HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: A UNIT OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION FOR GRADE ELEVEN

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HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE: A UNIT OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION FOR GRADE ELEVEN

An Internship

Presented to

the Department of Curriculum and Instruction

the Faculty of Education

Memorial University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Education

by

Daniel Patrick Reardon

September 1976

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer expresses his gratitude for all the assistance and cooperation received in conducting and reporting this project.

Appreciation and thanks are expressed to the chairman of the thesis committee, Dr. O. K. Crocker, for his helpful suggestions and directions. Thanks are also expressed to the other committee members, Dr. Harold Paddock and Mr. Brian Shortall. Dr. Paddock spent many hours critically reviewing the student text. Mr. Shortall, vice-principal at Beaconsfield High School, showed an enlightened attitude toward secondary English instruction. Without the cooperation of Mr. Shortall and Mr. Melvin Hong, the school principal, the project could never have been carried out.

Finally, a special note of thanks is expressed to the writer's wife, Sheila, for her unending patience and encouragement.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project was to bring a greater knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the English language into the present English program in Newfoundland's high schools. The unit which has been developed could be used as a supplement to the existing English program in our high schools.

The unit is multi-media in nature and includes a student text, a teacher's manual, overhead transparencies, audio tapes, samples of older literature and suggested activities. The "curriculum" or matrix of intended learning outcomes for the unit was drawn from the disciplines of linguistics, English literature, secondary English education and history--and from non-disciplined knowledge contained in magazine articles, newspapers and numerous conversations with various individuals having a sound knowledge and understanding of both the history of the English language and its integral position in our high schools. Both the theories of Mauritz Johnson on the development of curriculum and instruction and formative evaluation as conceived by Michael Scriven were utilized in the development of the unit.

At various stages in the development of the unit specialists from the fields of secondary English education, linguistics and audio-visual were consulted and their suggestions were incorporated into the unit. Because of certain special circumstances the field testing of the unit was limited. It was taught to a volunteer group of fifteen grade eleven students at Beaconsfield High School in St. John's. Results of the

formative evaluation showed that the unit was readable, teachable and valid.

The following conclusions were drawn from the project:

1. Johnson's theories provide a viable model for curriculum and instructional development.
2. The unit can adequately supplement the present English curriculum in Newfoundland's high schools.
3. The unit can be successfully taught to all grade eleven students in Newfoundland who are of average intelligence and who have reasonable competence in the use of oral and written language.
4. The unit can only be successfully taught by those teachers who have some professional training in the history of the English language.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

It is not unkind or inaccurate to say that today's high schools (and some university English departments) fail to give students an adequate insight into the nature of the English language. Much time is given to the teaching of English in these institutions, but the treatment of the subject is often narrow and misconceived.

English instruction in Newfoundland's high schools over the years has made few real improvements. What goes on in today's high school English class is not vastly different from what transpired there twenty-five years ago. Efforts aimed at improving English instruction have been slow in bringing about desired results. Consequently, for many high school students the word "English" is synonymous with the word "boring."

The project with which this report is concerned involves the development and implementation of a curriculum and instruction unit in the history of the English language for grade eleven students (while the unit is designed for the more academic, university-bound student, it can be modified to meet the needs of the general student.) It seeks to heighten student interest in English through studying both the nature of the phenomenon we call language and the historical development of their own native tongue. Our schools have never attempted to include any comprehensive treatment of this area in their English classes. It is little wonder so many students seem to find English less interesting than Mathematics, Geography or History. These students have never been shown that language is

a phenomenon, a changing, growing system with a history. They know nothing of its origins, development or myriad functions. They have never been led to see their own personal dual role as users and creators of language.

More tragic still is the fact that most teachers of English are not professionally qualified to handle such aspects of language study. At university they take courses in English literature from which they learn much about the interpretive level of language, but little of its basic nature. Surely, grasping the nature and system of the English language must precede any in-depth work in literary interpretation. Teachers of English must become more versed in linguistics, the scientific study of language, if they hope to give students a fuller understanding of language and the English language in particular.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this project was to bring a greater knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the English language into the existing English program in our province's high schools. Through a unit on the history of the English language students can learn important language facts, come to grasp the complex nature of language and discover their own roles as users and developers of their most basic human trait, language. Such a unit can supplement the present English program in our province's high schools.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROJECT

The suggestion that the history of the English language be taught in the schools is not new. As early as 1919 the English Journal published an article advocating the teaching of several aspects of the English

language, including language history.[1] But the suggestion seems not to have been taken up by a great number of high schools, if one can judge from the paucity and type of materials available as well as from a general sense of what teachers are doing these days. Indeed, little work has been done in this important area of our schools, outside of several curriculum projects in the United States, though materials of a much broader linguistic base are showing up in several newly published English texts (e.g. Ginn, Macmillan).

It is unfortunately true that "the application of the history of English to the teaching of English is largely unexplored," as one curriculum guide noted in 1968.[2]

While numerous reasons can be easily cited for this conspicuous absence of the history of our language from the English curriculum (e.g. demands on time by the traditional facets of the study of English; lack of teacher preparation in the area), more significant ones can be listed that support its inclusion.

This unit then is being developed to fulfill several basic needs in the field of secondary English.

(1) to provide students with a basic understanding of what language is and thus help both broaden their often too narrow linguistic perspectives.

(2) to bring into closer relationship the historical study of language

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[1] Betty Gawthrop, "1911-1929," in An Examination of the Attitudes of the NCTE Toward Language, Research Report No. 4, Raven I. McDavid, Jr., ed. (Urbana: NCTE, 1965), p. 11.

[2] English Language Arts in Wisconsin, Wisconsin English Language Arts Curriculum Project, 1967, p. 302.

and literature.

(3) to illustrate the social and cultural determination of language (thus taking language out of its staid and arid mold and showing its interrelationship with man's total development).

(4) to impress upon English teachers the relevance, viability and advantages of such a unit; to get these teachers to realize the urgent need to become educated in this vital area of language study; to know more about "language," their stock in trade. The large majority of English teachers in Newfoundland are not in the least knowledgeable in this area. A brief examination of the files at Memorial University's Registrar's Office shows that perspective English teachers take numerous courses in English literature, but take few, if any, in English linguistics. While exposure to our literature is essential for the English teacher, it is not enough. Literature courses present language at an interpretive level; linguistics courses present language at a basic or surface level. Study at this level must either precede or accompany study at the interpretive level. However, the professional training of English teachers in our province shows a serious neglect of this fact.

This project was undertaken also as a result of recommendations evolving out of contemporary educational research and thought.

Edwin Sauer states:

> Many of our conspicuous failures in the teaching of English on the secondary school level have resulted from our almost complete failure to give students any idea of the English language as language, any experience, that is, with the exact nature of how it functions when they use it daily. The instrument which they employ in all activities of communication, from buying a dozen

> eggs to writing a love letter, is never seen as we see an idea, a nation, or a great man--as an object with a history.[3]

Seen in this light the teaching of English becomes something other than a firm, unyielding discipline having no relation to student interests or capacities; something other than an annual repetition of hackneyed grammatical edicts or memorized stanzas.

Miriam Goldstein recognizes a most significant precept upon which this project is based. Goldstein states that an exposure to the history of language awakens the pupil from his sense of linguistic absoluteness and certitude and nudges him into a more tolerant and responsible attitude toward language.[4] A recent curriculum guide adds, "it (the history of the English language) is perhaps the chief means by which a truly linguistic attitude toward English can be developed in students."[5]

The noted authority on the history of the English language, Albert C. Baugh, sees the study of the history of our language as a tool (for teacher and student) in the understanding and interpretation of our earlier literature and as the basis of sound judgment in matters concerning the language today (e.g. usage, grammar).[6]

Finally, Edwin Hoey presents several convincing reasons for the inclusion of the historical study of English in the curriculum (e.g. history can dispel students' linguistic misconceptions; it can help show

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[3]Edwin Sauer, English in the Secondary School (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), p. 11.

[4]Miriam Goldstein, The Teaching of Language in Our Schools (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966), p. 154.

[5]English Language Arts in Wisconsin, op. cit., p. 301.

[6]Albert C. Baugh, "Historical Linguistics and the Teacher of English," College English, Vol. 24 (November, 1962), p. 107.

students how language and society interact).[7] Hoey's article, which was the initial inspiration for this internship, has led me to believe that the history of English can be interesting for its own sake and can help students acquire valid notions about their language and realistic attitudes toward their language.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED AND SPECIAL CIRCUMSTANCES SURROUNDING THE PROJECT

In dealing with the development of the unit, The History of the English Language, the writer encountered several problems. Several special circumstances also affected the unit's development and implementation. The problems and circumstances were as follows:

Upon its initial conception, the writer, while at university, had hoped to be able to field test the unit in his own grade eleven English class. However, having secured employment at the elementary school level, there was no way he could teach it in his own class.

Assistance was sought from teachers and principals in St. John's who might be able to have the unit taught in their schools with the assistance of the writer. Considering the great deal of latitude in the English curriculum and the relevance of the unit, the writer did not feel the request to be burdensome. However, the developer experienced a negative attitude and a general lack of response from many schools.

The developer attributed this negative response to a lack of understanding of the nature and fundamental importance of the material contained in the unit. These teachers and administrators were very

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[7] Edwin A. Hoey, "History Might Help," English Journal, Vol. 57 (October, 1968), p. 1041.

unsympathetic towards the introduction of such material into the English curriculum. They showed no real interest or knowledge with regard to the unit's content. Such a situation led the developer to consider another problem. The unit could not be successfully taught by English teachers since few have an adequate background in this area.

The developer's only option was to try to get a volunteer group of grade eleven students who would be willing to stay behind after school to take part in the teaching of the unit. The administration at Beaconsfield High School in St. John's was both sympathetic and knowledgeable concerning the developer's aims. On canvassing the grade eleven classes a group of fifteen students volunteered to take part in the project.

However, this improvised situation led to obvious problems. First, these after-school sessions cut into the students' free time (three one hour sessions per week) and the unit could not be as fully implemented as it would have been in a regular class. Consequently, the somewhat artificial arrangement affected both the extent and quality of learning that took place. Also, if carried out during the regular school day, salient points of the unit could have been incorporated with the general language experience that occurs in class every day.

Because the history of the English language is a very broad, complex subject, the developer had considerable trouble in trying to draw up a concise, straightforward, yet inclusive text on the history of the language for grade eleven. Ultimately, various important sectors of historical language study (e.g. the historical development of the sounds of English) had to be excluded because of their depth and complexity. Dr. Harold Paddock of Memorial University's Linguistics Department was immeasureably helpful in the development of the student text.

The problem of evaluation was also considered. Formative evaluation as conceived by Michael Scriven was used for the project. It is Scriven's view that formative evaluation occurs during the formative stages of curriculum and instructional development and in the related field testing.[8]

Formative evaluation employed several specialists in the disciplines related to the unit. These specialists critically assessed the unit's structure, presentation and representation of their particular disciplines.

Another problem encountered during the formative stages of the unit was whether the unit would be teachable and learnable. Since the unit was being taught to just one group this was a definite problem. Discussions between the developer and the student, questionnaires and pre/post tests provided some assistance in solving the problem. However, this remains a serious drawback of the project.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

This project involved a volunteer group of fifteen grade eleven students from Beaconsfield High School in St. John's. The students were of average and above average intelligence. There were four boys and eleven girls in the group. The project consisted of presenting a fifteen lesson unit on the history of the English language to this volunteer group. Because of the special circumstances previously outlined, the use of this single group in the project was the developer's only recourse. Therefore, the results of the project may not be fully generalizable to all high school students in Newfoundland beyond this population.

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[8] Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation," Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation," eds. R. W. Tyler, R. M. Gagne and M. Scriven (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967), pp. 39-51.

The unit, The History of the English Language, was developed to meet the needs of grade eleven students. No attempt was made to adapt the unit to lower grades.

The unit's content deals with the main areas of the English language (i.e. grammar, vocabulary) besides surveying the nature of language in general and the origin of our native tongue. The developer had to exclude the other important areas of historical language study (i.e. pronunciation, spelling and semantics). Inevitably, in any brief presentation of language history various aspects must be excluded. Furthermore, in giving young students their first experience with this topic, entering into any involved discussion, of say, phonetic changes, seems both unnecessary and unwise.

The project was limited to formative evaluation.

The project was limited to developing a unit on the history of the English language.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purpose of this project, the following definitions were adopted:

Curriculum: A structured series of intended learning outcomes which are the output of the curriculum development system and the input of the instructional system is defined as the curriculum.

English Teacher: A teacher involved in teaching the various aspects of the high school English program. A teacher with a minimum qualification of B.A. in English plus B.Ed. or training in the skills for teaching all aspects of English at the secondary level.

Formative Evaluation: This evaluation takes place during the development

of curriculum and instruction. It involves the collection of appropriate evidence during the development and trying out of new curriculum and instruction in such a way that revisions of the same can be based on this evidence.

High School Students: Those students engaged in studies in the upper two grades in the high school.

Instruction: Instruction is the interactional processes which take place in the classroom.

Instructional Content: This term refers to the curricular content and instrumental content taken together.

Instrumental Content: The optional cultural content introduced into the instructional situation, not to be learned but to facilitate the intended learning outcomes, and which can be displayed through such means as readings, audio-visual, lectures and discussion.

Intended Learning Outcomes: These are the primary objectives for the unit. They refer to what is intended for the students to learn.

Teaching Strategies: Teaching strategies involve the implementation of teaching techniques. For example, inductive and deductive strategies, or inquiry and expository strategies.

Teaching Techniques: Ways of interacting with students in the classroom (e.g. lecturing, grouping or individual instruction). Part of the instrumental content.

Unit: An organized collection of intended learning outcomes, instructional practices, learning activities, materials. Ideas and suggestions from which a teacher may select when working with a group of students on one topic of significance is termed a unit.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This review of related literature will cover three main areas: (1) The place of the history of the English language in the high school, (2) Curriculum projects dealing with the history of our native tongue, and (3) English series in our province's schools.

THE PLACE OF THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The high school English curriculum in Newfoundland is seriously lacking in its treatment of the history of English. Students are exposed to several scant, fragmented chapters on the history of English during the duration of their high school years. Massive support exists to show the unacceptableness of this situation. A Wisconsin curriculum guide states:

> Our language is a vital part of our lives and our heritage; consequently, a knowledge of the development of English is important for all students. It increases their appreciation of the language, their facility in its use, and enhances benefits derived from the study of literature.[1]

However, Sauer is acutely perceptive in analyzing what is taking place in our schools:

> In our English classes students almost never discuss with their teachers the fundamental character of their native tongue and how that character was shaped through the experiences of the nations that have known and used English. If students were led to see the long account of language change and of man's constant need to alter and expand language, they would become

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[1] English Language Arts in Wisconsin, op. cit., p. 424.

> aware of how large an element of chance has always operated in making language more manageable. They would be more likely to stand a little less in awe of it, a little less uncomfortable about the conventions of usage, a little less tongue-tied when they try to make it work for themselves.[2]

The fact that most students, whether elementary or high school, have always shown an uneasy aversion when working with language, can, as Sauer has pointed out, be attributed partly to the lack of a basic understanding of the character of their language and the mutability and flexibility that are earmarks of that character.

The case for the inclusion of the history of our language in the English curriculum is strong. Edwin A. Hoey puts forth several reasons which, upon elaboration, show our neglect of historical language study in the high school to be both narrow-minded and inexcusable.

First, knowledge of the history of English is valuable for its own sake and students should know something about the heritage of their language just as they should know something about the heritage of their nation and its people.[3]

The focus here, on language about language, is distinct from the study of language to better student skills, as Loban, Ryan and Squire point out.[4] John Algeo has judged former language study as too devoted to skills, equating the subject matter of the English course with that

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[2]Sauer, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

[3]Hoey, op. cit.,

[4]Walter Loban, Margaret Ryan, and James R. Squire, Teaching Language and Literature (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1969), p. 102.

of home economics, chorus and physical education.[5] He goes on to say,

> Language is the essence of our humanity and the embodiment of our history as a people. It would seem to be the subject that is most important to teach about and understand. Yet, English teachers have for too long been victims of propaganda maintaining that their chief function is to provide a service by developing language skills.[6]

The history of English as a humanity is a subject students might well examine not only to learn more about their particular culture and the culture of man generally, but to discover their active roles in the continuation of those cultures.

Hoey's second reason for teaching the history of the language is that it can develop student interest. States Hoey: "Not all students will respond, of course, but I have seen classrooms glow with real excitement when certain facts of language history were brought into the open."[7]

Moreover, as Albert C. Baugh has pointed out, a teacher with an enthusiasm for words can spread it to his students and often arouses an interest which leads to the further study of language. Such an interest makes the encountering of old words and old meanings in literature not a distraction or an impediment to the reading process but gives the reader an additional satisfaction and a sense of pleasure in the comprehension

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[5]John Algeo, "Linguistic Marys, Linguistic Marthas: The Scope of Language Study," College English, Vol. 31 (December, 1969), p. 277.

[6]Ibid., p. 278.

[7]Hoey, op. cit.

of what he reads.[8]

The third major reason for teaching the history of English is that students can learn important language facts. Students can learn that language changes.[9] They can be brought to see the multiplicity of changes occurring in English vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling and semantics from Old English to Middle English to Modern English. They can discover the true origin of our often misconceived language "rules."

