



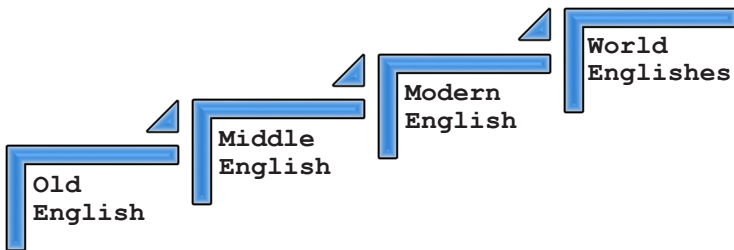
AN INTRODUCTION TO HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE



Wedhowerti

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Sanata Dharma University Pres

AN INTRODUCTION TO HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Wedhowerti
Faculty of Literatur, English Literature Study Program
Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta

Author

Wedhowerti

Editor

Tatang Iskarna

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We express our gratitude to the author and the mentor of the book for the hard work done during the limited process of writing. Our thanks go to the staffs of the SDU Press for their hard work to materialize the publication of this book. We hope that this book will be welcomed by the audience from all over the country.

Yoseph Yapi Taum
Sanata Dharma University Press

PREFACE

This book is concerned with history of English language starting from a tribal dialect in England to the first language in North America. It talks about linguistic and literary developments that English undergoes. As a cosmopolitan language, English keeps developing by adding its vocabularies. It becomes an active borrowing language. As a colonial language, the spread of English goes along with the story of expansion and colonization of other regions. It then gives birth to World Englishes.

Old English era starts when the Germanic tribes come to England ca. 400 AD. For the sake of communication, they create a new tribal language called Old English. Old English grows with Germanic grammar and vocabularies. As an Indo-European language, along with its language relatives, Old English is put in family tree as a West-Germanic language. Vocabularies are added by doing word borrowings from Latin, Scandinavia, and Celtic. Old English also gives birth to a great English writer, Geoffrey Chaucer.

In time of English development, the Normans from Normandy invade England. The incursion changes the whole history of England, including its language. English becomes a low-class language spoken by commoners. Government and administration of England all use Norman-French as their official language. After the loss of Normandy, the journey of English begins as it shifts from Old to Middle English. Middle English period is called period of great change because all linguistic aspects of the language change.

The Renaissance makes people more aware of literacy, communication, and education. More inventions are made during this era such as printing press, telephone, and means of transportation. English speakers are also aware of their language. Efforts are made to “purify” English and to make a standardization. Shakespeare has huge impact towards English pronunciation. All efforts and inventions shift English to its modern form.

As religious violence, political conflict, war, and famine occur in Europe, people seek a better life in the New World. They immigrate to North America along with English. They settle in some parts of America and build colonies. The 13 colonies grow up into modern states of the United States. English writes its history by being spoken in America and is called American English. It has different linguistic features than those in England.

The story of Europe including British Empire is the story of colonization and expansion. As British empire colonize other regions such as India, the Caribbean, Singapore, and Melanesia, they also bring with them English language as a medium of communication. English gains prominent position in those regions having contacts with local languages. Eventually, World Englishes, pidgins, and creoles emerge.

This book is intended to be a course book for the subject of History of the English Language in English Letters Department, Sanata Dharma University. The biggest gratitude goes to Dr. Tatang Iskarna as the reviewer of this course book and all staffs of The Center for Cultural Studies (Pusat Kajian Budaya) Universitas Sanata Dharma as facilitators.

Vita in motu
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COURSE DESCRIPTION

History of the English Language is a course which exposes the development of English from its inception from Low German dialects to its contemporary nature as an international language. It presents the various stages of its linguistic and literary development based on different sources. Students read and examine reading materials for the topics, do the exercises on the provided worksheets and, for a scheduled class, prepare the presentation slides and, have a class presentation in groups.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

Competence: At the end of the course, the students are able to

1. understand the development of English from a tribal language to a world language
2. explain external influences into English and various linguistic phenomena in English

Conscience: At the end of the course, the students are able to

1. realize the nature of mutual influence in human interaction
2. be aware of continuous change in human life

Compassion: At the end of the course, the students are able to

1. appreciate varieties of human expressions
2. understand human difficulties in language acquisition

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses definition of language and why students learn the history of the English language.

Target Competence

- Hard Skills:

The students realize the need of understanding the definition of language and history of English.

- Soft Skills:

The students understand the nature of the development of human history and human products.

Instructional Process

- Lecturer's exposure of materials to students
- Class discussion and examination of presented materials under the lecturer's guidance
- Generalization by students under the lecturer's guidance
- Individual assignment: Students do their assignment worksheet (Worksheet 1)

Indicator

Complete, adequate and correct answers to questions

Sub-topics

- A. Building a Context**
- B. Definition of Language**
- C. Why Study History of English**
- D. Worksheet 1**
- E. Group Project**
- F. Reflection**

A. Building a Context

The lesson starts by distributing a questionnaire regarding definition of language, the need for language, definition of history, and the need for studying history of language.

Questionnaire 1

1. What language do you speak at home?

2. How do you define language?

3. Why do you need language?

4. What is history?

5. Why do we need to study history of language?

B. Definition of Language

The first chapter of this book starts with two questions. What is language? Why do we need language? Language is a medium or tool by which humans express their feelings, ideas, and other types of expression. It makes humans more human. It is an essential part that humans have. It is interesting to note down that humans need language to conduct their daily business, be it socially, economically, and aesthetically. Academically, humans also need language to present their academic perspectives and writings. In other words, language is employed for scientific inquiry.

Besides as a tool of communication, language is also a social phenomenon. It too becomes a matter of discussion regarding its function as a tool of representation. It serves as a vehicle where people represent their cultural matters. It determines where certain people belong to in society. Each ethnic group uses a different language. No wonder that there are a lot of vernacular languages spreading in the entire world. In this case, language is used to negotiate certain things in society as well as becomes the product of negotiation. Since the negotiation happens in society, therefore, language is very dynamic in nature.

The dynamic nature of language is caused by people who live and grow up with it. People who use or speak language enrich themselves with vocabularies. They add more words to it. They also construct and reconstruct it by having more entries. It keeps developing and evolving. It does not stay at a certain point. There is no language which does not undergo any changes at all. As a product of negotiation in a certain society, changes are agreed upon by its speakers. The same thing is also true when certain members of society are in agreement of giving birth to a new language.

The birth of a language is triggered by a lot of factors. One of them is the need for a tool of communication among certain people or peoples in a certain place. When there are peoples or people of different ethnical background living and getting along together, a language to bridge their communication is required. They will negotiate, discuss, and finally invent a new language.

C. Why Study History of English

A question may be posted on the importance of studying history of English. This question is easy to answer when we know the nature and development of English itself. As previously mentioned that language

identifies people who use it, studying history of English means studying and finding ourselves as humans. There are linguistic phenomena in English to understand better by means of studying the history of the language. These phenomena happen as the language keeps developing and evolving. Therefore, a better explanation is gained through studying the history.

As a social phenomenon, English is not separable from politics, economy, and other social fields in society. Accordingly, those fields cause its changes or shape it. There are a lot of historical events causing it in constant change. As a living language, changes may happen in almost every aspect of it such as grammar, lexicon, meaning, spelling, and pronunciation.

There are masterpieces in Old English and Middle English, for instance Beowulf and those by William Shakespeare. For students of literature and English literature enthusiasts, understanding Old and Middle English will be very helpful in order to understand the literary works better. For linguistic people, specifically, history of English provides explanation and elaboration on the linguistic phenomena in the past. It will elaborate why and how the language changes and how the changes affect English. History of English is history of change and evolution that makes English alive and flexible. Therefore, this story of change is better understood through history as shown in Figure 1 below (<https://www.pinterest.com/pin/377669118727136161/>)

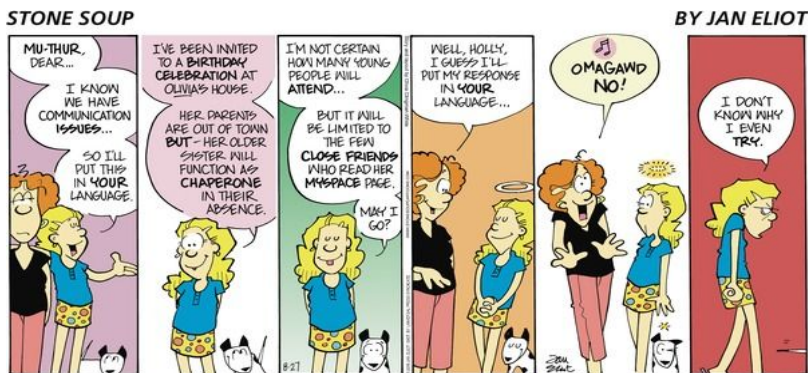


Figure 1. Why Study History of English

D. Worksheet 1**Answer the following questions correctly**

1. What is language?

2. Why is language important for humans?

3. Why is language considered as a social phenomenon?

4. How do you identify yourself in society?

5. Why is language very dynamic?

6. What makes language come into being?

7. What causes language to change?

8. Mention linguistic aspects in English that undergo changes

9. Why studying history of English is important for students of English literature?

10. How does history of English play its role for linguistic people?

E. Group Project

Work in group of four (4). Make a video of interview. Interview a lecturer and five students of English Letters Department, Universitas Sanata Dharma. Ask them about the following matters:

1. How they define language and English
2. How they identify themselves in society
3. How they see the importance of English in society especially in SDU
4. Why studying history of English is important for them as members of the English Letters Departments

The group project is due the end of next month. We will share the video (s) on You Tube channel and Instagram.

F. Reflection

1. As a student of English Letters, when do you use language (mother tongue, Indonesian, or English) to communicate with other students on campus?
2. How do you respond to your college mates who speak a different language or come from a different language background?

CHAPTER II

OLD ENGLISH (449-1100 AD)

This chapter discusses origin of English, how English developed from different Low German dialects into Anglo Saxon or Old English. It also discusses the linguistic features of Old English, Old English varieties, literary works in Old English, and Old English vocabulary (Germanic-origin English vocabulary and loanwords from Celtic and Latin).

Target Competence

- Hard Skill:
The students are able to describe the nature of Old English and its literature.
The students are able to describe the nature of Old English vocabulary
- Soft Skill:
The students are aware of continuous change in human nature and human products.
The students are able to accept mutual contribution in human interactions.

Instructional Process

- Presentation of materials by a group students
- Class discussion of presented materials under the lecturer's guidance
- Generalization by students under the lecturer's guidance
- Individual assignment: Students do their assignment worksheet (Worksheet 2)

Indicator

- Good presentation slides and good presentation.
- Complete, adequate and correct answers to questions

Sub-Topics

- A. The Birth of Old English (England before English)
- B. Old English Sound
- C. Old English Grammar
- D. Old English Lexicon
- E. Old English Literature
- F. Worksheet
- G. Reflection

A. The Birth of Old English (England before English)

The birth of Old English (OE) was triggered by the need for communication among different Germanic tribes (Frisians, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes) when they occupied British Isles. English officially started when those Germanic tribes reached British Isles in 449 CE (Gelderen, 2006: 2). Map below shows the Germanic migrations and conquests, 150-1066 CE. (http://www.emersonkent.com/map_archive/germanic_migrations.htm)

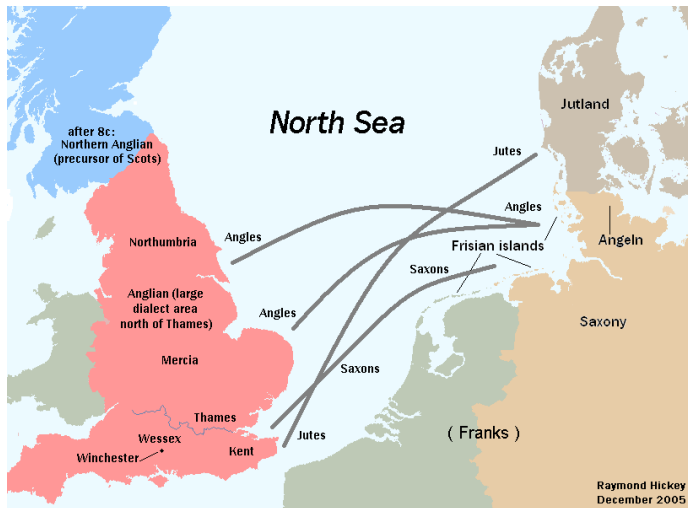


Map 1. The Germanic Migrations and Conquests 150-1066 CE

When the Romans left England in the early 5th century, they left a political vacuum in the land. The Celts who spoke Celtic language were attacked by other tribes and they needed an immense help from abroad. Other tribes then came to England from some different regions. They were the Jutes from Jutland Peninsula (now Denmark), Saxons from Coastal Germany, Frisians from the North Sea (now north Holland), and Angles from Southern Denmark.

The Celts who previously became the major settlers soon were pressed and forced to move to other areas in England and replaced by these peoples. Soon the Germanic areas were established after the settlements. The initial Germanic settlement comprised seven kingdoms, the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy: Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria—the last, the land north of the Humber estuary, being an amalgamation of two earlier kingdoms, Bernicia and Deira (Algeo, 2010: 81). The most important one is the Anglo-Saxon in terms of culture and linguistics.

The invasion of the Germanic tribes is shown in a map below (https://www.uni-due.de/SHE/HE_GermanicInvasions.htm).



Routes taken across the North Sea by Germanic tribes in the 5c. The Jutes came from Jutland and settled in Kent. The Saxons came from the area of present-day (Lower) Saxony and settled largely south of the River Thames. The Angles came from the lower part of the the Jutland peninsula which is now Schleswig Holstein in Germany and settled in central and northern England.

The lines in the above map are very approximate. Many of the settlers may have crossed the North Sea from the area of present-day Belgium as this would have involved the shortest sea journey.

Map 2. Germanic Tribes Invasion Routes

The word “English” derived from one of the tribes, the Angles. Originally, it was written as “Englisc” meaning language of the Angles. English was a tribal or immigrant language spoken by a few people. As the names suggests, English then is classified as Germanic language or West Germanic language, to be exact.

West Germanic languages, including English, belong to a big family of language called Indo-European. It is a language family comprising languages spoken in Europe, the Americas, and Southern and Western Asia. It is believed that this language family derives from Proto-Indo-European which is no longer used. Proto-Indo-European is a hypothetical language family.

Figure 2 below shows the languages belonging to the Indo-European language family (<https://www.ancient.eu/image/1028/indo-european-language-family-tree/>).



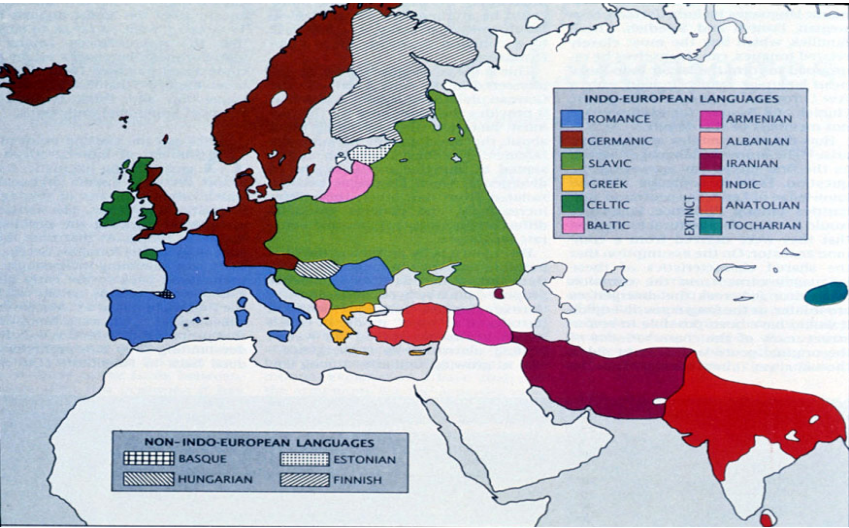
Figure 2. Indo-European Family of Language

*Languages in red are extinct

When we see the places where languages of Indo-European are spoken, we may ask a question especially concerning Western and Southern Asia. As Algeo mentions, Indo-European is a matter of culture, not of genes (2010: 49). Then, where did the early Indo-Europeans settle? The early Indo-Europeans have been identified with the Kurgan culture of mound builders living in the middle and lower of Volga Basin as early as the sixth millennium B.C. with small scale agriculture and are semi-nomadic (Gimbutas, 1989). A map below shows the home of Indo-European (<http://armchairprehistory.com/2017/11/12/proto-indo-european-homelands-ancient-genetic-clues-at-last/>).



Map 4. Indo-European Languages c. 500 BC



Map 5. The Home of Indo-European and Some Non-Indo-European

In determining language family, linguists use typological classification regarding similarities and differences among the suspected allying languages. To prove that languages mentioned in the maps belong to the same family and believed that once they were from an identical language, an illustration below is given.

Table 1. Indo-European Language Typology

Latin	English	Dutch	Gothic	Old Norse	German	Greek	Sanskrit
pater	father	vader	fadar	faðir	vater	patēr	pitar

Table 1 above shows that Latin, English, Dutch, Gothic, Old Norse, German, Greek, and Sanskrit belong to the same family namely the Indo-European Family. This is proven from the similarities of consonants and vowels used in those languages.

Another example of Indo-European Language Typology is given below (<https://www.usu.edu/markdamen/1320Hist&Civ/slides/07ie/IENumbers.jpg>).

Table 2. Indo-European and Non-Indo-European Language Typology

ENGLISH	OLD GERMAN	LATIN	GREEK	SANSKRIT	JAPANESE
ONE	AINS	UNUS	HEIS	EKAS	HIITOTSU
TWO	TWAI	DUO	DUO	DVA	FUTATSU
THREE	THRIJA	TRES	TREIS	TRYAS	MITTSU
FOUR	FIDWOR	QUATTUOR	TETTARES	CATVARAS	YOTTSU
FIVE	FIMF	QUINQUE	PENTE	PANCA	ITSUTSU
SIX	SAIHS	SEX	HEKS	SAT	MUTTSU
SEVEN	SIBUM	SEPTEM	HEPTA	SAPTA	NANATSU
EIGHT	AHTAU	OCTO	OKTO	ASTA	YATTSU
NINE	NIUN	NOVEM	ENNEA	NAVA	KOKONOTSU
TEN	TAIHUM	DECEM	DEKA	DASA	TO

By reading Table 2 above, it can be concluded that Japanese does not belong to Indo-European Family of language. Just like other languages, the languages belonging to Indo-European family also undergo word evolution. Historical linguists can reconstruct a lot of proto terms. One of the terms is “hundred”. In Proto-Indo-European it was “*k̑mtóm*”. A figure below gives more illustration on how “*k̑mtóm*” developed into its modern forms (<https://jakubmarian.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/hundred-indoeuropean.jpg>).



Figure 3. The Evolution of “kmtóm”

Another example of number evolution is the evolution of the word “dwóh” or “two” as shown below (https://www.reddit.com/r/etymology/comments/cfalk1/how_two_evolved/).

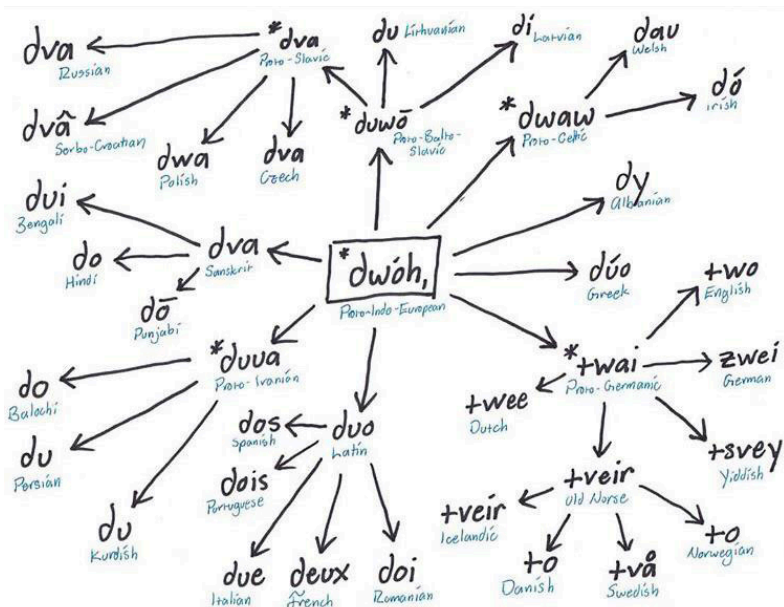


Figure 4. The Evaluation of “dwóh”

More example of word evolution is shown in Figure 5. The word “eǵoH” or “I” underwent evolution as follows (<https://jakubmarian.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/pronoun-i-indo-european-languages.jpg>).

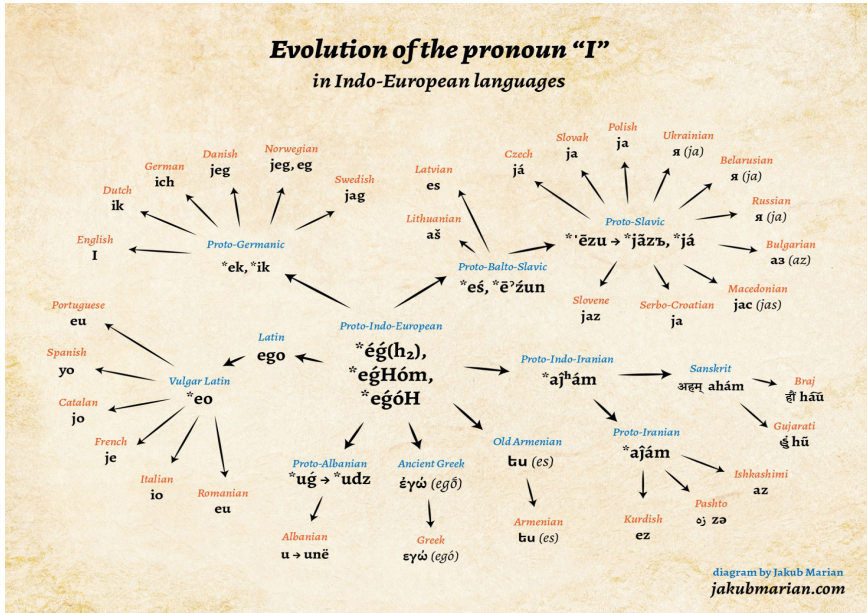


Figure 5. The Evolution of “eǵoH”

B. Old English Sound

Old English had seven vowel letters (a, æ, e, i, o, u, and y). They represented long or short sounds. Algeo asserts that Old English long vowels were marked with a macron and leave short vowels unmarked, thus: gōd ‘good’ versus god ‘god’ (2010: 86).

For the consonant letters, Old English had nineteen (b, c, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, þ or ð, w, x, and z). A figure is given below showing the vowels and consonants of Old English and their Modern English counterpart (<https://www.omniglot.com/writing/oldenglish.htm>).

Vowels and diphthongs

a	ā	æ	ǣ	e	ē	i	ī	o
[a]	[a:]	[æ]	[ǣ:]	[e]	[e:]	[i]	[i:]	[o]
ō	u	ū	y	ȳ	ea	eo	ie	
[o:]	[u]	[u:]	[y]	[y:]	[æa]	[eo/eu]	[i]	

Consonants

b	c	c3/cg	d	ð	f	ff	3/g	h
[b]	[k/ʃ]	[ɕ]	[d]	[θ/ð]	[f/v]	[f]	[g/y/ʒ/ɕ]	[h/ç/x]
l	n	p	r	s	ss	sc	t	þ
[l]	[n]	[p]	[r]	[s/z]	[s:]	[ʃ/sk]	[t]	[θ/ð]
þ	p/w							
[θ:]	[w]							

Some abbreviations used in Old English maunscripts

7	þ	—	g / 3	þon
and/ond	þæt	-m or -n	ge-/3e-	þonne
		eg. sūne = sumne		

Figure 6. Old English Vowels and Consonants and Their Counterpart

Concerning Old English sound, there is a remarkable law called Grimm's Law. This law accounts correlations between Germanic and other Indo-European languages. The law provides clear example and evidence that those languages undergo a sound change. The phenomenon is a regular linguistic matter. It is a systematic sound change. Grimm's Law deals with three consonantal changes as follows:

1. Proto-Indo-European voiceless stops change into voiceless fricatives.
2. Proto-Indo-European voiced stops become voiceless stops.
3. Proto-Indo-European voiced aspirated stops become voiced stops or fricatives (as allophones).

A detailed example of Grimm's Law is given as follows.

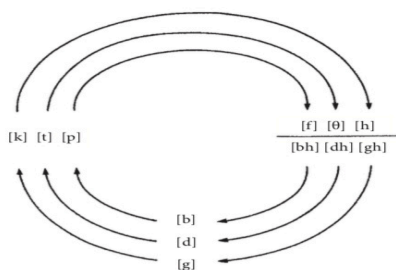
Sanskrit bh/dh/gh

Latin f/f/h

→ Germanic b/d/g

Greek ph/th/ch

Aitchison provides the cycle of Grimm's Law in Figure 7 below (2001: 184).

**Figure 7. The Cycle of Grimm's Law**

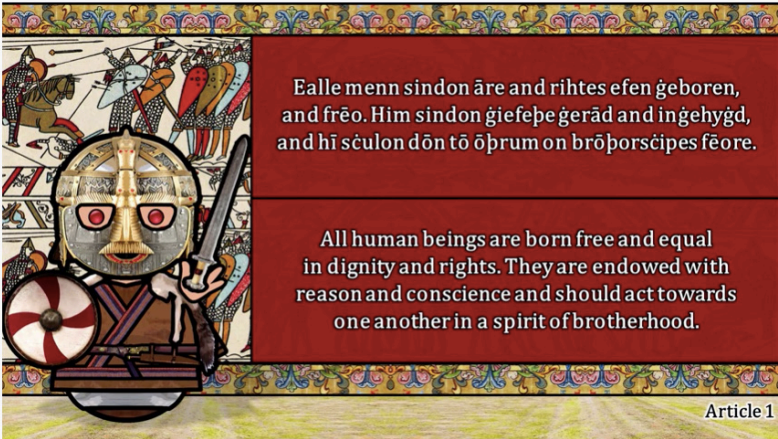
Regarding stress, Old English multisyllabic words were stressed on the first syllable. Just like Modern English stress rules, there were some exceptions in Old English as well. According to Algeo,

the exceptions were verbs with prefixes, which were generally stressed on the first syllable of their main element: *wiðféohtan* 'to fight against,' *onbíndan* 'to unbind.' *Be-*, *for-*, and *ge-* were not stressed in any part of speech: *bebód* 'commandment,' *forsóð* 'forsooth,' *gehæp* 'convenient.' Compounds had the customary Germanic stress on the first syllable, with a secondary stress on the first syllable of their second element: *lā́rþū's* 'school' (literally 'lore house'), *hildedē* 'or 'fierce in battle.' (2010: 90)

For more illustration on Old English sound, please watch a short video below. (<https://youtu.be/nRHR8D6QcHo>)

← → ↻ 🔒 youtube.com/watch?v=nRHR8D6QcHo

☰ YouTube ID old english sound



Ealle menn sindon āre and rihtes efen ġeboren,
and frēo. Him sindon ġiefeþe ġerād and inġehygd,
and hī sēulon dōn tō ōþrum on brōþorscipes fēore.

All human beings are born free and equal
in dignity and rights. They are endowed with
reason and conscience and should act towards
one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 1

The Sound of the Old English / Anglo-Saxon language (UDHR, Numbers, Greetings, Words & Beowulf)

Old English had four dialects, i.e. Kentish, West Saxon, Northumbrian, and Mercian. Kentish dialect was spoken in the areas now known as Kent and Surrey. It had developed from the Jutes and Frisians. West Saxon dialect was spoken in the area of England south of the Thames and Bristol channel. Northumbrian dialect was spoken from the Humber north to Forth river (North-Humbrian). It was the dialect of Anglian. Mercian dialect was mainly spoken in kingdom of Mercia in the central region from Thames to the Humber. It is easier to note down how Old English dialects were distributed by reading a map below (<https://www.britannica.com/topic/Kentish>)..



Map 6. Dialects of Old English

C. Old English Grammar

C1. Old English Noun

Old English noun had four cases. The four cases are elaborated with their Modern English examples as follows:

- a) Nominative case
It acts as a subject, for example, *A **boy** fell on the floor.*
- b) Accusative case
It acts as the direct object, for example, *He plays **the guitar**.*
- c) Genitive case
It acts as another noun's possession, for example, *The **ball's colour** is very attractive.*
- d) Dative case
It acts as the indirect object, for example, *Juliet gives a flower to **Romeo**.*

Old English also had demonstratives preceding noun. They could be translated as article “the”. An illustration on Old English demonstratives is provided below (Gelderen, 2006: 60)

Table 3. Old English Demonstratives

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
Nom	se	seo	þæt	þa
Gen	þæs	þære	þæs	þara
Dat	þæm	þære	þæm	þæm
Acc	þone	þa	þæt	þa

Old English noun was divided into strong and weak based on its stem. Strong noun had consonant stem ending. Weak noun, on the other hand, had vowel stem ending (except for vowel “u”). Pronouns in Old English were not as complex as Modern English pronouns. Forms of pronouns for the first two persons are given in Table 4 as follows (Algeo, 2010: 99).

