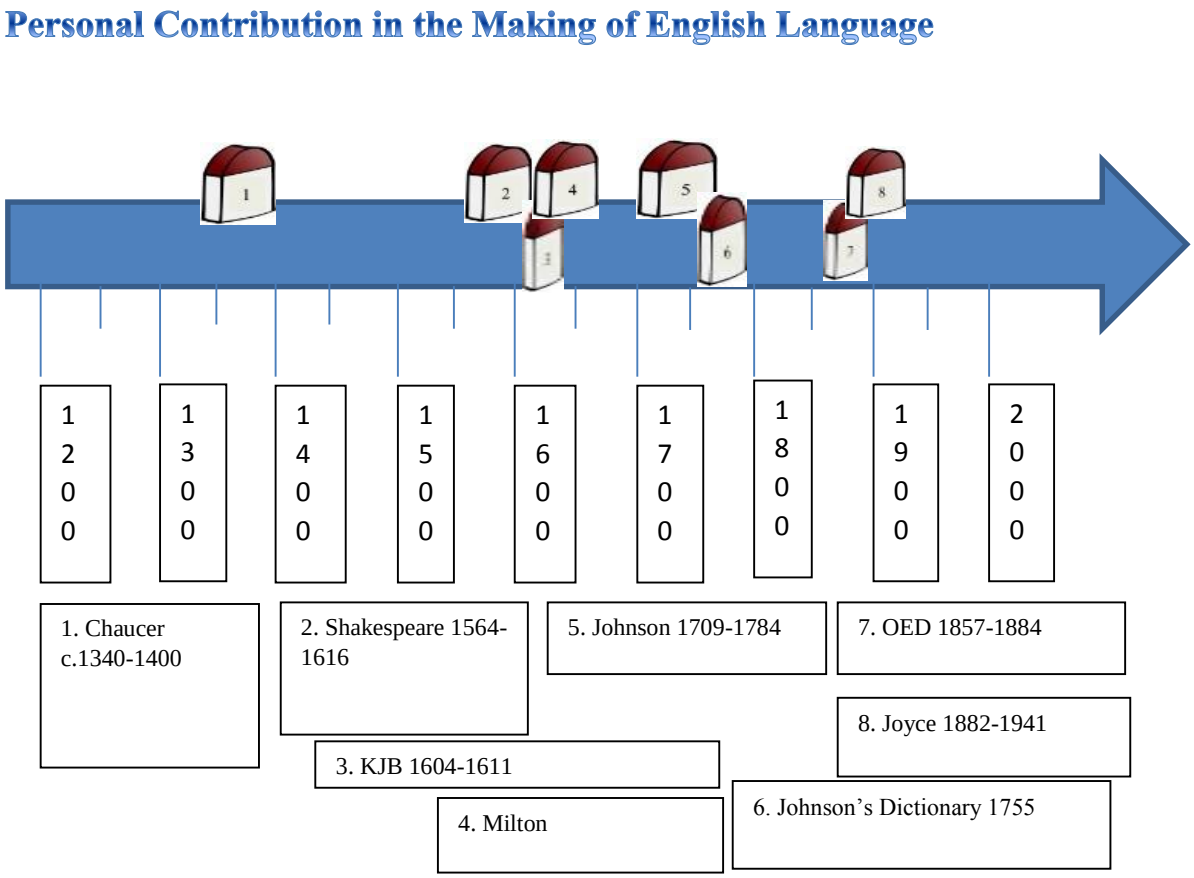


Fig. 8.3. Chart Showing Timeline of Persons and Dictionaries Influential in the English Language. © Author.

9. ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE (AI) AND THE FUTURE OF ENGLISH

Artificial Intelligence

A lot of promising research is being done in the field of Computational Neuroscience. Robots have been around humans for a long time, helping us in ways that are not recognized. The functioning of any electronic devise is a robotic functioning, but not all robots are artificially intelligent. Artificial intelligence refers to the ability of machines to think for themselves and evolve their thought-processes, without the aid of humans. Of course, this does not mean that the robots will come to be by themselves. The creation of the machines is artificial; the raw input – which forms the basis for "language" and seems to be interchangeably used with "intelligence" – is given by man. But once made, the robot is able to think and act by itself. Sophia is the most advanced robot made so far, which looks like a human (humanoid) and seems to talk by itself (herself?) without the need for human instruction all the time. It is able to depict a lot of different facial expressions. The humanoid was activated in 2016, and has been made by Hong Kong based company Hanson Robotics. The website states the following introduction on Sophia, from 1st person narrative:

> I am Hanson Robotics' latest human-like robot, created by combining our innovations in science, engineering and artistry. Think of me as a personification of our dreams for the future of AI, as well as a framework for advanced AI and robotics research, and an agent for exploring human-robot experience in service and entertainment applications.
>
> In some ways, I am human-crafted science fiction character depicting where AI and robotics are heading. In other ways, I am real science, springing from the serious engineering and science research and accomplishments of an inspired team of robotics & AI scientists and designers. In their grand ambitious, my creators aspire to achieve true AI sentience. Who knows? With my science evolving so quickly, even many of my wildest fictional dreams may become reality someday soon (hansonrobotics.com/sophia).

Sophia's AI is networked using what Hanson Robotics calls SOUL (Synthetic Organism Unifying Language). It is claimed that the humanoid can sense emotions while conversing with someone, and the responses are unique, as opposed to machines with set responses only. This is possible as the AI components "can be combined in different ways" (hansonrobotics.com/sophia).

The Future of English

There are lots of concerns raised from the second half of the 20th century regarding the multi-directional spread of English. The tremendous rate at which English has spread has increased due to the technological boom. New words are coined as terms which are taken from everyday usage.

This is true in the case of **new word**s which are used related to technology.

mouse, virus, mobile, cell

Given above are words which have more familiarity with the technological world of computer than with animals, germs, movement or prison.

Accordingly, we have new-age **compounds**:

firewall, inbox, keyboard, mousepad, touchpad, pen-drive, download, upload, facebook

Affixation has gone to a technological level too:

Anti-virus, pre-paid, undo, redo

Conversion has also been converted in the technological avatar:

Google (moun) > *to google* (verb)

Condensing is used on the word internet itself, along with others:

internet – international network

intercom – inter-communication

Abbreviations and Acronyms are not to be left behind in the race:

USB – Universal Serial Bus

URL – Uniform Resource Locator

http – hyper-text transfer protocol

https – hyper-text transfer protocol (secure)

AI – Artificial Intelligence

UFO – Unidentified Flying Object

Perhaps the biggest and most popular use of abbreviations is in the use of SMS. In fact, so widespread is the phenomenon that it is often called "**SMS language**".

idk – I don't know

fyi – For your information

sys – see you soon

GN – Goodnight

Ttyl – talk to you later

LOL – laughing out loud

ROFL – rolling on the floor with laughter

New nouns have been formed from existing words:

emoticon, smiley

Conventional and conservative grammarians are surely biting their pens due to the widespread lack of heed for grammar and norms, but perhaps this is heralding us towards a new age. Just as rock art gave way to cuneiform writing, which gave way to writing on paper, perhaps with the growing trend of people to live in virtual reality, and machines learning how to speak (and expected to think like man), perhaps the syntax of language needs to undergo change, and maybe, we are living in that time when the English language is evolving to the new avatar.

APPENDIX A:

LIST OF PHONETIC SYMBOLS AND THEIR PRONUNCIATION

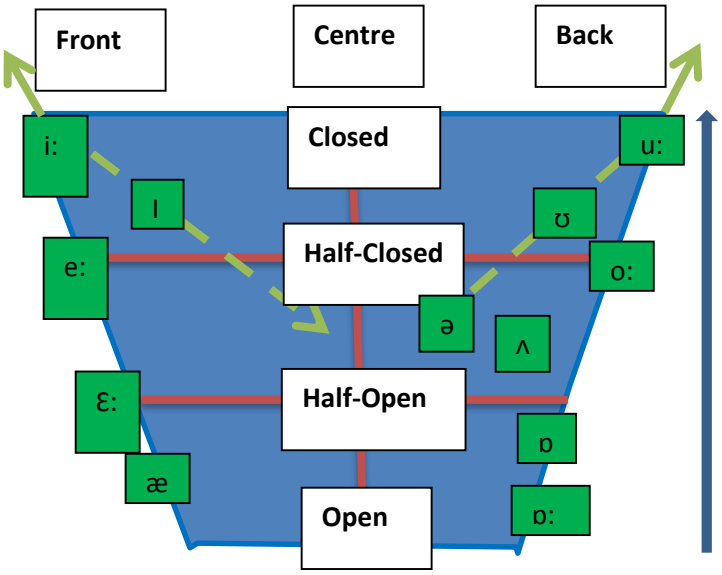
The following list is made as per the seventh edition of the OALD.

IPA English Vowel Chart	
IPA	**Pronunciation**
/ʌ/	c**u**p
/ə/	fath**er**; **a**way; **a**bout
/ɑː/	f**a**ther; **ar**m
/ɜː/	f**ur**; s**ir**
/æ/	b**a**t; h**a**ppy
/e/	b**e**t
/eɪ/	s**ay**; d**ay**
/ɪ/	h**i**t; f**i**t; s**i**t
/i/	happ**y**
/iː/	h**ea**t; f**ea**t; s**ea**t
/aɪ/	f**i**ve
/ɒ/	h**o**t
/ɔː/	c**a**ll; s**a**w
/ʊ/	p**u**t
/u/	s**ui**t
/uː/	s**oo**t; b**oo**t; t**oo**
/aʊ/	n**ow**
/əʊ/	g**o** (bre)
/oʊ/	g**ou** (name)
/eə/	h**air**
/ɪə/	n**ear**
/ɔɪ/	b**oy**
/ʊə/	p**ure**
IPA English Consonant Chart	
/p/	**p**et
/b/	**b**all
/t/	**t**in
/d/	**d**og
/k/	**c**amel
/g/	**g**lide

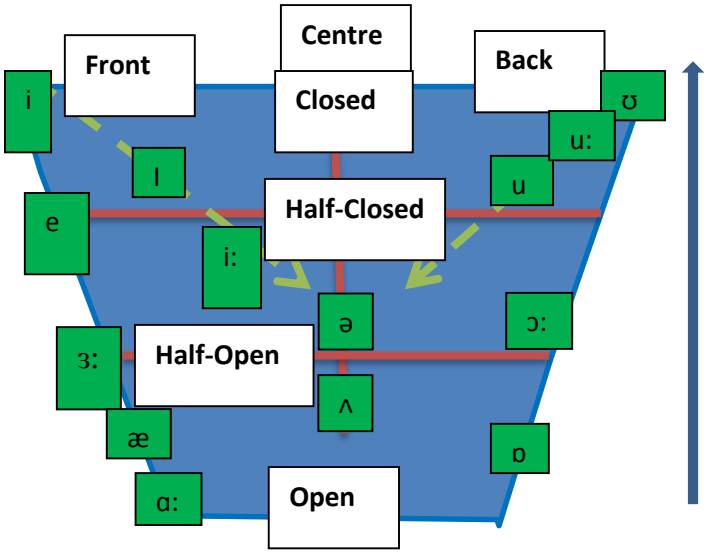
/tʃ/	**c**hin
/dʒ/	bri**dg**e; **j**aw
/f/	**f**un
/v/	**v**ase
/Θ/	**thin**
/ð/	**th**en
/s/	**s**ea
/z/	**z**oo
/ʃ/	**sh**in
/ʒ/	vi**s**ion
/h/	**h**at
/m/	**m**an
/n/	**n**ow
/ŋ/	si**ng**
/l/	**l**ove
/r/	**r**at
/j/	**y**es
/w/	**w**et

Table. List of IPA symbols and their pronunciations, as used in the English Language

APPENDIX B



Vowel Positions During c.1700



Present Day Vowel Positions

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