Hoey remarks:

> I've seen students really perk up over this chapter in the history of English. They assume that the rules were always there, presumably set down by the Serpent of Eden, and that language could not exist without rules.[10]

The observation is good. Especially today, when students enjoy breaking traditions, the notion that authorities have been whimsical is a delight. All of a sudden a frustrating stricture against this or that current language habit can be seen in the light of history. The student who uses double negatives will be interested to learn that there are hundreds of them in Chaucer and Shakespeare. Such study can provide students a further explanation of additional forces altering language history.

Miriam Goldstein also justifies studying our language's history for the facts we can obtain and the uses we can make of these facts both in further theorizing about language and in using language itself. She

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[8] Baugh, op. cit., p. 108.

[9] Hoey, op. cit., p. 1042.

[10] Ibid., p. 1043.

adds that such knowledge makes us free from the tyranny of false standards of usage and free to use our knowledge to make reasonable judgments in our use of language.[11]

Hoey's fourth major reason for teaching the history of English is that history can help show students how language and society interact.[12]

As Goldstein states:

> Studying the history of English can be an ever deepening process of seeing how the external history of a people, the wars, the migrations, the inventions and the religious and social developments, is reflected not only in the growth of vocabulary, but also in the way new words are absorbed into the framework of the language.[13]

Indeed, not only the vocabulary, but all aspects of language have been significantly affected by social forces. The value of this kind of historical-social study is, first, that students can become aware of the forces which have shaped our language and, second, that they can make their own observations to determine the forces at work during their own lives. Such study can be, therefore, completely up to date and exceedingly relevant.

Hoey's fifth main reason for teaching the history of English entails an attitudinal change based on what has preceded:

> It is distressing to find how stuffy and snobbish assorted young people can be. I've talked to some who really seem to believe that the prestige dialect is the only acceptable one and that anyone who deviates from their concept of "correct" usage is a boob. Maybe, if history's message spreads far

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[11] Goldstein, op. cit., p. 145.

[12] Hoey, op. cit.

[13] Goldstein, op. cit., p. 148.

> enough, we will get a generation of employers who realize that a person might make a good worker despite his solecisms. This alone would have great practical value.[14]

The view that a study of the history of English can and should affect attitudinal change has been voiced often in textbooks and journals. Otto Jespersen comments:

> Those who know least of the age, origin and development of the rules they follow are usually conservative or even reactionary about linguistic change. Those who study language history will generally be more inclined to see in the processes of human speech a wise natural selection, through which while nearly all innovations of questionable value disappear pretty soon, the fittest survive and make human speech even more varied and flexible, and yet ever more easy and convenient to the speakers.[15]

But whether or not he agrees that certain innovations represent progress, a student of the history of English should become "intelligently tolerant."[16] The student should realize that any living language is the result of various forces, that it continues to change and reflects fairly accurately the culture and purposes of its users, whether the language is English (any dialect of it), French, Chinese or Russian.

The five previous categories of reasons for teaching the history of English are full and suggestive, but they do not encompass all the reasons for the activity. On a very practical level the teacher can introduce the history of English as an obvious aid to the reading of

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[14] Hoey, op. cit., p. 1044.

[15] Otto Jespersen, Growth and Structure of the English Language (9th ed.; Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1967), p. 198.

[16] John A. Rycenga, "Taking a Gamble--One Teacher's Experience with Assignments in Linguistics," Connecticut English Journal, Vol. 1 (Spring, 1969), p. 12.

earlier literature. Albert C. Baugh notes that problems encountered in reading the works of older literature (e.g. Shakespeare, Chaucer) due to changes in meaning, pronunciation and grammar can be solved by knowledgeable teacher guidance in the history of English.[17] In an age when students want immediate relevance, the linguistic impediment can be a great one.

A knowledge of the history of English can also help a student understand that great literature can be written in any language; that contrary to what one educator believes, "our expression and our sanity" are not necessarily "the better" because English has lost adjectival endings:[18] that the excellence of the Beowulf poet is possible with and, in fact, lies in his manipulation of a language current for him, inflectional endings and all. If we want our students to have more sophisticated attitudes towards things literary, we cannot afford to neglect the history of the language.

The history of English can be used to help students with their own problems in speech or writing. Louis Muinzer has forcefully stated:

> Unless each of our students understands the principles of linguistic history, he cannot understand English, and if he cannot understand English, he cannot be expected to write it or read it with much intelligence.[19]

Whether one agrees with the extremity of this position, it is true that the history of English can throw light on and sometimes help

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[17] Baugh, op. cit., pp. 106-110.

[18] Sauer, op. cit., p. 14.

[19] Louis A. Muinzer, "Historical Linguistics in the Classroom," Illinois English Bulletin, Vol. 48 (October, 1960), p. 2.

students solve particular problems of spelling, usage and mechanics.

Finally, material from the history of English should be taught to all levels of students, though obviously with variations in treatment. James B. Conant sees it as part of that good general education for all pupils as future citizens of a democracy.[20] Indeed, it might be argued that those who do not attend university are the ones who most need in high school the humanistic and liberalizing knowledge of language, for they are less likely as a group to encounter it elsewhere.

The value of instruction in the history of English for the student is clear. However, the value of such instruction for the teacher is often overlooked. What a teacher knows about the history of English will affect his classroom attitudes and performance even if he chooses never to mention the subject as a subject.

Whatever their disagreements about method, program and goal, the English and American participants in the Dartmouth Seminar could agree on the necessity of careful language study by the English teacher.[21] John Searles, in a report on the preparation of English teachers in Wisconsin, noted that the committee set up to work out a statement "went on record as favouring a teacher education program which includes work in language history and structure," among other things.[22] As it is for

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[20] James B. Conant, The American High School Today (New York: The New American Library, 1964), p. 24.

[21] Herbert J. Muller, The Uses of English (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967).

[22] John Searles, "Preparation of Teachers of English and Language Arts in Wisconsin," Wisconsin English Journal, Vol. 10 (January, 1968), p. 43.

the student, the history of the language should be for the teacher a source for understanding language in all of its aspects as well as an integral body of knowledge.

A recent poll asked professors of English to indicate for a number of language courses whether they thought the individual courses should be required, recommended, available or omitted in the program for high school teachers. The sixteen courses included Old English, Modern English grammar, the philosophy of language, a course in English for the disadvantaged, a course in the history of English, and a course in the history of English specifically for secondary school teachers. The course in the history of English was required or recommended more times than any other course. Interestingly enough, the history of English got about forty percent more votes than a history of English course designed especially for future high school teachers.[23] This could mean that the respondents thought of the history of the language more as a basis for a teacher's own understanding than as a body of knowledge aimed directly at the high school classroom.

Another recent study suggests even more forcefully that the history of English is an important concern. Of twenty-two areas of competence ranging over the entirety of a teacher's training program (e.g. composition, reading, unit and lesson planning, literary criticism)

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[23] Justus R. Pearson, Jr., and James Robert Reese, Project Grammar: The Linguistic and Language Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of English (Urbana: Illinois State-Wide Curriculum Study Center in the Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers, 1969), p. 3.

the "history and nature of language" was rated first.[24]

The effects a course in the history of English ought to have on a teacher are manifold. In general terms, the teacher should have the depth of knowledge required for understanding his business, and language is his business. This alone is adequate reason for requiring a course in the history of English of all prospective teachers. On a more practical level, the teacher should possess a knowledge of historical linguistics so that he can be more confident and comfortable in dealing with literature, grammar, usage and composition.

Specifically, the history of the language can help improve a teacher's ability to describe language and to judge available descriptions of it. If a teacher is not to be bullied by big names, bright covers and sales representatives he must have his own basis for choosing a text, many of which are written by individuals lacking thorough knowledge of the historical facts of language and the underlying characteristics of the English language.[25]

Knowledge of the history of English, as Baugh suggests, provides a sound background for a teacher's own perspective on usage. This knowledge can be useful in making sound judgments in matters of the language today.[26]

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[24]Nancy S. Boze, "The Proper Study," Research in the Teaching of English, Vol. 2 (Fall, 1968), pp. 115-124.

[25]Joseph E. Milosh, Jr., "Teaching the History of the English Language in the Secondary Classroom," NCTE/ERIC Studies in the Teaching of English (April, 1972), p. 15.

[26]Baugh, op. cit., p. 110.

The history of the language might also help a teacher with his own presentation of English grammar.[27] J. S. Sherwin notes that teachers might conceivably avoid some gross instructional blunders if they really understood the growth and structure of the English language.[28]

At this point what is important should be clear. Knowledge of the history of the English language is fundamentally important for both student and teacher. Both are involved in the study, use and creation of language. A sound knowledge of historical linguistics goes far to shape proper attitudes and perceptions in both teacher and student. Such knowledge will also affect a teacher's methods, whether or not the teacher formally introduces the subject into his language program.

CURRICULUM PROJECTS DEALING WITH THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

While educators in our province have given little attention to instruction in the history of English, various centers in North America (mainly the United States) have made a serious start at implementing such instruction into the high school curriculum. This section will briefly summarize what has been done with the history of the English language in several curriculum projects in universities and high schools in the United States. Also in the next section a critical look will be taken at the treatment of the history of English in newly published English series available to Newfoundland schools.

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[27] Milosh, op. cit., p. 16.

[28] J. Stephen Sherwin, Four Problems in Teaching English: A Critique of Research (Scranton: International Textbook Co., 1969), pp. 22-23.

The Wisconsin English Language Arts Curriculum Project

The English curriculum drawn up by this project includes a short but highly suggestive outline for a unit on the history of the language. This curriculum program from K-12 was headed by Robert Pooley and it recognizes the importance of a knowledge of the history of our language to high school students.[29]

The Wisconsin program notes (as most programs do) that some information on the history of our language can be introduced in the elementary and junior high years, but realizes that the formal teaching of the history of the language has to wait until the eleventh or twelfth grade. Then, as Goldstein points out, the pupil's knowledge of grammar, history, world literature and possibly a foreign language helps him to bring into focus what he has been learning incidentally about language history in snips and pieces.[30]

The Wisconsin program outlines a brief unit that would entail five to six class periods. The unit would trace the development of English through studying literature (e.g. Beowulf, Chaucer, Shakespeare), vocabulary and grammar right up to the growth of the English language in North America. The use of audio-visual materials (e.g. recordings, films) are encouraged and many useful activities are included (e.g. students investigate the source of our troublesome -gh spellings).[31]

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[29] English Language Arts in Wisconsin, op. cit.

[30] Goldstin, op. cit., p. 149.

[31] English Language Arts in Wisconsin, op. cit., p. 426.

The unit outlined in the Wisconsin program would be a simple starting point for high school English teachers who lack adequate background in the area. Even the brief introduction provided by this curriculum would bring teachers to agree with the statement:

> The history of the English language is a potent source of interest to students at all levels of growth in the use of English, and it is perhaps the chief means by which a truly linguistic attitude toward English can be developed in students.[32]

The Northern Illinois University's Project English Center

A far more ambitious curriculum guide was drawn up at Northern Illinois University. The material prescribed for grades eleven and twelve include the historical development of the sounds, grammar and spelling of English and some work in etymology. Included with each of these sections are objectives, suggested teaching situations to which the unit can be adapted, daily lesson plans, a description of relevant audio-visual materials and a bibliography.[33]

The materials included would involve some five to six weeks instruction. While the various areas are given skilful, comprehensive treatment, some aspects included (e.g. Grimm's Law, the Great Vowel Shift) would certainly pose unnecessary difficulty for even the bright students lacking previous study in these areas. A teacher with a sound knowledge of historical linguistics could make valuable use of this

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[32] Ibid., p. 302.

[33] Northern Illinois University, Project English Curriculum Center, History of the Language: Material for Incorporation in Curricula of Grades Eleven and Twelve (Dekalb, 1966).

lengthy guide (over one hundred pages). The vast amount of material treated here makes selection of relevant areas for specific groups of students an easy task. The guide's error of often going a little too far for high school students is a flaw any knowledgeable teacher of English should have little trouble dealing with.

The Minnesota Project English Center

The Minnesota Project has also produced a series of teaching materials on the nature and uses of the English language for grades seven through twelve. Briefly stated, these materials proceed from the assumption that the study of the nature and uses of the English language provides the logical basis and focal point for English curriculum by establishing a structure in which the study of literature, oral and written composition and other aspects of the English curriculum can be meaningfully interrelated through the focus on the English language.[34]

Beginning in the seventh grade, students are introduced to fundamental generalizations about language and language study. The first unit of study in grade seven establishes a groundwork for the future work with language in the higher grades. Concepts developed in this unit include how language is learned in personal, social and cultural settings, how language has a system and the personal and social importance of speech.[35]

While this curriculum covers a wide range of language concerns

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[34] The Minnesota Project English Center, Center for Curriculum Development in English (Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1967), preface.

[35] Ibid., p. 20.

(e.g. transformational grammar, dictionary study, paragraph study) it gives more than adequate coverage to the history of English. Units on change of meaning, the historical development of English spelling, the historical study of the English lexicon and the historical study of English phonology, morphology and syntax are outlined. In all some seven units are devoted to the historical development of our language.[36]

This curriculum guide does not clearly specify in what grades various topics (e.g. the historical study of English orthography) should be studied. Again, the teacher with a sound background in historical linguistics will know both when and how to deal with such materials.

The work of the Minnesota Project English Center is an attempt to develop teachable resource materials that appropriately reflect what is currently known about the nature and uses of language. The materials included are not intended as "packages" which can be taught in any situation without adaptation. They are, rather, intended as a basic structure around which local curriculum development, revision and implementation might proceed.

The Oregon Curriculum Study Center

Oregon University has also undertaken in-depth, long-range work in English curriculum. The Oregon Curriculum Study Center has produced materials on numerous facets of English education (e.g. usage, rhetoric, structural grammar). The history of English has not been neglected here either. Headed by Albert Kitzhaber, the Oregon Center has produced materials for the grade ten student that focus on one period of our

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[36] Ibid., pp. 19-37.

language's development, Early Modern English. This unit uses the works of Shakespeare (i.e. Julius Caesar, The Merchant of Venice), since Shakespeare's language is fairly representative of Early Modern English, to give the student an accurate picture of the English language at an important stage in its development. Here students are also shown vocabulary, meaning, grammar and pronunciation changes between the Early Modern English of Shakespeare and the English of today. Related student exercises and readings are suggested.[37]

Because of its narrow focus this unit should be used only as a supplement to a more inclusive diachronic view of our language's history. Probably the main strength of the material is the skilful tying together of literature and historical language study. Students caught between awe, confusion and indifference in regard to Shakespeare's works are led to a clear literal understanding through analyzing the changes in our language from Shakespeare's time to Modern English. This short unit should accompany any high school treatment of Julius Caesar or The Merchant of Venice. Used properly, it might at last help students realize what the hullabaloo over Shakespeare's works is all about.

Janice Schukart, a teacher at Madison High School in Portland, Oregon, has found studying the history of English in grade twelve an exceptional means of building interest and understanding and, seemingly, a more intelligent choice in written and oral expression. Beginning with a discussion of language "correctness" and usage, this teacher moves

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[37]Albert Kitzhaber et al, History of English, Language Curriculum IV, Student Version (Eugene: University of Oregon, Curriculum Study Center, 1966).

into background information on Old English and the Middle Ages. Language samples from these periods, tape recordings and readings help arouse discussion and questioning. Through using the works of Chaucer, Shakespeare and Jane Austen, differences in grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation are emphasized.[38]

In this Portland High School English class language as the tool of expression is the main concern. Here a teacher has found that the study of language history, correlated with the study of literature, can go far to heighten student interest in language and facility in its use.

English curriculum specialist Verna J. Dozier of Washington, D.C. has developed a twenty-one day unit for the senior high school on the development of the English language. Each of the class sessions is described as to objective, materials, procedures and evaluations. Worksheets, exercises, reading assignments and a vocabulary list are provided.[39]

This unit is extremely comprehensive, running the gamut of our language's history from its Germanic heritage to its position in the world today. All major aspects of language study are covered, but the author is wise in giving less attention to the more difficult areas such as phonological change. Again language study and literature study are skilfully integrated. In the hands of a competent English teacher many benefits could be reaped from this unit.

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[38]Janice Schukart, "English Language Study in Portland High Schools," English Journal, Vol. 52 (May, 1963), pp. 362-363.

[39]Verna J. Dozier et al, The Development of the English Language: A Unit for Senior High English (Washington, D.C.: District of Columbia Public Schools, 1970).

ENGLISH SERIES IN OUR PROVINCE'S SCHOOLS

As previously stated, the history of our language has been sorely neglected in our province's high schools. While teachers in general are ill-prepared to handle material on language history, there has also been little coverage of the subject in our texts. This section will briefly discuss the treatment of our language's history as presented in the main English texts either used by or available to our schools today.