Table 4. Dual Forms Pronouns

	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nom.	ic ‘I’	wit ‘we both’	wē ‘we all’
Ac.–D.	mē ‘me’	unc ‘us both’	ūs ‘us all’
Gen.	mīn ‘my/mine’	uncer ‘our(s) (both)’	ūre ‘our(s) (all)’
Nom.	þū ‘thou, you’	git ‘you both’	gē ‘ye, you all’
Ac.–D.	þē ‘thee, you’	inc ‘you both’	ēow ‘you all’
Gen.	þīn ‘thy/thine, your(s)’	uncer ‘your(s) (both)’	ēower ‘your(s) (all)’

Gender in Old English only appeared in the third person singular forms as illustrated below (Algeo, 2010: 99).

Table 5. Gender Forms

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
Nom.	hē 'he'	hit 'it'	hēo 'she'	hī 'they'
Acc.	hine 'him'	hit 'it'	hī 'her'	hī 'them'
Dat.	him 'him'	him 'it'	hire 'her'	him, heom 'them'
Gen.	his 'his'	his 'its'	hire 'her(s)'	hire, heora 'their(s)'

C2. Old English Grammatical Gender

Unlike Modern English, Old English had grammatical gender falling into three categories (feminine, masculine, and neuter). Grammatical gender was a linguistic feature of Indo-European. The three genders still retain in other Germanic languages such as German. The presence of gender had nothing to do with sexual connotations. Old English “wīf” (wife, women) was neuter, “se stan” (the stone) was masculine, and “seo giefu” (the gift) was feminine. Therefore, its presence was illogical.

C3. Old English Verb

Old English verbal system had two tenses (past and present). It had three moods (imperative, subjunctive, and indicative).

- a) Indicative is a statement,
- b) Imperative is a command,
- c) Subjunctive is a prediction or possibility. In modern English we need to use a modal to indicate a subjunctive

Old English verb was divided into strong verb (irregular) and weak verb (regular).

C4. Old English Adjective

Unlike Modern English, Old English adjective was divided into strong and weak. Strong adjective was any adjective having no demonstratives (no demonstratives preceding it). On the other hand, weak adjective was preceded by demonstratives. Table 6 below illustrates the forms of adjective “good” in Old English (Gelderen, 2006: 62).

Table 6. The Forms of “good” in Old English

Singular	Strong			Weak		
	M	F	N	M	F	N
NOM	god	god	god	goda	gode	gode
GEN	godes	godre	godes	godan	godan	godan
DAT	godum	godre	godum	godan	godan	godan
ACC	godne	gode	god	godan	godan	gode
Plural	M	F	M	All		
NOM	gode	goda	god	godan		
GEN	godra	godra	godra	godra/godena		
DAT	godum	godum	godum	godum		
ACC	gode	goda	god	godan		

D. Old English Lexicon

The most significant characteristic of Old English vocabulary was how Germanic it was. Online thesaurus on Old English vocabulary can be accessed at <http://libra.englang.arts.gla.ac.uk/oethesaurus>. Some words related to grammar and speech are provided as follows (Gelderen, 2006: 74).

Table 7. Words Related to Grammar and Speech

OE	gloss	OE	gloss
stefn	‘voice, sound’	wop	‘sound’
hleopor	‘noise, song’	cwiss	‘speech’
gemæpel	‘speech’	(ge)reord	‘voice’
(ge)spræc	‘speech’	mæpelere	‘speaker’
wordlof	‘praise’	word	‘word, message, order’
hream	‘scream’	spell	‘observation’
cwide	‘words’	wise	‘idiom’
wordsnoter	‘eloquent’	felaspræc/oferspræc	‘loquacity’
wordful	‘loquacious’	wordfæst	‘truth’
bealcan	‘utter’	dolspræc	‘silly chatter’
twispræce	‘bilingual’	læden	‘foreign language’
stæfwritere	‘grammarian’	lædenlar	‘knowledge of Latin’
cræftspræc	‘technical words’	wordcræft	‘eloquence’
clipiende stæf	‘vowel’	selfswegend	‘vowel’
healfclypigende	‘glide’	biword	‘adverb’
nama	‘noun’	stefn	‘relative’
geendung	‘case’	wregendlic	‘accusative’
manigfeald	‘plural’	wif	‘feminine’
fullfremed	‘perfect aspect’	miscweden	‘ungrammatical’
ellenspræc	‘powerful speech’	scopgereord	‘poetic language’
ferse	‘verse’	bocgesamnung	‘library’
lif	‘biography’		

A lot of Old English vocabularies of Germanic origin were identical or had similarities in spelling to Modern English vocabularies, e.g. under, winter, god, band, and word. However, there were many words of the same spelling which changed their meaning drastically, for example the word brēad meant “bit, piece”. Some other languages also influenced the stock of Old English vocabulary. There were three major groups of language having contact with Old English as follows.

D1. Celtic Languages

The contact was direct and physical yet limited. The Celtic and Anglo-Saxons at some point were living side by side after the conquest by the Anglo-Saxons. The fusion of two peoples resulted in the mixing and borrowing into Old English. Contact made the Anglo-Saxons adopt Celtic words. The process and extended borrowing was recorded in Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. The west part of England became a source of language contact and borrowing where most Celtic population lived since the conquest mainly happened in the east and southeast.

Old English also owed the following words:

- a. Land-contour: Barr, Torr, Brockholes, Duncombe
- b. Cultural aspects: cine, cross, ancor, mind, cursian

The name London was also a Celtic place-name. Supposedly it was based on the personal name Londinos, meaning “the bold one” (Culpeper, 2005: 2).

D2. Latin

The contact was extensive both physically and culturally. The borrowing happened within three periods as follows.

a. Zero Period (Continental Borrowing)

The first Latin words were borrowed into Old English through physical contact where Roman soldiers speaking Latin travelled around and throughout Europe (on the continent) ca. 4th and 5th century. Several million Germanic population by the end of the 4th century came in contact with the Romans. The focus of borrowing was more on military and trade. It happened mostly in the Moselle and Rhine. Some traders, both Romans and Germanic came and went across the continent. There was a local belief that when Germanic tribes returned from Roman cities, they had to bring with them the luxury that the Romans offered. After the conquest

of Gaul by Caesar, more Roman traders gained even more accesses to and from all parts of Germanic territories. They even gained access into Scandinavia. The intercommunication was then intense and frequent. More words were transferred from Latin to Old English.

From the borrowed words it could be seen that Germanic people adopted words of higher living and conceptions (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 73), for instance camp (battle), weall (wall), pytt (pit), and miltestre (courtesan). Trade words included cēapian, cēap, cēapman and manžian, manžun, manžere ('to trade', 'deal', 'trader', 'to trade', 'trading', 'trader') came from the Latin (L) names for 'merchant' — caupo and mango. More examples of loanwords in this period are as follows:

- a) words related to agriculture and war: camp 'battle' < L campus; weall 'wall' < L vallus; street 'road, street' < L strata; mil 'mile' < L mile.
- b) words connected with trade are more numerous: pund 'pound' < L pondus; mynet 'coin' < L moneta. Wine trade was one of the most important commercial branches: win 'wine' < L vinum; must 'new wine' < L mustum; eced 'vinegar' < L acetum; flasce 'flask, bottle' < LL flasconem.
- c) words relating to domestic life and household articles: cytel 'kettle' < L catillus; mese 'table' < VL mesa; teped 'carpet, curtain' < L tapetum; cycene 'kitchen' < L coquina; cuppe 'cup' < L cuppa; disc 'dish' < L discus

b. First Period (Borrowing through Celtic)

It was an indirect borrowing because Old English borrowed Latin words through Celtic (Latin → Celtic → Old English). The Romans left many place-names and general vocabularies (Baugh & Cable, 2002). They were Lancaster, Chester, Manchester, Winchester, Doncaster, port, street, and mountain.

c. Second Period (Borrowing through Britain Christianization) and Monastic Culture

The most significant Latin influence upon Old English happened during the era of Britain Christianization beginning in 597 AD. No wonder that extensive words related to religion were borrowed such as abbot, alms, altar, angel, anthem, canon, cleric, martyr, psalm, shrine, palm, pope, manna, nun, disciple, ark, candle, priest, mass, temple, and synod (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 78)

In this era, native words were also applied for Christian concept such as Easter, hell, and heaven. Easter (a Germanic word) had been related to paganism before it was borrowed by Old English and eventually gained a new meaning. This era was also marked by Benedictine Reform in the end of the 10th century. This reform was caused by the decline of religious life in England. Many priests lived secular lives. Many of them got married. Religious life was no longer in accordance with Christian teachings. In order to revive monastic life, all aspects especially intellectual and religious matters had to be improved. The true monastic life had to be in accordance with the Benedictine Rule. The secular monks were then replaced by reformers living celibate life obeying and following the rule of Saint Benedict. Among the monastic reformers were leading figures like Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, Æthelwold, Bishop of Winchester, and Oswald, Archbishop of York.

In this era, there were two types of loanwords, i.e. Popular Loanwords and Learned Loanwords. Popular loanwords were transmitted orally and were part of everyday talk. Users or speakers of the language did not realize that it was of foreign origin. Learned loanwords, on the other hand, owed their adoption to scholarly, scientific, or literary influences. An example for this was the word clerk (OE cleric, clerk < L clericus). Cleric was borrowed again from Latin as a learned word with the meaning ‘clergyman’, because clerk had acquired other meanings, including ‘scholar’ (Algeo, 2010: 248).

D3. Scandinavian

England was plundered by Scandinavian invaders. Besides, they also settled in many areas in England. The Vikings invaded England in 787-850 AD. The Vikings were also known as sea rovers. Therefore, due to their achievements in battles, this era was called the Viking Age. Attacks to England were done in several periods beginning 787 AD to 850 AD. At first, the attacks targetted monasteries, towns, and properties. Valuable things were taken and robbed. English people were attacked and made slaves. The second period of attack was done by large Danish armies. They plundered all parts of England. They built massive settlements. These invaders also killed East Anglian king, Edmund in 869 AD. The last period of attack happened at the end of the century where Danish fleet came and invaded England again. The battle was called Battle of Maldon happening in August 991 AD. It was depicted in a famous Old English war poem entitled The Battle of Maldon.

Danish armies also established a special district with special rules called Danelaw. In Old English it was called Dena Lagu. As the name suggested, its practices were of Danish origin. Map 7 below shows the detailed places where the Danelaw was (<http://www.ancientpages.com/2016/06/04/what-was-the-danelaw/>).



Map 7. The Danelaw

Its extensive settlements resulted in intermarriage between English people and the Scandinavians. Many customs were adopted including language. The amalgamation of two peoples was smooth mainly caused by the Scandinavians great adaptability. The Danes continued adapted and assimilated to English life. The two peoples eventually fused together because of their mutual culture, belief, and language.

Linguistically, Scandinavian influence was great concerning sound, vocabulary, and grammar. The development of sound sk was of prominent matter. Sound sk in Old English was palatalized into sh (written as sc)

except for *scr*. Hence, native words such as *ship*, *fish*, shall have *sh* in Modern English, Scandinavian loanwords are, in Modern English, still pronounced with *sk*, such as *scrub*, *bask*, *whisk*, *sky*, and *skin*.

Old English borrowed Scandinavian place-names of more than 600 places ending in *-by* where most of them occupied by the Danes were among prominent places in England such as *Whitby*, *Derby*, *Thoresby*, and *Grimsby*. In Danish, *-by* means town or farm. Old English also borrowed more than 300 names ending in *-thorpe* such as *Gawthorpe*, *Linthorpe*, and *Bishopthorpe*. *-thorpe* itself means village (spelled as *-thorp* in Scandinavian). Place-names ending in *-thwaite* such as *Satterthwaite*, *Braithwaite*, *Cowperthwaite*, and *Langthwaite* were borrowed. *-thwaite* means an isolated piece of land. Besides those places mentioned previously, Old English also borrowed place-names ending in *-toft* meaning a piece of ground, such as *Eastoft*, *Langtoft*, *Nortoft*, and *Brimtoft*. In total, Old English borrowed more than 1,400 place-names from the Scandinavians.

The Scandinavian loanwords were very unique. Unlike Latin loanwords, they basically did not introduce to new things or new concepts. The daily life of the invaders was somewhat similar to the English. The transfer of words of daily concepts took place in daily contact. The examples are *axle-tree*, *band*, *bank*, *birth*, *boon*, *booth*, *brink*, *bull*, *calf* (of leg), *crook*, *dirt*, *down* (feathers), *dregs*, *egg*, *fellow*, *freckle*, *gait*, *gap*, *girth*, *guess*, *hap*, *keel*, *kid*, *leg*, *link*, *loan*, *mire*, *race*, *reef* (of sail), *reindeer*, *rift*, *root*, *scab*, *scales*, *score*, *scrap*, *seat*, *sister*, *skill*, *skin*, *skirt*, *sky*, *slaughter*, *snare*, *stack*, *steak*, *swain*, *thrift*, *tidings*, *trust*, *want*, *window*, *awkward*, *flat*, *ill*, *loose*, *low*, *meek*, *muggy*, *odd*, *rotten*, *rugged*, *scant*, *seemly*, *sly*, *tattered*, *tight*, *weak*, *bait*, *bask*, *batten*, *call*, *cast*, *clip*, *cow*, *crave*, *crawl*, *die*, *droop*, *egg* (on), *flit*, *gape*, *gasp*, *get*, *give*, *glitter*, *kindle*, *lift*, *lug*, *nag*, *raise*, *rake*, *ransack*, *rid*, *rive*, *scare*, *scout* (an idea), *scowl*, *screech*, *snub*, *sprint*, *take*, *thrive*, and *thrust* (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 90).

Scandinavian influence also extended to grammar of Old English. The *-s* for third person singular in present tense form and *-ing* replacing *-ind*, *-end*, and *-and* were by far, two most significant grammatical phenomena. Therefore, *-ing* in *singing*, for instance, replaced *singand*, *singend*, or *singand*.

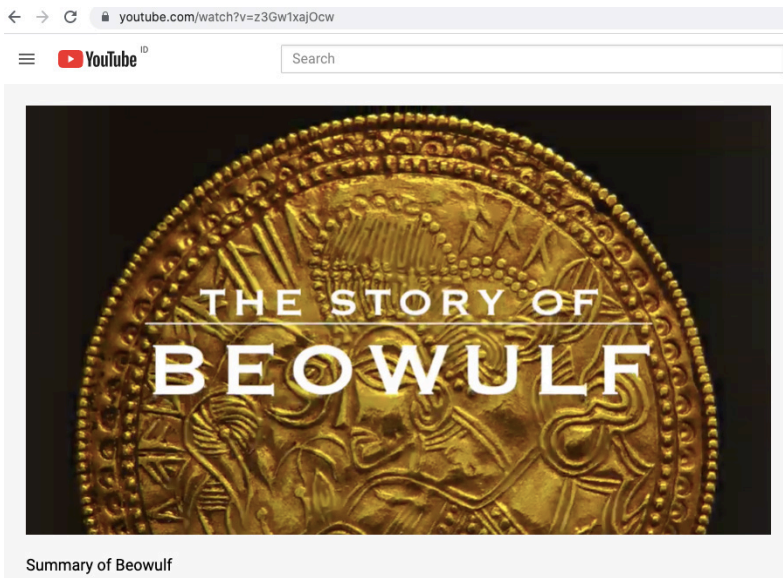
As mentioned earlier, the two peoples were together in great sense of assimilation because of mutual culture. The Scandinavians introduced a lot of new terms, things, and everyday concepts to English people for example *steak*, *egg*, *gap*, *reindeer*, *birth*, *band*, *guess*, *boon*, *bull*, *calf*, *kid*, *hap*, *keel*, *freckle*, *crook*, *link*, *loan*, *skin*, *skirt*, *sky*, *slaughter*, *race*, *reef*, *snare*, *stack*, *window*, *dregs*, *scab*, *scale*, *score*, *scrap*, *seat*, *trust*, and *bank*.

Scandinavian loanwords continued to enrich Old English vocabulary by adding adjectives, such as awkward, flat, ill, odd, rotten, sly, tight, weak, loose, low, and muggy. Besides, common verbs were also added such as to call, to get, to give, to trust, to die, to cast, to crawl, to raise, to rake, to rid, to gasp, to clip, to flit, and to lift.

E. Old English Literature

Old English was also enriched by literary works. Beowulf, by far, was the longest and oldest surviving epic comprising around 3,000 lines. It was likely written between 700 and 750 AD. The poem was written in an alliterative verse, a style typical of Anglo-Saxon poetry. Its author is unknown, but she/he seemed to have had a good knowledge of the Bible and other great epics, such as Greek Homer's Odyssey. The summary of Beowulf as written by www.bsu.by, talked about the glorification of a hero and the values of bravery and generosity.

Another summary of Beowulf can be watched in the following link <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z3Gw1xajOcw>



Other great works of this era were The Wanderer, The Seafarer, The Battle of Maldon, The Ruin, The Wife's Lament, Venerable Bede's History of the English Church and People, and The Husband's Message. Caedmon and Cynewulf were both great writers of the era. Regarding religious literary works, at the end of the sixth century, the Anglo-Saxons accepted

Christianity after Pope Gregory sent Saint Augustine to Britain in 597 AD. (The Romans had introduced Christianity to the Celts centuries earlier.) This gave rise to some religious writings.

Figure 8 below is an excerpt from *Beowulf* (Algeo, 2010: 110).

Beowulf, 1–3, 3178–82.

Hwæt, wē Gār-Dena	in gēardagum,
Lo! we of Spear-Danes	in old days,
þēodcyniga	þrym gefrūnon,
of the people's kings,	glory have heard,
hū ðā æþelingas	ellen fremedon!
how the princes	courage accomplished!
.....	
Swā begnornodon	Gēata lēode
So lamented	Geats' people
hlāfordes hryre,	heorð genēatas;
the lord's fall,	hearth-companions;
cwædon þæt hē wære	wyruldcyninga
they said that he had been	of world-kings
manna mildest	ond monðwærust,
of men mildest	and kindest,
lēodum līðost	ond lofgeornost.
to people gentlest	and most eager for honor.

Figure 8. An Excerpt from *Beowulf*

Beowulf is now safely kept in the British Library in London. Figure 9 below shows *Beowulf* manuscript (<https://www.thoughtco.com/the-beowulf-story-1788396>).

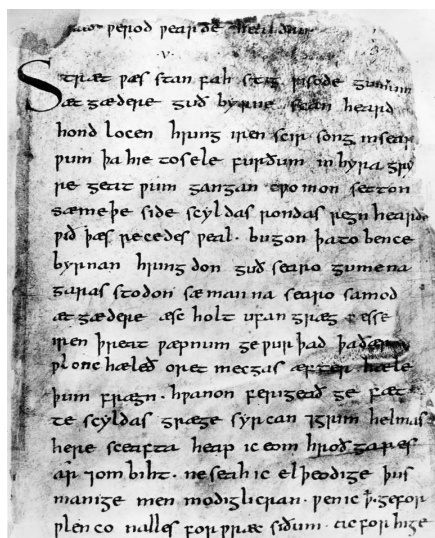


Figure 9. *Beowulf* Manuscript

In order to provide more understanding on Old English religious texts, here is an example of prayer (the Lord's Prayer) using Old English and its Modern English version.

The Lord's Prayer (Old English)

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum;
 Si þin nama gehalgod
 to becume þin rice
 gewurþe ðin willa
 on eorðan swa swa on heofonum.
 urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us todæg
 and forgyf us ure gyltas
 swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum
 and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge
 ac alys us of yfele soþlice

(note: the Old English "þ" is pronounced "th")

The Lord's Prayer (Modern English)

Our Father, Who art in heaven,
 Hallowed be Thy Name.
 Thy Kingdom come.
 Thy Will be done,
 on earth as it is in Heaven.
 Give us this day our daily bread.
 And forgive us our trespasses,
 as we forgive those who trespass against us.
 And lead us not into temptation,
 but deliver us from evil. Amen.

F. Worksheet 2**Answer the following questions correctly**

1. Who were Germanic tribes invading Britain?

2. How did the term “English” appear?

3. Mention 5 languages belonging to West-Germanic family other than English

4. What is language typology?

5. What is Grimm’s Law?

6. What was the reason for having Benedictine Reform in England?

7. How many cases did Old English noun have? Provide an example for each

8. How did the peoples of English and Scandinavian eventually fuse together?

9. How were Latin words borrowed into Old English?

10. How did Scandinavian language influence Old English grammatically?

G. Reflection

1. How do you see old vernacular languages in Indonesia? What makes them survive and transform into their modern forms?
2. What vernacular language (s) in Indonesia that you know best?
3. As young generation, what will you do to preserve your mother tongue?
4. Are you interested in doing language documentation?

CHAPTER III

MIDDLE ENGLISH (1150-1500)

This chapter discusses the linguistic features of Middle English, Middle English varieties, and literary works in Middle English.

Target Competence

- Hard Skill:
The students are able to describe the nature of Middle English and its literary works.
- Soft Skill:
The students are aware of continuous change in human nature and human products and are able to adapt themselves with the situations where they are in.

Instructional Process

- Presentation of materials by a group of students
- Class discussion of presented materials under the lecturer's guidance
- Generalization by students under the lecturer's guidance
- Individual assignment: Students do their assignment worksheet (Worksheet 3)

Indicator

- Good presentation slides and good presentation.
- Complete, adequate and correct answers to questions

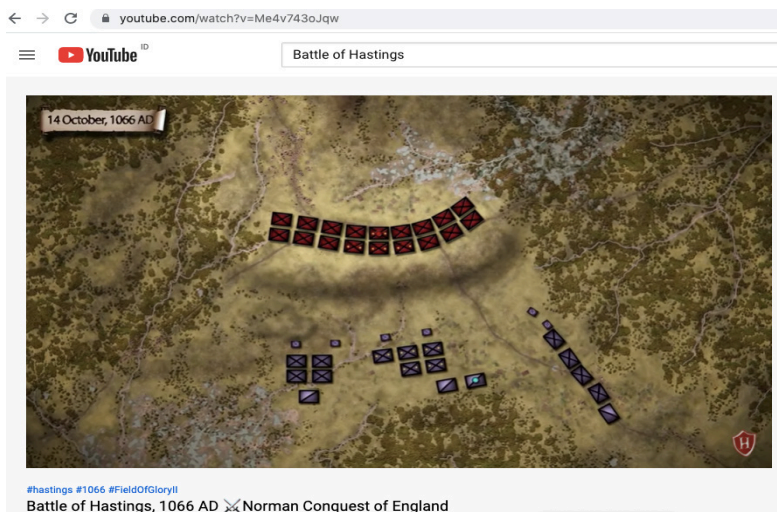
Sub-topics

- A. The Norman Conquest (1066-1200)
- B. The Birth of Middle English
- C. Middle English Sound
- D. Middle English Grammar
- E. Middle English Lexicon
- F. Middle English Literature
- G. Worksheet
- H. Reflection

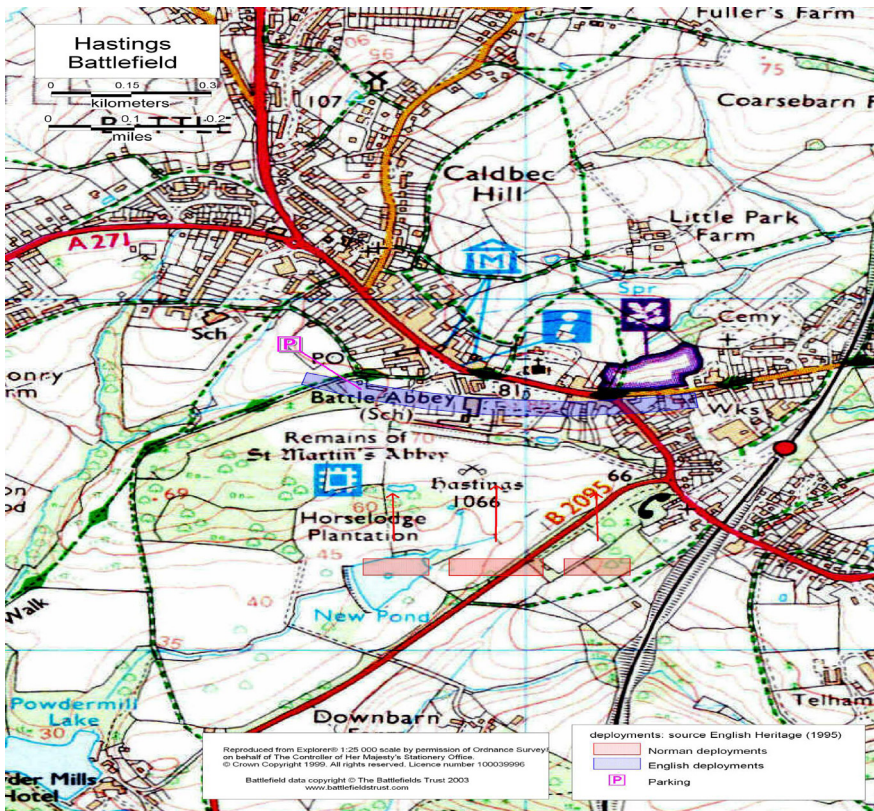
A. The Norman Conquest (1066-1200)

There was an important event at the end of Old English period, i.e. the Norman Conquest in 1066 AD. It marked the transition from Old English to Middle English. William the Conqueror (Duke of Normandy) invaded Britain from his home in Northern France. He then settled along with his people (mostly nobles) in Britain. He was in a battle and brutally took over Anglo-Saxon's properties known as Battle of Hastings. At that time, English army was led by Anglo-Saxon King, Harold Godwinson. The properties were then distributed to the Normans and also English people who were in favour of him.

The battle was caused by the death of Edward the Confessor in January 1066 who was childless. Some then tried to be his successors to claim the throne. Harold was crowned king but then he faced massive challenges from three different leaders, i.e. William the Conqueror (the Duke of Normandy), his own brother Tostig, and the Norwegian King Harald Hardrada (Harold III of Norway). Battle of Hastings can be watched on You Tube (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Me4v743oJqw>).



Battle of Hastings was a massive battle killing thousands of soldiers and changing the history of England and the entire Europe. The battle took place in East Sussex. There were around 8,000 English Anglo-Saxon soldiers fighting 5,000 – 12,000 Normans. Map 8 below shows the location of the battle (<http://www.battlefieldstrust.com/media/316.pdf>)



Map 8. Battlefield of Battle of Hastings

During the battle, a lot of English nobles and high class people were killed. Those who survived were considered as traitors. Therefore, there was introduction to new nobility. All native English nobles were replaced by the Normans. The same thing was also true to church people. Intensive replacements went on. All of England was fully occupied and plundered by the Normans. It took four years for the Normans to fully occupy and conquer England.

The most famous name in history of Battle of Hastings was William the Conqueror. His timeline and picture is shown below (<https://www.historic-uk.com/HistoryUK/HistoryofEngland/William-The-Conqueror-Exploding-Corpse/>).



Figure 10. William the Conqueror

When William was crowned, he did not gain full acknowledgement in all parts of England. Rather he gained recognition in southeast region. Eventhough he was a person with thorough knowledge of politics and governance, still he faced some rebellions in England, especially some regions in the west and north. Basically, his coronation was caused by power of conquest, not by the right to become Edward's successor. This drove rebels to go against him and his power.

For years, England lost its native leaders. Its properties were also owned by the Normans. They built castles. Moreover, church people were also replaced by the Normans. Foreign priests and monks led the churches. Two Norman archbishops ruled the churches. Wulfstan of Worcester became the only Old English bishop during the conquest. He was insulted and badly treated.

The Normans were culturally and linguistically Scandinavian. They were descended from Vikings. They had settled in Northern France 200 years before they conquered Britain. They had not spoken Old Norse

language because they completely adopted French. The Scandinavian were famous for their ability to adapt to a new situation quickly. The dialect, however, was not standard French. It was a rural dialect which was very different from the standard French spoken in Paris and its neighbouring regions. The dialect was called Norman-French.

During the Norman conquest, Anglo-Norman French became the language spoken by kings and nobles in England for more than three hundred years. It was also the language of the court, administration, and culture. Latin became the language of the Church and official and written records. Domesday Book, for instance, was written in Latin. This book was mainly about William and his kingdom and also other Norman kings to emphasize his legal authority.

According to <https://nationalarchives.gov.uk/documents/education/domesday.pdf>, by 1085, William had a shortage of money and also many Normans had begun to disagree amongst themselves over the land they had been given as a reward for helping conquer England. William wanted to settle these disputes once and for all. Thus, William decided to order a survey. The survey would list all the land in England. It would list who was looking after each area, what lands they had, and which other people lived there. Importantly, the survey would find out how much tax-money William could get from this land. Official government inspectors were sent around the country to gather information. The people in England spoke Saxon English and the Norman inspectors spoke French and Latin.