It is this writer's belief that material on the history of our language should be introduced to students during the elementary and junior high school years, but it is not until the senior high years, especially grade eleven, that any concentrated study should occur. The Ginn English Series provides a fairly adequate treatment of the history of our language in its grade eleven text. Twelve lessons are devoted to general linguistics. These lessons trace the origins and growth of the English language, its vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and usage and offer a helpful discussion of dialects.[40]

It is a pity such a text has not been utilized in our classrooms. Instead, for too many years we have dutifully covered the voluminous Mastering Effective English. This large text contains a meager eight page introductory sketch of our language's history. Hasty and inconclusive, the value of this material is suspect. Surely a well planned chapter on our language's history would be far more beneficial to

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[40]Isidore Levine, Rinaldo C. Simonini, Jr., and Lionel R. Sharp, Composition and Language (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1968).

students than the book's section on "parliamentary practice."[41]

In an effort to supplement the above text the Department of Education of our province has made available to our high schools Language Moves. This edition, which concentrates on various aspects of the entire communication process, contains an extremely helpful section on the history of English. In some twenty pages enough historical information, questions, activities, illustrations and suggested readings are given to furnish students with the proper perspective on language history. In such a short chapter many of the intriguing changes of the history of English are lost, but in this small book the right steps are taken to awaken high schoolers to the magnificent heritage of their native tongue.[42]

The MacMillan English series begins its tenth grade text, Learning English, with a scant chapter on the history of our language. While the information given provides a good start for the student, it is not followed up by more thorough information in the grade eleven MacMillan text.[43]

McDougall and Littell's The Language of Man offers an adequate coverage of English's history. This English series contains six small books, each covering various elements of historical language study

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[41] J. C. Tressler and C. E. Lewis, Mastering Effective English (3rd ed.; Vancouver: The Copp Clark Publishing Company Ltd., 1961).

[42] Ronald T. Shepherd and Jim Henderson, Language Moves (Don Mills, Ontario: Thomas Nelson and Sons Canada Ltd., 1973).

[43] Philip G. Penner and Ruth E. McConnell, Learning English (Toronto: The MacMillan Company of Canada, Ltd., 1963).

including semantics, vocabulary development, dialect, sound change and slang. Readable and relevant, this series would be an excellent supplement to what is presently in use in our high schools.[44]

Probably the best treatment of the history of English is given in The Dynamics of Language Series. This series of six books explores all facets of human communication. In its treatment of the history of English it seeks to give students a sense of perspective about their language. It leads students to see the principles by which all languages change and shows how these principles have brought about changes in their own language.[45]

The first five books of the series cover the origin of language, the characteristics of language change, the development of the Indo-European language family, the development of writing and the growth of Old English into Modern English. The changes in meaning, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar are presented as manifestations of the dynamism of language and related to the changes still taking place in language. The sixth book is made up of readings and auxiliary materials that help tie together the major concepts previously covered. A self-contained language arts program, this series would be a refreshing replacement for what is currently in use in our schools.[46]

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[44]Joseph F. Littell, The Language of Man (Evanston, Illinois: McDougall Littell and Company, 1971).

[45]Allan A. Glatthorn, Charles W. Kreidler and Ernest J. Heiman, The Dynamics of Language Series (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1971).

[46]Ibid.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Curriculum theorist Mauritz Johnson sees curriculum as a structured series of intended learning outcomes. Curriculum prescribes (or at least anticipates) the results of instruction. It does not prescribe the means (i.e. activities, materials) or even the instructional content to be used in achieving the results. In specifying outcomes to be sought, curriculum is concerned with ends, but at the level of attainable learning products, not at the more remote level at which these ends are justified. In other words, curriculum indicates what is to be learned, not why it should be learned. Curriculum has reference to what it is intended that students learn, not what it is intended that they do.[1]

The nature of a particular intended learning outcome limits the range of possible appropriate learning experiences and thus guides in the development of the instructional plan, which consists of the instrumental content and teaching strategies.[2] To discuss the procedures involved in this development, the chapter is divided into three sections. These include: (1) the intended learning outcomes, (2) the instrumental content, and (3) the teaching strategies.

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[1] Mauritz Johnson, Jr., "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory," Educational Theory, Vol. 17 (April, 1967), p. 130.

[2] Ibid.

THE INTENDED LEARNING OUTCOMES

The intended learning outcomes or curriculum for the unit are essential elements since they indicate what it is intended that students learn, not what it is intended they do, or why they do it.[3] What the students do comes under the label "instruction." Of course, the intended learning outcomes or primary objectives guide instruction and provide criteria for evaluation.

The intended learning outcomes for the unit, The History of the English Language, are:

(1) to lead students to an awareness of the phenomenon of language, its nature and general characteristics.

(2) to help students acquire knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the English language.

(3) to help students see the cultural and social determination of language.

(4) to make students aware of their own personal roles as users and creators of the English language.

(5) to bring into closer relationship for the students the historical study of language and literature.

(6) to assist students in developing a proper linguistic perspective--to help them develop proper attitudes in regard to linguistic matters.

To achieve the first intended learning outcome (ILO) information dealing with the following is presented:

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[3] Ibid.

(1) A clear definition of language

(2) Theories on the origin of language

(3) The concept of "system" in language

(4) The concepts of language change, language "rules" and language conventions

(5) The concept of "correctness" in language

(6) Dialect

(7) The primacy of speech and the secondary position of writing

(8) The close relationship between societal change and language change

To achieve the second ILO the unit deals with the following aspects of the history of English:

(1) The development of English from Germanic

(2) The influences of other languages (e.g. Latin, French) on early English and on English at other times in its history

(3) The general characteristics of Old English, Middle English and Modern English and the changes in vocabulary and grammar that occurred within

(4) The social and cultural events that had significant effects on the English language

(5) The particular characteristics of the grammar of English and the general processes of word formation in English

To achieve the third ILO a general outline of external language history is presented to the students in Chapter II, sketching the major historical, social and cultural events affecting English from its Germanic beginnings to its position in the world today. As the unit progresses relevant historical information that has significantly affected our

language's development is presented. The relationship between external and internal language history is constantly shown throughout the unit. As in the case of the first two ILO's specified learning activities involving questions, discussions (e.g. discussion of the film, The English Language: Story of Its Development) and projects contribute to the achievement of this third ILO.

To achieve the fourth ILO the unit seeks, wherever possible, to relate the historical information to the students' own lives. In Chapter I the students are shown that they are active agents in historical language change. In each chapter they are constantly asked to connect specific language facts to their own speech or the speech of those around them. In both vocabulary and grammar they are shown contemporary changes which many of them employ in both their speech and writing. By means of illustrating such phenomenon as slang, students are shown that they are unconscious contributors to the historical growth of their own language. Again, questions, discussions and activities aid in the achievement of this objective.

To achieve the fifth ILO the unit gives special attention to the development of English as illustrated in the literature of our language. Excerpts from the literature of the various stages of English (e.g. Beowulf, The Merchant of Venice, The Catcher in the Rye) are used to bring the discussion of language change out of isolation and into relevance through its fuller expression in literature. To clearly show changes in grammar and vocabulary during the Early Modern English period two of Shakespeare's works are discussed. Language change as manifested in slang is discussed in Salinger's The Catcher in the Rye. By means of questions, discussions and several activities involving novels, poems

and plays the unit is able to clearly illustrate significant aspects of English's development as evidenced in our literary heritage.

To achieve the sixth ILO the unit, especially Chapter I, seeks to explain the main misconceptions (e.g. language "correctness"; the absoluteness of language rules) that abound about language. Throughout the unit the teacher should strive to elicit reactions from students whenever misconceived language elements are encountered. Indeed, during the development of the unit the writer was acutely conscious of maintaining a sound linguistic perspective. Furthermore, special activities (e.g. language attitude survey by students, interviews), questions and discussions are designed to help achieve this highly important objective.

The students are also given a questionnaire before and after the teaching of the unit to see if any change in attitude had occurred. This questionnaire is discussed in the next chapter.

These ILO's were selected for the unit on the basis of the significance, applicability and relevance they provided it.

Furthermore, the information presented, the questions asked, the discussions held and the activities suggested, provide opportunities for other desirable learning outcomes to take place. These have not been specified as ILO's but do furnish a platform where certain skills can be improved. These entail: vocabulary building, discussion, group work, drawing inferences, listening, isolating main ideas, appreciating other cultures, questioning, developing skill at interviewing, literary analysis, research skills and chart making.

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN

The instructional plan includes the intended learning outcomes

discussed above, as well as the instrumental content and teaching strategies. The three are interrelated and each, to some extent, is dependent upon the other two. Intended learning outcomes influence instrumental content and teaching strategies. Teaching strategies *utilize instrumental content and intended learning outcomes.* Instrumental content prescribes teaching strategies and intended learning outcomes. However, neither dictates what the other two should be, although at this point in the development of the unit the intended learning outcomes will remain relatively fixed. The instrumental content and the teaching strategies remain flexible.[4]

The Instrumental Content

The instrumental content is that content selected by the teacher, not to be learned, but to facilitate the desired learning (i.e. to achieve the intended learning outcomes). This includes whatever materials and activities are used in the instructional process. Student interaction with the instrumental content helps in the achievement of the ILO's.[5]

The instrumental content developed for the unit, The History of the English Language, includes both reading and non-reading materials.

Reading Material: The unit includes a text for the students and a manual for the teacher.

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[4]Lenora Perry Fagan, "Resource-Based Single Industry Communities: A Unit of Curriculum and Instruction Based on the Theories of Mauritz Johnson and the criteria of the Canada Studies Foundation" (unpublished Master's thesis, Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1974), p. 31.

[5]Ibid., p. 32.

The student text is concerned with clarifying the true nature of language, providing a brief historical sketch of the external history of the English language and tracing the development of English vocabulary and grammar from Old English to Middle English to Modern English. Other aspects of historical language study (e.g. semantics, Old English literature) are briefly dealt with.

The student text is divided into four chapters. Chapter I, largely introductory, seeks to define the true nature of language, its origin, system, general characteristics (e.g. languages change, language systems are arbitrary) and popular misconceptions associated with language (e.g. Newfoundland outport speech is "bad" English).

Chapter II tries to accomplish two things: (1) to show the origin of English from Germanic, and (2) to provide a brief resume of the historical events that have significantly affected the development of the English language. Such historical events would also be emphasized throughout the rest of the text when relevant.

Chapter III focuses on the development of the English vocabulary from Old English to Middle English to Modern English. Discussed here are the numerous foreign influences on the vocabulary, the vocabulary of Shakespeare (his language is fairly representative of the Early Modern English period), change of meaning, and the general processes of word formation found throughout the history of English.

Following each of the four chapters in the text are a series of questions and activities. These questions, of varying difficulty, should indicate how well the students read, listen and discuss. Student comprehension and cognition would be called into play here. Besides the questions at the end of each chapter, the text throughout has built-in

questions to guide student thinking and discussion.

The suggested activities found at the end of each chapter (these activities are both group and individual in nature) complement and reinforce the learning of significant concepts by bringing the language concepts studied into the students' real world. Also, several smaller activities are interspersed throughout the text.

At the end of the text is found a glossary of clearly defined linguistic terms.

The reading material for the text also includes samples of Old English, Middle English and Early Modern English literature, Indo-European vocabulary and passages from Shakespeare. Several of these samples are to be used in different activities. Various print materials (e.g. newspapers, novels) may be utilized but are not included with the unit.

While the text appears fairly structured, enough latitude exists for the competent teacher to utilize the teaching approach that he or she feels will best suit the particular situation and the needs of his or her particular class.

A copy of the student text is found in Appendix B, page 69.

The teacher's manual explains to the teacher the purpose of the unit, describes the materials used, and offers suggestions for heightening and maintaining student interest in the unit. The manual does not include reading material for the teacher on the history of English. The student text presents an adequate coverage of our language's history. However, if the unit is to be effectively taught the teacher must have prior training (i.e. linguistic courses) in the history of English. The manual does contain a short bibliography to be used as a reading resource

by the teacher.

The teacher's manual is meant not as a blueprint for teaching the unit but as a guide so that the ILO's could be better perceived and understood by the teacher. Thus, it hopes to facilitate the teaching of the unit. The development of the teacher's manual took place after the student materials had been developed.

The teacher's manual contains the following sections: a brief introduction; a description of the instrumental content (i.e. reading and non-reading materials); an explanation of the ILO's; a short discussion of teaching strategies for the unit and a bibliography for the teacher.

Teacher materials are found in Appendix A, page 57.

Non-Reading Materials: The unit, The History of the English Language, is multi-media in nature and includes, as well as the student text and teacher manual, a film, two audio tapes and five overhead transparencies. These were developed to supplement and further illustrate the information presented in the text.

The film, The English Language: Story of Its Development, gives a brief sketch of the development of English from its Germanic roots to its position of world importance today noting the various cultural forces that have shaped and molded it through the centuries. This film, used in Chapter II, should help students garner a more total and chronological view of the history of their native tongue.

The two audio tapes are: (1) a reading by Dr. H. Paddock of Memorial University's Linguistics Department of The Lord's Prayer in an Old English dialect. This tape should clearly show students the marked

differences in Old English and Modern English pronunciation; (2) a simulated conversation in the 1950's between two students discussing school. In the tape the students make ample use of slang. Asked to make up their own conversation using the slang of the 1970's, the class should realize the highly transitory nature of slang and the concept of change in language in general.

The overhead transparencies should complement the information given in the text and by the teacher. The transparencies are:

1. A language tree showing the position of English in relation to other world languages. English's descendancy from Germanic is clearly shown.
2. Two short pieces from the poems To A Mouse by Burns and Old Mortality by Scott. These illustrate the presence of Scandinavian in our older literature.
3. A list of four social forces coming to the fore during the Renaissance. These forces greatly affected the development of English vocabulary and grammar.
4. A copy of The Lord's Prayer in Old English.
5. A copy of The Lord's Prayer in Middle English.

The non-reading material just outlined was chosen to illustrate various aspects of the reading material in the unit. The non-reading material should adequately supplement the student text and teacher's manual and should help both achieve the ILO's and reinforce the teaching strategies.

Teaching Strategies

The third component of the instructional plan, the teaching

strategies, are vital in the development of any unit of curriculum and instruction. The inclusion of the teaching strategies within the instructional plan implies that the developer, as well as develop curriculum and display materials, must also consider the actual implementation of the curriculum and the display in the classroom.[6]

Teaching strategies included in the unit are both expository and inquiry oriented. Methods are not dictated here, only suggested, since different classes have different needs and the individual teachers should carefully plan their own lessons and choose the method that will be most effective in their classroom.

To assist the expository strategies, overhead transparencies, readings, audio tapes and a film are contained in the unit.

The inquiry strategies are supported by a series of questions and activities (the activities occur both in and outside of class). Students will be introduced to language concepts (e.g. processes of word formation) and through the inquiry approach can secure their own data and use factual information instead of just remembering it. In this way students will come to see the various patterns of language development through the analysis of details. The pedagogy of the unit then is also strongly inductive, an approach to which the history of our language lends itself very well.

As stated, questioning strategies are essential to the development and presentation of the unit, The History of the English Language. Skilled questioning by the teacher can involve students in conceptualization, problem solving and analytic thinking. Bloom's taxonomy provides

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[6] Ibid., p. 36.

the teacher with the different types of questions which can be effectively utilized in the classroom.[7] They are:

Knowledge -- These questions involve the recall of both specific facts and general concepts. Such questions require students to recall appropriate information. (e.g. Chapter II, Question 3)

Comprehension -- These questions determine whether students can ascertain the meaning of material. This would involve explaining and summarizing material. (e.g. Chapter I, Question 4)

Application -- These questions test the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. This would include the application of rules, concepts, principles, or theories. (e.g. *Chapter III, Activity 1*)

Analysis -- These questions examine the ability to break down material into its constituent parts such that the relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear and/or the relations between the ideas expressed are made explicit. This would include the identification of various elements, study of the relationship between such elements and recognition of the organizational principles involved. (e.g. Chapter IV, Question 2)

Synthesis -- These questions test ability to put together elements and parts so as to form a new whole. Such questions test the creative ability of students. (e.g. Chapter IV, Activity 2)

Evaluation -- These questions test the ability to judge about the value of material and methods for a given purpose. This is the

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[7] Benjamin Bloom, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Cognitive Domain (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 201-207.

highest level of questioning and contains all other categories. (e.g. Chapter III, Question 5)

This unit makes use of all these types of questions, with emphasis on the first four levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. Of course, as they go through the unit teachers can add others of these types of questions as the needs, interests and capabilities of their students dictate.

The teacher should be reminded that various motivational techniques need to be incorporated into the teaching strategies if effective learning is to occur. Such devices as beginning a lesson with a startling statement, guest speakers knowledgeable in the area (e.g. a university linguistics professor), posing problems that you know will ignite student interest, the use of audio-visual materials not included in the unit (e.g. maps), more in-depth discussion of dialects in Newfoundland and tying the unit's content in with related current events (e.g. the air traffic controllers' dispute over the use of French) can help motivate students. These are given more extensive coverage in the teacher's manual, Appendix A, page 57.

CHAPTER IV

FORMATIVE EVALUATION

Evaluation is a vital part of curriculum and instructional development. Formative evaluation, occurring in the intermediary stages of the developmental process, and summative evaluation, occurring after the unit has been completed, play equally important roles in deciding the value of any program.[1] However, for the unit, The History of the English Language, only formative evaluation as set out by Michael Scriven was used.[2]

Formative evaluation will occur during the development and implementation of curriculum and instructional materials. Scriven sees the role of formative evaluation as "discovering deficiencies and successes in the intermediate versions of new curriculum and instructional materials."[3] In the case of The History of the English Language the main aim of evaluation was to revise those parts of the unit which were inappropriate, not to make a final judgment of the unit's worth.

In reference to the developer of curriculum, Scriven states:

> . . . as he proceeds to construct the new material, he is constantly evaluating his own material as better than that which is already current. Unless entirely ignorant of one's

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[1] Fagan, op. cit., p. 41.

[2] Michael Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation," Perspectives of Curriculum Evaluation, eds. R. W. Tyler, R. M. Gagne and M. Scriven (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967), pp. 39-83.

[3] Ibid., p. 51.

> shortcomings as a judge of one's own work, he is also presumably engaged in field-testing the work while it is being developed, and in so doing he gets feedback on the basis of which he again produces revisions; this is of course formative evaluation. . . . He is usually involved with colleagues (e.g. classroom teachers or peers) who comment on the material as they see it--again, this is evaluation, and it produces changes which are allegedly for the better.[4]

During the development of the unit, The History of the English Language, two types of evaluation took place in order to ascertain the unit's deficiencies and strengths. These were: (1) Appraisal by Specialists, and (2) Field Testing. The remainder of this chapter will discuss each of these types of formative evaluation.

APPRAISAL BY SPECIALISTS

During the development of the unit, specialists in the areas involved were consulted to assist in determining both the validity, relevance and teachability of the material. These specialists came from the fields of secondary English education, linguistics and audio-visual. Two members of the teaching profession were also consulted. Scriven supports the use of such specialists:

> We must certainly weigh seriously the opinions of the subject matter expert as to the flavour and quality of the curriculum content. Sometimes it will be almost all we have to go on, and sometimes it will even be enough for some decisions. It should in any event be seriously considered and sometimes heavily weighted in the evaluation process.[5]

An extremely difficult and time-consuming part of the unit was the development of the student text. Several drafts were made, each carefully scrutinized and evaluated by a Memorial University linguist

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[4] Ibid., p. 43.

[5] Ibid., pp. 47-48.

with special interest in the history of English. In the light of his comments both the text and the intended learning outcomes were revised.

Once this was done a specialist in secondary English education was consulted to determine the relevance of the material to the area of English education and to aid in structuring the materials, questions and activities in such a way that would most effectively foster learning in high school students.

When this had been done, a member of Memorial University's audio-visual department was consulted to help with the layout, design and quality of the overhead transparencies, audio tapes and student handouts to be used with the student text. Upon suggestions from this specialist several revisions in the materials were made.

In addition to the above, the opinions of two high school English teachers with background in the area were sought with a view to the relevance, structure and readability of the unit. These teachers also gave helpful hints on how the unit might be implemented in the classroom.

These teachers felt the objectives and materials to be both relevant and essential to the high school student's overall language growth. They felt the unit's structure would facilitate learning and that the text's reading level was suitable for grade eleven students. Both teachers stressed the use of individual and group activities and agreed the unit lent itself very well to inquiry-discovery techniques. Both teachers felt the material would be beneficial to all students, but cautioned that any involved work in it would have to be done with grade eleven students who have reached a competent level of use in both oral and written language.

FIELD TESTING

It is unfortunate that this important part of the evaluation process could not be fully carried out. The circumstances that caused the situation have been discussed in Chapter I. Because of these circumstances it was only possible to teach the unit to one small volunteer group of fifteen grade eleven students at Beaconsfield High School in St. John's. Technically, such a situation nullifies any generalizations of the results of the project beyond this given group. However, the group, made up of average and above average boys and girls from low and lower middle class backgrounds are no doubt representative of high school students in Newfoundland. Therefore, the project's findings can be said to apply at least to urban high school students in our province.

Also, because of circumstances previously outlined, the unit had to be taught by the developer. Indeed, few high school English teachers in St. John's would have been able to successfully teach the unit since the great majority are without professional training in the history of their language. (Upon surveying a large number of high school English teachers in St. John's, the writer found that the number with professional courses in linguistics was terribly limited. As previously stated, English teachers in Newfoundland have concentrated on the study of literature at Memorial University and not linguistics. An examination of the files at the Registrar's Office at Memorial bears out this fact. Studying English literature in no way prepares a teacher to effectively teach this unit.)

Student Evaluations

An extremely important means of evaluation for the unit was the students themselves. The student evaluation included the completion of

two different sets of questionnaires. One, the Student Questionnaire for Lessons (STQL), was given at the end of the unit;[6] the other, an attitude questionnaire, was given immediately before and after the teaching of the unit. The purpose of this instrument was to help determine the effect of the unit on the students' linguistic attitudes. The students also contributed to the evaluation of the unit by open class discussions on the unit, by a series of conversations with individual students, and by taking pre- and post-tests on the content.

The STQL is an instrument developed for the purpose of identifying student reactions in the implementation of curriculum and instructional programs. Its major concerns are with understanding, enjoyment, encouragement and appropriateness. The STQL instrument is found in Appendix H, page 169.

The student questionnaire corroborated the opinions of the developer, specialists and teachers. That is, that the unit was appropriate for the students and that it was enjoyed and understood.

The results of the pre- and post-tests (see Appendix G, page 165), the attitude questionnaire (see Appendix H, page 169), and the discussions with the students are summarized below:

1. The pre-test clearly showed that students had little knowledge of the history of their language. It also provided evidence that various important language elements (e.g. grammar, dialect) were either misconceived or totally unknown.
2. The post-test showed that the students had achieved the major

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[6] Joel Weiss, Jack Edwards, and Olga Dimitri, Formative Curriculum Evaluation: A Manual of Procedures (Field Testing Draft) (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, n.d.

intended learning outcomes of the unit. They now had a more sound understanding of language in general and of the myriad aspects of the historical growth of the English language.

3. The attitude questionnaire given before the teaching of the unit showed the students held the main misconceptions concerning language (e.g. language rules are absolute; some languages are "better" than others). It showed their linguistic perspective to be extremely narrow. The same questionnaire given at the completion of the unit clearly showed that most of the misconceptions had been alleviated (though some, especially the one that sees the speech of some individuals as "better" than that of others were difficult to erase). The questionnaire also showed that students were becoming aware of their roles as agents in historical language change.

4. The discussions with the class and individual students showed: (1) That students were extremely interested in learning about the history of their language and found the unit enjoyable. (2) The students felt that such material was long overdue in English education. (3) The students were unaware of the various aspects of language revealed in the unit and how pervasive and personal an element language is in our lives. (4) The students felt more time should be spent on outside projects (e.g. student language surveys; taping a dialect different than their own) in which language concepts learned in the unit are given greater meaning and relevance through experiencing them in the outside world.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

SUMMARY

This project was concerned with the development of a unit of curriculum and instruction in the history of the English language for grade eleven students. This paper has explained the nature and significance of the project, the problems and special circumstances affecting it, reviewed some of the literature related to such a project, and explained the development and evaluation of the unit, The History of the English Language.

This unit of work on the history of our language was specifically developed for use in grade eleven and incorporates much of the recent thinking in the field of high school linguistic study. The unit was designed to lead students to a new awareness of their own language and language in general by providing information on the historical development of English, by broadening their linguistic perspective and by making the study of language more relevant to their lives. The concise student text, the questions and the activities should provide the teacher with the basics to attain the main objectives of the unit and create for the student a memorable learning experience that will expand his conception of English and language in general.

Mauritz Johnson's theories for curriculum and instructional development provided the developer with a viable theory which distin-

guishes between "curriculum" and "instruction." Johnson's theory gives details of development procedures in both areas--the curriculum development system and the instructional system.

The developer also made use of formative evaluation as proposed by Michael Scriven. That is, evaluation of the material took place throughout the development of the unit. Evaluation of the unit consisted of assessment by specialists, limited field testing, discussions with students and the use of pre- and post-tests and questionnaires to students.

The unit, The History of the English Language, consisted of a student text, a teacher's manual, a film, two audio tapes, five overhead transparencies and several samples of old literature (e.g. Beowulf). It demands that teachers have prior training in the history of English. The unit is designed to suit an inductive teaching approach. Through it students can be led to a more sound understanding of their native tongue and of the phenomenon of language.

CONCLUSIONS

Having completed the development and the formative evaluation of the unit, The History of the English Language, the writer has reached a number of conclusions. They are listed below:

1. Considering the lack of such material in our high school English program and the positive reactions of students, teachers and various specialists involved in the evaluation of the unit, it is felt that this unit was a worthwhile project.
2. Johnson's theories provide a viable model for curriculum and instructional development.

3. The unit can adequately supplement the existing English curriculum in our province's high schools.
4. The unit can be successfully taught to all grade eleven students in Newfoundland who are of average intelligence and who have reasonable competence in the use of oral and written language.
5. The unit can only be successfully taught by teachers who have taken courses in the history of the English language.

IMPLICATIONS

Since the unit, The History of the English Language, was taught to just one small group of students, it should now be taught to a wider number of classes in other high schools in the province to see if similar success will be experienced.

The positive feedback from all those involved in the evaluation of the unit (i.e. students, teachers, specialists) points to the fact that material on the history of our language should be included in the English curriculum of our high schools. Such a situation further implies that our present English curriculum has voids that must be filled if student growth in language expression is to occur.

Most significant, English teachers must become educated in the history of English if they are to help students become competent in all aspects of their language.

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER'S MANUAL

TEACHER'S MANUAL

THE HISTORY
OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A unit of Curriculum and Instruction

by

Daniel Reardon

Table of Contents

Introduction

This unit of work on the history of the English language has been specifically developed for use in grade eleven. Of course, if a grade ten class is highly competent in their use of language, the skilled teacher can utilize the unit at this level. In no way should the unit be taught below grade ten. It should take some four to five weeks to teach the unit effectively. However, this may vary depending upon the needs and capabilities of both class and teacher.

The unit has the purpose of leading students to a new knowledge, appreciation and understanding of their native tongue. Through the historical approach it seeks to broaden students' perception of language, expose them to the myriad aspects of the English language and lead them to see their own personal roles in the historical development of their language.

The variety of information provided, the questions, and the activities should assist the teacher in achieving the objectives of the unit and also promote critical, analytic thinking about the phenomenon of language. By such means the students should be jettisoned out of their complacency about language and given a whole new conception of this their most human characteristic.

The role of the teacher is not to tell students everything. The unit is designed so that the teacher can guide and stimulate them to discover for themselves. The history of the English language lends itself well to such pedagogy.

Instrumental Content

Student Text: The student text deals with the history of the English language. For too long our schools have neglected the history of English. Surely, to gain a total perspective in any area one must have knowledge of that discipline's history. Such has not been the case in our province's schools. We have never yet given students a complete, unified English curriculum from kindergarten to grade twelve. If such a curriculum is to be arrived at material of the type presented in this unit must be included.

Because the history of English is such a broad, complex subject several important areas of historical language study (i.e. pronunciation, spelling and semantics) had to be excluded or only briefly dealt with. The unit focuses on the areas of vocabulary and grammar besides surveying the nature of language in general and the origin of our native tongue. There is enough information

presented, however, to give the students a basic understanding and appreciation of language and the historical growth of their own language, in particular.

While the unit deals with the history of English, the teacher should seek to provide students with information on other languages and their development whenever such information is relevant.

To make the content more meaningful to the students' lives the unit seeks wherever possible to relate various language facts (e.g. modern grammatical changes) to the students' own speech or writing.

The student text is divided into four chapters. Chapter I defines language, explains its origin, system, general characteristics and clarifies popular misconceptions associated with language.

Chapter II traces the origin of English and gives a short historical outline of events that have significantly affected the development of the English language.

Chapter III focuses on the development of English vocabulary from Old English to Middle English to Modern English. Foreign influences on the vocabulary, Shakespeare's vocabulary, change of meaning and the general processes of word formation found throughout the history of English are also discussed.

Chapter IV traces the historical growth of English grammar. Topics covered include the grammar of Shakespeare and grammatical changes taking place in present-day English.

Each chapter is followed by a series of questions and activities. The questions should indicate how well the students have read, listened, discussed and understood. The activities should guide the students in their use of the material. A glossary of linguistic terms is found at the end of the text.

Various samples of older literature and Indo-European vocabulary also accompany the text. Other materials (e.g. novels) may be utilized but are not included with the unit.

Although the text may appear to be fairly structured, the teacher should feel free to employ whatever teaching approach he or she feels will best suite the particular situation.

Other Teaching Materials: This unit of curriculum and instruction is multi-media in nature and includes, as well as the

student text and teacher manual, a film, two audio tapes and five overhead transparencies. These materials should be fully utilized by the teacher who can use them to advantage in the classroom. The teacher should also use any other materials he or she feels will facilitate learning.

The teacher's manual, which you are now using, outlines how the unit might be implemented in the classroom.

The film, The English Language: Story of Its Development, gives a brief sketch of the growth of English from its earliest stages to its position in the world today. It stresses the various cultural and historical forces (e.g. the Norman Conquest) that have significantly affected English through the centuries.

The two audio tapes are: (1) a reading by Dr. H. Paddock of Memorial University Linguistics Department of The Lord's Prayer in an Old English dialect which demonstrates the marked difference between Old English and Modern English pronunciation; (2) a simulated conversation in the 1950's between two students discussing school. The students make ample use of slang. The tape should help the students realize the highly transitory nature of slang and the concept of change in language in general.

The overhead transparencies should complement the information provided in the text and that given by the teacher. The transparencies are:

(1) A "language tree" showing the position of English in relation to other world languages. That English descended from Germanic is clearly shown. Through using this overhead transparency and the information provided in Chapter II the teacher should be able to open up the often misunderstood origin of English for the students. Possibly, copies of this diagram might be produced and given to students since it provides a clear picture of the origin of English and its close relationship to such languages as Dutch and German.

(2) Two short excerpts from the poems To A Mouse by Burns and Old Mortality by Scott. These illustrate the presence of Scandinavian in our older literature. Here the teacher might assign several students to try to discover other evidence of foreign words in our literature. The teacher should bring together historical language study and literature study whenever possible.

(3) A list of four social forces coming to the fore during the Renaissance. These forces greatly affected the development of English vocabulary and grammar.

(4) A copy of The Lord's Prayer in Old English.

(5) A copy of The Lord's Prayer in Middle English. The teacher may wish to put other samples of Old or Middle English (e.g. Chaucer) on overhead transparencies.

Intended Learning Outcomes

The main objectives for the unit are:

(1) to lead students to an awareness of the phenomenon of language, its nature and general characteristics.

(2) to help students acquire knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the English language.

(3) to help students see the cultural and social determination of language.

(4) to make students aware of their own personal roles as users and creators of the English language.

(5) to bring into closer relationship for the students the historical study of language and literature.

(6) to assist students in developing a proper linguistic perspective--to help them develop proper attitudes in regard to linguistic matters.

To achieve the first intended learning outcome (ILO) information dealing with the following is presented:

(1) A clear definition of language

(2) Theories on the origin of language

(3) The concept of "system" in language

(4) The concepts of language change, language "rules" and language conventions

(5) The concept of "correctness" in language

(6) Dialect

(7) The primacy of speech and the secondary position of writing

(8) The close relationship between societal change and language change

To achieve the second *ILO* the unit deals with the following aspects of the history of English:

(1) The development of English from Germanic

(2) The influences of foreign languages

(3) The general characteristics of English at its various stages and the changes in vocabulary and grammar that occurred within

(4) The social and cultural events significantly affecting English

(5) The particular characteristics of the grammar of English and the general processes of word formation in English

To achieve the third ILO a general outline of external language history is presented to the students in Chapter II. Throughout the text relevant historical information that has significantly affected our language's development is presented.

To achieve the fourth ILO the unit seeks, wherever possible, to relate the historical information to the students' own lives. In each chapter students are constantly asked to connect specific language facts to their own speech or the speech of those around them.

To achieve the fifth ILO the unit gives special attention to the development of English as illustrated in the literature of our language. Excerpts from the literature of the various stages of English are used to bring historical language study and literature study closer together.

To achieve the sixth ILO the unit, especially Chapter I, seeks to explain the main misconceptions that abound about language. Throughout the unit the teacher should strive to elicit reactions from students whenever misconceived language elements are encountered.

Also, the text has a wide range of specifically designed questions and activities to help achieve these objectives.

Teaching Strategies

It is hoped that the teacher will be able to employ both expository and inquiry strategies when teaching this unit. However, because of the different backgrounds and needs of the students and the varying sizes of the classes, methods are only

suggested, not prescribed. Indeed, the individual teacher is more acutely aware of the specific needs of the students than the developer of curriculum materials. Teachers should, therefore, decide on their own lessons and choose the method they feel will be more effective in their classes.

To assist in the expository strategies, overhead transparencies, readings, audio tapes, and a film are contained in the unit.

The inquiry strategies are supported by a series of questions and activities that allow students to use their cognitive and affective thinking skills. Through the inquiry approach students can secure their own data and use factual information instead of just remembering it. In this way students will come to see the various patterns of language development through the analysis of details. This inductive approach can make learning about language a meaningful and personal experience.

Questioning: Questioning strategies are essential to the development and presentation of this unit. Skilled questioning by the teacher can involve students in conceptualization, problem solving and analytic thinking.

It might be helpful for the teacher to be reminded of the number of different types of questions which can be used in the classroom. According to Bloom's taxonomy they are:

Knowledge -- These questions involve the recall of both specific facts and general concepts. Such questions require students to recall appropriate information. (e.g. Chapter II, Question 3)

Comprehension -- These questions determine whether students can ascertain the meaning of material. This would involve explaining and summarizing material. (e.g. Chapter I, Question 4)

Application -- These questions would test the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. This would include the application of rules, concepts, principles, or theories. (e.g. Chapter III, Activity 1)

Analysis -- These questions examine the ability to break down material into its constituent parts such that the relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear and/or the relations between the idea expressed are made explicit. This would include the identification of various elements, study of the relationship between such elements and recognition of

the organizational principles involved. (e.g. Chapter IV, Question 2)

Synthesis -- These questions test ability to put together elements and parts so as to form a new whole. Such questions test the creative ability of students. (e.g. Chapter IV, Activity 2)

Evaluation -- These questions test the ability to judge about the value of material and methods for a given purpose. This is the highest level of questioning and contains all other categories. (e.g. Chapter III, Question 5)

This unit utilizes all these types of questions, with emphasis on the first four levels of Bloom's taxonomy. Of course, as they go through the unit teachers can add other questions of these types as the needs, interests and capabilities of their students dictate.