The results of this survey were written into Domesday Book. Great Domesday contains most of the counties of England and was written by one scribe and checked by a second. Little Domesday, which contains the information for Essex, Norfolk and Suffolk, was probably written first and is the work of at least six scribes. Domesday Book describes almost all of England and more than 13,000 places are mentioned in it. Most of them still survive today. London, Winchester, County Durham and Northumberland were not included in King William's survey. In spite of these omissions, the survey gives a wealth of information, as well as highlighting that a lot of property had been destroyed by William's invasion in 1066. Most of the land originally owned by 2000 Saxons belonged to 200 Norman barons in 1086, showing just how powerful the Norman lords had become. A page of the book below is taken from <https://opendomesday.org/media/images/bdf/01.png>

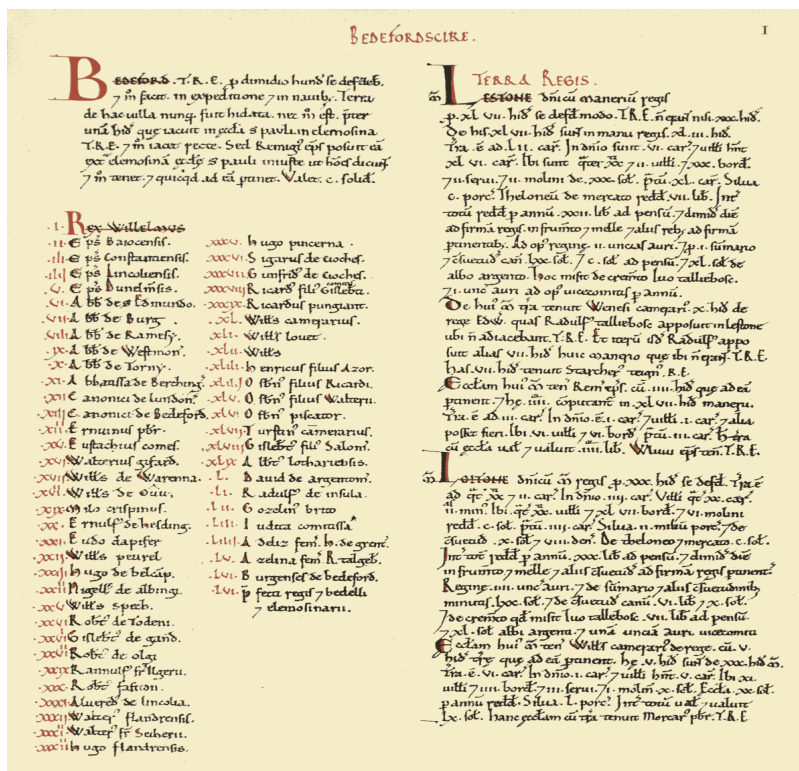


Figure 11. The Domesday Book

English became the language of peasantry and lower class people as the majority of population in England. It was estimated that 95% of the population continued to speak English. English itself was considered as a low-class and vulgar language by the Normans. The two languages, however, grew up together in parallel. Gradually they merged the two peoples (the Normans and English people) to intermarry. The intermarriage was also a tool of negotiation for the Normans to remain possessing the lands and properties in England. The widows of English nobles whose husbands killed in Battle of Hastings were given one option only regarding the possession of lands and properties. They were only allowed to possess the lands and properties by permission of the Normans.

While conquering England, the Normans kept using Norman-French. In their first years, they did not know English. However, as they settled for a long time, they gradually knew Old English. At least they picked up some vocabularies even though they never applied those in daily conversation. The intermarriage between the Normans and English women

also somehow gave little linguistic advantage for learning a new language. The parallel use of two languages during the conquest was more or less similar to the use of two languages now in Belgium where Flemish and French live side by side.

In England, there were three classes of people. The upper class was mostly the Normans and nobles. The middle class was traders who spoke bilingually better than other groups. Through trading activities, they acquired two languages faster and better. The last class was the low class who became the majority of England's population.

In the 13th century, the use of Norman-French was continued due to a close tie between England and the rest of Europe. English kings, just like other Normans, were more home in France instead of in England. As previously mentioned, king's coronation was merely caused by right of conquest. They felt more attached to his home country. Kings often spent their time in France. William and his sons spent more than half of their lives in France. English kings below also spent almost their entire time in France.

Henry I or Henry Beauclerc, the fourth son of William the Conqueror (1100-1135) spent more than seventeen years in France during his reign. The picture is taken from <https://www.guidelondon.org.uk/blog/british-monarchy/king-henry-i-of-england-the-forgotten-monarch/>



Figure 12. Henry I

Henry II (1154-1189), born in Le Mans, Sarthe, Pays de la Loire, France, the great grandson of William the Conqueror, husband to Eleanor of Aquitaine and father of two of more familiar monarchs, Richard the Lionheart and King John, spent more than half of his time in France during his reign. Great Tower, Dover Castle, Dover, Kent, England UK were all built by Henry II, one of the most powerful English kings of all time, to entertain the leaders of Christendom. His picture is taken from <https://spartacus-educational.com/EXnormans16.htm>

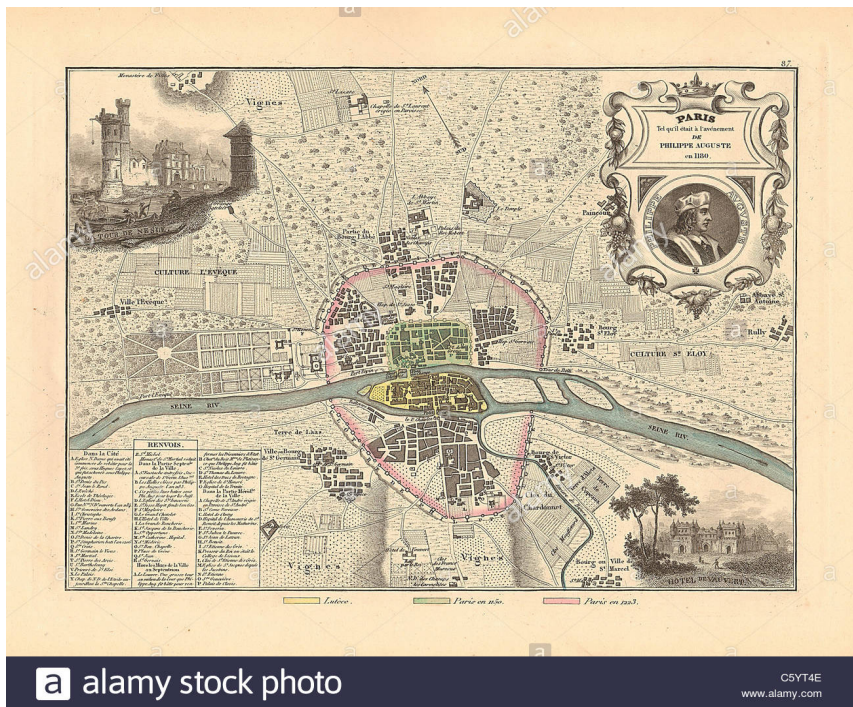


Figure 13. Henry II

Both kings and nobles of the Normans also spent more than half of their lives in France. They conducted continental marriages. They often crossed the Channel guarded by military forces. To give a clearer description, two detailed and old maps of Paris in 1180 were given on the next page. The first map is taken from <https://www.britannica.com/place/France/France-1180-to-c-1490> while the second one is taken from www.alamy.com.



Map 9. Paris circa 1180



Map 10. Paris circa 1180

Regarding literature, during the conquest, literature was fully controlled by the Normans. It was produced for the royals and nobles. At that time, literature was regarded as something for pleasure. An example of this was Bestiary, a poem describing the nature of animals. An excerpt below is taken from <http://bestiary.ca/etexts/wright1841/bestiary%20of%20philippe%20de%20thaon%20-%20wright%20-%20parallel%20text.pdf>

THE BESTIARY
OF
PHILIPPE DE THAUN

BESTIARIUS incipit, quem Philippus Taonensis fecit in laude et memoria reginæ Angliæ Aelidis, est nomen vere, quod recte cum venit ex re, Hebraice dictum est, et quia laus dicitur, a Philippo laudatur.
LIBER iste Bestiarius dicitur, quia in primis de bestiis loquitur. Et secundario, de avibus. Ad ultimum autem, de lapidibus. Itaque trifarie spargitur, et allegorice subintelligitur. Sunt autem animalia que natura a Christo prona, atque ventri obedientia, et in hoc denotatur pueritia. Sunt etiam volucres in alium volantes, quo designant homines cælestia meditantes. Et natura est lapidis quod per se est immobiles. Ita nobis cum superis sit Deus ineffabilis, ut in sua præsentia ejus misericordia et cum sanctorum gloria decantemus Alleleja.

PHILIPPE de Taun en Franceise raisun Ad estrait Bestiaire, un livre de gramaire, Pur l'onur d'une gemme, ki mult est bele femme, Aliz est numée, reine est coronée, Reine est de Engleterre, sa ame n'ait ja guere; En Ebreu en verité est Aliz laus de Dé. Un livre voil traier, Dés sait al cumencer; LEO quo que est rex omnium animalium, De quo liber loquitur, ideo præponitur; Et ejus formatio et compaginatio Magnum quid significat, ut liber notificat. CEO que en Griu est leun, en Franceis rei ad nun; Leuns en mainte guise mutes bestes justise, Pur ço est reis leuns, or uez les facuns. Il ad le vis heduz, gros le col e kernuz, Quarré lu piz devant, ardez e combatant; Greille ad le trait derere, cue de grant manere, E le gambe ad plates juste les pez aates; Les pez ad gros cupez, luns ungles e curvez; Quant faim ad u maltalent, bestes mangue ensement; Cum il cest asne fait, ki rechane e brait. Or oez senz dulance d'iceo signefiance. LI leun signefie le Fiz Sancte Marie; Reis est de tute gent, senz nul redutement;	Philippe de Thaun into the French language has translated the Bestiary, a book of science, for the honour of a jewel, who is a very handsome woman, Aliz is she named, a queen she is crowned, 5 queen she is of England, may her soul never have trouble! In Hebrew, in truth, Aliz means praise of God. I will compose a book, may God be with its commencement. 10 15 20 What is in Greek <i>leun</i> , has in French the name <i>king</i> ; the lion in many ways rules over many beasts, therefore is the lion king, now you shall hear how. He has a frightful face, the neck great and hairy; he has the breast before square, hardy and pugnacious; his shape behind is slender, his tail of large fashion, and he has flat legs constrained down to the feet; he has the feet large and cloven, the claws long and curved; when he is hungry or ill-disposed, he devours animals without discrimination; as he does the ass, which resists and brays. Now hear without doubt the signification of this. The lion signifies the son of St. Mary; he is king of all people, without any gaisnay;
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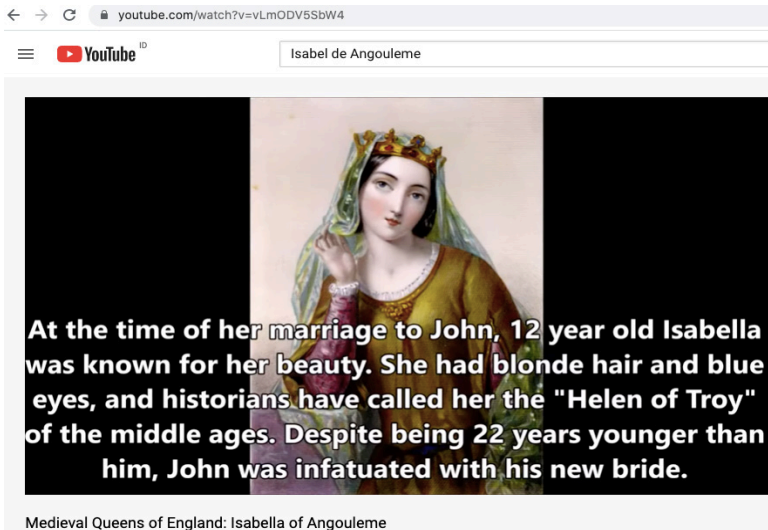
Figure 14. An Excerpt of Bestiary

Another work was *Estoire des Engleis* (History of the English) written by Geffrei Gaimar. It depicted an account or witness statement of the events happening in 1066, starting with the death of King Edward the Confessor.

B. The Birth of Middle English

The beginning of the birth of Middle English was marked by the loss of Normandy. Strong tie between England and the continent broke in 1204. King John, the ruling king of England, fell in love with Isabel of Angouleme, who was at that time, planning to marry Hugh of Lusignan,

her fiancée. Hugh of Lusignan was a French nobleman. The marriage itself was delayed due to Isabel's extreme youth. Being said for having renowned beauty with blonde hair and blue eyes, Isabel's marriage to King John took place on August 24th 1200 in Bordeaux. She was crowned Queen of England on 9th October in Westminster Abbey. A short clip below on Isabel is taken from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vLmODV5SbW4>.



A Victorian artist engraved Isabel as shown below (<https://alchetron.com/Isabella-of-Angoul%C3%Aame>)



Figure 15. Isabel of Angouleme

King John of England married Isabel when she was in her very young age (12 years old). The picture of King John below is taken from [www. alamy.com](http://www.alamy.com)



Figure 16. King John of England

King Philip II of France confiscated John's French lands, and the entire Lusignan family rebelled against him. It then created resentment and discord on the continent, making King John lose his Plantagenet territories in France. King Phillip II invaded Normandy. Chateau Gaillard, Richard the Lionheart's castle, fell to the French after a long siege in 1203, it was then followed by the rest of Normandy. King John, having lesser resources, was forced to flee.

Battle of Bouvines ended King John's power in France. According to <https://www.britannica.com/event/Battle-of-Bouvines-1214>, Battle of Bouvines, (July 27, 1214), battle that gave a decisive victory to the French king Philip II Augustus over an international coalition of the Holy Roman emperor Otto IV, King John of England, and the French vassals-Ferdinand (Ferrand) of Portugal, count of Flanders, and Renaud (Raynald) of Dammartin, count of Boulogne. The victory enhanced the power and the prestige of the French monarchy in France and in the rest of Europe. Battle of Bouvines was best depicted in a picture on the next page (<https://www.pbslearningmedia.org/resource/xir39148fre/the-battle-of-bouvines-27th-july-1214-xir39148-fre/>)



Figure 17. Battle of Bouvines

The loss of Normandy was certainly beneficial. Nobles and leaders who had taken England and English people for granted were forced to see them as their first priority. In other words, the loss of Normandy was the start for England as an independent nation.

The loss of Normandy affected the ownership of lands and properties in England and also the identity of the nobles of whether they were English or French. Some separation took part as nobles started dividing their assets into two parts in two countries. Many nobles preferred having properties in England and sold their Norman properties. They started identifying themselves as English people.

The loss was not the end of the misery. When the nobles and English people were just about to settle, another French invasion raided. The first invasion happened in 1233 where English nobles and subjects were severely oppressed. Baronies and counties were sentenced. More foreigners were to come to England in 1236 in Henry's marriage to Eleanor of Provence. Henry equipped his wife's relatives with lands and properties in England.

English people did not welcome those foreigners well. There was a policy stating "England for the English". Church people also felt that the foreigners used them. As a result, many English people were in poverty and suffered. These foreigners were not guests for England, yet they were enemies. Linguistically, they did not speak English. They also made the kingdom poor. This then became the principal reason for English national feeling. English nobles and middle-class people were together for the same reason and dream. Continuously they drove the foreigners away from England, i.e in Provisions of Oxford (1258) and the Barons' War (1258-1265).

Provisions of Oxford happened when the barons took control of the government and key appointments and also reformed the common law. It was regarded as England's first written constitution. It placed the king under the authority of a Council of Fifteen, to be chosen by twenty-four men made up of twelve nominees of the king, and twelve nominees of the reformers. The chief ministers, the Justiciar and Chancellor were to be chosen by and responsible to the Council of Fifteen, and ultimately to the community of the realm at regular parliaments to be held three times a year (<https://www.parliament.uk/about/living-heritage/evolutionofparliament/originsofparliament/birthofparliament/overview/simondemontfort/provisionsoxford/>).

The Barons' War or two civil wars occurred in England between the King and barons (<https://www.oxfordreference.com/view/10.1093/oi/authority.20110803095448265>). The first began in June 1215 at Runnymede, King John, faced by the concerted opposition of the barons and Church, conceded Magna Carta. He failed to honour his promise and thereby provoked the barons to offer the crown to Louis, Dauphin of France, who landed in Kent in May 1216. John's death (October 1216) and the reissue of Magna Carta by the regent of his son Henry III prevented a major civil war. With his defeat at Lincoln and the capture of his supply ships off Sandwich, Louis accepted the Treaty of Kingston-upon-Thames in September 1217. The map of the First Barons' War is taken from <https://alchetron.com/First-Barons%27-War#demo>



Map 11. First Barons' War

The second arose from baronial opposition to the incompetent Henry III and led to his accepting a programme of reform, the Provisions of Oxford (1258) in order to check the power. The Second Barons' War picture is taken from www.alamy.com below



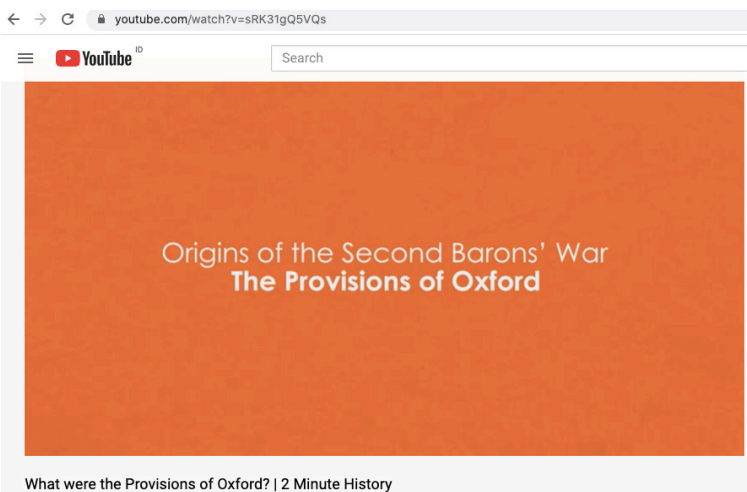
HENRY III. AT LEWES, 1264.

a alamy stock photo

BEY16J
www.alamy.com

Figure 18. Second Barons' War

For more information on the Second Barons' War and the Provisions of Oxford, a link of YouTube below provides detailed information on them (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sRK31gQ5VQs>)



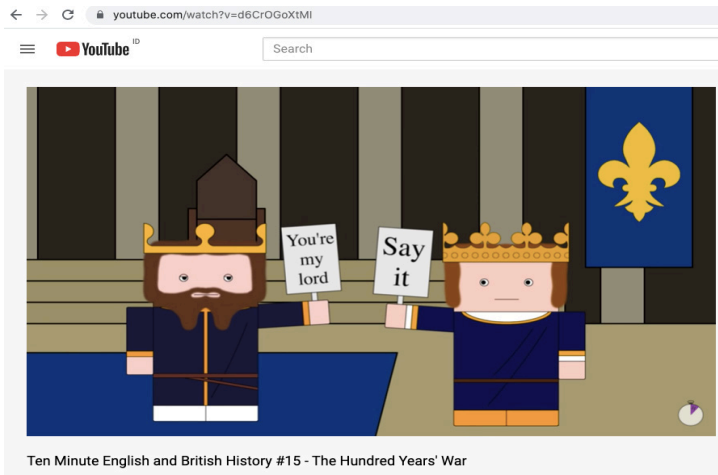
After three events mentioned above, the situation in England did not change much. Norman-French was still spoken by the upper-class people. The reasons for using it were, however, different. French was regarded as language of social custom, business, and administration. It was no longer a mother tongue. Upper-class people's patriotic feeling made them speak English as their national identity. There was then large number of word borrowing from French into English in this era because people tried to express their French vocabularies in Old English. The national feeling for using English as national identity was also expressed in *Cursor Mundi*. An excerpt of it is taken from <http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/04574b.htm>

*In to English Tongue to rede
For the love of English lede [people]
English lede of England
For the common [folk] to understand.*

Beginning the 13th century, French almost lost its speakers in England. Its position was not strong because English was used in the church and universities, two strongest institutions in England. One reason for discontinuing use of French in England was the fact that Norman-French was considered as “not good” French. “good French” was mainly spoken in Paris, eventhough there were four dialects of French at that time (Norman, Burgundian, Picard, and Central French of Paris). Norman-French was then an object of amusement among English people and even among French speakers in general. It was understandable that people were reluctant to speak a language which became a burlesque.

Another reason and said to be the biggest reason for disusing French in England was Hundred Years' War. It occurred from 1337-1453. According to http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/middle_ages/hundred_years_war_01.shtml, the overseas possessions of the English kings were the root cause of the tensions with the kings of France, and the tensions reached right back to 1066. William the Conqueror was already duke of Normandy when he became king of England. His great-grandson Henry II, at his accession in 1154, was already count of Anjou by inheritance from his father and duke of Aquitaine (Gascony and Poitou) in right of his wife Eleanor.

These trans-Channel possessions made the kings of England easily the mightiest of the king of France's vassals, and the inevitable friction between them repeatedly escalated into open hostilities. The Hundred Years War grew out of these earlier clashes and their consequences. A visual description of the war is taken from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d6CrOGoxTMI>

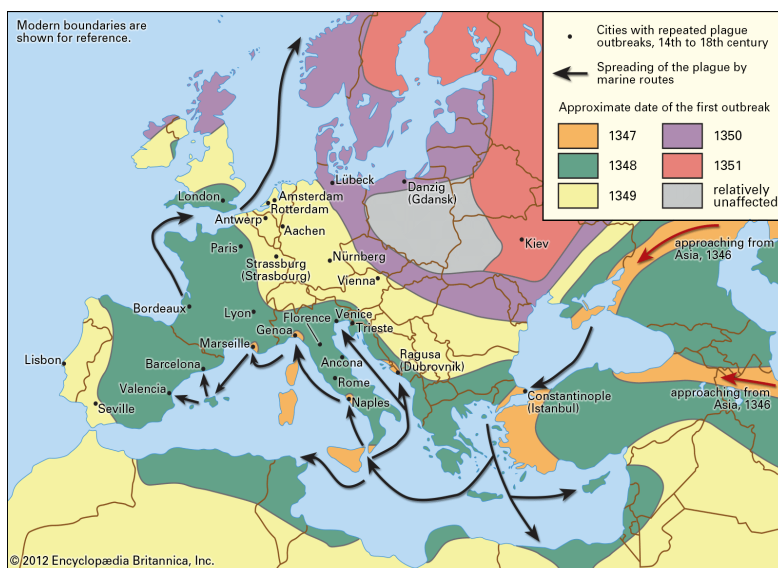


The war also introduced a very famous name, St. Joan of Arc, byname the Maid of Orléans, French *Sainte Jeanne d'Arc* or *La Pucelle d'Orléans*, (born c. 1412, Domrémy, Bar, France—died May 30, 1431, Rouen; canonized May 16, 1920; feast day May 30; French national holiday, second Sunday in May), national heroine of France, a peasant girl who, believing that she was acting under divine guidance, led the French army in a momentous victory at Orléans that repulsed an English attempt to conquer France during the war. Captured a year afterward, Joan was burned to death by the English and their French collaborators (<https://www.britannica.com/biography/Saint-Joan-of-Arc>). A picture of her is provided by <https://www.britannica.com/event/Hundred-Years-War>



Figure 19. Joan of Arc

As previously mentioned that in England there were three classes in society. The low-class people became the majority of population. In 1348, there was deadly contagious disease and killed a lot of people. The greatest catastrophe was called The Black Death. More than 40% of English clergy died of the bubonic plague. In the entire Europe, it killed more than 50 million people or 60% of European people. Bubonic plague, the disease's most common form, referred to telltale buboes—painfully swollen lymph nodes—that appeared around the groin, armpit, or neck. The skin sores became black, leading to its nickname during pandemics as “Black Death.” Initial symptoms of this early stage included vomiting, nausea, and fever (<https://www.nationalgeographic.com/science/health-and-human-body/human-diseases/the-plague/>). The map depicting the spread of bubonic plague below is taken from <https://www.britannica.com/event/Black-Death>



Map 12. The Spread of Black Death

The plague, having killed a lot of people, made manufacturers and companies lost their workers. There was serious shortage of workers. Those manufacturers and companies had to pay the workers more due to worker's shortage. They had to choose a difficult option regarding payment instead of stopping the business. The increase of payment then made laboring class go up into middle-classes. They were richer.

England after the Black Death had more serious matter linguistically. England began to be used by everybody. During the Norman conquest, 95%

of England's population or low-class people spoke Old English as language of the majority. The plague, having risen low-classes into middle-classes, made English famous for everybody in the country. In 1362, English was made into more steps of restoring as an official language of England. For more than three centuries, French had been language of legal processes and proceedings. Therefore, an effort was made by having Statute of Pleading in 1362 regarding the use of English in legal courts replacing Norman-French.

More efforts were made to restore English into its permanent position as national identity of England. One of the most successful efforts was the use of English in schools. Schools and churches were the biggest institutions in England. No wonder that the use of English in schools was observed as the most significant way of restoring the language. The use of English in schools started in 1349. After forty years of great effort, English became language of school instruction in 1385.

As a result of common practice of English, French was no longer used in conversations. The use of it was limited to sense of nostalgia. Baugh & Cable mention that the use of French was caused by three possible reasons namely to enable speakers to communicate in French atmosphere, to understand law, and to write each other in French (2002: 140).

Literacy was the key to linguistic effort. English made its way to writing system in England by competing with Latin and French. Latin and French had been a monopoly in terms of writing. A lot of texts, especially ordinances and books were translated into English. Latin as language of written record was eventually replaced by English. Records of Parliament were all in English.

Linguistically, the mixture of Old English and Anglo-Norman-French was then referred to as Middle English. The Middle English period (1150-1500) was defined by important historic events. Compared to Old English period, Middle English underwent extensive and significant changes in history of its speakers, region, and journey in general. A lot of changes were caused by the Norman Conquest. Moreover, English was spoken by low-class people having no adequate education. They preferred a simpler language. As discussed in the previous chapter, Old English was language with full of inflections. In Middle English era, however, it changed into an analytic language. Middle English era was said as decay of inflections. Besides, many Old English Germanic vocabularies lost. Thousands of Latin and French words were added. Therefore, Middle English era was also entitled an era of great change.

To end this section and to mark the end of the Normans, there will be two figures depicting the Normans Family Tree and Kings of England. The figures are taken from <https://thehistoryjar.com/2018/11/21/the-norman-kings-of-england-family-tree/> and <https://www.historyonthenet.com/british-monarchy-norman-plantagenet-timeline>

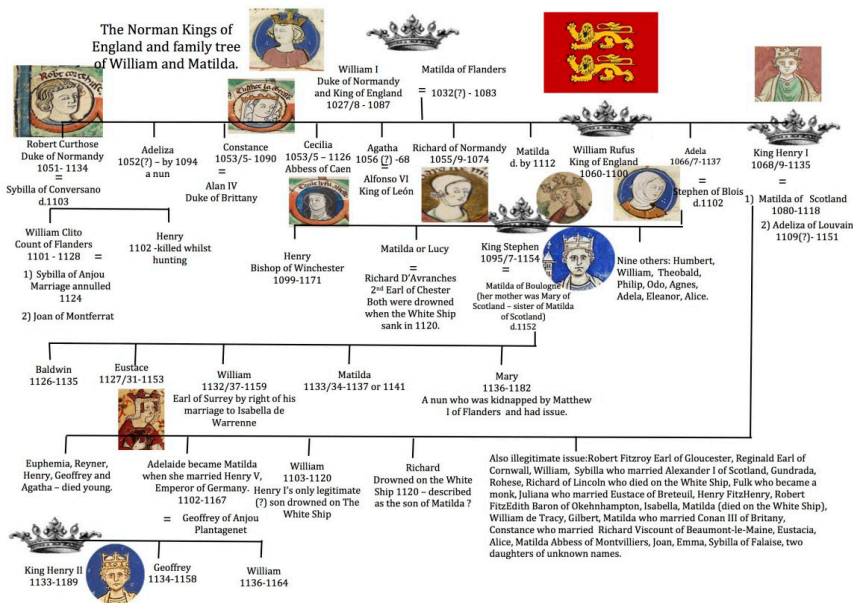


Figure 20. The Norman Family Tree

Norman and Plantagenet 1066 - 1485		
William I 1066-1087	Norman Conquest	1066
	Devastation of the North	1070
	Domesday Survey	1086
William II 1087-1100	First Crusade	1096-99
Henry I 1100-1135	White Ship Disaster	1120
Stephen 1135-1154	Civil War	1139-63
Henry II 1154-1189	Murder of Thomas Beckett	1170
Richard 1189-1199	Third Crusade	1189-92
John 1199-1216	Magna Carta	1215
Henry III 1216-1272	Second Barons' War	1264-67
Edward I 1272-1307	Conquest of Wales	1282-83
Edward II 1307-1327	Robert Bruce's Rebellion	1306
	Battle of Bannockburn	1314
	Hundred Years' War Began	1337
Edward III 1327-1377	Battle of Crecy	1346
Richard II 1377-1399	Black Death in England	1348
	Peasants' Revolt	1381
	Welsh Rebellion	1400-10
Henry V 1413-1422	Battle of Agincourt	1415
Henry VI 1422-1461	Hundred Years' War Ended	1453
	Wars of the Roses Began	1455
Edward IV 1461-1483	Henry VI Regained Power	1470-71
Edward V 1483	Death of Princes in Tower	1483
Richard III 1483-1485	Battle of Bosworth Field	1485

Figure 21. The Norman Kings of England

C. Middle English Sound

The pronunciation of more guttural Anglo-Norman was brought into English pronunciation. According to (https://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/history_middle.html) words like quit, question, quarter, were pronounced with the familiar “kw” sound in Anglo-Norman (and, subsequently, English) rather than the “k” sound of Parisian French. The Normans tended to use a hard “c” sound instead of the softer Francien “ch”, so that charrier became carry, chaudron became cauldron. The pronunciation of Middle English was also called Chaucer’s pronunciation. Another section of this book was dedicated to Chaucer and his works. Apart from pronunciation, spelling also underwent changes. Spelling changes from Old English to Middle English were summarized below (Gelderen, 2006: 117)

Table 8. Spelling Changes from Old English to Middle English

OE	ME	OE	ME
cw	qu	c	ch, c, and k
hw	wh/w/qu	u	ou
þ/ð	th	h	3/gh
sc	sh		

According to Algeo, consonants, vowels, and diphtongs’ quality changed in Middle English, either radically or slightly (2010: 122-125).