The answers to the questions at the end of each chapter can be found by quickly reading the chapter. Before leaving each chapter the teacher should determine whether or not students know this basic information. The questions can usually be answered orally or on paper.

The activities at the end of each chapter provide the students with an opportunity to integrate the knowledge they have acquired. Obviously, all activities cannot be carried out and the teacher should decide on which ones will best benefit various students. With the activities and questions varying in difficulty the teacher must also choose those best suited for different students.

Motivation: For any teaching endeavor to be a success, various motivational techniques need to be incorporated into the teaching strategies. It is vital that students be motivated at the start of any class or especially at the start of any unit of work.

Some suggestions for getting the unit underway might be:

(1) Beginning the lesson with a startling statement or question. For example, "If the French had not conquered England in 1066, we might all be speaking German today." This will undoubtedly provoke discussion and the teacher can further kindle the flame by reading a piece of Old English literature (e.g. Beowulf) to show students the clear relation in pronunciation between Old English and Modern German.

(2) Bringing in a guest speaker from the university. Because of his wide background, a linguistics professor can touch upon new and fascinating aspects of language history and bring student interest to newer heights. A talk from such an individual on the origins of language or the English language in the year 1000 would surely encourage student learning.

(3) By posing a problem or a hypothetical situation. Since language is constantly changing, what will English sound like in twenty years? Could it be possible that it will be totally different from English today?

(4) The use of materials. This might include using some of the overhead transparencies provided; mentioning a topic (e.g. Old English pronunciation), briefly introducing it, showing an overhead transparency of The Lord's Prayer in Old English and playing a tape recording of it. The teacher could bring to class some old manuscripts and ask leading questions to get students interested in the spelling, vocabulary or grammatical forms found in the manuscripts. The teacher may bring to class a map that clearly shows the roots of English in continental Europe.

(5) More in-depth discussion of dialects in Newfoundland. This would certainly make the study of the concept of dialect more interesting for the students. The teacher should show the students that they all speak a dialect and that no dialect is any better or worse than another. Students' taping of different dialects can be a fascinating experience.

(6) Discussion of current events related to the unit's content. For example, the air traffic controllers' dispute over the use of French.

These techniques and others should be utilized both at the start and throughout the teaching of the unit if student interest is to be maintained.

Background for the Teacher

The student text contains enough information for any teacher with adequate background in the history of English to competently teach the unit even if no other information is available. However, if the teacher is to bring a more complete knowledge of the history of English to the classroom, he or she must be exposed to information on the areas excluded in the unit (i.e. pronunciation, spelling and semantics), as well as additional information on grammar and vocabulary. Listed below are several books covering the main aspects of the history of English. These books would prove very helpful to the teacher who wishes to bring a broader knowledge of his subject to the classroom.

Cannon, Garland. A History of the English Language. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1972.

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APPENDIX B

STUDENT TEXT

THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A Unit of Curriculum and Instruction

by

Daniel Reardon

CHAPTER I

Yes, what is language? Stop for a moment and think about this simple yet difficult question. Can you come up with your own definition? Write down your own definition of language in your notebooks. Discuss what you have written with your teacher.

O.K., now let's look at this concise definition of language:

> "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which human beings communicate with."

Consider the underlined elements of this definition and discuss them with the rest of the class. Make the definition clearer in your minds.

Now we have some idea of what language is. For a more complete understanding we will look at several other aspects, most of which are closely connected with this definition.

The beginning is always a good place to start. Where did language originate? Do animals communicate? In what way is the animal's method less flexible than your own? Why did man first speak? How did he speak? Consider these questions and try to come up with any answers you can. (Brief discussion)

If you feel you've reached no sound conclusions, don't feel bad. Have a look at what knowledge there is in this area. The answer is that we have absolutely no information on the origin of language. The earliest languages of which we have any records are already in a high state of development. The problem of how language began has always tantalized learned minds and several "theories" have been advanced:

(1) The "bow-wow" theory -- language began with the imitation of noises.

(2) The "pooh-pooh" theory -- that emotions or exclamations were the basis of language.

(3) The "yo-he-ho" theory -- that language began as noise emitted from effort or work.

The names of the theories indicate with what little seriousness we should regard them. No one knows how language began. We can only be sure of its immense antiquity.

However he did it, man began to talk an extremely long time ago and it was not till much later that he devised a system of making marks on wood, stone and the like to represent what he meant or said when he talked. So speech is much older than writing historically.

One of the key words in our definition of language is "system." We briefly discussed this term above, but let's look at it more closely now.

We are all aware of city traffic lights. They operate on a system. The elements of the system (colored lights, arrows, time duration) work together. If a driver does not understand or follow the system of traffic lights, chaos occurs. In the same way, when a speaker cannot properly organize the elements of a language there is a breakdown in communication.

For example, consider this statement, "much he very loves her." Of course, we know this statement should be "He loves her very much." Here we see one obvious element of the system of language -- word order. The English language system consists of three main parts:

(1) phonology (contrasting sounds)

(2) morphology (how meaningful parts combine into words)

(3) syntax (the relationships among words)

(It is the area of syntax we have just looked at in the statement above.) These three major elements must work together if clear meaning and communication are to be found in the noises that come from our mouths. Later, in our section on grammar, the concepts of language system, language "rules," "correctness," usage and so on will be studied more fully.

Another vital term in our language definition is "arbitrary." When we speak of "arbitrary vocal symbols" we are talking about combinations of sounds that have meaning for a certain population in a certain area. That is, the spoken word "horse" is a combination of sounds that has meaning for English-speaking peoples. Say "horse" to a Spaniard and it has absolutely no meaning. His people have their own vocal symbols to communicate this meaning. Furthermore, what we all call a horse (a large, four-legged animal) could just as easily have been called a

"chair," if centuries ago men had decided on this combination of sounds to indicate the large, four-legged animal. The vocal symbols usually bear no natural relationship to what they represent. (Your teacher may wish to explain the idea of "sound symbolism.")

The number of speech sounds that a human being can produce and distinguish is theoretically unlimited. So many, however, would be impractical for speakers to manage. Therefore, each language consists of a limited number of contrastive speech sounds selected from a larger number of possibilities.

Not only the sound system, but the other "systems" of a language seem quite arbitrary. They represent the unique selection made by the speakers of that particular language, though it may share certain features with other languages. This system is not permanent or fixed, it is subject to change. The speakers of the language may, as a social group, change any aspect of their language system at any time, though there is usually little conscious desire to do so. Instead of saying, "to the river" as in "I walked to the river," all speakers of English might come to put the preposition at the end of the phrase: "I walked the river to." With all in agreement on this new usage and meaning understood, this would become the accepted form. A seemingly arbitrary change would have taken place.

Understanding the arbitrary nature of language leads us into a consideration of the closely connected term "language change." For since language is highly arbitrary, it is consequently open to changes of various types. So then, language is not a rigid, unchanging, sacred thing frozen forever in its present form. It is a constantly changing thing, like anything else that is alive and growing.

You might say, "Yes, but what about the rules of grammar? Surely they must be followed and not broken. They cannot change."

I am sure many of you have this impression. Unfortunately, it is a mistaken one. Since language is open to change, it is highly inaccurate to speak of the "rules" of grammar or "correct" English, if by the word "rules" we mean something fixed and unchanging like the rules of Mathematics or Physics. Language does not always operate according to such rules. Laws of Physics are discovered. The rules of language are man made and man can and does change the rules of language frequently.

For example, we all know the rule that you must never put a preposition at the end of a sentence. Contrary to some opinion, such a rule did not come from heaven. It is the concoction of some eighteenth century guardians of social propriety who felt they had

to do something to "fix up" the language. They borrowed this rule from Latin, a language having a different "system" from that of English. This rule, plus numerous others, has been forced on us and given the same absolute position as the equation 2 + 2 = 4. Yet today, most confident speakers of English freely put prepositions at the ends of sentences ("Where did you go to?"). Are they breaking a rule? No. Actually, they are establishing an accepted form of expression and letting the language take the form it is bound to take, rules or no rules.

There are, of course, language conventions (i.e. capital letters, subject-verb agreement) that we must follow because they are just that, conventions, accepted forms used by the majority of educated speakers of English. The doctrine of usage (that speech used by the majority of educated speakers in a society), as we will learn later, is our sole standard in language, not the rules we find in dusty old English texts. These language conventions may change if other forms become accepted by the majority of educated speakers.

This in turn brings us to the concept of language "correctness" or right and wrong language. We must adjust our thinking. Again our topic is not Physics, but language. No language is innately better than any other. That is, English is not a more correct or better language than, say, Chinese. Each language best serves the needs of its speakers and it will change when these speakers collectively make changes in it. In discussing language the terms "good" and "bad" have no place.

Likewise, we should not speak of someone's "incorrect" language. You may say to the teacher, "I ain't goin today." Are you speaking incorrectly? No. You are just not using the accepted forms or accepted usage. You are not speaking standard English which would be, "I'm not going today." Your speech is inappropriate, not incorrect. Remember the words correct, incorrect, right and wrong belong to Mathematics and Science discussions, not discussions of language.

In Newfoundland, St. John's people often frown on the speech of baymen who for example, "drop their h's" in such words as "how" and "hell" or use verb forms such as "I goes," "I does." In their attitude these people are being both cruel and naive. They condemn this speech as uneducated, wrong and bad. While it may be uneducated, it is neither wrong nor bad. The bayman's language is just as "good" as theirs. It is simply different. It is a different dialect from theirs. That is, it is a variety of our language that differs from our language in certain sounds, word forms and grammatical patterns. However, it does not differ so much that we cannot understand it. A dialect differs from the standard

language (itself a dialect) or the accepted speech of educated speakers of English. It is neither wrong nor inferior, just different.

The bayman's speech is not a corruption of "good English" either; nor is the townie's speech a corruption of mainland Canadian speech. Some people feel one of the highest goals in life is to use a refined, correct, pure language, free from the errors and ignorant developments found in the language of some speakers (e.g. fishermen, garbage collectors). Again, we must see the essential problem. Is the fisherman corrupting English by his speech? Should he be frowned upon for "right flat" and "ain't never?" No! He is a speaker of a non-standard dialect, not a boorish soul who doesn't know how to speak the English language.

Indeed, many of you may speak a non-standard dialect. As educated persons you must, however, learn to master the standard dialect, for it is more socially accepted and valuable (in the sense that job and career advancement depend in no small way on mastery of the standard dialect). The truly competent speaker of English, then, is the person who can adjust his language to varying situations (e.g. informal party, formal speech). We must seek to speak appropriately, not correctly. What is appropriate language for one situation may not be appropriate for another.

Many people believe that "correct" English is written English. This is a popular yet mistaken notion. Language is primarily speech, not writing. Writing is merely a mass of symbols (letters) used to represent language. Speech has been around for thousands of years longer than writing, a relatively recent invention of man.

Language is speech, but not only what you say in class. When you talk on the bus, on the phone or on a date you are constantly using language. Think of the amount of time you spend speaking as compared to writing. Speech is primary, writing is secondary. The changes that occur in language emanate from speech much more than from writing. Writing is a representation of language, speech is a much truer one.

A few final points to keep in mind for now. Language changes. It never remains the same. Throughout this whole unit the concept of language change is clearly shown. The history of English (or any language) is a cumulative picture of changes within that language. English spoken a thousand years ago is markedly different from English spoken today. A thousand years from now the language of your descendants will be more different still. As long as people talk it will change.

As long as people talk, trade, explore, wage war and develop new ideas and new styles of living language will change. As man's society changes, his language also changes. For example, if Americans in the 1980's devise a new way for man to travel -- perhaps locomotion produced simply by mental concentration plus electrical charges -- the language will respond by developing and popularizing the necessary terminology for discussion of the matter, just as the language of the 1960's invented and absorbed the new terminology of space travel.

Notice how the "Hippie Movement" gave us many new words or old words with new meanings: hip, ripped-off, crash, trip. The Hippie Movement was a cultural trend that had obvious effects on our language. The Norman Conquest of Britain in 1066 is another historical-cultural event that greatly affected our language. (This will be made clear later.) Into our own province several centuries ago came men from Europe who settled in isolated fishing communities. Having little or no contact with outside influences, these hardy people and their descendants preserved, in many cases, the same pronunciation (i.e. Middle and Early Modern English pronunciation) they had brought over to Newfoundland so many years before. (However, in the area of grammar liberal changes were made in these non-standard dialects; standard dialect tended to "freeze" grammar.) Thus, we have many non-standard dialects around our province. The isolation of these people from other speakers (an historical-cultural fact) greatly affected the development of their language. Language, then, does not exist in a vacuum, it is culturally determined.

Finally, one more major point must be realized before you go any further. In studying Physics, History or Geometry you often feel little connection between what you do in school and what happens in your daily lives. In studying the history of your language the situation is different. Probably no other area of study is more personally connected to you. You will see that language is like an organism that grows and changes when its speakers' demands upon it change. Well, you are the speakers of your language and you carry on a conflicting dual relationship with the English language: as a speaker of English you at the same time use what others have created and are creating what others will use.

You are an agent in historical language change. As speakers of English you are helping shape the English language of the future. In the final section of this text various contemporary changes in grammar are pointed out. Many of you employ these newer forms in your speech and writing and in doing so you are, as both an individual and a group, acting as agents in language change.

As we go through this unit try to keep in mind what has been said above. As the unit evolves the points made here will become clear and will take on a personal importance and relevance that you may not think possible. We are not studying something in this unit that is foreign or meaningless to our lives. We are studying language--an aspect of our lives that is probably the most personal, characteristic, and uniquely human thing we have.

Questions

1. From the three proposed theories of the origin of language pick one that you feel is the most reasonable. Briefly explain why you think so.

2. Does the word "book," four letters placed together to represent several sounds, have any natural connection with those "things" you study at night. What could have those "things" been called?

3. If you could get everybody who speaks English to go along with you, what changes would you make in the language we speak?

4. Briefly explain the difference between the "rules" of language and the "rules" of Physics.

5. What do you think of the speaker of this statement: "Boy, those fishermen are really idiots. Did you hear the way they spoke?"

6. What is a dialect? Why is it important to speak the "standard dialect?"

7. What other cultural events, besides those mentioned above, have greatly affected language in Newfoundland?

8. How are you an "agent" in language change?

Activities

1. Make a brief survey of people's attitudes towards the speech of "outport people." Ask parents, relatives, and friends. Write down ten reactions to your question.

2. Using a tape recorder, get an example of a non-standard dialect. Interview a friend, uncle or neighbor who speaks such a dialect. Your teacher will instruct you in the proper handling of such an interview.

3. Make a list of twenty words that the "Hippie Movement" has added to our language.

CHAPTER II

Languages are not born. They are always developments of older languages rather than descendants in the sense that people are descendants of their forefathers.

Languages are often classified on the basis of correspondences of sound and structure that indicate relationship through common origin. The languages shown to come from a "parent language" in this way are called a "language family." They are all related through a common origin, though they may be markedly different now.

Linguistic research has shown that nearly all the languages of Europe (and hence of the Americas and other parts of the world colonized by Europeans) and some of Asia have similarities in sound, structure and word stock that clearly indicate they have all developed from a single language spoken in prehistoric times. This earlier language is called Indo-European.

There are nine main groups of the Indo-European languages: Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Hellenic, Albanian, Italic, Balto-Slavic, Celtic and Germanic.[1] Of sole interest to us here is the Germanic branch of Indo-European. (See overhead)

When scholars of Modern English began to try to determine where our language had developed from, they compared various elements in English with those of other languages.

A comparison of English with French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian and Latin gives:

ENGLISH	French	Spanish	Portuguese	Italian	Latin
[grass]	herbe	hierba	erva	erba	herba
[moon]	lune	luna	lua	luna	luna
[blood]	sang	sangre	sangue	sangue	sanquis

You can undoubtedly tell that the bracketed English words do not fit in this group. These languages (Romance languages) are derived from ancient Latin, which in turn came from the Italic branch of Indo-European.

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[1] Albert C. Baugh, A History of the English Language (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 23.

A comparison with another set of languages, however, does indicate the pattern which most simple English words fit:

ENGLISH	German	Dutch	Swedish	Danish	Gothic
grass	Gras	gras	gräs	graes	gras
moon	Mond	maan	mane	maane	mēna
blood	Blut	bloed	blod	blod	blôþ

All these words are native Germanic words. They have been in English since it began. All having a common origin, they are called "cognates," a word which literally means "born together."

An even more convincing means of verifying English's common origin with German and these other languages is to compare elements of grammar. For example, the following English and German pronouns have similarities not only in subject forms but in other forms as well.

Mod. Eng.	German	Early Mod. Eng.	German
I	ich	thou	du
me	mir	thee	dir
	mich		dich
mine	mein	thine	dein
he	er	who	wer
him	ihm	whom	wem
	ihn		wen

Look at the similarities between Modern German and old English of a thousand years ago:

Old English	Modern German
ic	ich
mē	mir
mec	mich
mīn	mein
hē	er
him	ihm
hine	ihn

What does this correspondence between Old English and German show? It shows that the farther back one goes into the

history of the individual languages of the Germanic group the greater the similarity one finds.