C1. Middle English Consonant

The Old English consonant sounds written b, c (in both its values in late Old English, [k] and [č]), d, f (in both its values, [f] and [v]), 3 (in two of its values, [g] and [y]), h (in both its values, [h] and [x]), k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, þ (ð), w, and x (that is, [ks]) remained unchanged in Middle English (Algeo, 2010: 122). Table 9 below presents the inventory of Middle English consonants (Gelderen, 2006: 119)

Table 9. Middle English Consonants

	Manner:	stop	fricative	affricate	nasal	liquid	glide
Place:							
labial		p/b	f/v		m		w
dental			θ/ð				
alveolar		t/d	s/z		n	l, r	
alveo-palatal			ʃ	tʃ/dʒ			j
velar		k/g	h/X		ŋ		

C2. Middle English Vowel

Middle English vowels underwent slight changes. Just like Old English, Middle English also had short and long vowels. The Old English long vowel sounds ē, ī, ō, and ū remained unchanged in Middle English although their spelling possibilities altered: thus, Old English fēt, Middle English fēt, feet ‘feet’; OE rīdan, ME rīden, rȳden ‘to ride’; OE fōða, ME fōde, foode ‘food’; OE hūs, ME hous ‘house’ (Algeo, 2010: 123).

There were exceptions for Old English æ and y, the short vowels of those Old English stressed syllables that remained short were unchanged in most Middle English speech—for example, OE wascan ‘to wash,’ ME washen; OE helpan ‘to help,’ ME helpen; OE sittan ‘to sit,’ ME sitten; OE hoppian ‘to hop,’ ME hoppen; and OE hungrig ‘hungry,’ ME hungry (Algeo, 2010: 123).

Diphthongs, however, underwent radical changes. Algeo states that diphthongs changed radically between Old English and Middle English. The old diphthongs disappeared and a number of new ones ([aɪ, eɪ, aʊ, ɔʊ, ɛʊ, ɪʊ, ɔɪ, ʊɪ]) developed (2010: 124).

The most significant phonological change of Middle English was the falling together of a, o, and u with e in unstressed syllables, all ultimately becoming [ə] or schwa, as in the following (Algeo, 2010: 127).

Table 10. The Developments of a, o, and u, and e

Old English	Middle English
lama ‘lame’	lāme
faran ‘to fare,’ faren (past part.)	fāren
stānes ‘stone’s,’ stānas ‘stones’	stōnes
feallað ‘falleth’	falleth
nacod ‘naked’	nāked
macodon ‘made’ (pl.)	mākeden
sicor ‘sure’	sēker
lengðu ‘length’	lengthe
medu ‘liquor’	mēde

For digital source, please watch <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=F2yI56PID6A>



C3. Middle English Dialect

One of the most remarkable characteristics of Middle English was the birth of varieties or diversity of dialects. The dialects expanded to greater degree. In this case, they also expanded to written literary texts. Literary texts in Middle English were richer than in Old English.

Roughly speaking, there were three major dialects of Middle English, i.e. North, Midlands, and South (Gelderen, 2006: 135). However, Midlands were still divided into two dialectal divisions, East Midland and West Midland. Those were spoken in area covering Humber and Thames. They corresponded to Old English Mercian, East Anglian, and Essex.

South dialect was spoken in southern area of Thames. It corresponded to or was developed from West Saxon subdivided to Kent. North dialect extended to southern of Humber corresponding to Old English Northumbrian. Map 14 below shows the spread of Middle English dialects with their respective literature (<https://historyofenglishpodcast.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/72-MiddleEnglish400x560.png>). Middle English literature will be discussed in the other section.

C4. The Rise of London Standard

Among the dialects and their dialectal divisions, East Midland contributed to the birth of London Standard. London itself had been the centre of government, administration, and economy for centuries. The Normans made it their centre for their governing activities. It was the Norman capital at the beginning of the 12th Century. Therefore, it was an important and prosperous city. Standard Modern English—both American and British—was a development of the speech of London. This dialect had become the norm in general use long before the English settlement of America in the early seventeenth century, though many of those who migrated to the New World retained traces of their regional origins in their pronunciation, vocabulary, and to a lesser degree syntax (Algeo, 2010: 119-120). Furthermore, Baugh & Cable suggest that there were three factors triggering the rise of London Standard English (2002: 179-180):

- a. Geographically, London was located in the middle between south and north region. It was less conservative than the South dialect and less radical than the North. Grammatically and phonologically, it provided compromise to both dialects and shared some of their linguistic characteristics.
- b. Statistically, the East Midland region held its reputation as the most populous and biggest region. A lot of inhabitants chose it for its soil fertility and prosperity.
- c. As mentioned in the previous chapter concerning two biggest institutions in England, now one of them shall become the third reason. Oxford and Cambridge universities certainly occupied a special place in everybody's heart in England. Both had long history. Respectively, Oxford and Cambridge were founded in 1167 and 1209. The influence of their long tradition of literacy ensured that the London Standard English was on top of place and prevailed. This then resulted in a stigma of the other dialects as lacking social prestige and education.

This was also related to Chaucer's works (which will be discussed in another section of the book). They had significant importance for being widely adopted as a written English standard. Hence, Middle English pronunciation was also regarded as Chaucer's pronunciation or Chaucerian English. Middle English written works (documents, papers, and letters) relied on the language of Chaucer. In other words, Chaucer became the basis of the Standard English.

London Standard English was born as a great impact of London as the capital of England. The dialect would be the standard dialect for

legal matters and intellectual activities. Therefore, the history of Standard English was almost a history of London English (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 181). London Standard English was then a platform for the birth of RP (Received Pronunciation).

It was, however, difficult to reach a uniformity of dialect to conform to London English. All linguistic elements (vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation) were far from being uniform. Consequently, writers found it difficult in writing to meet the demand and favour of speakers of each dialect.

D. Middle English Grammar

D1. Middle English Noun

The most significant matter concerning noun in Middle English was the decay of inflectional endings. Endings such as –u, –a, –e, –um, and –an were all reduced into into a single –e. Baugh & Cable assert that strong masculine declension the forms *mūð*, *mūðes*, *mūðe*, *mūð* in the singular, and *mūðas*, *mūða* and *mūðum*, *mūðas* in the plural were reduced to three: *mūð*, *mūðes*, and *mūðe* (2002: 147).

All nouns were reduced into two forms, with or without –s for plural and singular. Plural noun with –s was called strong declension. Plural noun with –(e)n ending (weak declension) disappeared. Therefore, *eyen* (eyes) was not there anymore. There was, however, a number of plural nouns which survived and endured their existence. Those were plural nouns with mutation as *men*, *feet*, *geese*, *teeth*, *lice*, and *mice*. Algeo (2010: 130) provides an example when the Anglo-Saxon homilist Ælfric had, “*Ʒās gelæhte se dēma*” and expect the sentence to be properly understood as ‘The judge seized those.’ To say this in Middle English, it was necessary that the subject preceded the verb, just as in Modern English: “The *dēme* *ilaughte thōs*.” Table 12 below shows noun declension comparison between Old English and Middle English in four cases.

Table 12. Old English and Middle English Noun Declension

Case	Old English		Middle English	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	stan	stan-as	stan	stan-es
Genitive	stan-es	stan-a	stan-es	stan-es
Dative	stan-e	stan-um	stan	stan-es
Accusative	stan	stan-as	stan	stan-es

Pronouns in Middle English underwent changes. Second person pronouns were used differently in Middle English than in Old and Modern English. In Old English, thou and thee were singular and ye and you were plural. In Middle English, the singular became the familiar form, similar to French tu, and the plural became the polite form, similar to French vous (Gelderen, 2006: 121-122). Still according to Gelderen, other differences were (a) all duals were lost early on, and (b) the accusative forms mec, pec, usic, eowic, hie, and hine disappeared early. Only the accusative hine survived into Middle English (2006: 122) as shown in Table 13 below.

Table 13. Middle English Pronouns

		Singular	Plural
First	NOM	ic	we
	GEN	min	ure
	DAT/ACC	me	our
Second	NOM	thou	ye(e)
	GEN	thi(n)	your
	DAT/ACC	thee	you
Third	NOM	she/he	they
	GEN	her/his	their
	DAT/ACC	her/him	them

Another source regarding pronouns in Middle English in their complete forms is presented in Table 14 on the next page (Algeo, 2010: 131).

Table 14. Middle English Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>		
Nom.	ich, I, ik	wē
Obj.	mē	us
Gen.	mī; mīn	our(e); oures
<i>Second Person</i>		
Nom.	thou	yē
Obj.	thee	you
Gen.	thī; thīn	your(e); youres
<i>Third Person (masculine)</i>		
Nom.	hē	hī, they, thai
Obj.	him, hine	hem, heom, them, thaim, tl
Gen.	his	her(e), their(e); heres, theirs
<i>(feminine)</i>		
Nom.	shē, hō, hyō, hyē, hī,	
	schō, chō, hē	
Obj.	hir(e), her(e), hī	
Gen.	hir(e), her(e); hires	
<i>(neuter)</i>		
Nom.	hit, it	
Obj.	hit, it	
Gen.	his	

A text of Sir Gawain and the Green Knight below shows the use of Middle English pronouns and plural nouns. It is taken from (<https://quod.lib.umich.edu/c/cme/Gawain/1:1?rgn=div1;view=fulltext>) and its Modern English translation is taken from (http://jessicasladechms.weebly.com/uploads/5/1/7/4/51740093/sir_gawain_complete_large_text.pdf)

SIÞEN þe sege and þe assaut watz sesed at Troye,
 þe borȝ brittened and brent to brondez and askez,
 þe tulk þat þe trammes of tresoun þer wroȝt
 Watz tried for his tricherie, þe trewest on erthe:
 Hit watz Ennias þe athel, and his highe kynde,
 þat siþen depreced prouinces, and patrounes bicomē
 Welneȝe of al þe wele in þe west iles.
 Fro riche Romulus to Rome ricchis hym swype,
 With gret bobbaunce þat burȝe he biges vpon fyrst,
 And neuenes hit his aune nome, as hit now hat;
 Tirus to Tuskan and teldes bigynnes,
 Langaberde in Lumbardie lyftes vp homes,
 And fer ouer þe French flod Felix Brutus
 On mony bonkkes ful brode Bretayn he settez
 wyth wynne,
 Where werre and wrake and wonder
 Bi syþez hatz wont þerinne,
 And oft boþe blysse and blunder
 Ful skete hatz skyfted synne.
 Ande quen þis Bretayn watz bigged bi þis burn rych,
 Bolde bredden þerinne, baret þat lofden,
 In mony turned tyme tene þat wroȝten.
 Mo ferlyes on þis folde han fallen here oft
 Þen in any oþer þat I wot, syn þat ilk tyme.
 Bot of alle þat here bult, of Bretaygne kynges,
 Ay watz Arthur þe hendest, as I haf herde telle.

Modern English Translation

When the siege and the assault had ceased at Troy,
 and the fortress fell in flame to firebrands and ashes,
 the traitor who the contrivance of treason there fashioned
 was tried for his treachery, the most true upon earth –
 it was Æneas the noble and his renowned kindred
 who then laid under them lands, and lords became
 of well-nigh all the wealth in the Western Isles.

When royal Romulus to Rome his road had taken,
 in great pomp and pride. He peopled it first,
 and named it with his own name that yet now it bears;
 Tirus went to Tuscany and towns founded,
 Langaberde in Lombardy uplifted halls,
 and far over the French flood Felix Brutus
 on many a broad bank and brae Britain established
 full fair
 where strange things, strife and sadness,
 at whiles in the land did fare,
 and each other grief and gladness
 oft fast have followed there.

Figure 22 below is taken from <https://www.storyboardthat.com> shows an excerpt of Sir Gawain and the Green Knight in comic strip form.

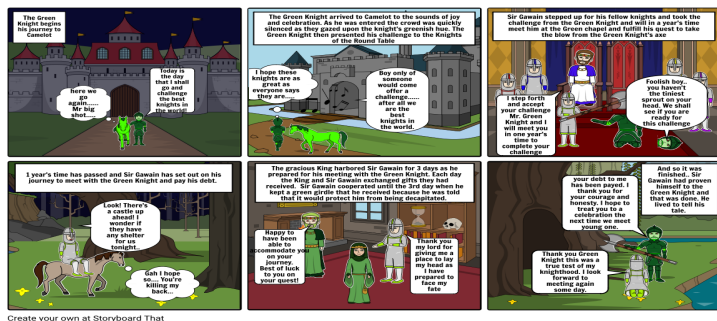


Figure 22. Sir Gawain and the Green Knight

D2. Middle English Verb

The most significant change of verb in Middle English was the loss of strong conjugation. It did not happen in Germanic verbs only, but also borrowed verbs. Those were conjugated into weak. The number of strong conjugated verbs was not as high as weak conjugated ones. The loss of the Normandy marked the loss of strong verb. The loss of strong verb was of some periods even long after the loss of Normandy. Almost 30% of strong verb died out. Those survived were those under the influence of power. Strong verbs which were conjugated into weak were, for instance, blowed for blew, knowed for knew, and teared for tore.

The great loss of strong verbs was caused by the tendency of Middle English. It moved towards regularity. The speakers perceived that

weak (regular) verbs were easier than those strong (irregular). For more illustration, Table 15 below is presented (Gelderen, 2006: 125).

Table 15. Middle English Past and Present Tense Verb Agreement

	Present indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
1	ic find(e)	S find(e)	S find
2	thou findes(t)		
3	he findeþ/he findes		
P	we, ye(e), thei findeþ/en	P find(en)	P findeþ/es
	Past		
S	fond(e)	S founde	
P	found(en)	P founde(n)	
Past participle	(y)founden		

Despite the great loss, Middle English still retained the seven classes of strong verb as Old English had. Some continued with gradations as shown in Table 16 below (Algeo, 2010: 134).

Table 16. The 7 Classes of Strong Verb in Middle English

	Infinitive	Preterit Singular	Preterit Plural	Past Participle
Class I	writen ‘write’	wrōt	writen	writen
Class II	clēven ‘cleave’	clēf	cluyen	clōven
Class III	helpen ‘help’	halp	hulpen	holpen
Class IV	bēran ‘bear’	bar	bēren	bōren
Class V	sprēkan ‘speak’	sprak	sprēken	sprēken
Class VI	shāken ‘shake’	shōk	shōken	shāken
Class VII	hōten ‘be called’	hēt	hēten	hōten

D3. Middle English Adjective

Middle English adjectives were no longer divided into singular and plural. Both fell into one form. They also lost endings. The last surviving ending was –e in This goode man. Algeo mentions that the Old English comparative ending –ra became –re, later –er, and the superlative suffixes –ost and –est fell together as –est. If the root vowel of an adjective was long, it was shortened before these endings—for example, swēte, swetter, swettest (2010: 133).

D4. Loss of Grammatical Gender

Unlike Old English which preserved grammatical gender, Middle English did not recognize any of it. This was caused by the loss of gender-distinctive forms of adjective, definite article, and demonstrative. Middle English became simpler than Old English in terms of noun and meaning. Middle English now recognized natural gender to use.

The fact that English was the language of common people, spoken or used mainly by uneducated majority made it lose grammatical complexities and inflections. When in Old English era there had been 11 inflections for adjectives, during Middle English era, those were gone. The same thing was also true to grammatical gender. The complexities gradually disappeared.

E. Middle English Lexicon

E1. The Influence of Norman Conquest on Middle English Vocabulary

Norman Conquest changed the course of history of Old English and marked the great change of the language into Middle English. It was evident mostly on vocabulary. Before 1250, French words in English were about 800-900 in total. The words were resulted from direct contacts with French nobility. Consequently, the loanwords were related to titles or matters of nobility such as *baron*, *dame*, *noble*, *servant*, *messenger*, *feast*, *minstrel*, *juggler*, and *largess*.

The process of word borrowing was long and continuous. Cultural and trade relation between England and France also took part in word borrowing. Some literary terms were also adopted such as *story*, *rime*, and *lay*. After the conquest, people of England who spoke English still, some of them, applied or used French words in their daily English conversation. This then also contributed to the degree of word borrowing which was more than one third of the whole Middle English vocabulary.

During the reign of the Norman King Henry II and Queen Eleanor of Aquitaine in the second half of the 12th century, French words were borrowed such as royal and real; regard and reward; gauge and wage; guile and wile; guardian and warden; guarantee and warrant. As a woman with high culture of Europe, Eleanor also championed many terms of *romance and chivalry* such as *romance*, *courtesy*, *honour*, *damsel*, *tournament*, *virtue*, *music*, *desire*, and *passion*. During the Norman Conquest, roughly, 10,000 words were borrowed from French. English was said being “Normanized”. The words were divided into the following domains (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 157-161):

E.1.1 Words of Government and Administration

The Normans, as the ruling party in England, contributed to enrich word inventory regarding government and administration. The 200-year rule left Middle English the following words such as *government, govern, administer, crown, state, empire, realm, reign, royal, prerogative, authority, sovereign, majesty, scepter, tyrant, usurp, oppress, court, council, parliament, assembly, statute, treaty, alliance, record, repeal, adjourn, tax, subsidy, revenue, tally, exchequer, subject, allegiance, rebel, traitor, treason, exile, public, liberty, chancellor, treasurer, chamberlain, marshal, governor, councilor, minister, viscount, warden, castellan, mayor, constable, coroner, crier, king, queen, lord, lady, and earl, noble, nobility, peer, prince, princess, duke, duchess, count, countess, marquis, baron, squire, page, courtier, retinue, sir, madam, mistress, manor, demesne, bailiff, vassal, homage, peasant, bondman, slave, servant, and caitiff.*

E.1.2 Words of Religion

As mentioned before that England especially during the Norman Conquest had two most powerful institutions, i.e. church and universities. To mark the motto of Gold, Gospel, Glory, the Norman left religious terms. Clergy, church people, and priest were all in high position. The words were *religion, theology, sermon, homily, sacrament, baptism, communion, confession, penance, prayer, orison, lesson, passion, psalmody; such indications of rank or class as clergy, clerk, prelate, cardinal, legate, dean, chaplain, parson, pastor, vicar, sexton, abess, novice, friar, hermit, crucifix, crosier, miter, surplice, censer, incense, lectern, image, chancel, chantry, chapter, abbey, convent, priory, hermitage, cloister, sanctuary, creator, savior, trinity, virgin, saint, miracle, mystery, faith, heresy, schism, reverence, devotion, sacrilege, simony, temptation, damnation, penitence, contrition, remission, absolution, redemption, salvation, immortality, piety, sanctity, charity, mercy, pity, obedience, solemn, divine, reverend, devout, preach, pray, chant, repent, confess, adore, sacrifice, convert, anoint, and ordain.*

E.1.3 Words of Law

Norman-French had been the language of the court for more than two centuries during the conquest. Consequently, a lot of words of legal proceedings came to enrich Middle English such as *bar, assize, eyre, plea, suit, plaintiff, defendant, judge, advocate, attorney, bill, petition, complaint, inquest, summons, hue and cry, indictment, jury, juror, panel,*

felon, evidence, proof, bail, ransom, mainpernor, judgment, verdict, sentence, decree, award, fine, forfeit, punishment, prison, gaol, pillory, sue, plead, implead, accuse, indict, arraign, depose, blame, arrest, seize, pledge, warrant, assail, assign, judge, condemn, convict, award, amerce, distrain, imprison, banish, acquit, pardon, felony, trespass, assault, arson, larceny, fraud, libel, slander, perjury, adultery, property, estate, tenement, chattels, appurtenances, encumbrance, bounds, seisin, tenant, dower, legacy, patrimony, heritage, heir, executor, entail, just, innocent, and culpable.

E.1.4 Words of Culture (Social Life, Fashion, and Cuisine)

French enjoyed its fame as language of high-profile society. Paris was known as the most remarkable centre for fashion. When talking about *fashion, cuisine, and social life*, people would remember France. Words related to those domains were borrowed, such as *fashion, dress, apparel, habit, gown, robe, garment, attire, cape, cloak, coat, frock, collar, veil, train, chemise, petticoat, lace, embroidery, pleat, gusset, buckle, button, tassel, plume, kerchief, mitten, garter, galoshes, boots, luxury, satin, taffeta, fur, sable, beaver, ermine, blue, brown, vermilion, scarlet, saffron, russet, tawny, jewel, ornament, brooch, chaplet, ivory, enamel, turquoise, amethyst, topaz, garnet, ruby, emerald, sapphire, pearl, diamond, not to mention crystal, coral, beryl, feast, repast, collation, appetite, taste, victuals, viand, sustenance, mackerel, sole, perch, bream, sturgeon, salmon, sardine, oyster, porpoise; among meats, venison, beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, sausage, tripe, loin, chine, haunch, or brawn, poultry, pullet, pigeon, pottage, gruel, toast, biscuit, cream, sugar, olives, salad, lettuce, endive, raisin, fig, date, grape, orange, lemon, pomegranate, cherry, peach, pastry, tart, jelly, treacle, clove, thyme, herb, mustard, vinegar, marjoram, cinnamon, nutmeg, roast, boil, parboil, stew, fry, broach, blanch, grate, mince, goblet, saucer, cruet, plate, platter, arras, curtain, couch, chair, cushion, screen, lamp, lantern, sconce, chandelier, blanket, quilt, coverlet, counterpane, towel, basin, dais, parlor, wardrobe, closet, pantry, scullery, garner, recreation, solace, jollity, leisure, dance, carol, revel, minstrel, juggler, fool, ribald, lute, tabor, melody, music, chess, checkers, dalliance, ambler, courser, hackney, palfrey, rouncy, stallion rein, curb, crupper, rowel, curry, trot, stable, harness, mastiff, terrier, spaniel, leash, kennel, scent, retrieve, falcon, merlin, tercelet, mallard, partridge, pheasant, quail, plover, heron, squirrel; forest, park, covert, warren, joust, tournament, and pavilion.*

E.1.5 Words of Art and Education

The Normans were famous for their pursuit of education. They sent their children to France for the best education they might afford. Besides their feeling of more French, they realized that France especially Paris offered great degree of knowledge for the nobles. They focused on architecture, arts, medicine, and literature. Therefore, words related to these fields were borrowed, for example *art, painting, sculpture, music, beauty, color, figure, image, tone, cathedral, palace, mansion, chamber, ceiling, joist, cellar, garret, chimney, lintel, latch, lattice, wicket, tower, pinnacle, turret, porch, bay, choir, cloister, baptistry, column, pillar, base, poet, rime, prose, romance, lay, story, chronicle, tragedy, prologue, preface, title, volume, chapter, quire, parchment, vellum, paper, pen, treatise, compilation, study, logic, geometry, grammar, noun, clause, gender, copy, expound, compile, chirurgy, physician, surgeon, apothecary, malady, debility, distemper, pain, ague, palsy, pleurisy, gout, jaundice, leper, paralytic, plague, pestilence, contagion, anatomy, stomach, pulse, remedy, ointment, balm, pellet, alum, arsenic, niter, sulphur, alkali, scripture, collect, meditation, immortal, oriental, client, adjacent, combine, expedition, moderate, nervous, private, popular, picture, legal, legitimate, testimony, prosecute, pauper, contradiction, history, library, comet, solar, recipe, scribe, scripture, tolerance, imaginary, infinite, index, intellect, magnify, and genius.*

E.1.6 Words of Military

Wars, battles, and fights happening in England as part of the conquest gave Middle English words of military. Besides, indirect contacts with the conquerors also took part in adding military terms to Middle English. Therefore, military terms were absorbed and used even for the very first time when the conquerors invaded England. The words were *army, navy, peace, enemy, arms, battle, combat, skirmish, siege, defense, ambush, stratagem, retreat, soldier, garrison, guard, spy, captain, lieutenant, sergeant, dart, lance, banner, mail, buckler, hauberk, archer, chieftain, portcullis, barbican, moat, arm, array, harness, brandish, vanquish, besiege, and defend.*

Besides the words mentioned above, French became a donor language for a lot of terms that now were still in use. A lot of adjectives, nouns, verbs, and phrasal verbs were borrowed, for example *scarlet, spy, stable, virtue, marshal, esquire, retreat, park, reign, beauty, clergy, cloak, country, fool, coast, magic, action, adventure, affection, age, air, bucket, bushel, calendar, carpenter, cheer, city, coast, comfort, cost, country, courage, courtesy, coward, crocodile, cruelty, damage, debt, deceit, dozen,*

ease, envy, error, face, faggot, fame, fault, flower, folly, force, gibbet, glutton, grain, grief, gum, harlot, honor, hour, jest, joy, labor, leopard, malice, manner, marriage, mason, metal, mischief, mountain, noise, number, ocean, odor, opinion, order, pair, people, peril, person, pewter, piece, point, poverty, powder, power, quality, quart, rage, rancor, reason, river, scandal, seal, season, sign, sound, sphere, spirit, square, strife, stubble, substance, sum, tailor, task, tavern, tempest, unity, use, vision, waste, able, abundant, active, actual, amiable, amorous, barren, blank, brief, calm, certain, chaste, chief, clear, common, contrary, courageous, courteous, covetous, coy, cruel, curious, debonair, double, eager, easy, faint, feeble, fierce, final, firm, foreign, frail, frank, gay, gentle, gracious, hardy, hasty, honest, horrible, innocent, jolly, large, liberal, luxurious, malicious, mean, moist, natural, nice, obedient, original, perfect, pertinent, plain, pliant, poor, precious, principal, probable, proper, pure, quaint, real, rude, safe, sage, savage, scarce, second, secret, simple, single, sober, solid, special, stable, stout, strange, sturdy, subtle, sudden, supple, sure, tender, treacherous, universal, usual, advance, advise, aim, allow, apply, approach, arrange, arrive, betray, butt, carry, chafe, change, chase, close, comfort, commence, complain, conceal, consider, continue, count, cover, covet, cry, cull, deceive, declare, defeat, defer, defy, delay, desire, destroy, embrace, enclose, endure, enjoy, enter, err, excuse, flatter, flourish, force, forge, form, furnish, grant, increase, nform, inquire, join, languish, launch, marry, mount, move, murmur, muse, nourish, obey, oblige, observe, pass, pay, pierce, pinch, please, practise, praise, prefer, proceed, propose, prove, purify, pursue, push, quash, quit, receive, refuse, rejoice, relieve, remember, reply, rinse, rob, satisfy, save, scald, serve, spoil, strangle, strive, stun, succeed, summon, suppose, surprise, tax, tempt, trace, travel, tremble, trip, wait, waive, waste, wince, to take leave, to draw near, to hold one's peace, to come to a head, to do justice, or make believe, hand to hand, on the point of, according to, subject to, at large, by heart, in vain, without fail, abbey, alliance, attire, defend, navy, march, dine, marriage, figure, plea, and sacrifice.

E2. Middle English Word Formation

Compounding was common in both Old and Middle English. A lot of Old English compounds had disappeared and new ones were created. The number of compound in Middle English decreased compared to Old English era. This was caused by massive French loanwords in the language. Suffixes like -ness, -ship, and -dom creating abstract nouns existed in Old English as well as in Middle English. Others were -acy, -age, -al, -aunce

(-ence), -(a)cioun (-ation), -(e)rie, -ite, and -ment. Table 17 below shows synonymous Germanic and Romance suffixes which existed both in Old and Middle English (Gelderen, 2006: 133).