Again notice English and German verb systems:

(A)	I learn	learned	have learned
	ich lerne	lernte	habe gelernt
(B)	I sing	sang	have sung
	ich singe	sang	habe gesungen

What do you see? In (A) we add a suffix (with a d or t sound) to change the form of most English verbs. German does the same. Example (B) shows that in English we also change the vowel rather than add a suffix. German does the same.[2]

Correspondences such as these, which could be multiplied almost endlessly throughout the Germanic languages, lead to one logical explanation: these languages have all developed from one language. This language is called Proto-Germanic, the language branch of Indo-European from which such languages as English, German, Dutch, Swedish and Danish developed. Unfortunately, there are no written records of Proto-Germanic. However, there is no doubt it once existed in the mouths, ears and minds of a people in Europe.

Our own language, as you can see, has a close historical relationship with German. This may be surprising to many of you. Indeed, you will note later that if the French had not conquered England in the eleventh century and brought their language into that land, we might today be speaking a language very much more like German.

(The following is a brief resume of the historical events that have significantly affected the development of the English language. The content of this summary is derived from: W. Nelson Francis, The History of English.)

Language does not exist in a vacuum. It is profoundly affected by events that are outside the realm of language. Events such as migrations, war, inventions, exploration and intellectual movements have significant effects on language. Such happenings

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[2]Robert J. Geist, A Short History of English (London: The Macmillan Company Collier-Macmillan Limited, 1970) pp. 14-19.

constitute what might be called the "external history" of a language -- non-linguistic forces from outside that precipitate language changes.

As you have concluded, "internal history," on the other hand, focuses on a language's development separate from cultural, economic or political forces that help shape the language. Its concern is just with linguistic events, not non-linguistic events.

It is often difficult, if not impossible, to separate the internal and external history of a language. Throughout this text both will be incorporated to show their vital interaction. Here, however, a brief sketch of the external history of English will be drawn to provide you with an overview of the major social, cultural, political and economic events in history upon which our language's development was so dependent.

As an island, England has always been susceptible to foreign invasions. We know from history that Julius Caesar, the great Roman general, had visited Britain in 55 B.C. and had laid the groundwork for its eventual annexation to Rome in A.D. 43 by the Emperor Claudius.

The inhabitants of Britain at this time spoke various Celtic dialects which had been brought into England by earlier conquering invaders. These Celtic-speaking people adopted the Roman civilization and eventually Christianity. In the latter half of the fifth century, the Roman army having departed, these people were invaded by a rugged people from Denmark and Northern Germany. These pagan hordes came and stayed. The first major event in the external history of English was underway. This invasion came to be known as the "Anglo-Saxon" invasion of Britain, getting its name from two main Germanic tribes, the Angles and the Saxons. Incidentally, the name "England" comes from the tribe, the Angles. The name "Angles" later became "Engle" -- "Englaland" (Angles land) and then England.

These Germanic tribes put down Celtic resistance and ruled the land, but they too were soon to be invaded by the marauding Danes, another Germanic-speaking people.

Before the coming of the Danes, however, there was another event which was of great importance to the history of the language. This was the Christianizing of pagan England. With conversion came the use of Latin by monks and priests and many words were borrowed from Latin at this time.

The Danes or Vikings who began their devastating raids on Britain during the early ninth century were former neighbors of the Anglo-Saxons on the European continent. During the ninth cen-

tury they almost succeeded in conquering the whole island, but soon settled in England, content to rule part of it and live fairly peacefully alongside their ancestral Germanic neighbors. The Danes spoke various dialects of Old Norse, the ancestor of the modern Scandanavian languages. They carried over into the English of this period (called Old English) many words from their native Norse. Many of these words such as sky, scrape, they, and them have since become standard English.

The next major influence on our language was the conquest of England by William of Normandy in 1066. William's people were French-speaking (many of them were of Scandinavian origin) and their occupation of the high posts in government and law brought French into the position of an official language in England. English, in effect, went underground, for it was spoken mainly by common people. The effects that the French language was to have on English were immense. When English again gained prominence around the thirteenth century, it had changed drastically. The changes were so great, in fact, that we now give it a new name, Middle English. It was coming to resemble Modern English more and more.

The four centuries included in what we call the Middle English period embrace the high point and subsequent decline of The Middle Ages. Politically, they mark the first stages of the development of government by Parliament and judicial law. In terms of social organization this period marks the transition from feudalism to the combination of town-dwellers and free tenant farmers which formed early modern society before the industrial revolution.

One of the most important facts about English history since the Norman Conquest is that England has never again been invaded or conquered from outside by a people speaking another tongue. But for the first two hundred years of the Middle English period English was in competition with French. The upper classes normally spoke French and the masses spoke English. However, since the masses outweighed the French speakers in numbers, if not in wealth and power, they eventually forced bilingualism upon their superiors.

The relinquishment of estates in France by the English nobility, the emergence of English nationalism and the rise of English as a literary language made English, by 1400, the main language of England.

But the language was a composite of dialects. These dialect differences did not die away, but a standard dialect arose, the speech of London., Being the center of trade, government and intellectual activity, London's upper class speech soon became the

prestigious one. To be "someone" you had to speak it. Thus, it became the standard form in England and it still is the British standard to a large extent.

Writing, up to this time, had shown evidence of various dialects. However, in 1476, the emergence of the printing press, sending identical copies of the same text over the whole country, made a standard writing system both desirable and feasible. While the pronunciation of English has changed extensively since 1500, the writing system has changed very little.

The Old English period saw the establishment of English in its new island home and its development from the language of pagan invaders to the language of a civilized and Christian society. During the Middle English period, English, temporarily replaced by French in society's upper levels, reshaped itself grammatically, enriched its vocabulary by extensive borrowings from French and emerged as a national language equal to the needs of both commoner and poet. The next period, the Modern English period, is marked by two major developments: (1) the continued growth of the language in versatility, variety and wealth of vocabulary as it became the vehicle for one of the richest and most extensive of literatures; and (2) the spread of the language into many new parts of the world and the rapid growth of the English-speaking community into a position of world-wide influence and importance. These two developments are not unconnected; each reinforced the other.[3]

The beginning of the Modern English period (around the year 1500) coincides with the Renaissance, or with the beginning of modern history. Men of the Renaissance turned back to the glories of the ancients and encouraged the study of the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Again, English was temporarily eclipsed by foreign tongues. However, through the work of staunch teachers and writers (e.g. Shakespeare) and inspired by a fierce patriotism, English again arose as the main language of life and literature. Once more English had weathered a storm and in the process enriched itself with extensive word borrowings from Latin and Greek.

Another significant event of the Modern English period has been the extent of English exploration, discovery and colonization. The language was, thus, spread to the Americas (mainly Canada and the U.S.A.), Asia (mostly India), parts of Africa, Australia, New Zealand and many smaller islands in all oceans.

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[3] W. Nelson Francis, The History of English (New York: W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1963), p. 16.

In discussing the external history of English during the Modern period, three other main trends can be singled out:

(a) The growth of mass education and the consequent spread of literacy to nearly all native speakers of English. This had profound effects on the language and its speakers (the main one being the standardization of the language).

(b) A second phenomenon of modern times which has had a great effect on the language is the accelerating revolution in all fields of knowledge, but especially in science and technology. This has affected all languages of the civilized world, not just English. One consequence has been the building up of a large vocabulary of science that people have incorporated into everyday speech.

(c) A third important development has been the extensive and intensive study of the language itself. The study of English grammar began in the sixteenth century, but has been greatly intensified since the middle of the eighteenth. Our schools today teach facts and theories about the English language, as well as giving practice in the skills of using it. This kind of study about language has considerable influence upon people's attitudes toward language and hence has a feedback effect on our use of the language itself.

This brief summary, then, has traced the external history of English, beginning as the language of a few thousand Germanic tribesmen in northern Europe and ending as a great world language. In the pages that follow the "internal history" of English is our main focus, but the historical circumstances mentioned both here and later must be held close in mind if a proper understanding of our language's development is to be attained.

(Film -- The English Language: Story of Its Development)

Questions

1. What is a language family? To what language family does English belong? What is English's "parent language?"

2. What is "external" language history? What is "internal" language history?

3. What language did the Angles and Saxons speak?

4. Did the language that came to be called English come into being gradually or abruptly? Explain briefly.

5. Why were the Danes and Vikings able to live peaceably alongside the Germanic tribes they invaded? What was probably the main contributing factor?

(Other important areas mentioned will be "questioned" in a later chapter.)

Activities

1. Check an encyclopedia or history book. Read more about the Norman Conquest of England. Does this account mention the Conquest's effect on the English language?

2. Make a chart, showing in outline form the main historical events affecting the English language. Use the historical overview given in this chapter.

CHAPTER III

(The content of this chapter is derived from Albert C. Baugh, The History of the English Language.)

The word "language," whether heard, spoken or seen on the printed page, brings to many of us thoughts of an enormous collection of words. While this mental picture is understandable, it is narrowly conceived and misleading.

Language is more than a vast assemblage of words tucked neatly away in our heads. As you now know, it includes a complex system governing the ways in which these words can be put together. Indeed, it is possible that we could know the meaning and pronunciation of every English word and yet be unable to write or speak an English sentence. We shall look at this "system" later in our study of English grammar's development. For now, it is sufficient that we recognize that a language is more than its total store of words.

In probably no other area of the English language are the results of social and cultural history more dramatically shown than in vocabulary. The words we use daily are never closely scrutinized or examined. Indeed, this would never occur to us, for the words we speak, like the air we breathe, are so much a part of us that such an examination seems both unnatural and unnecessary. However, it is because of this very close connection between man and the words he speaks that they should be studied and examined.

The brief, superficial look we are attempting here will hopefully bring you a new awareness of your language. Afterwards, some of you may find yourselves noting the origins and forms of words you speak or hear in the day-to-day run of life. You will find what you read in the next few pages interesting because it is about the making of something that is truly yours, your language.

> (Here's a little activity. Write down ten of the most common words you use daily. Keep these words in your notebooks and later we will check to see just where they came from. You may be surprised to see how many of them are from other languages, not English.)

This chapter, then, will trace the development of Old English vocabulary into our present lexicon. It will seek to show

the social and cultural events that play such a significant role in the growth of our vocabulary. Finally, it will give a concise explanation of the general processes of word making that have been evidenced in the history of the English language.

Before moving further, it would be wise to briefly introduce three basic, common processes of word building found throughout the history of English.

(a) Inflection: The verb show has various forms. To the base morpheme show we can add various suffixes or inflectional endings: show-s, show-ed, show-n and show-ing. Such endings are also added to nouns to make them plural (e.g. car - cars). Other endings are the -'s we use with nouns to show possession (e.g. the girl's coat); the endings we add to some adjectives like loud louder loudest; and the -ly of adverbs (e.g. slowly). Through the use of inflectional endings the form of a word is changed and other words are formed from a base. The word maintains its part of speech (e.g. the verb show remains a verb though it takes on additional forms).

(b) Derivation: Other affixes, besides those mentioned above (including all prefixes and most suffixes) are derivational. That is, when added to a word they form a new word and a new part of speech. If you take the verb agree and add the suffixes -able and -ment you get the adjective agreeable and the noun agreement. These two words, then, are derivatives of agree. Derivation is an old method of forming new words that is still much used.

(c) Compounding: This is simply the joining of two or more words together. It has always been a favorite means of word formation throughout the history of our language. In Old English we find "learning-hus" 'learning house - school.' In Modern English we have "swimsuit."

Compounds combine two or more base morphemes with each other and derivatives combine affixes with a base. In both cases whole morphemes are being joined.

Old English (450-1100)

From the short historical account previously given we realize that during this period of our language the bulk of the French and Latin words that we have today had not yet entered the language. It would seem that this would greatly limit the resources of the vocabulary. However, such a logical conclusion is not so. On the contrary, the English vocabulary at this time shows great resourcefulness and flexibility -- a capacity for bending old words to new uses. For example, by means of prefixes and suffixes a single root is made to yield a variety of derivatives and the range of these is greatly extended by another process called "compounding." NOTE:

The Old English word mōd, which gives us our Modern word "mood" (a mental state), meant in Old English 'heart,' 'mind,' 'spirit' and later 'courage' or 'pride.' From this word, by the addition of a common adjective ending, was formed the adjective 'mōdig' with a similar range of meanings (spirited, arrogant, high-minded) and by means of further endings the adjective 'mōdiglic' (magnanimous), the adverb 'mōdiglice' (boldly) and the noun 'mōdignes' (magnanimity, pride).[1]

By combining the root with other words meaning 'mind' or 'thought' the idea of the word is intensified, and we get 'mōdcraeft' (intelligence), 'mōdcraeftig' (intelligent) and 'mōdlufu' (affection; O.E. lufu = love).[2]

The point is clear. From the same root many words were formed. Actually, from the root 'mod' more than a hundred words were formed. This fact shows the remarkable capacity of Old English for word formation and the flexibility of expression it possessed. In Modern English we carry on this same process, but never to the same degree. Old English was far more resourceful in utilizing its native material than Modern English, which has come to rely, to a large extent, on its facility in borrowing and assimilating elements from other languages. The resourcefulness of Old English bears out the old adage, "Necessity is the mother of invention." Indeed, when any language, whether English, French or

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[1] Albert C. Baugh, A History of the English Language (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 74.

[2] Ibid.

Hebrew, must improvise, must create words to serve a need, it has a remarkable ability to do so.

In the previous paragraph the word 'modlufu' was given. It is a compound of two native words whose meaning is self-evident. We have these in Modern English also: steamboat, railroad, gentleman. Words of this character are found in most languages, but the type is particularly prevalent in Old English, as it is in Modern German. Where today English may have a borrowed word or a word made up of elements derived from Latin and Greek, German still prefers self-explaining compounds. Thus for 'hydrogen' the Germans say 'wasserstoff' (water-stuff). So, in Old English many words are formed on this pattern. We find 'earhring' (earring), 'lēohtfæt' (lamp; 'lēoht' light + 'fæt' vessel or vat).

The capacity of Modern English to make similar words (though less frequently employed than formerly) is an inheritance of this Old English tradition. As a result of this capacity, Old English seems never to have been at a loss for a word to express even the abstractions of theology and science which it came to know through Christianity with its Latin language, learning and culture.

As previously noted, part of the flexibility of the Old English vocabulary comes from the use of prefixes and suffixes. In this respect it also resembles Modern German. Some of the more common suffixes were:

-ig ('mihtig' - mighty)
-full ('mōdfull' - haughty)
-nes ('mōdignes' - pride)
-dom ('cyningdom' - kingdom)

Likewise, the use of prefixes was a fertile resource in word-building, especially in the formation of verbs. Several of these are: a-, be-, for-, un-, mix-, ge-. Thus, with the help of these, Old English could make out of a simple verb like 'settan' (to set) new verbs like 'āsettan' (place), 'besettan' (appoint), 'forsettan' (obstruct), 'unsettan' (put down), 'gesettan' (to people a garrison).

(Stop here and examine with your teacher a piece of Old English literature. Can you find evidence of the elements cited in the last few paragraphs?)

Foreign Influences on Old English Vocabulary

The Old English language was not merely the product of the dialects brought to England by the Jutes, Saxons and Angles who, as we have seen, came to what is now England in the fifth century. The dialects of these groups formed the sole basis of its grammar and the source of by far the largest part of its vocabulary. But there are other elements involved. Celtic, Latin and Scandinavian contributions greatly affected the Old English vocabulary.

Referring back to our historical information, we see that the Celtic people of Britain were conquered by a Teutonic or Germanic people. One would think that with the subsequent mixture of the two races a corresponding mixture of languages would occur. This was not the case. The Celts were a conquered people, a somewhat inferior culture and their language was also seen as inferior and not worthy of adoption. Therefore, few words of Celtic origin (outside of place-names such as Kent, York, Exeter and Worcester) are found in our language. The Celtic influence is the least of these early influences to affect our language.

While the influence of Celtic upon Old English was slight, the effect which Latin had was enormous. Latin was just the opposite of Celtic. It was the language of a superior race, not a conquered people. It was the language of a race with a higher civilization, a race from which the Teutons had much to learn. Contact with that civilization, at first commercial and military, later religious and intellectual, extended over several centuries and was constantly renewed.

We can specify three main periods of transmission of the Latin language into the English language.

(1) While the Germanic tribes were still on the continent of Europe, before these tribes ever came to Britain. Here they borrowed words from the Romans that indicated the spheres of life in which they had contact:

camp (battle)
segn (banner)
weall (wall)
strǣt (road, street)

What sphere of life?

Also,

cēap (bargain)
mangian (to trade)
flasce (bottle)

What sphere of life is indicated by these words?

Other words include:

cytel (kettle)	line (rope)
cuppe (cup)	butere (butter)
pipor (pepper)	pipe (pipe, musical instrument)

Can you recognize any other present-day English words derived from these Latin words?

These words and many more were brought by the Germanic tribes to Britain after having been assimilated by them into the language before they ever left continental Europe.

(2) These Germanic tribes also adopted words from the Celts in Britain that the Celts had gotten from the Romans during the latter's earlier occupation of Britain. These words, then, were of Latin origin. However, they are few.

(3) The greatest influx of Latin words into the Old English language came with the introduction of Christianity into Britain in 597. Christianity was far from new in the island, but this date marks the beginning of a systematic attempt on the part of Rome to convert the inhabitants and make England a Christian country. From the introduction of Christianity in 597, to the close of the Old English period, some five hundred years elapsed. During all this time Latin words were making their way into the language via the Church.