Table 17. Synonymous Germanic and Romance Suffixes

Germanic	Latin/French
-dom/-hood (freedom; likelihood)	-ite (liberty; probability)
-hood (boyhood)	-ence (adolescence)
-ful (sinful)	-al (not moral)
-ing (beginning)	-ment (commencement)
-ship (worship)	-ation (adoration)

To summarize, Table 18 below is provided to present the characteristics of Middle English morphology and syntax (Gelderen, 2006: 132).

Table 18. Characteristics of Middle English Morphology and Syntax

Morphology:
a. Pronouns change (e.g. second person is simplified)
b. Case endings on nouns and adjectives disappear gradually
c. Agreement on verbs simplifies
d. Strong verbs become weak; subjunctives are expressed through modals
Syntax:
e. Word order changes to SVO
f. Subject pronouns are needed
g. Pleonastic (or dummy) subjects are introduced (= grammaticalization)
h. Auxiliaries and articles are introduced (= grammaticalization)
i. Embeddings increase (= grammaticalization)
j. Multiple negatives occur

E3. Latin Loanwords in Middle English

Latin loanwords were mostly learned (Learned Loanwords). Latin learned loanwords included allegory, index, magnify, mechanical, private, secular, zenith, conspiracy, contempt, gesture, immune, infinite, minor, necessity, popular, precinct, private, script, secular, solar, subjugate, temperature, testimony, and vulgar. Some loanwords spelling changed. Some still retained their original Latin spelling, even pronunciation, such as agendum, antenna, bonafide, errata, medium, corpora, media, erratum, agenda, corpus, per diem, and innuendo.

E4. Middle English Aureate Terms

Aureate terms were terms directly borrowed from Latin and became a stylistic device for authors, poets, and prose writers in writing their literary works in the 15th century. Some writers included Henryson, Dunbar, and James I. Some aureate terms were no longer available in Modern English. However, some still survived, for instance diurnal (daily or daytime), tenebrous (dark), laureate, mediation, oriental, and prolixity. One of William Dunbar's works, Ballad of Our Lady showed how aureate terms played an important aesthetic role as follows (<https://www.poetrynook.com/poem/ballad-our-lady>).

1

Hale, sterne superne, hale, in eterne
 In Godis sicht to schyne,
 Lucerne in derne for to discernen,
 Be glory and grace devyne.
 Hodiern, modern, sempitern,
 Angelicall regyne,
 Our tern inferne for to dispurn,
 Helpe, rialest rosyne.
 Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
 Haile, fresche flour femynyne,
 Yerne, ws guberne, wirgin matern,
 Of reuth baith rute and ryne.

2

Haile, yhyng benyng fresche flurising,
 Haile, Alphais habitakle.
 Thy dyng ofspring maid ws to syng
 Befor his tabernakle.
 All thing maling we dovne thring
 Be sicht of his signakle,
 Quhilk king ws bring vnto his ryng
 Fro dethis dirk vmbrakle.
 Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
 Haile, moder and maide but makle,
 Bricht syng, gladyng our languissing
 Be nicht of thi mirakle.

3

Haile, bricht be sicht in hevyn on hicht,
Haile, day sterne orientale,
Our licht most richt in clud of nycht,
Our dirknes for to scale.
Hale, wicht in ficht, puttar to flicht
Of fendis in battale,
Haile, plicht but sicht, hale, mekle of mycht,
Haile, glorius virgin, hale.
Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
Haile, gentill nychttingale,
Way stricht, cler dicht, to wilsome wicht
That irke bene in travale.

4

Hale, qwene serene, hale, most amene,
Haile, hevinlie hie emprys,
Haile, schene, vnseyne with carnale eyne,
Haile, ros of paradys,
Haile, clene bedene, ay till conteyne,
Haile, fair fresche flour delyce,
Haile, grene daseyne, hale fro the splene,
Of Ihesu genitrice.
Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
Thow bair the prince of prys,
Our teyne to meyne and ga betweyne,
As hvmile oratrice.

5

Hale, more decore than of before
And swetar be sic sevyne,
Our glorie forlore for to restor
Sen thow art qwene of hevyn.
Memore of sore, stern in aurore,
Lovit with angellis stevyne,
Implore, adore, thow indefflore,
To mak our oddis evyne.
Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
With lovingis lowde ellevyn,

Quhill store and hore my youth devor,
Thy name I sall ay nevyne.

6

Empryce of prys, imperatrice,
Bricht polist precious stane,
Victrice of wyce, hie genitric
Of Ihesu, lord souerayne,
Our wys pavys fro enemys,
Agane the feyndis trayne,
Oratrice, mediatrice, saluatrice,
To God gret suffragane.
Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
Haile, sterne meridiane,
Spyce, flour delice of paradys,
That bair the gloryus grayne.

7

Imperiall wall, place palestrall
Of peirles pulcritud,
Tryvmphale hall, hie trone regall
Of Godis celsitud,
Hospitall riall, the lord of all
Thy closet did include,
Bricht ball cristall, ros virginall,
Fulfillit of angell fude.
Aue, Maria, gracia plena.
Thy birth has with his blude
Fra fall mortall originall
Ws raunsound on the rude.

E5. Three-Levelled Synonyms

Middle English borrowings from Latin and French resulted in three-levelled synonyms. The three languages mingled and created synonyms. English words were popular. French words literary. Finally, Latin words were learned. The sample sets were rise – mount – ascend, ask – question – interrogate, fire – flame – conflagration, holy – sacred – consecrated, time – age – epoch, and fire – flame – conflagration.

E6. Loanwords from Low Countries

Not only did Middle English borrow words from French and Latin, but it also borrowed words from other languages of Low Countries, i.e. Dutch, Flemish, and Low German. Word borrowings happened due to intensive contacts of English people and people of Flanders, Germany, and Holland. Marriage and trade largely contributed to word borrowings. German and Flemish traders settle in England or at least possessed properties in England. Loanwords of the three languages included nap, deck, bowsprit, lighter, dock, freight, rover, mart, groat, guilder, cambric, duck (cloth), boom (of a boat), beleaguer, furlough, commodore, gin, gherkin, dollar, easel, etching, landscape, cruller, cookie, cranberry, bowery, and boodle.

F. Middle English Literature

Based on the discussion on Middle English dialects, it was clear that there were Southern dialect, Northern dialect, and Midland dialects. Works of authors then represented the dialect each of them spoke. Therefore, until the late fifteenth century, authors wrote in the dialect of their native regions. The authors of *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* and *Piers Plowman* wrote in the West Midland dialect; the authors of *The Owl and the Nightingale*, the *Ancrene Riwe*, and the *Ayenbite of Inwit* wrote in the Southern dialect (including Kentish); the author of the *Bruce* wrote in the Northern dialect; and John Gower and Geoffrey Chaucer wrote in the East Midland dialect, specifically the London variety of East Midland (Algeo, 2010: 119). John Wycliffe, William Langland, Geoffrey Chaucer, and other great authors born in Middle English era will be discussed thoroughly as follows.

John Wycliffe, also spelled Wycliff, Wyclif, Wicliffe, or Wiclif, was born circa 1330 in Yorkshire. He died on December 31, 1384. He was English theologian, philosopher, and church reformer. He promoted the first complete translation of the Bible into English. He received his formal education in the University of Oxford. In Middle Ages, Catholic Church had absolute power. The Holy Scriptures were only available in Latin in the form of the Vulgate, hand-written manuscripts, and only to those (like him) who had the privilege of an education who were able to understand Latin. Ordinary people had no access to read the Bible for themselves, besides they did not understand Latin. During the Black Death, a lot of people including clergy died. People started asking for the access to the Bible. Knowing the fact, Wycliffe initiated the Bible translation into English. He was then considered as groundbreaking of Bible translator. His version of the Bible was then known as *The Wycliffe Bible* (TWB). Three

examples below are given and taken from (<http://www.bible-researcher.com/wyclif3.html>).

John 14:1-7. Be not youre herte affraied, ne drede it. Ye bileuen in god, and bileue ye in me. In the hous of my fadir ben many dwellyngis: if ony thing lasse I hadde seid to you, for I go to make redi to you a place. And if I go and make redi to you a place, eftsonen I come and I schal take you to my silf, that where I am, ye be. And whidir I go ye witen: and ye witen the wey. Thomas seith to him, Lord, we witen not whidir thou goist, and hou moun we wite the weie. Ihesus seith to him, I am weye truthe and liif: no man cometh to the fadir, but bi me. If ye hadden knowe me, sothli ye hadden knowe also my fadir: and aftirwarde ye schuln knowe him, and ye han seen hym.

2 Cor. 1:17-20. But whanne I wolde this thing, whether I uside unstidfastnesse? ether tho thingis that I thenke, I thenke aftir the fleische, that at me be it is and it is not. But god is trewe, for oure word that was at you, is and is not, is not thereinne, but is in it. Forwhi ihesus crist the sone of god, which is prechid among you bi us, bi me and siluan and tymothe, ther was not in hym is and is not, but is was in hym. Forwhi hou many euer ben biheestis of god, in thilke is ben fulfillid. And therfor and bi him we seien Amen to god, to oure glorie.

Ephesians 3:14-21. For grace of this thing I bowe my knees to the fadir of oure lord ihesus crist, of whom eche fadirheed in heuenes and in erthe is named, that he geue to you aftir the richessis of his glorie, vertu to be strengthid bi his spirit in the ynnere man; that criste dwelle bi feith in youre hertis; that ye rootid and groundid in charite, moun comprehende with alle seyntis whiche is the breede and the lengthe and the highest and the depnesse; also to wite the charite of crist more excellent thanne science, that ye be fillid in all the plente of god. And to hym that is myghti to do alle thingis more plenteuousli thanne we axen, or undirstande bi the vertu that worchith in us, to hym be glorie in the chirche and in crist ihesus in to alle the generaciouns of the worldis. Amen.

The second famous writer of Middle English era was William Langland. He was born ca. 1330 and died ca. 1400. He wrote the greatest example of Middle English alliterative poetry known as [Piers Plowman](#). It was an allegorical work with a complex variety of religious themes. The language of the poem was simple, but the imagery was powerful and direct. The simple language of the poem made it easy to be understood by common people. An excerpt of [Piers Plowman](#) is taken from <http://www.gutenberg.org/files/43660/43660-h/43660-h.htm>

In a somer seson,
Whan softe was the sonne,
I shoop me into shroudes
As I a sheep weere,
In habite as an heremite
Unholy of werkes,
Wente wide in this world
Wondres to here;
Ac on a May morwenynge

10

On Malverne hilles
Me bifel a ferly,
Of fairye me thoghte.
I was wery for-wandred,
And wente me to reste
Under a brood bank
By a bournes syde;
And as I lay and lenede,
And loked on the watres,
I slombred into a slepyng,
It sweyed so murye.

20

Thanne gan I meten
A merveillous swevene,
That I was in a wilderness,
Wiste I nevere where,
And as I biheeld into the eest
An heigh to the sonne,
I seigh a tour on a toft

Trieliche y-maked,
A deep dale bynethe,

30

A dongeon therinne,
With depe diches and derke
And dredfulle of sighte.
A fair feeld ful of folk
Fond I ther bitwene,
Of alle manere of men,
The meene and the riche,
Werchyng and wandryng,
As the world asketh.
Some putten hem to the plough,

40

Pleiden ful selde,
In settyng and sowyng
Swonken ful harde,
And wonnen that wastours
With glotonye destruyeth.
And somme putten hem to pride,
Apparailed hem therafter,
In contenance of clothyng
Comen degised.
In preires and penaunces

50

Putten hem manye,
Al for the love of oure Lord
Lyveden ful streyte,
In hope to have after
Hevene riche blisse;

As ances and heremites
That holden hem in hire selles,
And coveiten noght in contree
To carien aboute,
For no likerous liflode

60

Hire likame to plese.
And somme chosen chaffare;
Thei cheveden the better,
As it semeth to our sight
That swiche men thryveth.
And somme murthes to make,
As mynstralles konne,
And geten gold with hire glee,
Giltles, I leeve.
Ac japeres and jangeleres,

70

Judas children,
Feynen hem fantasies,
And fooles hem maketh,
And han hire wit at wille
To werken, if thei wolde.
That Poul precheth of hem
I wol nat preve it here;
But Qui loquitur turpiloquium
Is Luciferes hyne.
Bidderes and beggeres

Figure 23 taken from <https://catholicvote.org/piers-plowman> below shows the Medieval illustration of Piers Plowman.



Figure 23. Piers Plowman

Another illustration is taken from (<https://litbrick.com/comic.php?date=2010-08-23>). It depicts a young man trying to read and understand Piers Plowman.



Figure 24. A Young Man Reading Piers Plowman

The next famous writer was Geoffrey Chaucer. He was born in 1342 and considered as a writer with most contribution to Middle English. Middle English pronunciation was also called Chaucer's pronunciation. He was a poet with bravery. In times of Latin and French use, he chose to use English. Chaucer refused to use both languages. He transformed the East Midland dialect into a full-fledged language of England. No wonder that Rev. John Dart, in his famous line, praised Chaucer in the following lines:

*To Chaucer's Name eternal Trophies raise
And load the antique Stone with wreaths of Bays
Father of Verse! who in immortal Song,
First taught the Muse to speak the English Tongue.
(Westminster Abbey by Rev. John Dart, <http://spenserians.cath.vt.edu/TextRecord.php?action=GET&textsid=33937>). The early life of Chaucer is also best described in the following video (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jb5lhu_Awow).*



A picture of Chaucer (Figure 24) below is taken from <https://www.biography.com/writer/geoffrey-chaucer>



Figure 25. Geoffrey Chaucer

Some of his works were *Troilus and Criseyde*, *The Legend of Good Women*, *A Treatise on the Astrolabe*, and the greatest *The Canterbury Tales*. It was *The Canterbury Tales* that became his best known and most acclaimed work. In 1357, he became a public servant to Countess Elizabeth

of Ulster and continued in that capacity with the British court throughout his lifetime. He died on October 25, 1400 in London, England, and was the first to be buried in Westminster Abbey's Poet's Corner (<https://www.biography.com/writer/geoffrey-chaucer>). The Canterbury Tales' description below is provided by TED Talk from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h0ZrBr9DOWA>



The Canterbury Tales consisted of *The General Prologue*, *The Knight's Tale*, *The Miller's Tale*, *The Reeve's Tale*, *The Cook's Tale*, *The Man of Law's Tale*, *The Wife of Bath's Tale*, *The Friar's Tale*, *The Summoner's Tale*, *The Clerk's Tale*, *The Merchant's Tale*, *The Squire's Tale*, *The Franklin's Tale*, *The Second Nun's Tale*, *The Canon's Yeoman's Tale*, *The Physician's Tale*, *The Pardoner's Tale*, *The Shipman's Tale*, *The Prioress's Tale*, *The Tale of Sir Thopas*, *The Tale of Melibeus* (in prose), *The Monk's Tale*, *The Nun's Priest's Tale*, *The Manciple's Tale*, and *The Parson's Tale* (in prose), and ended with Chaucer's *Retraction*. Not all the tales were complete; several contained their own prologues or epilogues. An archaic picture of Chaucer from the manuscript of the Canterbury Tales below is taken from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/The-Canterbury-Tales>



Figure 26. Chaucer and the Canterbury Tales Manuscript

Chaucer's contribution to Middle English was, among other writers, the upmost achievement linguistically and literary. It was also English linguistic accomplishment in general. Not only did he contribute to English literature, but also to pronunciation and spelling. His intelligent role as the first writer to use English (Middle English) purely was highly appreciated. He could prove that writing in vernacular was beautiful, enjoyable, and deep.

Despite that fact that people sometimes found it hard to understand his language, this did not make them stop trying. In total, he introduced more than 2,000 new words to English language as well as reintroduced very old words which had been out of favour such as *churlish*, *farting*, *friendly*, *learning*, *loving*, *restless*, *wifely*, and *willingly*. Lexicographers then reacted to it by writing a special dictionary on his language. In turn, the dictionary became a source of learning and research linguistically, especially regarding corpora and style.

His writing style gave birth to a new stream called Chaucerian. His writing style was different from his predecessors who wrote in Germanic style. Germanic style focused more on alliteration than rhyme. However, he introduced rhyme for the first time in English language literature. His rhyme was specifically called rhyme royal, i.e. seven-line iambic pentameter stanza rhyming ababbcc. An example of his work was *Troilus* and *Criseyde*. Each verse had seven lines in a rough iambic pentameter (unstressed syllable, stressed syllable x 5) as in ‘Have *here* a swerd and *smyteth* of myn *hed*!’ as follows.

<i>With that she gan hire face for to wrye</i>	<i>a</i>
<i>With the shete, and wax for shame al reed;</i>	<i>b</i>
<i>And Pandarus gan under for to prie,</i>	<i>a</i>
<i>And seyde, ‘Nece, if that I shal be ded,</i>	<i>b</i>
<i>Have here a swerd and smyteth of myn hed!’</i>	<i>b</i>
<i>With that his arm al sodeynly he thriste</i>	<i>c</i>
<i>Under hire nekke, and at the laste hire kyste.</i>	<i>c</i>

Apart from linguistics and literature, Chaucer was also a source of philosophical analysis. A lot of philosophers, scholars, and critics wrote about him and criticized him. The criticism was of different angles, i.e. Historicism, New Criticism, Marxism, Feminism, Structuralism, and Postcolonialism. Thus, it was not surprising that he was called the greatest writer of the Middle Ages.

To get close to one of his masterpieces, an excerpt of *General Prologue* in *The Canterbury Tales* along with its Modern English Translation below is given and taken from <https://chaucer.fas.harvard.edu/pages/general-prologue-0>

- 1 **Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote**
When April with its sweet-smelling showers
- 2 **The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,**
Has pierced the drought of March to the root,
- 3 **And bathed every veyne in swich licour**
And bathed every vein (of the plants) in such liquid
- 4 **Of which vertu engendred is the flour;**
By which power the flower is created;
- 5 **Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth**
When the West Wind also with its sweet breath,
- 6 **Inspired hath in every holt and heeth**
In every wood and field has breathed life into

- 7 **The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne**
The tender new leaves, and the young sun
- 8 **Hath in the Ram his half cours yronne,**
Has run half its course in Aries,
- 9 **And smale foweles maken melodye,**
And small fowls make melody,
- 10 **That slepen al the nyght with open ye**
Those that sleep all the night with open eyes
- 11 **(So priketh hem Nature in hir corages),**
(So Nature incites them in their hearts),
- 12 **Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,**
Then folk long to go on pilgrimages,
- 13 **And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,**
And professional pilgrims to seek foreign shores,
- 14 **To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;**
To distant shrines, known in various lands;
- 15 **And specially from every shires ende**
And specially from every shire's end
- 16 **Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende,**
Of England to Canterbury they travel,
- 17 **The hooly blisful martir for to seke,**
To seek the holy blessed martyr,
- 18 **That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.**
Who helped them when they were sick.

G. Worksheet 3

Answer the following questions correctly

1. Who were the Normans?

2. Who were replaced by the Normans after the Battle of Hastings?

3. How many languages were used in England during the Normans?

4. How did the Normans lose its Normandy?

5. What caused the growth of national feeling in England?

6. How many dialects did Middle English have?

7. What change (a) did Middle English noun undergo?

8. What was the most significant change in Middle English verb?

9. Mention 5 (five) French loanwords of Culture, Religion, and Art in Middle English

10. How was Chaucer different from other poets especially his predecessors?

H. Reflection

1. When did you feel (for the first time) as being Indonesian?
2. As Indonesian, when do you feel being Indonesian the most?

CHAPTER IV

MODERN ENGLISH

This chapter discusses early Modern English: the linguistic features of early Modern English, Early Modern English varieties, and literary works in early Modern English. It also deals with contemporary Modern English: the linguistic features of Contemporary Modern English, Contemporary Modern English varieties, and literary works in Contemporary Modern English. Besides.

Target Competence

- Hard Skill:
The students are able to describe linguistic features of early and contemporary Modern English, its varieties and its literary works, introduction of English to the American continent, the linguistic features of American English, and the literary works written in American English.
- Soft Skill:
The students are aware of continuous change in human nature and human products and are able to adapt themselves with the situations where they are in

Instructional Process

- Presentation of materials by a group students
- Class discussion of presented materials under the lecturer's guidance
- Generalization by students under the lecturer's guidance
- Individual assignment: Students do their assignment worksheet (Worksheet 4)

Indicator

- Good presentation slides and good presentation.
- Complete, adequate and correct answers to questions

Sub-topics

- a. Early Modern English**
- b. The Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century (1650-1800)**
- c. The Nineteenth Century**
- d. Modern English Sound**
- e. Modern English Grammar**
- f. Modern English Lexicon**
- g. Modern English Literature**
- h. Worksheet 4**
- i. Reflection**

A. Early Modern English

A.1. The Renaissance 1500-1650

Three historic events in England (the Norman Conquest, Hundred Years War, and Black Death) gave huge impact to the development of English. English struggled to regain its permanent position in its own homeland. Great writers of the Middle Ages started the spread of English through literature. Universities used English instead of French or Latin. English developed fast through education and invention.

The Renaissance characteristic was that *carpe diem* (celebrate/seize the day) replaced the medieval *memento mori* ('remember that you will die'). The Renaissance is a time of freedom of ideas; for language that means freedom in creating and borrowing words (Gelderen, 2006: 155).

The Middle Ages were ages of invention. There were at least ten medieval inventions which changed the world. Three of them were invention of printing press, eyeglasses, and public library. Before the invention of printing press, two notable universities in England, Oxford and Cambridge, had used expensive material to support their need for paper. Hence, writing materials had been very expensive.

William Caxton introduced printing press in 1476. Printing press made English development in significant progress. Number of books increased rapidly reaching more than 35,000 copies. Books were more accessible by many people. Books were no longer luxury. Education too made remarkable progress. Books and education gave birth to powerful force to promote English, both as a language of instruction and medium of communication.

Printing press encouraged literacy. People were more aware of it by being able to write and read. Other types of writing product were produced such as almanacs, novels, magazines, and newspapers. Magazines and newspapers were issued in tremendous copies each day. Again, this brought about language development and spread. The Renaissance marked itself as a platform for philosophy, art, and literature discovery.

Middle Ages also gave birth to automobile, railroad, steamship, radio, and post office. Trade and communication were two key factors succeeding the process of English development. Cultural contacts and product exchanges drove people to employ English even more. British Empire started enlarging their capacity and business coverage. More vocabularies were used during transactions.

Latin that had been used as language of instruction at schools, law, church, and literature was slowly left by its users. The rapid progress of book circulation made English more favourable. The changing trend was driven by the need for more vocabulary to denote new things. Latin was seen as insufficient to accommodate the need. It was unable to cope up with the changing era.

Eventually, after being educated and equipped with more literacy, people were then aware of their language. Education, literacy, and readings made them aware of speaking and writing in standard language. Standardization became a part of their need in social circle. In other words, they required themselves to write well and to speak well.

Accordingly, some linguistic elements played greater role in this phenomenon. Pronunciation, grammar, spelling, and vocabulary were required to be even more standard. The standardization was gained through readings in newspaper, magazine, book, and other written products.

There were linguistic problems to solve in the era. Apart from the fact that people required language standardization, English people also had to face other challenges. They were invaded and conquered for centuries. The invasion and conquest generated linguistic problems such as Latin that was too dominant for centuries, no uniformity in spelling or orthography, and the need for new words or vocabularies to denote new things.

Eventhough English had stronger position in England, it was still way too difficult to compete with Latin or Greek as source of learning and wisdom. For centuries, both languages had been languages of philosophy, religion, and literature. Latin too had been a sign of educated class. English people had to make their best effort struggling with their limited English language resource, imperfect pronunciation, unmastered English grammar, and limited stock of vocabulary. Lexically, English words were amplified in the Renaissance through several other manners as follows:

A.1.1. Adaptation

Word adaptation left two possibilities. Some might still maintain the original form. Some might go through phonological adaptation. Latin words like medium, appendix, and axis were still in their original Latinate form. Another example like exotic had gone through adaptation. Originally, it was *exoticus*. English cut off its ending.

A.1.2. Inkhorn Terms

In relation with vocabulary, Latin and Greek had first offered their inkhorn terms. Inkhorn terms were terms rarely spoken but mainly written. Literally, a pen was dipped into an ink container made of horn. Learned writers borrowed fancy words from those two classical languages to embellish their works. Examples of inkhorn terms were celebrate, frivolous, hereditary, ingenious, reciprocal, relinquish, strenuous, fatigate, furibund, oblatrant, and turgidous.

Not all English speakers agreed upon inkhorn terms. There were a lot of speakers refusing the existence of those terms due to their difficulty, unfamiliarity, and obscurity. Word borrowings were in difficult stage. However, some inkhorn terms were still in existence. This was part of compromise. Another form of compromise was shown through permanent word addition. Basic Latin words were introduced such as external, expensive, appropriate, and disability. Some were Latin words, yet some were Greek words.

A.1.3. Introduction to New Meanings

Word borrowing could occur several times for exactly the same word or term. Latin word *discus* had been borrowed in Old English era and adapted to *dish*. In the next era, it was again borrowed and adapted to *disc*. In medical field, it was maintained as *discus*. *Discus* carried different meaning when introduced for the second time.

A.1.4. Word Borrowings from Romance Languages

The Renaissance marked large word borrowings to English from nearly fifty foreign languages. Three major sources of loanword were three Romance Languages (Italian, Spanish, and French). English people travelled a lot for trade and education. From French they got alloy, ambushade, baluster, bigot, bizarre, bombast, chocolate, comrade, detail, duel, entrance, equip, equipage, essay, explore, genteel, mustache, naturalize, probability, progress, retrenchment, shock, and surpass.

A.1.5. Introducing New Words in Literary Writings

Latin loanwords were introduced to public through writings. The Renaissance writers played an important role in making Latin loanwords public. Writers became individuals who made English rich and richer in vocabulary. Loanwords in writings such as *comprehensible*, *concomitance*, *congratulatory*, *contradictory*, *damnability*, *denunciation*,

detector, dissipate, endurable, eruditely, exact, exaggerate, exasperate, explain, extenuate, fact, frivolous, impenitent, implacable, incorporeal, indifference, insinuate, inveigh, inviolable, irrefragable, monopoly, monosyllable, necessitate, obstruction, and paradox were introduced by Sir Thomas More and Sir Thomas Elyot. The two great writers and others were also recognized as “the makers of English” (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 214). In chronological order, Table 19 below presents the Renaissance writers (Gelderen, 2006: 159).

Table 19. The Renaissance Writers

Elizabeth I (1533–1603)	Edmund Spenser (1552–1599)
Walter Raleigh (1552–1618)	Philip Sidney (1554–1586)
John Lyly (1554–1606)	Thomas Kyd (1558–1594)
Francis Bacon (1561–1626)	Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593)
William Shakespeare (1564–1616)	Thomas Dekker (1570–1632)
Cyril Tourneur (1570/80–1626)	Ben Jonson (1572–1637)
John Donne (1572–1631)	John Fletcher (1579–1625)
John Webster (1580–1625)	Thomas Middleton (1580–1627)
Philip Massinger (1583–1639)	Francis Beaumont (1584–1616)
John Ford (1586–1640)	John Milton (1608–1674)
Margaret Cavendish (1623–1673),	John Bunyan (1628–1688)
John Dryden (1631–1700)	Samuel Pepys (1633–1703)
Aphra Behn (1640–1689)	

The use of Latin loanword is best illustrated in Figure 27 below (<https://www.sfgate.com/comics/ck/Crock/2019-10-03/>)

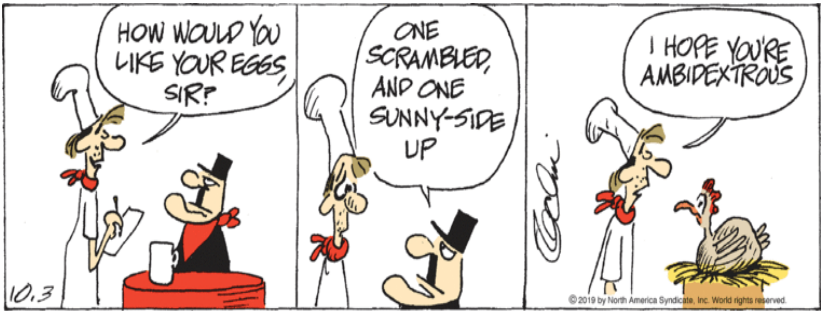


Figure 27. Latin Loanword “Ambidextrous”

A.2. Dictionaries

Dictionaries were first written in the Renaissance. A dictionary listing English words was *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* in 1721 by Nathaniel Bailey. Other dictionaries were *A Table Alphabeticall of Hard Words* in 1604 by Robert Cawdrey, *English Expositor* in 1616 by John Bullokar, and *English Dictionarie* in 1623 by Henry Cockeram.

A.3. Shakespeare

Shakespeare provided and contributed the biggest number of words to English. He possessed resourceful and rich words in his works. He invented more than 1,500 words. He invented new words by conjoining two words and changing inter-class of word, such as changing verb into adjective. Some examples below were taken from his works.

That, face to face and royal eye to eye.

*You have **congreeted**.*

(Henry V, Act 5, Scene 2)

The word “congreeted” might not be familiar at that time. Shakespeare conjoin the word “greet” and prefix “con-” meaning “with”. Therefore, “congreeted” meant to acknowledge somebody.

And what so poor a man as Hamlet is

May do, to express his love and friending to you

(Hamlet, Act 1, Scene 5)

He changed noun into verb in the word “friending”. He was the first writer using “friend” as verb.

*His heart **fracted** and corroborate.*

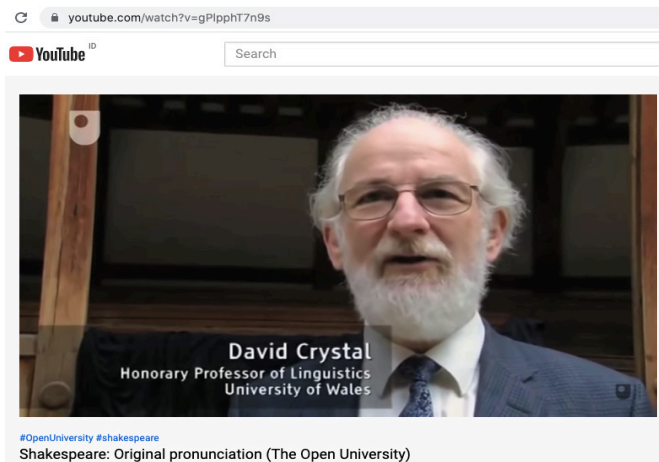
(Henry V, Act 2, Scene 1)

He also employed Latin loanword in “fracted”. It meant broken. He erased suffix –us and replaced it with –ed.

Not only did Shakespeare leave a lot of vocabularies, but he also became the role model for pronunciation. Baugh & Cable mention that Shakespeare’s pronunciation was much more like ours than has always been realized (2002: 218). Furthermore, Baugh & Cable elaborate that

he pronounced [e] for [i] in some words just as tay for tea. The falling together of er, ir, ur (e.g., herd, birth, hurt) was under way but not yet completed. ME ē was sometimes open, sometimes close [ɛ: e:] and the two sounds were still distinct in Shakespeare’s day, [e:] and [i:] respectively. Consequently, sea [se:] does not normally rhyme with see [si:] heap with keep, speak with seek (2002: 218-219).

David Crystal, a notable linguist, provides a guidance to Shakespeare original pronunciation at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gPlpphT7n9s>



In relation to the OP (Original Pronunciation) of Shakespeare, Figure 28 below provides the OP of A Midsummer Night's Dream, Act 1, Scene 1 (<https://www.paulmeier.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/03/OP.pdf>)

But with thy brawls thou hast disturb'd our sport.
^{a a a 8 2 b 7 11 2/1 1}
 bət wɪ ðɪ braʊz ðəʊ ast dɪstəbd ɔ spɔt

Therefore the winds, piping to us in vain,
^{4 1 3 e a 6 4}
 ðeɪfɔ ðə wɪnz pæɪpɪn tə ʊs ɪn veɪn

As in revenge, have suck'd up from the sea
^{a b a 6 6 8 12}
 əz ɪn ɪvɛndʒ əv sʏkt ʏp frəm ðə siː

Contagious fogs; which falling in the land
^{4 8 7 8 e 7}
 kəntɛːdʒɪəs fəgz wɪtʃ fəlɪn ɪn ðə lænd

Have every pelting river made so proud
^{b a 5 e 1 4 a 2}
 əv evɪəri peltɪŋ ɪvə məːsə prəʊd

That they have overborne their continents.
^{a 4 b a 4 1 1 4 8}
 ðæt ðeː əv ɔːvəboːn ðe kəntɪnənts

Figure 28. Shakespeare Original Pronunciation

Not only did Shakespeare leave more than 1,500 words, but he also became one of the most productive writers in the world. Table 20 presents his complete works (<http://shakespeare.mit.edu/>).

Table 20. Shakespeare Complete Works

Comedy	History	Tragedy	Poetry
All's Well That Ends Well	Henry IV, part 1	Antony and Cleopatra	The Sonnets
As You Like It	Henry IV, part 2	Coriolanus	A Lover's Complaint
The Comedy of Errors	Henry V	Hamlet	The Rape of Lucrece
Cymbeline	Henry VI, part 1	Julius Caesar	Venus and Adonis
Love's Labours Lost	Henry VI, part 2	King Lear	Funeral Elegy by W.S.
Measure for Measure	Henry VI, part 3	Macbeth	
The Merry Wives of Windsor	Henry VIII	Othello	
The Merchant of Venice	King John	Romeo and Juliet	
A Midsummer Night's Dream	Richard II	Timon of Athens	
Much Ado About Nothing	Richard III	Titus Andronicus	
Pericles, Prince of Tyre			
Taming of the Shrew			
The Tempest			
Troilus and Cressida			
Twelfth Night			
Two Gentlemen of Verona			
Winter's Tale			

All of his works were digitalized to keep up with the demand of the age. Figure 29 below shows a virtual imaginary dialogue between Steve Jobs and Shakespeare (<http://www.funnyism.com/i/funnypics/steve-jobs-and-shakespeare-1>)

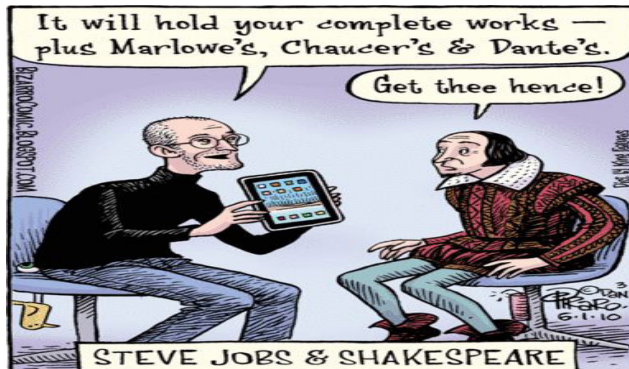


Figure 29. Steve Jobs and Shakespeare

Besides his famous plays, Shakespeare was also a remarkable poet. One of his famous poems was *Venus and Adonis*. The excerpt of it is taken from (<https://www.folgerdigitaltexts.org/download/>)

Venus and Adonis

Even as the sun with purple-colored face
Had ta'en his last leave of the weeping morn,
Rose-cheeked Adonis hied him to the chase.
Hunting he loved, but love he laughed to scorn.
Sick-thoughtèd Venus makes amain unto him 5
And, like a bold-faced suitor, gins to woo him.

“Thrice fairer than myself,” thus she began,
“The field’s chief flower, sweet above compare,
Stain to all nymphs, more lovely than a man,
More white and red than doves or roses are, 10
Nature that made thee, with herself at strife,
Saith that the world hath ending with thy life.

“Vouchsafe, thou wonder, to alight thy steed,
And rein his proud head to the saddlebow.
If thou wilt deign this favor, for thy meed 15
A thousand honey secrets shalt thou know.
Here come and sit where never serpent hisses,
And being set, I’ll smother thee with kisses,

“And yet not cloy thy lips with loathed satiety,
But rather famish them amid their plenty, 20
Making them red and pale with fresh variety—
Ten kisses short as one, one long as twenty.
A summer’s day will seem an hour but short,
Being wasted in such time-beguiling sport.”

With this she seizeth on his sweating palm, 25
The precedent of pith and livelihood,
And, trembling in her passion, calls it balm,
Earth’s sovereign salve to do a goddess good.
Being so enraged, desire doth lend her force
Courageously to pluck him from his horse. 30

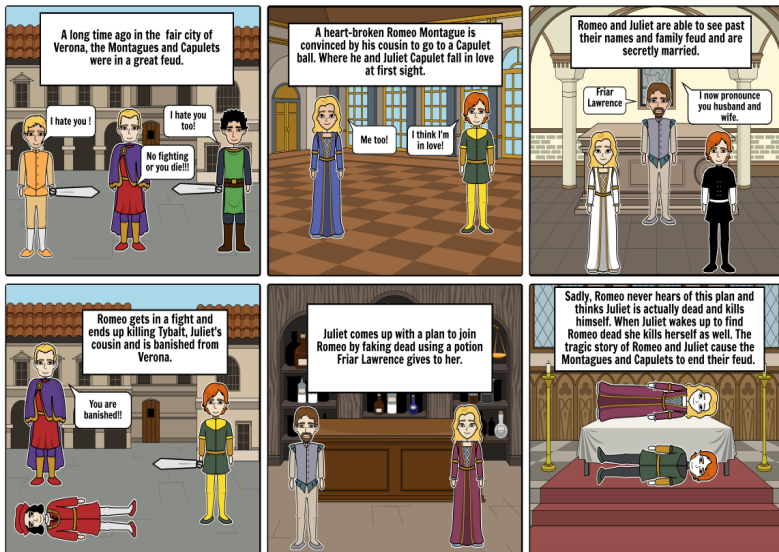
Over one arm the lusty courser's rein,
Under her other was the tender boy,
Who blushed and pouted in a dull disdain,
With leaden appetite, unapt to toy—
She red and hot as coals of glowing fire,
He red for shame but frosty in desire.

35

The studded bridle on a ragged bough
Nimble she fastens. O, how quick is love!
The steed is stallèd up, and even now
To tie the rider she begins to prove.
Backward she pushed him as she would be thrust,
And governed him in strength though not in lust.

40

Another work by Shakespeare which became a masterpiece of all time was Romeo and Juliet. It was widely performed, criticized, reproduced, and interpreted. Some scenes in comic strip form below are taken from (<https://www.storyboardthat.com>).



Create your own at Storyboard That

Figure 30. Romeo and Juliet Comic Strip

A.4. The Great Vowel Shift

The shift from Middle to Modern English was marked by Great Vowel Shift (GVS). GVS was defined as the change in pronunciation of

tense vowels helping to demark Middle from Modern English and was the most salient of all phonological developments in the history of English (Algeo, 2010: 144). The shift did not occur overnight. The stages started from 1400 shortly after Chaucer’s death to late of 1700 (early Modern English). The stages of GVS were summarized by Gelderen (2002: 162) as follows.

Table 21. Dates of Great Vowel Shift Changes

spelling	1400	1500	1600	1700	ModE
i (ice)	i	eɨ	ɛɨ	aɨ	aɨ
ee (meet)	e	i	i	i	i
ea (meat/great)	ɛ	ɛ	eɨ	i/eɨ	i/eɨ
a (ace)	a	a>ɛ	ɛ	eɨ	eɨ
ou (out)	u	ow	w	aw	aw
oo (boot)	o	u	u	u	u
oa (boat)	ɔ	ɔ	o	ow	ow

All long vowels shifted before early Modern English. Algeo summarizes long vowels in Table 22 as follows (2010: 144)

Table 22. Long Vowels

LONG VOWELS					
Late Middle English		Early Modern English		Later English	
[a:] name	→	[æ:]	→	[ɛ:]	→ [e] name
[e:] feet	→	[i]	→		feet
[ɛ:] greet	→	[e]	→		great
[i:] ride	→	[əɪ]	→	[aɪ]	ride
[o:] boote	→	[u]	→		boot
[ɔ:] boot	→	[o]	→		boat
[u:] hous	→	[əʊ]	→	[aʊ]	house

Old English was full of inflections. During Middle English, the complex Old English inflectional system was gone. This, in turn, caused different vowel length leading to the shift of long vowels. In phonological terms, Algeo (2010: 145) asserts that

- a) the Middle English high vowels [i:] and [u:] were diphthongized, and then the vowels were centralized and lowered in two steps, first to [əɪ] and [əʊ], then to [aɪ] and [aʊ]

- b) each of the Middle English mid vowels was raised one step—higher mid [e:] and [o:] to [i] and [u], respectively, and then lower mid [ɛ:] and [ɔ:] to [e] and [o], respectively,
- c) the low vowel [a:] was fronted to [æ:] and then raised in two steps through [ɛ:] to [e].
- d) Furthermore, Algeo presents the summary of GVS in Figure 31 (2010: 145).

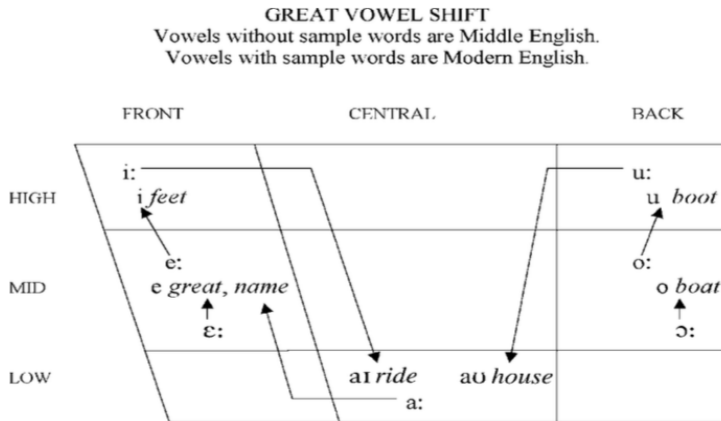


Figure 31. Great Vowel Shift

As the result of GVS, most vowels raised. To see the effects of the shift, Table 23 below is presented. Besides, it is given to see the differences between Chaucer's pronunciation and Shakespear's pronunciation (https://gawron.sdsu.edu/fundamentals/course_core/lectures/historical/historical.htm).

Table 23. Chaucer's and Shakespeare's Pronunciation

	Chaucer	Shakespeare	
i:	[frf]	five	[faɪv]
e:	[me:de]	meed	[mi:d]
ɛ:	[kle:nə]	clean	[kle:n] (now [kli:n])
æ:	[na:mə]	name	[ne:m]
ɔ:	[go:tə]	goat	[go:t]
o:	[ro:tə]	root	[ru:t]
u:	[dʌ:n]	down	[daʊn]

A.5. Weakening of Unaccented Vowels

There were periods where vowels of unstressed syllables became weak and some often disappeared, for example in vowels at the beginning of again, alive, upon, arrest, occur. Those vowels were simply pronounced as [ə] or became Schwa. The same thing applied to unstressed middle or final syllable in elegant, doctor, banana. It was evident that spelling did not represent pronunciation. The spelling was generally maintained.

B. The Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century (1650-1800)

After the Renaissance, there were still some historic events affecting the development of English approaching its modern era. The eighteenth-century history was also marked by a movement called the Enlightenment by relying on science, reason, and concern for humanity. This movement produced scientific and philosophical works, including works of grammar and dictionaries. Table 24 below presents the 17th and 18th century writers (Gelderen, 2006: 204).

Table 24. The 17th and 18th Century Writers

Isaac Newton (1643–1727)	Jonathan Swift (1667–1745)
Joseph Addison (1672–1719)	Richard Steele (1672–1729)
George Berkeley (1685–1753)	Alexander Pope (1688–1744)
Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790)	David Hume (1711–1776)
Adam Smith (1723–1790)	Joseph Priestley (1733–1804)
Thomas Paine (1737–1809)	Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826)
Phyllis Wheatley (1754–1784)	William Blake (1757–1827)
Robert Burns (1759–1796)	William Wordsworth (1770–1850)
Dorothy Wordsworth (1771–1855)	Walter Scott (1771–1832)
Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772–1834)	Jane Austen (1775–1817)
George Byron (1788–1824)	James Fenimore Cooper (1789–1851)
Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822)	John Keats (1795–1821)
Mary Wollstonecraft Shelley (1797–1851)	

War, political conflict, and state crisis also affected the use of language and language itself. Language users were divided into some groups due to unlimited access to the language. Each group had its own perspective concerning the use of language and in seeing the language. One of the groups had stronger will in refining the language or had purist attitude. Its members saw that English was not “pure”. They observed that “purity” of English had been started by Chaucer. English had to be in its perfection. Those conservatives then made some efforts in order to “purify” English and took some imperfections away.

The conservatives took “unwanted” words away. They thought that the influx of foreign terms caused English in imperfect state. Besides foreign terms, they also refused shortened terms such as rep for reputation. In other words, they did not accept the existence of monosyllabic words.

Fixing the ill language was the most significant effort in the eighteenth century. Baugh & Cable mention that there were three purposes in codifying English: first, to reduce the language rule and set up a standard for its correct usage, second, to refine English by removing supposed defects and introducing certain improvements, and third, to fix English permanently in the desired form (2002: 241). Jonathan Swift was one among popular figures in the field. He observed that English must be standardized and fixed to meet a certain level of standardization and then made it permanent as in his proposal entitled *A Porposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Language* in 1712. The excerpt of the proposal below is taken from <https://ebooks.adelaide.edu.au/s/swift/jonathan/s97p/>

My Lord,

What I had the Honour of mentioning to Your Lordship some time ago in Conversation, was not a new Thought, just then started by Accident or Occasion, but the Result of long Reflection; and I have been confirmed in my Sentiments by the Opinion of some very judicious Persons, with whom I consulted. They all agreed, That noting would be of greater Use towards the Improvement of Knowledge and Politeness, than some effectual Method for Correcting, Enlarging, and Ascertaining our Language; and they think it a Work very possible to be compassed, under the Protection of a Prince, the Countenance and Encouragement of a Ministry, and the Care of Proper Persons chosen for such an Undertaking.

Another effort was made by Thomas Cooke in 1729 when he published *Proposals for Perfecting the English Language*. Here Cooke proposed verb formation of changing all strong verbs to weak, plural noun formation using –s or –es, and adjective comparison formation using only more and most.

Among other efforts, the publication of Samuel Johnson's dictionary *A Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755 was considered as the most successful. He soon invited enthusiastic followers who named themselves Johnsonian. The dictionary exhibited full and more complete features of words including fixed spelling and standard use of words. He also showed his perspective regarding diverse dialects and different spelling and pronunciation. He tolerated them all by saying that English truly possessed anomalies. It was lexicographers' duty to correct them. This dictionary was a means for the next linguists to strive for other linguistic elements of the English language.

Grammar became a linguistic element which had been studied for the most part. The most remarkable grammar movement in the eighteenth century was the establishment of English Prescriptive Grammar or Traditional Grammar. This was Latin-like grammar and initiated by Robert Lowth (1710–1787). He was a theologian, Hebraist, and professor of poetry in Oxford University from 1741 to 1753. As the name suggested, it was a set of rules, norms of correct and incorrect usage of English. All English users had to obey these rules (prescription). Besides Lowth, another prominent figure of Prescriptive Grammar was Lindley Murray who wrote *English Grammar*. Those prescriptive grammarians believed that Latin grammar was perfect and aimed at doing three things as Baugh & Cable suggest (2002: 261):

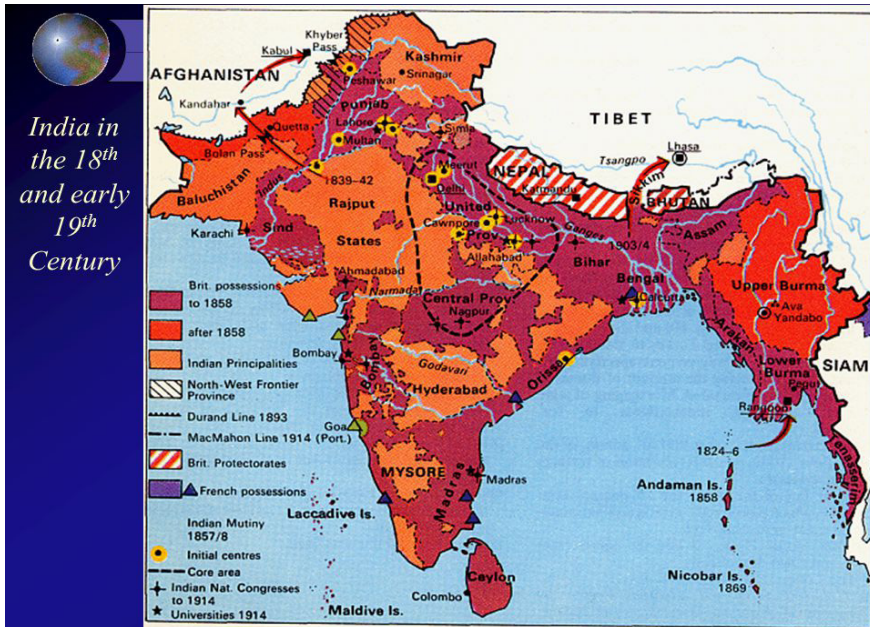
1. To codify the principles and norms of English and then reduce them into rules
2. To solve disputed matters and decide their use
3. To identify common English errors and then correct them and improve the use of English.

Early grammarians too had weakness. They failed to recognize changes in English. As a living language, English did change.

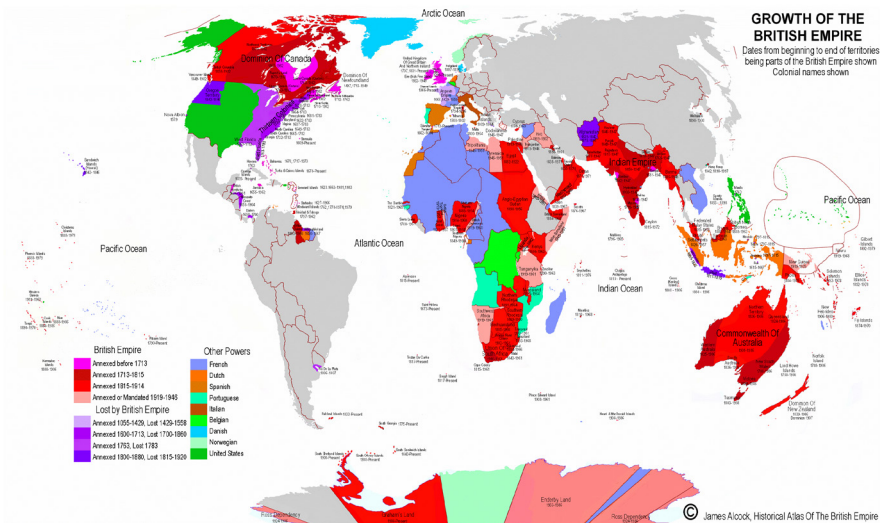
The development of Traditional Grammar happened while British Empire expanded their territories outside British Isles. The birth of British colonies was caused by political policies and trade activities. This marked the birth of English-speaking countries outside Britain. It was then called the story of expansion. The expansion itself took around a century from 1750 to 1850. Britain was the leading player in economy among European countries. It was also the first nation to industrialize. The growth of

trade, industry, and agriculture played as strong platform for it to start a cooperation with and even settle in other territories.

It started its network by building colonies in East Indies and permanent settlement in Barbados. Merchants went out reaching far lands. Goods exports were high including tea, sugar, tobacco, and textile. These also raised human trade or slavery. In East Indies, it built East India Company with London as its headquarter. All imperial trades and colonization, at the same time, generated and supported spread of English. Two maps below were provided to illustrate British empire colonization in India in the 18th and 19th century and around the world. Map 15 is taken from <https://slideplayer.com/slide/4506103/> and Map 16 is taken from mintwiki.pbworks.com/f/1439235976/exhaustive%20map%20of%20british%20empire.gif



Map 14. British Colonies in India in the 18th Century



Map 15. Growth of British Colonies in the 17th and 18th Century

C. The Nineteenth Century

There were two important movements happening in the eighteenth and nineteenth century namely Enlightenment and Romanticism. Enlightenment had been described and discussed in the previous chapter. While Romanticism was intellectual movement emphasizing the individual, the personal with subjective approach towards nature, mysticism, passion, and dream. The two were then responsible for some political and social movements such as American Independence in 1776, French Revolution in 1789, and slave trade abolition by British Parliament in 1807. Imperialism and industrialism also brought about changes in English language as well as attitude towards English. Baugh & Cable (2002: 280-284) lists vocabularies invented in the 19th century as follows

C.1. Science Development

There were new terms invented due to the development of science. Medicine contributed bronckhitis, diphtheria, anemia, AIDS, bacteria, morphine, hormones, cholesterol, and appendicitis. Electricity developed its terms as light, dynamo, and commutator. Physics made its terms as relativity, quantum, electron, and ultraviolet. Chemistry created alkali, cyanide, radium, and biochemical. The development of space science also created astronaut, cosmonaut, space, spacecraft, shuttle, and command module.

C.2. Invention of Automobile, Computer, and Broadcasting

Many new terms were introduced due to the invention of automobile, computer, and broadcasting. In automobile, its new terms were park, sedan, saloon, coupe, trailer, caravan, carburetor, plug, clutch, gearshift, gear, piston ring, steering wheel, brake, choke, hood, radiator, chassis, bumper, transmission, turbocharger, tyre, station wagon, city car, garage, patrol, gasoline, windscreen, spare, and blowout. The invention of computer added new terms such as memory, random-access memory, byte, megabyte, terabyte, modem, software, hardware, folder, cursor, hacker, download, upload, chip, network, workstation, and debug. Entertainment industry through film, radio, and television was best described by its terms as cinema, anchor, moving picture, shooting, set, screen, reel, film, roll, scenario, projector, close-up, stereo, subwoofer, medium-shot, bump-in, panning, fade-out, three-D, broadcast, on air, aerial, antenna, receiver, lead-in, loudspeaker, amplifier, stand by, microphone, transmitter, and newscaster.

C.3. World Wars

World Wars I and II gave huge impact to language as well as its speakers. New terms were added such as camouflage, blimp, air raid, machine gun, magazine, grenade, cootie, slacker, dugout, periscope, blackout, blitz, shelter, jeep, bombing, troop, taskforce, crashlanding, radar, bottleneck, iron curtain, cold war, roadblock, and alert.

C.4. Slang

Slang appeared for the first time in London around 1800. It was applied to criminals in London. Slang was developed from value's dispute. People expressing hostility, anger, or contempt might use it. It was understood only by certain people in a certain group. Therefore, slang could not be considered as something universal nor formal. Different group might use different slang. Slang was mostly used in spoken expression. Any words which had been slangy could be accepted as something formal on the next day. Slang changed over time. The term "nerd" for instance, it had been slangy for some years. Then it was accepted widely as something "high". The same thing was also true to the phrase "put down".

C.5. Gender Issues and Linguistic Awareness

Gender issues had not been properly addressed before the nineteenth century. English had been a sexist language. Started the 1970s, gender issues and linguistic awareness occurred and were well taken care of. To

eliminate sexism, English speakers changed their diction into something “neutral”. Men had referred to both man and woman. Linguistic awareness made it into she/he, or simply people. The term mankind was also transformed into humankind or humanbeings. Job titles ending in –man, as in chairman was changed into –person and then became chairperson.

C.6. The Birth of Oxford English Dictionary (OED)

The Oxford English Dictionary started its first publication in 1857. This first publication, however, was considered as incomplete. Exploring the birth of OED was always interesting, especially knowing that this dictionary would become the first reference for students and linguists of English. According to <https://public.oed.com/history/>, OED started when The Philological Society of London called for a new English Dictionary to re-examine the first publication that was deficient. Then in 1879, the Society signed an agreement with the Oxford University Press (OUP) and James Murray to commence working on a new English Dictionary that was eventually known as the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), consisting of a four-volume, 6,400-page work that would include all English language vocabulary from the Early Middle English period (1150 AD) onward, plus some earlier words if they had continued to be used into Middle English.

Prominent figures led and became board of editorial team of OED. They were Sir James Murray, Sir William Craigie, Henry Bradley, Frederick James Furnivall, Herbert Coleridge, and C.T. Onions. Figure 32 shows Sir James Murray (sitting in the middle) and his Oxford University editorial team in 1915 (<https://allthatsinteresting.com/oxford-english-dictionary-history>)



Figure 32. James Murray and Oxford University Editorial Team 1915

C.7. The Birth of Prominent English Writers

Industry and the growth of English gave birth to prominent English writers. Industrial era made paper and printing easy to find. Copies were more accessible and public libraries also took part in making novels and other literary works more public. Table 25 below presents the 19th century English writers (Gelderen, 2006: 205).

Table 25. The 19th Century English Writers

Ralph Emerson (1803–1882)	Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–1864)
Elizabeth Barrett Browning (1806–1861)	Alfred Tennyson (1808–1892)
Charles Darwin (1809–1882)	Elizabeth Gaskell (1810–1865)
Harriet Beecher Stowe (1811–1896)	Robert Browning (1812–1889)
Charles Dickens (1812–1870)	Henry Thoreau (1817–1862)
Charlotte Brontë (1816–1855)	Emily Brontë (1818–1848)
George Eliot (1819–1880)	Herman Melville (1819–1891)
Anne Brontë (1820–1849)	Emily Dickenson (1830–1886)
Louisa Alcott (1832–1888)	Lewis Carroll (1832–1898)
Mark Twain (1835–1910)	Thomas Hardy (1840–1928)
Rudyard Kipling (1865–1936)	

D. Modern English Sound

Modern English had discrepancies between its orthography and pronunciation, for instance cough /kɒf/. Brinton (2000: 18) summarizes types of discrepancy as follows:

- a) one sound can be represented by a variety of letters, as with the vowel sound in meat, meet, city, key, ceiling, people, niece, evil, and quay;
- b) one letter can represent a variety of sounds, as with d in damage, educate, picked;
- c) a letter or letters may represent no sound at all, as in knee, gnat, lamb, receipt, right, honor, rhyme, psalm, and salmon;
- d) two or more letters may represent a single sound, as in throne, chain, edge, shore, nation, itch, inn, school, eat, friend, too, leopard, cause, blood, or lieutenant;
- e) a letter may simply indicate the quality of a neighboring sound, as in dinner vs. diner;

- f) a single letter may represent two or more sounds, as in box (x = ks); and
- g) some sounds have no graphic representation, as with the initial sounds in university and one.