What type of words would you expect to come into the language as a result of this religious conversion? Of course, words concerning religion and details of its external organization. New words are usually adopted into a language to fill a need, to express a new idea or because they are so closely associated with an object that acceptance of the thing involves acceptance also of the word. Examples of words introduced into English at this time are: (These words have altered only slightly from their Old English form.)

abbot, alms, angel, ark, candle, canon, chalice, cleric, cowl, deacon, disciple, epistle, hymn, martyr, mass, nun, organ, offer, pope, priest, psalm, shrine, stole, relic, temple, and tunic

Household words were also introduced:

cap, sock, silk, chest, beet, pear, radish, savory, and plant

A certain number of words having to do with education and learning reflect another aspect of the Church's influence. Such are: school, master, Latin, grammatical, verse, meter and notary.

The words cited here are mostly nouns, but Old English also borrowed verbs and adjectives from Latin such as:

āspendan (to spend; L. expendere)

bemūtian (to exchange; L. mutare)

tyrnan (to turn; L. tornare)

sealtian (to dance; L. saltare)

crisp (L. crispus, curly)

From these examples both the extent and variety of borrowings from Latin into Old English can be seen. Here the language acts as a mirror, reflecting the broadening horizon which the English people owed to the Church. Furthermore, we must recognize that here again was a non-linguistic event (the christianizing of Britain) that greatly affected a language's development.

Near the end of the Old English period English underwent a third foreign influence, the result of contact with another language, Scandinavian. The Teutonic inhabitants of the Scandinavian peninsula and Denmark, at one time closely related to the Anglo-Saxons in language and blood (before the Anglo-Saxons left the continent), began a series of attacks in the eighth century upon all land adjacent to the North Sea and the Baltic. Eventually, the military conquests of these 'Vikings' brought them to England and saw them conquer it in the eleventh century.

These Nordic invaders, interested in colonization, after some time settled down alongside the Englishmen, inter-marrying, working and living together. Indeed, this amalgamation was made easier because of their common linguistic and cultural heritage.

If we refer back to our "language tree" we see that the Scandinavian language belongs to the same language family as English; that is, Germanic. At this stage of our language's development, then, Old English and Scandinavian were very similar and this similarity often makes it difficult to decide whether a given word in Modern English is a native word or a borrowed Scandinavian word. Probably the most reliable and simplest test for deciding whether a word is a Scandinavian borrowing is recognition of the sound represented by the letters "sk." In Old English this "sk" underwent a sound change and became a softer "sh," whereas in Scandinavian countries it retained its hard "sk" sound. Therefore, native words like ship, shall and fish have "sh" in Modern English,

words borrowed from the Scandinavian are still usually pronounced with "sk": sky, skin, scatter, skill, scrub, skull, bask, whisk, scant and scream. Also, the retention of the hard pronunciation of "k" and "g" in such words as kid, dike, get, give, gild, and egg is an indication of Scandinavian origin.

Scandinavian settlement in England is also evidenced by the large number of places bearing Scandinavian names. The Danish word "by" meaning "farm" or "town" is seen in Grimsby, Whitby, Derby, and Rugby. We must thank the Danes for our own "by-law" (town-law). The Scandinavian "thorp" (village) gives us Althorp, Bishopsthorpe and Gawthorpe. "Thwaite" (an isolated piece of land) gives us Braithwaite and Cowperthwaite. These are only a few of the more than 1,400 Scandinavian place-names in England.

The Danes and the English, it seems, were as closely connected as two races can be. Other words coming into Old English from Scandinavian are words produced through close, everyday social contact. They include: birth, bull, crook, dirt, egg, fellow, freckle, gap, guess, kid, leg, loan, race, root, scab, skill, skin, skirt, slaughter, snare, thrift, trust, window, and want.

Furthermore, besides nouns, adjectives (awkward, low, meek, muggy, rugged, sly, weak), verbs (call, cast, clip, crave, droop, gasp, give, raise, rake, snub, thrive); pronouns, prepositions and adverbs entered our language from Scandinavian. The pronouns they, their, and them are Scandinavian. Both and same, though not primarily pronouns, are of Scandinavian origin. The preposition "till" was at one time widely used in the sense of "to," besides having its present meaning, and "fro," also in common use formerly as the equivalent of "from," survives in our phrase "to and fro." Both till and fro are from the Scandinavian.

The presence of Scandinavian in our older literature is clear. Look at Burns' poem still popular in many anthologies. (See overhead of To A Mouse.) Note the line:

> "Thy wee bit house, too, in ruin!
> . . . And naething now to big a
> new ane."
>
> Norse "biggen" (to build)

In Scott's Old Mortality (see overhead) we find the comparative "worse" in the form "waur":

> "A' the warld kens that they maun
> either marry or do waur."

The Scandinavian influence on Old English, then, is extensive. Probably the most striking aspect here, however, is the intimate way in which elements of one language were incorporated into another.

The Middle English Period (1150-1500)

If the invasion of England by the Scandinavians had produced an extensive effect on English culture and language, the event which occurred at the end of the Old English period had a greater effect on the English language than any other in the course of its history. This significant event was the Norman Conquest in 1066. It changed the face of Middle English.

William, the duke of Normandy, attacked England to obtain the crown to which he believed himself entitled. He defeated the English at the famous battle of Hastings in 1066 and initiated a period that changed the whole course of the English language.

William had come as a conquerer, not as a hand-picked monarch who was to step onto the throne at the passing of an old ruler. If such had been the case the leading figures in the English government and the English nobility would have remained intact and tradition would have remained unbroken. One country's conquest of another, however, brings wholesale changes. The most important, influential members of that society must now come from the new rulers. Thus it was that a new class of nobility, men of Norman blood, took over in England. For several generations after the Conquest the important positions in government and Church and the great estates were almost always held by Normans. The members of the ruling class were sufficiently predominant to continue to use their own language and, for two hundred years after the Norman Conquest, French remained the language of ordinary intercourse among the upper classes in England. This continued use of French by the ruling classes in England was promoted by the close connection that existed through all these years between England and France. Indeed, William was more closely attached to his dukedom in Normandy than to the country he governed by right of conquest.

The lower classes, the conquered English masses, kept their own language. We must remember that not all the French were members of the nobility and the French soldier, settling in an English town or manor, soon learned the language of the people among whom he earned a living. A bilingual situation, therefore, existed in England. The upper classes, the leaders in religion, government, education and fashion spoke French, the language of the more socially prestigious. The lower strata of society, the

numerically predominant English masses, spoke their native English, the language of the socially inferior. Yet, with the interaction (social contact, intermarriage) between the lower classes of English and French, and the inevitable contact between the upper and the middle classes of society, there were many who came to speak both languages. That elements of one were being constantly assimilated into the other cannot be denied.

As we have stated before, language does not exist in a vacuum. It is a living, changing phenomenon shaped and reshaped by non-linguistic events that constantly impinge upon it. The changing character of language in England after the year 1200 makes this fact amazingly clear.

Shortly after 1200 the conditions we have been describing changed drastically. Firstly, England lost control of Normandy in France (its main tie with the continent), thus causing both king and nobles to look upon England as their first concern. One of the important consequences of the event just described was that it brought to a head the question whether many of the nobility owed their allegiance to England or to France. Thus, there developed a separation of French and English nobility and there seemed no reason for the nobility of England to consider itself anything but English. The most valid reason for its use of French, close ties with France, was gone.

At the very time when the Norman nobility in England was losing its continental connections and had been led to identify itself wholly with England, a great influx of Frenchmen into England occurred during the reign of Henry III. These foreigners, through kinship connections with Henry, gained attractive positions in England. This reckless bestowal of favor upon foreigners by Henry went far to arouse a great nationalistic feeling in England. Soon, English became a mark of a true Englishman and, as such, gained an importance it had not yet known.

The thirteenth century must be seen as a period of shifting emphasis between the two languages spoken in England. The upper classes continued to speak French, not because of close ties with France, but because it was a cultivated tongue supported by social custom and by business and administrative convention. Meanwhile, English made steady advances and was gaining some acceptance in the general usage of the upper echelons. The upper classes seemed to be yielding to the impulse of a language now familiar to them, the language of those they ruled. They carried over into English an amazing number of French words to fill gaps in the English vocabulary. It is at this time that the adoption of French words into English assumes large proportions.

Also, we must not forget that during the years 1337-1453 England and France were involved intermittently in open hostility, the Hundred Years War. France was an enemy country and this lengthy war must be seen as one of the causes contributing to the decline of the French language in England.

One last factor contributing to the re-establishment of English was the improvement of the conditions of the mass of the people and the rise of a substantial middle class (i.e. craftsmen, merchants). The two main social divisions, rich and poor, were now being affected by the rising middle class, a growing, important body in any society. As the importance of the new class grew, so did the importance of the language they spoke, English. Indeed, at this time the attitude was prevalent that the proper language for Englishmen to know and use was English.

These decisive changes in English society brought the English language from a socially inferior language to the position of dominance in the country. It had been re-established and now was used in the law courts, the schools and in the general affairs of everyday life. French, for so long the mark of the privileged class, was now more restricted as the language of culture and fashion. This feeling was strengthened in the eighteenth century and it is present in the minds of many people today.

While English was, by 1400, the dominant spoken language in England, it now had to gain usage in writing. Here it met competition from both Latin and French. Latin was viewed (by those who could write) as an international language, a "fixed" language, unlike the variable, changing, modern languages. Latin's position in writing was first challenged by the socially prominent French language at about the start of the fourteenth century. In the next one hundred years or so, English, increasingly pervasive in speech, began to be found, first in the written records of towns and gilds and later in letters. With the reign of Henry V (1413-1422) and his own use of English in writing, English began to be generally adopted in writing.

It is interesting to note again the primacy of the spoken language and the secondary position of written language. The spoken language is <u>the</u> language. Speech is "real" language, with writing only a mechanical representation of speech. The English language's development went from the spoken to the written word, not the other way around. This same order of development exists today.

The discussion of the last few pages on the re-establishment of English involves the period 1200-1500 or the Middle English period. Now that we have looked at the social and political

factors affecting the language during this period, let us now take a more specific look at the enormous changes that occurred in English vocabulary, changes brought about in no small way by the Norman Conquest. Important changes were also evidenced in grammar. These will be discussed later. The changes in vocabulary involved the loss of a large part of the Old English word stock and the addition of thousands of words from French and also Latin. At the beginning of the period English is a language which we must now learn like a foreign tongue. At the end it is recognizably Modern English.

As the Scandinavians had done several centuries before, the French commoner settled in England after the Norman Conquest and carried on normal social contact with Englishmen. The close contact of two peoples with different languages ensures a considerable transference of words from one language to the other. However, more French words seem to have come into English than vice versa probably because English, representing a conquered culture, had to yield more to French. The flood of French words that poured into English was unbelievably great. There is no comparable influx of French words in the previous or subsequent history of the language. The influx was not a sudden rush of words entering quickly and subsiding after a few years. Rather, it began slowly and continued with varying tempo for a long time.

It was the upper class Normans who had clung so staunchly to French when coming to rule England. When they finally began to use English on a regular basis around 1300 they added a new and powerful factor to the conditions under which French words had been making their way into English. In changing from French to English they transferred much of their governmental and administrative vocabulary, their ecclesiastical, legal and military terms, their familiar words of fashion, food and social life and the vocabulary of art, learning and medicine. They transferred vocabulary pertaining to the areas of English life in which they were involved. The following examples will give an indication of the French words that came into English.

1. Governmental and Administrative Words

govern, crown, state, realm, reign, royal, authority, sovereign, majesty, tyrant, usurp, court, council, parliament, assembly, treaty, record, tax, exchequer, chancellor, warden, mayor, prince, princess, baron, sir, mistress, noble.

2. Ecclesiastical Words

religion, theology, sermon, sacrament, baptism, communion, penance, prayer, lesson, clergy, cardinal,

vicar, hermit, crucifix, surplice, lectern, convent, sanctuary, savior, faith, heresy, temptation, salvation, mercy, devout, preach, confess, ordain.

We should remember that for some two hundred years after the Conquest the Normans held the highest posts, whether government or Church, in the land. They were able to flood these areas of life with French vocabulary and, conversely, many of the native English words referring to such areas died out through lack of use.

3. Law:

bill, petition, plea, suit, plaintiff, defendant, judge, bail, ransom, attorney, summons, indictment, verdict, sentence, forfeit, prison, sue, accuse, arrest, acquit, felony, trespass, arson, slander.

4. Army and Navy:

peace, enemy, battle, combat, skirmish, siege, defense, ambush, soldier, spy, captain, lieutenant, sergeant, lance, banner, archer, vanquish, beseige, defend.

5. Fashion, Meals, Social Life:

habit, robe, garment, coat, petticoat, lace, buckle, tassel, mitten, garter, boots, blue, brown, satin, saffron, jewel, ruby, dinner, supper, feast, appetite, taste, perch, salmon, toast, orange, cream, sugar, lettuce, spice, saucer, plate, curtain, couch, basin, closet, leisure, dance, conversation.

6. Art, Learning and Medicine:

art, painting, music, beauty, palace, mansion, cathedral, tower, base, poet, prose, chronicle, tragedy, preface, pen, paper, grammar, noun, clause, study, surgeon, malady, pain, leper, ointment, anatomy, stomach, pulse, poison.

But besides these important "departments" of words, others indicate how very general was the adoption of French words in every part of life and thought. A look at a miscellaneous list of words, nouns, adjectives, verbs, will show how widespread was the French contribution. Note the "range of ideas" covered in the following:

action, affection, age, air, bushel, calendar, city, coast, damage, debt, deceit, dozen, error, face, fame, honor, grief,

joy, malice, labor, mason, noise, odor, order, people, piece, seal, spirit, task, unity, waste.

French adjectives brought into English show the same comprehensive nature. Here the additions are of special importance since Old English was not very well provided with adjective distinctions. Note the following examples:

able, abundant, actual, amorous, blank, clam, chief, common, courageous, coy, cruel, double, easy, feeble, firm, frank, gay, gracious, honest, jolly, liberal, mean, nice, original, perfect, plain, poor, quaint, rude, savage, strange, sober, tender, usual.

Examples of verbs borrowed at the same time show equal diversity:

advance, aim, approach, betray, butt, carry, close, commence, conceal, cry, deceive, defer, desire, embrace, excuse, flourish, force, increase, join, launch, marry, nourish, observe, please, praise, proceed, pursue, quit, rejoice, rob, surprise, succeed, trace, trip, wait, wince.

What we see, then, is a merger of thousands of words from two different languages. English is the controlling body, but French has contributed greatly to make the language richer and more resourceful.

The rapidity with which the new French words were incorporated into the language is shown by the fact that many of them became the basis of derivatives. English endings were added to them with as much freedom as they were added to English words. Note the French adjective "gentle." Soon after its introduction into English it was compounded with English elements to make: gentlewoman, gentleman, gentleness, gently. The French word "faith" was given similar treatment: faithless, faithful, faithfulness. The adverbial ending "-ly" was quickly added to French adjectives to give the following adverbs: commonly, eagerly, feebly, justly, peacefully. These adverbs plus others occur almost as early as the adjectives from which they are derived.

A logical result of the enormous body of French words entering English was that semantic duplication resulted. Many of the French words that came into use had meanings already expressed by a native word. In such a case one of the words was sometimes dropped. People seem to be economical in their use of language, for a word is dropped when its function is fully performed by another.

The following are examples of Old English words which were dropped and replaced by French:

Dropped		Replaced by French	Dropped		Replaced by French
O.E.	eam	uncle	O.E.	lof	praise
	anda	envy		earm	poor
	lēod	people		beorgan	defend
	firen	crime		dihtan	compose
	adl	disease		miltsian	pity

Besides these developments there appears during this period a marked decline in the Old English processes of word formation (i.e. liberal use of prefixes; suffixes; composition of self-interpreting compounds).

Many of the Old English prefixes gradually lost their vitality. The prefix "for" was often used in Old English to intensify the meaning of a verb or to add the idea of something that was destructive or prejudicial. Out of the numerous "for" verbs of Old English today we have only: forbear, forbid, fordo, forget, forgive, forgo, forsake, forswear and the participle "forlorn." Other Old English prefixes like "with" and "to" also have almost fully disappeared. Their productive power has, in many cases, been transferred to prefixes like "dis-," "re-," "trans-," of Latin origin.

In suffixes the loss seems not to be so great. While suffixes such as "-ness," "-ful," "-some," "-ish" have remained, others equally important were either lost or greatly diminished in vitality. Thus the suffix "-lock" survives only in "wedlock;" "-red" (hatred, kindred); "-dom" (kingdom, martyrdom, stardom). Like "-dom," the endings "-hood" and "-ship" have little use today. We have retained "hardship" and "friendship," but not "boldship," "busiship," "cleanship" or "kindship." In all these instances the ending "-ness" was preferred.

We cannot say that this disuse of long employed prefixes and suffixes was directly caused by the Norman infiltration. However, it is clear that the wealth of acquired new words from French had weakened English habits of word formation. The same is true in regard to self-explaining compounds. Frequently formed in Old English, in Middle English where a new word could have been easily formed from compounding native elements, a ready-made French word was borrowed instead. Today, self-explaining compounds are still formed (e.g. four-wheel bike, oil-burner), but the method is

much less universal than it once was because of new habits introduced after the Norman Conquest. What other self-explaining compounds are found in common usage today?

With all these changes brought about by the Norman Conquest, was the language of England still "English?" It had incorporated thousands of foreign words, lost many of its native words and abandoned some of its most characteristic habits of word formation. Yet, the basic elements of the vocabulary (and grammar) were still English. The Englishman could still not carry out the tasks of day-to-day life without constantly using English words. He could discuss neither food, nor his house, nor his body without using English. The English language had changed considerably. It had been expanded, enriched and modified, but its predominant features were those inherited from the Teutonic tribes that settled in England in the fifth century.