Sounds were produced by organs of speech. Those were lips, teeth, alveolar ridge, and hard palate. Figure 33 below shows the complete organs of speech (<https://www.researchgate.net/>)

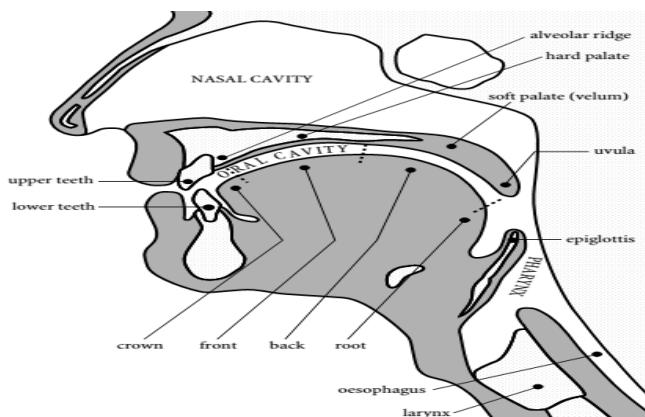


Figure 33. Organs of Speech

D.1. Modern English Consonant Sounds

Modern English had consonant sounds based on place and manner of articulation. Consonant sounds were produced with stricture and closure of air stream. There were types of consonant sound based on places of articulation namely bilabial, labiodental, interdental, dental, alveolar, alveopalatal, palatal, velar, uvular, pharyngeal, and glottal. Figure 34 below shows places of articulation (Brinton, 2000: 25)

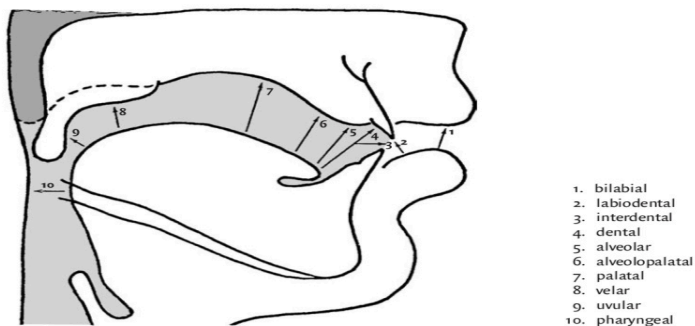


Figure 34. Places of Articulation

English consonant sounds had different features. Brinton (2000: 23) differentiates those based on the state of the glottis: in vibration (voiced) or open (voiceless) and the state of the velum: lowered (nasal) or raised (oral). Based on manner of articulation, there were stop, nasal, fricative, affricate, trill, flap, and approximant. To summarize, Table 26 below was given showing all consonant sounds in English (<https://www.thinglink.com/>)

Table 26. English Consonant Sounds

		MANNER	VOICING	PLACE					
				Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Obstruent	Stop	Voiceless	p			t		k	ʔ
		Voiced	b			d		g	
	Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
		Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
	Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ		
		Voiced					dʒ		
Sonorant	Liquid	Nasal	Voiced	m			n		ŋ
		Lateral	Voiced				l		
		Rhotic	Voiced				r (ɹ)		
		Glide	Voiced	w				j	(w)

D.2. Modern English Vowel Sounds

Vowel sounds in English were produced without any obstruction of the air stream or were produced with open articulation. Brinton (2000: 35) classifies vowel sounds into some types as represented in the following table.

Table 27. English Vowel Sounds

Monophthongs			
	Front	Central	Back
High (close)			
tense	i seat	ɪ just (adv)	u pool
lax	ɪ sit		ʊ put
Mid			
upper	e	ə but, tub <u>a</u>	o
lower	ɛ set	ʌ putt	ɔ port
Low (open)			
	æ sat	a	ʌ pot a father
Diphthongs			
eɪ late	aɪ file		oʊ loan
ɪʊ cute	aʊ fowl		ɔɪ foil

E. Modern English Grammar

E.1. Noun

Modern English noun was very simple compared to Old and Middle English. Noun still had inflection (-s ending) for plural marker. There were only three cases remaining (nominative, accusative, and genitive). Pronouns were also simplified as follows (Gelderen, 2006: 210).

Table 28. Modern English Pronouns

	S			P		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
NOM	I	you	s/he, it	we	you	they
GEN	my	your	her, his, its	our	your	their
ACC/DAT	me	you	her, him, it	us	you	them

E.2. Verb

The surviving strong verbs from Middle English were still in existence in Modern English. In Modern English, strong verbs were called regular verbs and weak ones were called irregular verbs. Modern English had two tenses, past and present. Inflection (-s or -es) was used for third singular as in She wash(es) her hair. Aspects (simple, progressive, active, and passive) and moods (subjunctive, imperative, and indicative) were there to enrich the meaning. Negation was expressed by adding not as in He is going into He is not going.

E.3. Adjective

Adjectives were used to describe nouns. The development of adjectives in English was interesting. In Old English, adjectives had been more complicated in nature. Then in Middle English, adjectives did not have singular and plural form. The tendency continued to Modern English. Adjectives in Modern English continued with comparative by adding –er and superlative by adding –est as in clearer – clearest. The analytical use of more and most also continued as in more beautiful – the most beautiful. Therefore, Modern English did not have double comparisons. Adjectives were formed by adding suffixes –ble, -al, -ed, -ful, -ic, -ish, -ive, -less, -like, -ly, -ous, -some, -worthy, and –y.

Characteristics of Modern English grammar could be summarized as follows

- a) Subjects were mandatory
- b) Word order was fixed (S – V – (O))
- c) New auxiliaries were introduced, e.g. get or got

The development of English sound and grammar is best described in Figure 35 of Chapter 5 Gospel according to St. Matthew of three different versions (Wycliffe, Tyndale, and King James) as follows https://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/history_early_modern.html

Wycliffe	Tyndale	King James
1. And Jhesus, seyng the puple, wente vp in to an hil; and whanne he was set, hise discipulis camen to hym.	1. When he sawe the people, he went vp into a mountayne, and when he was set, his disciples came to hym,	1. And seeing the multitudes, he went vp into a mountaine: and when he was set, his disciples came vnto him.
2. And he openyde his mouth, and tauyhte hem, and seide,	2. And he opened hys mouthe, and taught them sayinge:	2. And he opened his mouth, and taught them, saying:
3. Blessed ben pore men in spirit, for the kyngdom of heuenes is herne.	3. Blessed are the povre in sprete: for theirs is the kyngdome of heven.	3. Blessed are the poore in spirit: for theirs is the kyngdome of heauen.
4. Blessid ben mylde men, for thei schulen welde the erthe.	4. Blessed are they that morne: for they shalbe comforted.	4. Blessed are they that mourne: for they shall be comforted.
5. Blessid ben thei that mornen, for thei schulen be coumfortid.	5. Blessed are the meke: for they shall inherit the erth.	5. Blessed are the meeke: for they shall inherit the earth.
6. Blessid ben thei that hungren and thristen rytwisnesse, for thei schulen be fulfillid.	6. Blessed are they which hunger and thirst for rightwesnes: for they shalbe filled.	6. Blessed are they which doe hunger and thirst after righteousness: for they shall be filled.
7. Blessid ben merciful men, for thei schulen gete merci.	7. Blessed are the mercifull: for they shall obteyne mercy.	7. Blessed are the mercifull: for they shall obtaine mercie.
8. Blessid ben thei that ben of clene herte, for thei schulen se God.	8. Blessed are the pure in herte: for they shall se God.	8. Blessed are the pure in heart: for they shall see God.
9. Blessid ben pesible men, for thei schulen be clepid Goddis children.	9. Blessed are the peacemakers: for they shalbe called the chyl dren of God.	9. Blessed are the peacemakers: for they shall bee called the children of God.
10. Blessid ben thei that suffren persecusioun for rythfulnesse, for the kingdam of heuenes is herne.	10. Blessed are they which suffre persecution for rightwesnes sake: for theirs ys the kyngdome of heuen.	10. Blessed are they which are persecuted for righteousness sake: for theirs is the kyngdome of heauen.

Figure 35. Chapter 5 Gospel according to St. Matthew in Three Versions

F. Modern English Lexicon

Just like the two previous centuries, the twentieth century was also characterized by movements. The movements were Surrealism, Expressionism, Impressionism, and Minimalism. These too influenced English lexicon development. Political, civil, and art movements, ideas, and isms were all born within. Wars led different attitudes in seeing them. Technological advances played an important role in shaping values. Circulation of newspapers and magazines, world-wide broadcasting companies such as BBC and ABC became great sources of new words and linguistic data or corpus.

As a cosmopolitan language, Modern English welcomed more word borrowings just like what Old and Middle English had done. Modern English, being characterized by advances of technology and science, did more on adding its stock of vocabulary. Gelderen (2006: 221-222) lists examples of novel concepts in several domains in Table 29 and sources or processes of new word formation in Modern English in Table 30 as follows:

Table 29. New Words in Several Domains

No	Domain	New Words
1	Medicine	appendicitis, clinic, radiotherapy, HIV, AIDS, aspirin, insulin, hormones. MRI, PET, vaccine, cholesterol
2	Physics, Biology	electrode, biochemical, DNA, relativity theory, radiation, fractals, atom bomb, UV rays
3	Psychology	Freudian, Jungian, psychotherapy, shock therapy, multiple personality, behaviorism, closure, ego, fixation, Gestalt, IQ, REM, Rorschach test, Type-A personality
4	Communication	TV, radio, computer, internet, mouse, chip, bookmark, commercial, CD, DVD, GTS, wiki, podcast, e-mail
5	Transportation	locomotive, helicopter, train, automobile, shuttle, airplane, cruise control, garage, sunroof, SUV, ATV, public/mass transport
6	Linguistics	nativism, phoneme, transformational grammar, polysynthetic, universal grammar, innateness, systemic functional grammar
7	Military	gun, tank, agent orange, WMD, embedded journalism
8	Philosophy	existentialist, rationalist, postmodern, positivism, postcolonialist, feminism, feminism waves, structuralist, deconstruction, simulacrum, simulacra, eco-criticism
9	Art/Music	impressionist, outsider art, rap, hip-hop
10	Politics	emancipation, human rights, Cold War, banana republic, junta, cold war, police state, chads, teflon president
11	Economics	creative book-keeping, e-bubble
12	Recreation	eco-tourism, geocaching

Table 30. Processes of New Word Formation

No	Process of New Word Formation	New Words
1	Loans	zeitgeist, weltanschauung, schadenfreude, wanderlust, kinder- garden, jungle, pajamas/ pyjamas, polo, pasta, broccoli, zucchini, mensch, bête noire, fait accompli
2	New Compounds	skydiving, acid rain, junkfood, green butcher (one that sells free range meat), a wedding wedding (a very extravagant wedding), gabfest, innerchild, geek-chic
3	New Affixes	postmodern, prewoman, proto-Nostratic, counterrevolution, pseudo-metarule, ex-ex-husband (divorced and then remarried)
4	Clippings, Mergers, Inventions	decaf, motel, fridge(idaire), phys-ed, ad(vertisement), dancercise, boycott, quizling, popemobile, bookmobile, camcorder, talkathon, smog, slumlord, simulcast, netglish (internet English), veggie-burger, block-buster, crime-buster, bikaholic, chocaholic, workaholic
5	Phrase Words	hit-and-run drivers, a nobody-cares attitude, a larger-than-life problem, a so- not-cool situation, so-out-of-the-loop
6	Conversion	to impact (N to V), to fax (N to V), a show-off (V to N), play-off (N to V), to teach-in (N to V), the Ancients (Adj to N), to empty (Adj to V)
7	Slang	rip-off, pizzazz, crap, grody to the max (from the 1970s), depresso city
8	Acronyms	SUV (Sports Utility Vehicle), ATM (Automatic Teller Machine), HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus), WMD (Weapons of Mass Destruction), VD (Venereal Disease), ACLU (American Civil Liberties Union), LOL (Laughing out loud), FAQ (Frequently Asked Question), VVIP (Very Very Important Person)

G. Modern English Literature

Modern English literature was regarded as the most living literature ever in history. This was caused by literary movements or evolution of Modern English literature. Great writers were born during and after Victorian era (Modernism). Victorian era ran during the reign of Queen Victoria from 1837-1901. Again, due to advances of technology and science, people reacted to the advances in different ways. Writers found discrepancies, gaps, and inequalities in society. They, then, tried to fill empty spaces with their literary works. They entertained, gave encouragement and motivation to those affected by the bad effect of technology and science. Victorian era was also a transition from romantic period to the next century. Writers during Victorian and Modernism era were presented in Table 31.

Table 31. Victorian and Modernism Writers

No	Writer	Works
1	Charles Dickens	The Pickwick Papers Oliver Twist Nicholas Nickleby A Christmas Carol David Copperfield A Tale of Two Cities Great Expectations
2	Robert Louis Stevenson	Treasure Island Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde
3	The Bronte Sisters	
	Anne Bronte	Agnes Grey The Tenant of Wildfell Hall
	Emily Bronte	Wuthering Heights
	Charlotte Bronte	Jane Eyre Villette Shirley The Professor
4	Thomas Hardy	Jude the Obscure Tess of the D'Urbervilles
5	George Eliot (Mary Ann Evans)	Adam Bede The Mill on the Floss Silas Marner Romola Middlemarch Daniel Deronda

6	Oscar Wilde	The Importance of Being Ernest The Picture of Dorian Gray Lady Windermere's Fan A Woman of No Importance An Ideal Husband
7	George Bernard Shaw	Caesar and Cleopatra Man and Superman Pygmalion
8	Virginia Woolf	The Voyage Out Mrs. Dalloway To the Lighthouse A Room of One's Own

After Victorian and Modernism Era, there were two other eras namely Postmodernism and Postcolonial literature. Postmodernism (around 1945–present) was considered as a response to the elitism of high modernism as well as to the horrors, impact, and trauma of World War II. Postmodern literature was characterized by disconnection and the absence of tradition and structure. It rejected the gap or the boundary between “low” and “high” form of art and literary works. Among postmodernist writers were Julian Barnes, Don DeLillo, Toni Morrison, Vladimir Nabokov, Thomas Pynchon, Salman Rushdie, and Kurt Vonnegut.

Postcolonial literature (around 1950s–present) was born and written by and about people from former European colonies, mainly in Africa, Asia, South America, and the Caribbean. This literature aimed at challenging Eurocentric assumptions about literature. It was concerned about social and historic impact of European colonization. It also questioned otherness, identity, and race. Significant works of postcolonial era included Chinua Achebe's *Things Fall Apart*, V. S. Naipaul's *A House for Mr. Biswas*, and Salman Rushdie's *Midnight's Children*.

H. Worksheet 3

Answer the following questions correctly

1. What was Renaissance?

2. Provide 5 examples of inkhorn terms
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
 - e. _____
3. What contribution did Shakespeare provide to English?

4. What was Great Vowel Shift? What was the effect of GVS?

5. What was “pure” English?

6. Why was Samuel Johnson’s dictionary important?

7. What was Prescriptive Grammar?

8. What role did Oxford English Dictionary play?

9. What did English do to eliminate sexism in the 19th century?

10. What were the characteristics of Modern English?

I. Reflection

1. When do you think Indonesia experienced its Renaissance?
2. Do you think that advances of technology give impact to languages in Indonesia?

CHAPTER V

AMERICAN ENGLISH AND WORLD ENGLISHES

This chapter discusses American English and World Englishes: the role of English as a world lingua franca and its consequences and World Englishes: local varieties of English in regions where English is not a native language. It also deals with Contemporary Development of English and English in Southeast Asia: roles and features of English in Singapore.

Target Competence

- Hard Skill:
The students are able to describe local varieties of English in regions where English is not a native language.
The students are able to describe the roles and features of the contemporary development of English in South Asian countries.
- Soft Skill:
The students appreciate differences in variants of ideas and practices.
The students are able to locally adapt themselves to external influences and develop local ingenuities based on external resources.

Instructional Process

- Presentation of materials by a group students
- Class discussion of presented materials under the lecturer's guidance
- Generalization by students under the lecturer's guidance
- Individual assignment: Students do their assignment worksheet (Worksheet 5)

Indicator

- Good presentation slides and good presentation.
- Complete, adequate and correct answers to questions.

Sub-Topics

- a. American English
- b. World Englishes
- c. Worksheet 5

A. American English

A.1. The Early America

Immigrants from parts of Europe brought English to America in the seventeenth century. The century was well-known for its European massive immigration. This century was also the very period when William Shakespeare wrote his works. Besides Shakespeare, John Bunyan and John Milton also produced their literary works. Therefore, the language of the period was called English of Shakespeare, Bunyan, and Milton.

There were reasons behind immigrating to America or known as the New World. In England, there were political conflict, economic problem, and religious violation. Germany also failed performing its revolution. Then, potato crop failure in Ireland pushed a lot of Irish to migrate to the New World. Pilgrim Fathers or simply known as Pilgrims or Puritans who settled in America for religious reason (preaching the Gospel) were also called Separatists because they went against the church of England. Some immigrants also went to America for pleasure, i.e. to seek new adventure. All of those reasons united all immigrants. They all wanted a new life.

Merchant or cargo ship called the Mayflower took immigrants from Plymouth England to America on September 16th 1620. The captain in charge at that time was Christopher Jones. The ship was big measuring 80 feet in length and 24 feet wide, having three decks, an upper deck, a gun deck below it and the cargo hold at the bottom. In total, there were 102 people consisting of women, children, and men. Forty-one of them were the Separatists. This group was then called Great Puritan Migration. Therefore, the first colonists to settle in the Atlantic seaboard were English people.

After sailing for two months, 66 days to be precise, they all arrived in Cape Cod, Massachusetts. They had conflicts and problems with indigenous Americans. They experienced hardships in their first settlement in the New World. Plymouth colony was the centre of American new population (besides the indigenous Americans).

The Mayflower itself then became an important matter in American history. It was the icon of colonization. Figure 36 below shows Mayflower (<https://pocketmags.com>).

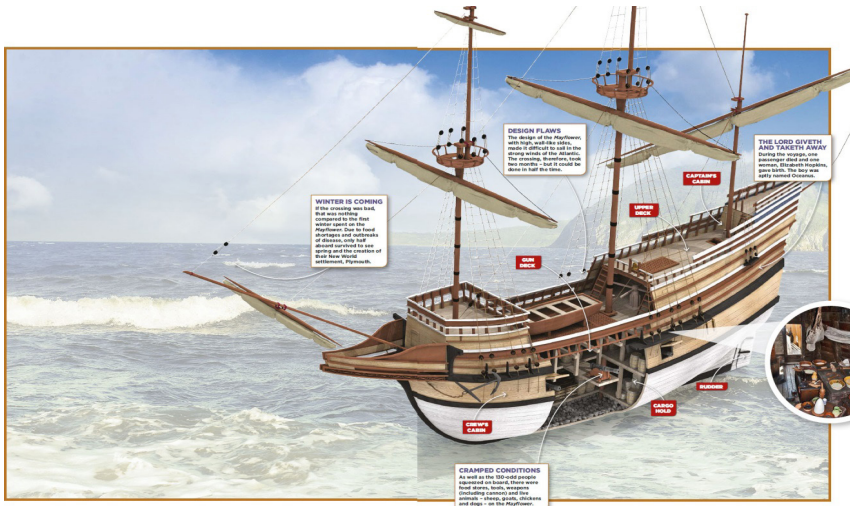


Figure 36. The Mayflower

The next figure shows the Pilgrims boarding the Mayflower. It is painted by Bernard Gribble and taken from www.gettyimages.com. Picture 38 is painted by W.J. Aylward showing the Pilgrims arrived in Massachusetts in November 1620 (www.pinterest.com)



Figure 37. Pilgrims Boarding the Mayflower



Figure 38. Pilgrims Arrived in Massachusetts

For a decade started from 1630 to 1640, a lot of English people went migrating to America. This was called the Great Migration. The immigrants were mostly the Puritans who gained no more support from English church in England. They then settled in New England, north of Plymouth. During the Great Migration, around two hundred ships sailed across the Atlantic carrying more than twenty thousand immigrants. All of those made up early settlements in New England.

The next English settlement was Virginia. Aristocratic immigrants settled in it. However, the biggest number of Virginian settlers was low-class people from England who finally served as servants. Virginian settlement was unequal in nature. Besides the existence of aristocratic immigrants, other immigrants of low-class group were not paid for being their workers.

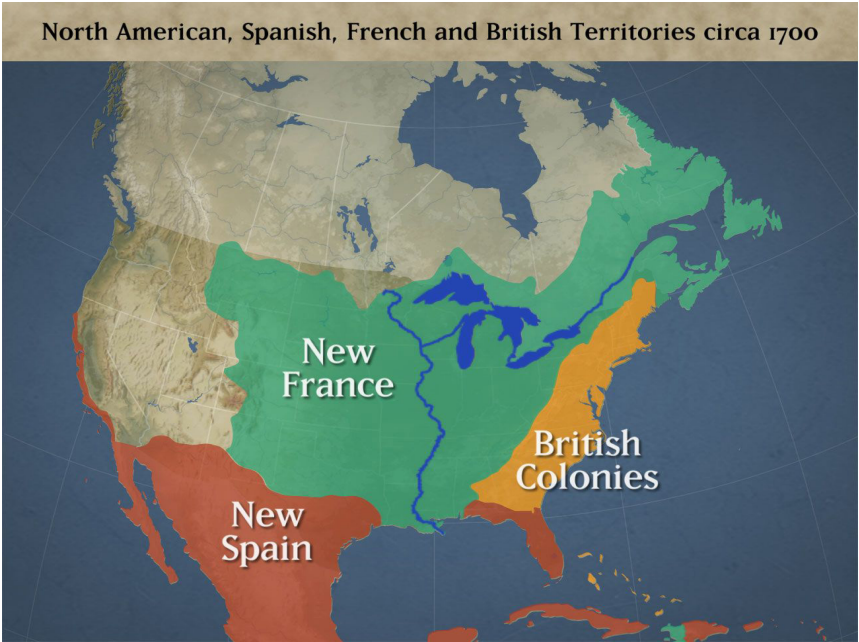
The third large group migrating to America in 1715 to 1775 was from North of England, Northern Ireland, and Scotland. They settled in mountainous areas in East Jersey and South Carolina. Most immigrants of this group were Quakers and Presbyterians who were the victims of religious persecution in Scottish Church. A lot of Scotch-Irish came to the New World because of potato crop failure or Potato Famine in 1840s.

The fourth large group of immigrants came from Sweden, Germany, and Holland. This became the most significant group for European immigration. It happened from 1630 to 1783. The Dutch built a colony of what was now known as New York. The Swedish settled in New Jersey, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Delaware. The German settled in Pennsylvania, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Massachusetts.

The next group of immigrant was from Africa. This group dated back to the time of colonialism. African immigrants were regarded as involuntary immigrants because they came as slaves, mainly from West Africa. All happened in 1640 to 1783. The late seventeenth century approaching the eighteenth century was the darkest time in humanity. Slaves were imported from Africa to work for rice and tobacco farmings. More than ten thousand slaves were imported and forced to work. They mostly worked in Virginia and South Carolina.

The sixth powerful group of immigrant came from Spain. Being famous for their military troop and sea voyage, Spaniards immigrated to North America and built more than two hundred settlements in Sante Fe, Albuquerque, El Paso, San Diego, San Francisco, Santa Barbara, San Jose, Monterey, and Los Angeles. In the sixteenth century, Spain took control over Florida, California, and other southern American regions in 1565. Those Spaniards were also mining workers. They shipped mining products like gold and silver back to Europe.

Another large group of immigrant came from France. Just like other European countries, France also encountered problems, such as political and religious conflicts including French Revolution, natural disasters, and wars. The French built their first settlements even by 1700 in New France in Detroit. At first, only Catholic French that were allowed to immigrate. Eventually, anybody wishing to immigrate to America obtained permission. California Gold Rush beginning 1848, attracted French immigrants in large number to make their way to North America. Consequently, 30,000 people arrived between 1849 and 1851. Map 17 and Map 18 illustrate territories of the First Wave of immigration to America around 1700 (<http://starnews.nl/>) and (www.gorhistory.com), while Figure 39 shows timeline of Early America.



Map 16. Territories of the First Wave’s Immigration ca. 1700



Map 17. Early Settlements in North America



Figure 39. Historic Timeline of Early America

History of Colonial America was always the history of English colonies. In total, there were thirteen colonies built by English immigrants along the Atlantic coast comprising New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. These colonies were then together to form what was now known as the United States. The thirteen colonies were established in different year. Each had different story. [Www.ducksters.com](http://www.ducksters.com) presents the history of the thirteen colonies and the map of them.

Table 32. The History Thirteen Colonies

No	Colony	Year	Founder
1	Virginia	1607	John Smith and the London Company
2	New York	1626	Originally founded by the Dutch. Became a British colony in 1664
3	New Hampshire	1623	established by John Mason who was the first land holder
4	Massachusetts	1630	established by the Pilgrims or Puritans
5	Maryland	1633	established by George and Cecil Calvert
6	Connecticut	1636	established by Thomas Hooker
7	Rhode Island	1636	established by Roger Williams

8	Delaware	1638	established by Peter Minuit and the New Sweden Company. British took over in 1664
9	North Carolina	1663	Originally part of the Province of Carolina. Split off from South Carolina in 1712
10	South Carolina	1664	Originally part of the Province of Carolina. Split off from North Carolina in 1712
11	New Jersey	1664	First settled by the Dutch, then the English took over in 1664
12	Pennsylvania	1681	established by William Penn and the Quakers
13	Georgia	1732	established by James Oglethorpe



Map 18. The Thirteen Colonies

A.2. The Birth of American English

Some years after the American Revolution, anti-British sentiment grew bigger. People in the New World rejected British influence both in language and government. The national feeling of being American and one nation started to appear. There must be a language to unite them all and to tie their solidarity. This too happened to Noah Webster, a young bright linguist graduating from Yale. He published books on English in 1783, 1784, and 1785 entitled *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*. Those consisted of English spelling, grammar, and reader. The publication was a success. After that, more editions were published with revision and changes. He also published *The American Spelling Book*. Another success was gained from the publication of this book. This book became the best-selling book in North America.

Then, in 1788, the American Philological Society One elected Webster to be the excellent member. This election was the very momentous event in history of American English. Soon after the election, he published *Dissertations on the English Language with Notes Historical and Critical*. This was just a prelude to his greatest work, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* in 1828. This work clearly opted out of British English. Webster certainly set up the standard of future American English.

Apart from linguistic point of view, a significant characteristic of occupation in North America was that all settlers mingled well despite their different background. They shared the same dream of living a better life and becoming a great nation in the New World. No wonder that they were ready to accept the standard or be under a certain standard including in linguistic matter. Their readiness was evident in a feature of American English: uniformity. Baugh & Cable mention that the English spoken in America showed a high degree of uniformity (2002: 336-337).

Besides being uniform, American English still preserved archaism. Old features that had been gone in British English were employed in American English. Something that was said as old-fashioned appeared again. Two examples of archaism were the pronunciation of sound *r* and a flat *æ* in *glass*, *class*, *path*, *fast*. Another different feature occurred in pronunciation of *neither* and *either*. Grammatically, American English also preserved *gotten* instead of *got* for past participle. Lexically, the word *mad* was also used in place of *angry* and *fall* in place of *autumn*.

A.3. American English Sound

An interesting phenomenon in American English was its pronunciation which was different from British English. An example of this was mentioned on the previous page, i.e. pronunciation of sound r in teacher and a flat æ in glass, class, path, fast. Another interesting phonological feature of the language was flap. It was done by tipping the tongue to the roof of the mouth. Wolfram & Schilling observe that when speakers of American English produce the t that occurs in the middle of words like butter and better, they almost always weaken it to a d-like sound. This sound is actually a quick tap, called a flap (2016: 52). Furthermore, at the same time that American English speakers sometimes weaken the t sound, speakers of some varieties of British English pronounce t's with full closure in the mouth, or even in the throat, as in something like bo'l for bottle (Wolfram & Schilling, 2016: 52). For more example, Table 33 below is presented (<http://ocw.uci.edu/>)

Table 33. American English Flap and Glottal Stop

Examples of Flaps and Glottal Stops		
“normal” /t/	/t/ is a flap	/t/ is a glottal stop
betwéen	bútt ^{er}	bútt ^{on}
atómic	átom	sátin
fourtéén	fórt ^y	impórtant
retúrn	réticent	rétina
patérnal	páttern	pátent
máster	mátter	Manhát ^{tan}

A.3.1.Vowel

In general, American English had fever vowel sound than British English. For vowel, there were differences between IPA and American English Vowel. IPA used the term open and close instead of low and high. Figure 41 below shows the differences (<https://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/>)

Differences between the IPA and North American vowel charts

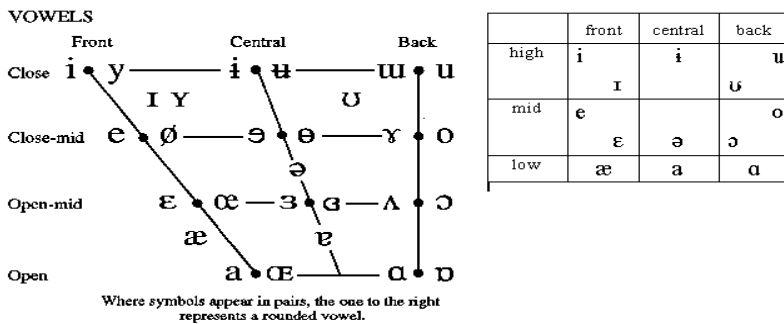


Figure 40. IPA and American English Vowel Chart

A.3.2. Consonant

For consonant sound, basically British and American English had the same consonants. Table 34 below shows consonant chart of American English (<http://ocw.uci.edu/>)

Table 34. American English Consonant Sound

Classification of American English Consonant Phonemes							
Manner of Articulation	Place of Articulation						
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop							
Voiceless	/p/			/t/		/k/	
Voiced	/b/			/d/		/g/	
Fricative							
Voiceless		/f/	/θ/	/s/	/ʃ/		/h/
Voiced		/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ʒ/		
Affricate							
Voiceless					/tʃ/		
Voiced					/dʒ/		
Nasal							
Voiced	/m/			/n/		/ŋ/	
Liquid							
Voiced				/l/	/r/		
Glide							
Voiced	/w/				/y/		

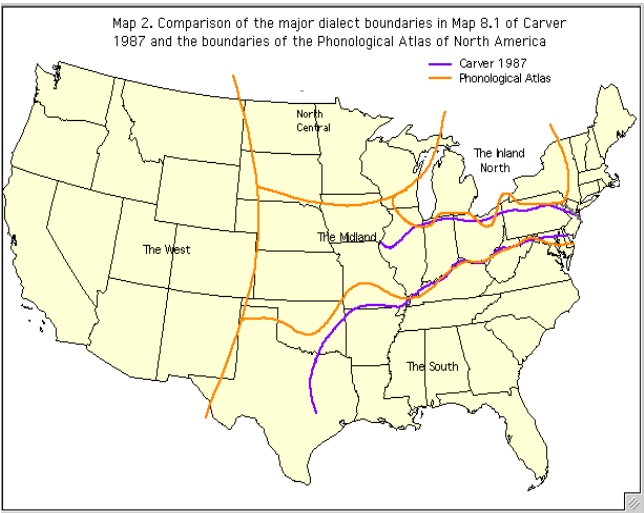
In terms of spelling, Noah Webster's dictionary played a great role in generating the uniformity of American English word spelling. American English wrote honor, color, favor, neighbor, in place of honour, colour, favour, neighbor. It also wrote with one consonant where British English wrote with two: traveler – traveller, wagon – waggon, traveling – travelling. Table 35 below summarizes the spelling differences between British and American English.

Table 35. British and American Spelling Differences

British English	American English
-y- (e.g. tyre)	-i- (e.g. tire)
-re (e.g. metre, fibre, centre)	-er (e.g. meter, fiber, center)
-ou (e.g. colour, behaviour, mould)	-o (e.g. color, behavior, mold)
-ogue (e.g. analogue, monologue, catalogue)	-og (e.g. analog, monolog, catalog)
-l- (e.g. enrol, fulfil, skilful)	-ll- (e.g. enroll, fulfill, skillfull)
-ise (e.g. appetiser, familiarise, organise)	-ize (e.g. appetizer, familiarize, organize)
-ell- (e.g. cancelled, jeweller, marvellous)	-el- (e.g. canceled, jeweler, marvelous)
-ence (e.g. defence, offence, licence)	-ense (defense, offense, license)
-t (e.g. burnt, dreamt, leapt)	-ed (e.g. burned, dreamed, leaped)
-oc/-ac- (e.g. anaemia, diarrhoea, encyclopaedia)	-e- (e.g. anemia, diarrhea, encyclopedia)

A.3.3.Dialect

American English had dialects. Wolfram & Schilling define dialect as a neutral label to refer to any variety of a language that is shared by a group of speakers (2016: 2). Totally, there were nine dialects, i.e. Eastern New England, New York City, Upper North, Lower North, Upper South, Lower South, General American, African American Vernacular English, and Hispanic American English where six were regional dialects and three additional (Baugh & Cable, 2002: 357). A general map below is taken from www.ling.upenn.edu,



Map 19. American English Regional Dialects

The dialects were mainly based on features of pronunciation. As mentioned earlier that American English was generally uniform, the differences between one dialect and the other were relatively little. Harvard Dialect Survei examined people's accents across the country and the result can be watched at <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4HLYe31MBrg>



A.4. American English Grammar

American English had slightly different grammar from British English. The differences were classified as follows.

A.4.1.Noun

In American English, collective noun was singular, e.g. *The team is ready*. In contrast, British English treated collective noun as something plural, e.g. *The team are ready*. In using noun form, both languages were also different. American English wrote *candidacy*, whereas British English wrote *candidature*. The following examples followed the same pattern: *centennial* – *centenary*, *cook book* – *cookery book*, *racist* – *racialist*, *racism* – *racialism*, *transportation* – *transports*, *spark plug* – *sparking plug*. A lot of nouns originated from British English had different meaning in American English. The word *bill* in British English meant a demand for payment of a debt. In American English, however, it meant bank note. *Guy* in British English meant a ridiculous person, but in American English it meant any person (fellow).

People know that British and American English had different nouns in denoting the very same thing or referring to the same matter. There were a lot of different words and Table 36 below presents some of them.

Table 36. British and American English Noun Differences

British English	American English
motorcycle	motorbike
football	soccer
lift	elevator
biscuit	cookie
sweets	candy
pub	bar
holiday	vacation
chips	French fries
chemist	drugstore
flat	apartment
jumper	sweater

The use of articles preceeding nouns was also different in American English. Time indicator (year, month, season) would be without any preceeding definite article in American English. Therefore, She would be waiting for you all the night (British English), but She would be waiting for you all night (American English). Some exceptions occurred in the use of definite article the. In British English it said in hospital, whereas in American English it said in the hospital. The same was also true to other nouns such as university, weekend, and hotel.

Besides, there was also a difference in the position of articles. British English wrote indefinite articles a and an after half. Thus, it became half a dozen and half an hour. In American English, indefinite article was put before half. Hence, it would be a half dozen and a half hour.

A.4.2. Verb

American English used verb got in I got two tickets for Coldplay's concert tonight. British English wrote I've got two tickets for Coldplay's concert tonight. Concerning got, British English used it for past participle, e.g. *George has got a lot of followers on Instagram*. Meanwhile, American English would use gotten in place of got for past participle, e.g. *George has gotten a lot of followers on Instagram*. Got was also used to indicate possessiveness in American English, e.g. *I've got lots of homework to do*.

Yet and *already* were also used differently in British and American English. Both adverbs could not be used in past tense and could only be used in past perfect only. In American English, however, both adverbs could be used in both past tense and past perfect. Therefore, they would be:

I haven't done the homework yet. (British English, American English)

I didn't do the homework yet. (American English)

Have you done it already? (British English, American English)

Did you do it already? (American English)

A certain expression could only be used in American English only and the other way around. British English wrote *needn't* in place of *don't need to*, e.g. *They needn't print the boarding pass.* American English wrote *They don't need to print the boarding pass.* British English used *shall* interchangeably with *will* to talk about the future, e.g. *I shall/will be in the conference later.* American English considered that *shall* was unusual and thus it used *will*. Therefore, it became *I will be in the conference later.* Modal *shall* was also used by British English to ask for an opinion or advice, for example, *Shall I clean the floor?* American English would use *should* instead of *shall* in the same respect. Thus, it would be *Should I clean the floor?*

American English, as mentioned earlier, preserved archaism. This was true to subjunctive mood. American English retained its traditional subjunctive mood, e.g. *She suggests that opening ceremony should be delayed due to haze.* British English would write *She suggests that opening ceremony be delayed due to haze.* Other examples were:

I wish I would have seen him. (American English)

I wish I had seen him. (British English)

I insist that you cancel it. (American English)

I insist that you should cancel it. (British English)

A.4.3. Adjective

The use of adjective in American English was almost similar to British English. A major difference was on the use of adverb that could function as adjective. This occurred in some informal conversation, e.g. *It was a real bad weather.* In formal conversation and use, however, both American and British English wrote *It was a really bad weather.*

Adjective was used to describe noun. The order of its description was not random. According to DeCapua (2017: 91), different types of adjectives occurred in a certain order. The exception to this was adjectives

of general description and those of physical state (size, shape, color), where their order might be reversed. Examples and Table 37 are provided as follows.

They own an enormous, long-handled cutting knife.
They own a long-handled, enormous cutting knife.
She has a round yellow sofa.
She has a yellow round sofa.

Table 37. Adjective Order

Opinion	General description	Size	Shape	Colour	Place of Origin	Material	Use or Type	Noun
	fierce				Siberian			tiger
			oval			metal		frame
				blue			cutting	board
beautiful						leather	cowboy	boots
		small	round					dish

A.5. American English Lexicon

English in America continued to be cosmopolitan by adding new words to its stock. The settlers who experienced hardships of the New World, new features of nature, new living things, contacts with indigeneous Americans, the need for new words to denote new things and concepts finally brought new terms. Besides word borrowings or loanwords, American English had more ways to create new words. Wolfram & Schilling summarize ten ways of word creation (2016: 61) in Table 38.

Table 38. New Word Creation in American English

No	Process	Definition	Examples
1	Compounding	two or more existing words are combined to form a new word	in-group, honeysuckle, breakwater, fatback
2	Acronyms	new words are formed by taking the initial sounds or letters from existing words	radar (radio detection and ranging) WASP (White Anglo-Saxon Protestant) UN (United Nations)

3	Blending	parts of two words are combined to form a new word	smog (smoke/fog) brunch (breakfast/lunch) sitcom (situation/comedy) broasted (broiled/roasted)
4	Clipping	words are formed by shortening existing words	gas (gasoline) dorm (dormitory)
5	Conversion	words are shifted from one part of speech to another without any change in their form	run (as a noun in "They scored a run") tree (as a verb in "They treed a cat") breakwater (as a verb in "Everything around the island is breakwatered")
6	Proper Names	a specific person, place, or thing, are changed into common nouns, which refer to a general class of items	jello, frigidaire, xerox
7	Folk Etymology	words are altered to make their meanings more transparent	cold slaw (from cole slaw), old timers' disease (from Alzheimer's disease)
8	Back Formation	shorter words are created from longer words based on the removal of what appears to be an affix but is in reality part of the original word	burgle from burglar, orientate from orientation, conversate from conversation
9	Recutting	words are reanalyzed into component parts which differ from the original parts	an apron (from a napron), -aholic, as in workaholic (from alcohol + ic), a whole nother (from an + other)
10	Derivation	words are created through the addition of a derivational affix	joyful from joy + ful; reconsignment from re + consign + ment

A.6. American English Literature

This section started with a quotation from the famous Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882) “America is a poem in our eyes: its ample geography dazzles the imagination, and it will not wait long for metres.” (Emerson in Gray, 2011: 1). Writers including Emerson expressed their excitement, desire, and admiration to the New World on their famous literary works. All started from 1800 to the present day or from colonial and revolutionary periods to modern period.

Table 39. American Literary Timeline

Date	Period	Author and Work
1600-1800	Puritanism	William Bradford (Of Plymouth Plantation), Jonathan Edwards (Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God), Edward Taylor (Huswifery)
1750-1800	Rationalism	Benjamin Franklin (Autobiography), Patrick Henry (Speech to the Virginia Convention), Thomas Paine (The Crisis)
1800-1860	Romanticism	Washington Irving (Rip Van Winkle), Emily Dickinson (poetry), Walt Whitman (Leaves of Grass), Edgar Allan Poe (The Raven), Nathaniel Hawthorne (The Scarlet Letter)
1840-1860	Transcendentalism (American Renaissance)	Ralph Waldo Emerson (Self-Reliance), Henry David Thoreau (Walden, Life in the Woods), Louisa May Alcott (Little Women)
1850-1900	Realism	Mark Twain (Huckleberry Finn), Jack London (Call of the Wild, To Build a Fire) Stephen Crane (The Open Boat), Ambrose Bierce (An Occurrence at Owl Creek Bridge), Kate Chopin (Story of an Hour, The Awakening)
1900-1950	Modernism	Lorraine Hansberry (A Raisin in the Sun), F. Scott Fitzgerald (The Great Gatsby), William Faulkner (A Rose for Emily), Eudora Welty (A Worn Path), Robert Frost (poetry), T.S. Eliot (The Waste Land, Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock), John Steinbeck (Of Mice and Men, Grapes of Wrath)

1950-present	Post-Modernism	Alice Walker, Wallace Stevens, E. E. Cummings, Maya Angelou, Anne Sexton, James Baldwin, Richard Wright, Sandra Cisneros, Amy Tan, Tony Morrison
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7. African American Vernacular English (AAVE)

That evening the women brought bowls of pot liquor from black-eyed peas, from mustards, from cabbage, from kale, from collards, from turnips, from beets, from green beans. Even the juice from a boiling hog jowl.

(Morrison, 1998: 137)

The history of African American Vernacular English could not be separated from the speakers of AAVE who were mostly slaves and brought to America in involuntary manner. Most of them lived in the south. Green points out that historical discussions about the origin of AAE often start at the point at which African slaves were thrust into a linguistic situation in which they had to learn English (2002: 8). There were debates on the origin and features of AAVE. Linguists, including dialectologists were concerned with its history. AAVE was an interesting linguistic phenomenon. With regards to its features, Wilford asserts three things: a). several features from earlier varieties of English were adopted into AAE, b). many features appear to have resulted from imperfect second language learning, resulting in simplification or loss of segments such as certain word endings, and c). several features can be explained as a result of retention of creole structure and meaning (Wilford in Green, 2002: 11).

a. AAVE Sound

The same English words might be pronounced differently in General American English and AAVE. The difference was caused by sound constraint. The word *wif* was pronounced with *f* (wif). *Test* was pronounced *tes*. Final consonant cluster did not exist in African languages where AAVE rooted. Table 40 below shows examples of AAVE pronunciation of some words (Green, 2002: 109).

Table 40. AAVE Pronunciation

AAE	Phonetic transcription	
a. pos	[pos]	‘post’
b. was	[wɔs], [was]	‘wasp’
c. mas	[mæs]	‘mask’
d. gif	[gɪf]	‘gift’
e. adop	[ədap]	‘adopt’
f. conduc	[kandʌk]	‘conduct’
g. ban	[bæn]	‘band’
h. bol	[bɒl]	‘bold’

To summarize, the general phonology of AAVE was as follows (<https://www.uni-due.de/>):

- Non-rhotic (syllable-final /r/ is not pronounced), e.g. car [ka:], party [pa:ti]
- Frequent deletion of final /l/, particularly after labials or word-finally with auxiliaries, e.g. help [hep], he’ll be home [hi bi ho:m]
- Reduction of word-final clusters, e.g. test [tes], desk [des], looked [luk], talked [tɔ:k]
- Fortition (hardening) of initial /ð/ to either [d] (dental stop) or [d] (alveolar stop), e.g. this [dɪs], there [de:]
- In word-final position /θ/ is frequently shifted to [f], e.g. bath [ba:f], teeth [ti:f]
- Glide reduction, e.g. wife [wa:f], time [ta:m]

A.7.2.AAVE Grammar

AAVE grammar was different from General American English. Just like in phonology, AAVE grammar had distinguishing features. Wolfram & Schilling summarize those features below (2016: 221-222)

- habitual *be* for habitual or intermittent activity e.g. *His eyes be crying, He don’t usually in office.*
- absence of copula for contracted forms of *is* and *are*, e.g. *They beautiful, They walking quickly.*
- present tense, third-person -s absence e.g. *He talk* for *He talks*
- possessive -s absence, e.g. *Girl book* for *Girl’s book*

- general plural -s absence, e.g. *Some tree for Some trees*
- remote time stressed *béen* to mark a state or action that began a long time ago and is still relevant, e.g. *They béen known each other a long time.*
- *ain't* for *didn't* e.g. *We ain't buy ticket yesterday.*

A.7.3. AAVE Lexicon

There were some words being understood only in AAVE. They were unique in nature and characterized the community using them. Some words as *ashy*, *saditty*, *outside child* and *call and sponse* had been identified with AAVE. Productivity of AAVE was also proven through adding inflection as in *mannish* and *womanish*. More famous terms produced by hip hop music were *whoa* and *phat*. *Whoa* was recently added meaning “there’s nothing to say. When everything is perfect then it is *whoa*”. *Phat* (adjective) meant extremely good or nice.

A.7.4. AAVE Literature

First African American novel was written in 1853 entitled *Clotel; or, the President's Daughter: A Narrative of Slave Life in the United States* by William Wells Brown. It was considered as one of the most important literary works in the mid-nineteenth century. It depicted issues (social and personal) in the lives of African American people especially related to slavery. Brown was one among African American first writers using AAVE in his work.

Another writer was Charles W. Chesnutt. He wrote *The House Behind the Cedars* in 1900. His work mainly talked about racial identity and complications. An excerpt of his work was taken from <http://pinkmonkey.com/> “No, honey, there’s be’n nobody to read ’em excep’ Rena, an’ she don’t take to books quite like you did. But I’ve kep’ ’em dusted clean, an’ kep’ the moths an’ the bugs out; for I hoped you’d come back some day, an’ knowed you’d like to find ’em all in their places, jus’ like you left ’em”.

AAVE writers were writing their works during the Harlem Renaissance in the 1920s to 1930s. It was an important literary period. Green asserts that for some writers during this period, AAVE represented a real part of African American life, but for others, it portrayed the stereotypical, low-class African American (2002: 178). Other writers of this period were Jean Toomer, Countee Cullen, Claude McKay, Langston Hughes, and Zora Neale Hurston.

B. World Englishes

B.1. The Birth of World Englishes

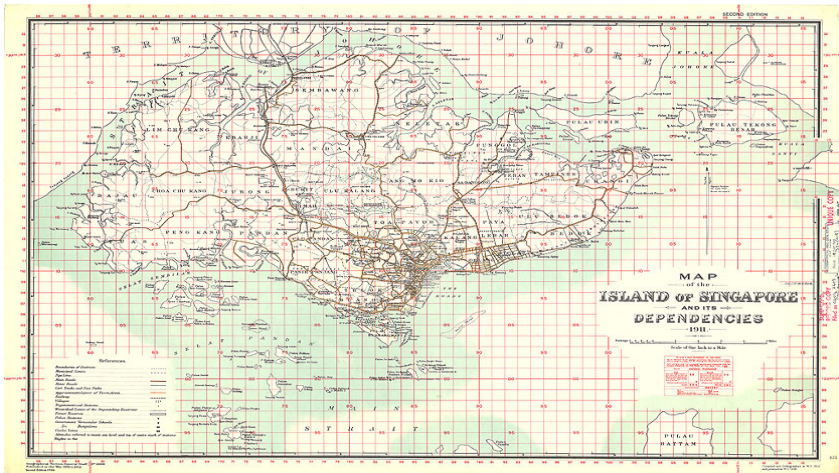
The term World Englishes occurred as a way to denote diversity of English today. It was an emphasis that English was no longer a single language with one authority and pride of belonging to a certain nation. Another term denoting this was New Englishes. World Englishes was also in line with other terms such as World Music.

The history of World Englishes was inseparable from the history of expansion and colonization by British Empire. English was brought along to India, Singapore, the Caribbean, Papua New Guinea, and other regions. Platt, Weber, and Ho (in Mesthri and Batt, 2008: 11-12) mention that World Englishes were a variety of English with the following characteristics:

- a) It has developed through the education system, rather than as a first language of the home.
- b) It has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not spoken by a majority of the population
- c) It is used for a range of functions (e.g. letter writing, government communications, literature, as a lingua franca amongst some people and in formal contexts).
- d) It has become indigenised, by developing a subset of rules different from metropolitan varieties

B.2. Singaporean English

One of the emerging World Englishes was Singaporean English. Modern Singapore was born in 1819 when it became a British permanent settlement under direct administrative command of the East India Company by Sir Thomas Raffles (Leimgruber, 2013: 1). Its population grew quickly and doubled by 1830 consisting of Chinese, Malay, and Indian. The Hokkien Chinese dominated the population by having more than 60% out of the whole Singaporean population. More Malays came followed by people from southern India. Few British people also came serving as business people and officers. It was all under colonial rule or was said to be a Crown Colony. Map 21 below shows Singapore in 1911 taken from <https://www.oldmapsonline.org/>



Map 20. Singapore in 1911

Linguistic problem occurred in 1963 when Singaporean Constitution stipulated that Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English were the four official languages of Singapore. Basically, all languages had the same portion of use. Again a problem occurred when English was the language of administration and government and used in the largest portion among the other three. All legal matters were written in English including legislation. English was also used at schools as language of instruction. All three other languages were taught in English. Malay language was treated differently as it had more special position in the country because it was considered as the language of the indigenous Singapore (the Malays). It was proven by having Malay as the language of Singapore's national motto *Majulah Singapura*.

Since 1816, English had been in prominent position in Singapore. It was as language of colonial ruler. It had enjoyed privilege. Besides being taught at schools and being language of instruction, English, as mentioned earlier, also became language of legal matters. It was used in business and other economic conduct. No wonder that English eventually became main language in Singapore. Street and place names were also transliterated into English. Language planning in the country gave more space for English to be the only medium of instruction in education. This policy again provided English with greater privilege.

B.2.1.Singaporean English Sound

Consonant sounds in Singaporean English produced differently. The difference was on the realization of plosives. They were never aspirated. Leimgruber (2013: 66) provides a table of consonant inventory in Singaporean English as follows.

Table 41. Singaporean English Consonant Inventory

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Fricative		f v	(θ ð)	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Approximant	w			ɹ		j		
Lateral				l				

Furthermore, Leimgruber asserts that lateral approximant /l/ was often velarised throughout ([ɛ̃]), sometimes vocalising to [U]. It could monophthongise the /aI/ in aisle, for instance, into [a]. When preceded by a nasal, /l/ tended to be deleted and /n/ palatalises to [ɲ] when the following segment was /i/ or /j/: thus only /onli/ > [oɲi] and mainly /mEnli/ (2013: 66).

For vowel sounds, Singaporean English gave less restriction in pronouncing minimal pairs. Therefore, minimal pairs like bed-bad, dad-dead would fall into the same vowel. Singaporean English vowel inventory is presented in Table 42 below (Leimbruger, 2013: 65)

Table 42. Singaporean English Vowel Inventory

Table 3.1. *Vowel system of Singapore English*

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i		u
Close-mid	e	ə	o
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open		a	
Diphthongs	ɔi ai au iə uə		

B.2.2. Singaporean English Grammar

The degree of grammatical correctness heavily depended on the degree of education and English acquisition. There were grammatical features omitted in Singaporean English:

- No –s/–es in verb for third singular person in present tense, e.g. *She marry an Indonesian*
- Auxilary verbs, e.g. *When you say that?*
- Verb in past perfect, e.g. *We should have buy her a present.*
- Verb in past tense, e.g. *I see my uncle in market yesterday.*
- Subject (I), e.g. *Cannot meet*
- Prepositions, e.g. *You go Batam?*
- Be verb, e.g. *I thinking of orders*
- Verb preceeding adjective, e.g. *The cake small*

Singaporean English speakers, due to their mother tongue, also added some expressions in sentences especially in conversation.

- *Oh* and *ah*, e.g. *Oh, you do, ah*
- *Leh*, e.g. *Three thousand dollars, leh, how to pay?*
- *Lah*, e.g. *You know, lah*

B.2.3. Singaporean English Lexicon

Singaporean English lexicon stock was mainly enriched by Chinese languages and Malay. Indian languages left some words, especially words of religion and religious ceremonies as Deepavali. Hokkien added jia lat, ang moh, oh cien, shiok, and kiasu. Malay added makan, barang-barang, roti. Certain new meaning also occurred in Singaporean English, e.g. follow. When speakers said “Can I follow your motorcycle”, it meant Can you give me a ride?

Besides loanwords, Singaporean English was also rich with code-switching. An example of code-switching in Singaporean English (Leimbruger, 2013: 68).

- *He's very nice, ø you know why? Because ta⁻ye[~] sh[~]i x[~]ing leh. Because keoi jat yap dou lei zoek tai zoek ngo ge san zu paai leh, aa maa de X mun*
- He's very nice, do you know why? Because his surname is also X. After he came in, he was looking at our ancestral tablet, [and saw] grandmother's name.

B.3. Pidgin and Creole

Pidgin as well creole were born due to necessity. When people from different language background were in need of communication, then pidgin and creole emerged. Siegel defines pidgin and creole as new languages that develop out of a need for communication among people who do not share a common language (2008: 1).

In some respects, however, pidgin and creole were different. Pidgin was reduced code to constitute the second language of the speakers who used it (Lefebvre, 2004: 5). Still quoting from Lefebvre, creole was standardized and expanded version of pidgin and a form of pidgin that had become the first language of a certain new generation (2004: 5). The most widely known example of creole was Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea. It was developed after World War II.

Tok Pisin already gained its status as creole. PNG had more than two hundred languages that people there needed a lingua franca to communicate. It became one of the most important languages in Melanesia. Tok Pisin derived from Tok (talk) and Pisin (pidgin). Its phonological rules were based on Melanesian-Austronesian languages. Therefore, words of English origin would be pronounced differently. Some examples were brother → brata, shark → sak, stand up → sanap, before → bepo, Christmas → krismas, close to → klostu. The word Krismas was also used as a measurement standard, e.g. age. Thus, You got hamas krismas? (You got how much Christmas?) meant How old are you? More examples of Tok Pisin sentences were as follows (Muhlhausler, 2003: 9)

- Sapos you wokim, orait yu ken mekim kirap kantri bilong yumi (If you work, well you can make go ahead this country belonging to us).
- Planti liklik rot i stap long ailan hia. Yumi ken go long ailan. (Many little roads exist on island here. We can go into the island)

There were basically four sociolects of Tok Pisin: Tok Bus (talk of the remote areas) or Tok Kanaka (talk of the people of remote area”), the traditional rural Tok Pisin (Tok Bilong Asples “language of the villages”), the urban version (Tok Skul “talk of the schools” or Tok Bilong Taun “talk of the towns”) and lastly Tok Masta (language of the European colonizers) (Muhlhausler, 2003: 4). The division of Tok Pisin occurred because there were different contacts with English. Generally, the pronouns of Tok Pisin were as follows (Muhlhausler, 2003: 17)

Table 43. Tok Pisin Pronouns

	1st	2nd	3rd
sg.	<i>mi</i> I	<i>yu</i> you (one)	<i>em</i> he, she, it
du.	<i>yumitupela</i> we two INC <i>mitupela</i> we two EXC	<i>yutupela</i> you two	<i>(em) tupela</i> they two
tr.	<i>yumitripela</i> we three INC <i>mitripela</i> we three EXC	<i>yutripela</i> you three	<i>(em) tripela</i> they three
pl.	<i>yumi</i> we (all) INC <i>mipela</i> we (all) EXC	<i>yupela</i> you (all)	<i>(em) ol</i> they

C. **Worksheet 3**

Answer the following questions correctly

1. What made European people immigrate to America?

2. Mention 13 colonies in America. Why were they important?

3. What was archaism in American English?

4. How was American English pronunciation different from British English?

5. How did Noah Webster’s dictionary affect the language?

6. Provide 5 examples of different vocabularies in American and British English

	American English	British English
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

7. How was AAVE phonology different from General American English?

8. What were the characteristics of World Englishes?

9. What were the grammatical features of Singaporean English?
Give an example each

10. How did you say “I am ten years old” in Tok Pisin?

D. Reflection

1. How do you observe your friends' pronunciation when speaking English?
2. Do you think you speak one of the World Englishes? If you do, why? If you do not, then why?

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Wedhowerti, S.Pd, M.Hum., is a lecturer in English Letters Department, Universitas Sanata Dharma, Yogyakarta. She is also an interpreter and a translator. She graduated from The English Language Studies Sanata Dharma University majoring in Linguistics in 2010. Her academic works in linguistics and post-colonial translation are published in journals and anthologies. All of her works can be found at <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8711-5481>.

Wedhowerti

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This book is concerned with history of English language started from a tribal dialect in England to the first language in North America. It talks about linguistic and literary developments that English undergoes. As a cosmopolitan language, English keeps developing by adding its vocabularies. It becomes an active borrowing language. As a colonial language, the spread of English goes along with the story of expansion and colonization of other regions. It then gives birth to World Englishes.



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