Middle English also adopted a large number of Latin words. These differed from the French borrowings in being less popular and in gaining entrance into English generally through the written language. Remember that Latin was the language of the learned and educated. Those who could write or spent their lives at writing (e.g. writers, monks) used Latin. It was not used by the commoner. Thus, it was through writing and not through common speech that Latin words gained admission. Here are examples of Latin words that entered English at this time:

> adjacent, allegory, contempt, custody, history, homicide, intellect, legal, limbo, lunatic, nervous, magnify, prevent, prosecute, pulpit, rosary, script, solar, substitute, summary, testify, ulcer.

Notice that these words are related to the areas of law, medicine, theology, science and literature. Used initially in these specialized areas, they later found wider application among the less educated.

We might note that many more Latin words were adopted during the Middle English period than during the Old English period and, as we will see, the greatest borrowing of Latin words took place in Modern English times.

One further important development of the Middle English period, not directly connected with vocabulary, must be mentioned here. We have seen in an earlier section that dialects are varying language patterns within a language. Dialects differ from the standard speech, but not so much as to constitute a wholly different language or that someone living in the general area cannot understand them (e.g. though we experience difficulty at times, we can

all understand the varying dialects in our own province). In England in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the language differed from county to county and linguists have outlined four principal dialects of the period.

Out of this variety of local dialects there grew up near the end of the fourteenth century a written language that in succeeding decades won general recognition and has since become the recognized standard in both speech and writing. The growth of London as the seat of social, judicial, business and intellectual affairs was probably the most important factor in the establishment of this standard language. Here people from all over England would gather and their speech was shaped by the accepted, standard usage that developed in this great center. English dialects still existed, but a standard English was becoming established. Indeed, the history of standard English is almost a history of London English.

This brings us to the Modern period of the development of the English language, the beginning of which is conveniently placed at 1500. The early stages of the Modern period, 1500-1700, are often called Early Modern English and can be represented quite well by the language of Shakespeare. By 1500 our language had taken on an appearance very much like its present day form. In the next several centuries more changes in vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and spelling would occur, but by 1500 English was very much like it is today.

We have noted that extra-linguistic events (e.g. wars, immigrations, intermarriage) often have significant effects on language. For some two centuries after 1500 the English language was drastically affected by another non-linguistic event, the Renaissance. With the Renaissance came certain conditions which had not existed at all before or were present in only a limited way. These conditions were all interrelated.

The first of these was the invention of the printing press. Because of mass production, books became available to everyone and more people had the opportunity to learn how to read. Previously, books had to be carefully handwritten, a slow, tedious process. More importantly, printing made it possible to produce a book in thousands of copies, every one exactly like the other. Before, when scribes had written books, they often used words and phrases peculiar to their area or town. Thus, there was a wide variance in language. With printing, then, a powerful force thus existed for promoting a standard, uniform language and the means were now available for spreading that language throughout the territory in which it was understood.

However, such a widespread influence would not have been possible if education hadn't made the rapid progress it did among the people. Literacy was becoming much more common. Indeed, the rise of a middle class, prosperous merchants and tradesmen eager to become more educated and thus more socially mobile, was another contributing factor to the spread of popular education.

A third factor to be cited is the increase in communication brought about through commerce, transportation, and the rapid means of communication that developed. As people speaking English came into closer contact, the variations in dialect and local idiosyncracies were slowly rounded off from their speech and a more standard, uniform type of speech developed.

Finally, there is the more abstract factor of "social consciousness." In the society that developed in England after 1500, more and more people had opportunities to advance socially. To reach a higher social level one must be careful that his speech be like the speech of the people of that social level. He must be as careful of his speech as he is of his manners. Awareness that there is a standard of language is a part of this social consciousness. Thus, more and more people sought to attain "proper" or standard speech.

These main forces and others (e.g. British imperialism) have, in modern times (1500 onwards), brought about extensive changes in vocabulary. In Middle English the vocabulary was greatly changed by the Norman Conquest. The changes that occur in vocabulary in the Modern Period are greater still.

Turning to our knowledge of history we remember that the Renaissance in Europe was marked by a renewal or "rebirth" of interest in learning and the classical languages of Latin and Greek. In the sixteenth century learned men sought to improve or "enrich" the English language by adopting "better" words from Latin and Greek. Most educated Englishmen tended to regard their language as inferior to Latin and Greek, the languages of prestige and scholarship. Adopt they did and the chief source of loan words shifted from French to Latin and Greek. During the Early Modern Period Latin and Greek became the main contributors of words to our language and, as we shall see, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries many other languages made contributions.

However, the use of English in the various fields of knowledge and in this "revival of learning" was spurred mainly by the demand of all sorts of men in practical life to share in the fruits of the Renaissance. The demands of the increasingly literate public ensured that English was used in the fields where Latin had for centuries been supreme. Now attention was directed

towards English as a medium of literary expression. The result was a healthy desire for improvement.

However, the vast borrowing of foreign words into English did not take place without opposition. Some adoptions, for example "sciatherical" (pertaining to charting shadows cast by planets) and "honorificabilitudinity" (honorableness) were never accepted and it is not difficult to see why. However, a good many words were objected to that are now quite common. Examples are: complete, education, urge, sordid.

Examples of Latin words borrowed at this time are: (some of these words were earlier acquired by Latin from Greek)

expectation, allusion, capsule, autograph, antithesis, chaos, climax, crisis, critic, dogma, emphasis, enthusiasm, epitome, pathetic, skeleton, tactics, area, data, compensate, edition, fortitude, horrid, janitor, medium, modern, penetrate, splendid, strict, ultimate, appendix, fact, congratulate, instruct, subtract, ingenuity, audible, jovial.

From Greek we added:

chaos, scheme, chemist, orchestra, echo, character (usually words that use "ch" for the sound of "k" are of Greek origin).

pharmacy, ephemeral, phase, phonetic, euphemism (usually words that use "ph" for the sound of "f" are Greek).

pneumonia, psalm, psychology, ptomaine (words with initial "silent" consonant "p" are Greek).

Others include: anonymous, criterion, lexicon, misanthrope, tantalize, thermometer, tonic, center, pause, agnostic, and pathos.

Many of the Latin and Greek words which have been cited were in the beginning restricted to the language of higher learning and some still are. Others have passed into the stock of more or less everyday speech.

While many words borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their original form, others were altered. Often the Latin word's ending was cut off (e.g. consultare consult; exoticus exotic; exclusion-em exclusion). But more often a further change was necessary to bring the word into accord with the usual English forms. Therefore, the Latin ending "-us" in adjectives was changed to "-ous" (e.g. conspicu-us conspicuous) or was replaced by "-al" as in "external" (L. externus). Latin nouns ending in "tas" were changed

in English to "-ty" (e.g. celeritas celerity). Latin nouns ending in "-antia," "-entia" appear in English with the ending "-ance," "-ence," or "-ancy," "-ency." Latin adjectives ending in "-bilis" take the English ending "-able."

At this time English also borrowed prefixes and suffixes from these foreign languages that, added to other words (whether native or themselves borrowed), helped enlarge the English lexicon and produce words never known before in the Latin or Greek languages. Popular examples coming from both Greek and Latin:

"anti-" (against)	-- anticlimax, anti-Catholic
"pro-" (for)	-- used freely today in such words as "pro-establishment"
"-ianus"	-- gives the suffix "-(i)an" in Canadian, Nebraskan
"-iana"	-- Americana, Canadiana
"-orium"	-- sanatorium, moratorium
"-or"	-- realtor, commentator
the verb making "-ize"	-- criticize, pasturize

Others include: ante-, de-, dis-, ex-, inter-, multi-, non-, post-, pre-, re-, sub-, -able, -al, -mania, -ette.

What words do you know that use the above prefixes and suffixes?

Besides the main contributors, Latin and Greek, other important languages borrowed from were the so-called "Romance Languages" of French, Italian and Spanish. Travel in foreign countries and the reading of books from these countries gave us:

From French: alloy, bigot, bizarre, chocolate, comrade, detail, entrance, equip, explore, mustache, probability, shock, surpass, vogue, volunteer.

From Italian: algebra, balcony, cameo, design, grotto, piazza, stanza, stucco, violin, volcano, original.

Original Italian words coming into English through French were: battalion, bankrupt, brusque, carat, cavalcade, gala, gazette, infantry, rebuff.

From Spanish and Portuguese: alligator, anchovy, apricot, banana, bravado, barricade, cannibal, canoe, cocoa, embargo, mosquito, negro, potato, tobacco.

Many of these words reflect Spanish and Portuguese enterprise on the sea and colonization of the American continent. In the next few pages the effect on English vocabulary of English exploration and colonization will be more closely looked at.

While the greatest part of the additions to the English vocabulary during the Renaissance was drawn from foreign sources, the language was also expanded with words from native sources. Poets consciously made use of old native words. Men like Spenser and Milton revived old words (e.g. astound, enroot, doom) and brought them back into popular use. They also coined new words such as: askew, freak, blatant, squall. Others were new words derived from old native words: hapless, sunshiny, wolfish. While these words were originally restricted to the language of poetry, they ultimately came into common use.

Before concluding here we must remember that the borrowings from these foreign languages (mainly Latin and Greek) generally entered English through writing, not speech. Unlike the earlier Scandinavian and, to a large extent, French borrowings (both languages spoken in England in varying degrees at one time), Latin and Greek borrowings were brought in by churchmen and scholars, a restricted, narrow circle. Latin and Greek were languages used only among scholarly men and were never found in ordinary peoples' speech. If the borrowings themselves have not always been learned words, they have needed the help of learned men to become known to the general population.

We have been discussing language, for the most part, in a measured, objective fashion. To get a view of language in its fuller expression and vitality one must look at literature. The language of Shakespeare's works is commonly held as representative of English in the Early Modern Period.

Shakespeare had an immense vocabulary, as any reading of his works will show. This is due not only to his original and resourceful use of words but also to his ready acceptance of new words of every kind. Shakespeare magnificently illustrates the movement that was taking place in English at this time: the constant borrowing of foreign words by the English. Furthermore, Shakespeare must be considered extremely liberal in his attitude towards foreign borrowing.

Let us now look at one of Shakespeare's plays, The Merchant of Venice, to find evidence of his liberal borrowing of foreign words. We will undoubtedly also notice the strange or old-fashioned words used by Shakespeare that have now been replaced by others.

Here, too, besides looking at word borrowings and word losses, we will briefly look at the important area of change of

meaning in language. The study of meaning, "semantics," is an interesting and vital part of linguistics. However, even an inadequate discussion is not possible in this short unit. Indeed, many important linguistic concerns must be excluded.

In keeping with the trend of his day (the conscious effort to "expand and improve" the English vocabulary by borrowing from foreign sources, especially Latin), Shakespeare used many new borrowings in his plays. The following words from his writings were new to the English language in the latter half of the sixteenth century: agile, allurement, catastrophe, critical, demonstrate, dire, emphasis, emulate, extract, hereditary, horrid, meditate, modest, prodigious, vast, accommodation, assassination, obscene, reliance, frugal, apostrophe. It seems clear that Shakespeare found new borrowings very useful. He was not afraid to "experiment" with language. How many of the words mentioned above can you find in The Merchant of Venice? What do they mean? Can you get their meaning from context?

We have seen two main kinds of vocabulary change, word borrowings and word losses. Having noted some of Shakespeare's word borrowings, we turn our attention now to word losses and shift of meaning, a third kind of vocabulary change.

Several words found in The Merchant of Venice are not usually found in English today. The following words taken from the play sound either old-fashioned or foreign to our ears: ere, mo, forthwith, hither, thither, betwixt, sooth, sirrah, betimes, bespeak, forsworn. Most of these words have simply been replaced by others. For example, in the following pairs of words the second one has replaced the first in Modern English: ere - before; mo - more; betwixt - between; bespeak - engage (or hire). When Bassanio *tells Portia that he lives upon the "rack" (III,ii,26)*, he uses a word that has little meaning for many readers, since that particular device of torture is little used today. Similarly, the "ague" that Salerio mentions (I,1,24) is not familiar to modern readers who use terms to stand for "chills and fever."

On the other hand, many of the words in our own everyday speech would be strange to William Shakespeare. New ideas, inventions and discoveries must have names. Recent space exploration has given rise to such terms as: astronaut, space capsule, countdown and sputnik; the field of atomic research has given us: H-bomb, fall-out, plutonium. Every branch of knowledge produces its share of new terms. Some of these will survive, but others will disappear from the languages.

Words are not only lost and borrowed; they also change their meanings in several ways. Some words may go "down-hill" or

go down the moral scale of value. For example, the word "knave," used by Shylock (The Merchant of Venice) in reference to Launcelot Gobbo (I,iii,178), originally meant "boy." But, since many boys were servants, the word shifted its meaning and came to mean "servant." Finally, the word took on the meaning of "rascal," since many servants were just that, perhaps even Launcelot. Bassanio uses the word "counterfeit" in the sense of a "copy of likeness" when he exclaims, "Fair Portia's counterfeit!" (III,ii,18). Here the word has no bad connotations. Today the word is used in a derogatory sense of "an imitation made to deceive." Shift of meaning in this direction is called pejoration.

Words can also move upwards along the moral scale of value. The word "nice" originally meant "ignorant" or "stupid" but during Shakespeare's time it acquired the meaning of "difficult to please." It took another step upwards when it came to mean "precise" or "subtle." Finally, the word "nice" has taken several new meanings which all have agreeable connotations: pleasant, attractive, kind, well-mannered. "Nice" has come up in the world. The word "naughty," as Portia uses it in the play (V,i,99) meant literally "good for nothing." But today's meaning is "mischievous" or "improper," certainly a less derogatory sense than the earlier one. Shift of meaning up the scale of value is called amelioration.

There are many other types of meaning change than the two mentioned here. Again, our short unit demands the exclusion of this important and interesting area. If you are interested in discovering more about semantics, see your teacher.

We see now that meaning, like any other area of language, is subject to change. This fact may become more apparent if we take a very brief look at slang, a contemporary area in which change of meaning is clearly shown. J. D. Salinger's novel, The Catcher in the Rye, provides an excellent basis for discussing slang in teenage speech. Your teacher will point out several uses of slang in the novel and look at the range of meaning embodied in the slang used (see overhead). A follow-up activity concerning The Catcher in the Rye is listed at the end of this chapter.

From our brief discussion of vocabulary in Shakespeare and change of meaning, we move into an important era in our language's history, the eighteenth century and its efforts to standardize, refine and fix the English language. Such well-meaning, yet misdirected efforts were a logical outgrowth of the spirit of scientific rationalism that was prevalent at this time. That is, men sought to logically reason out and justify all things around them. A strong sense of order and regulation characterized this period of history.

Therefore, against this backdrop of order and regulation, the chaotic, haphazard, patchwork quality of the English language was sure to come in for criticism. As we will see in the next chapter, the grammar of our language was far more significantly affected by this movement than was the vocabulary. However, in this effort to purify and regulate the language, objections grew up against further borrowing into the language. A spirit of conservatism existed in attitudes towards language.

But while these concerns were being expressed by the would-be custodians of the English language, events were occurring in the world which acted against these very concerns. For it was in the eighteenth century that England began to become a major colonizing power. The expansion of the British empire was to have an enormous effect on the English word-stock. New territories mean new experiences, new activities, and new products, all of which are in time reflected in the language.

Trade routes have always been important avenues for the transmission of ideas and words. In America, English contact with the Indians gave us such words as caribou, hickory, moccasin, moose, racoon, skunk, toboggan and wigwam. From other parts of America, especially where the Spanish and the Portuguese were settled, English added chilli, chocolate, coyote, tomato, barbecue. From Cuba comes cannibal, canoe, hammock, hurricane, potato and tobacco. From Brazil we get buccaneer, jaguar, poncho. English contact with the East has been equally productive of new words. From India we have bandana, bangle, bengal, bungalow, cashmere, china, cot, jungle, loot, polo, punch (drink), thug and verandah. From Africa, either directly from the natives or from Dutch or Portuguese traders, we obtain banana, boorish, gorilla, chimpanzee, guinea and zebra. Though we get little from Australia, "boomerang" and "kangaroo" are interesting examples of native words that have passed into universal use.

It is not difficult for us, then, to imagine why English is considered such a cosmopolitan language. It contains words from numerous languages (with Latin, Greek and French most dominant) because of the multitude of contacts it has had with other tongues in widely scattered parts of the world.

Beginning with the nineteenth century and continuing right up to today, new conditions and new forces have arisen which have had a massive effect on our vocabulary. Great developments in science, industry, entertainment and in every intellectual field have brought in new words. Indeed, periods of great activity and growth seem generally to be accompanied by a corresponding increase in new words.

In every field of science there has been need in the last one hundred years for thousands of new terms. Most of these are technical words, but in time they have passed into common usage and are familiar to us all.

In medicine: appendicitis, clinics, allergy, vaccinate, metabolism, hormones, proteins, carbohydrates, bronchitis, anesthetic, aspirin, iodine and insulin.

In electricity: dynamo, alternating current, electron, relativity, atomic energy, chain reaction, hydrogen bomb.

In psychology: egocentric, deviant, introvert, extrovert, inhibition, inferiority, psychoanalysis, behaviorism.

We may not realize it but we have all become scientifically-minded in the last few decades and our vocabulary reflects this.

That marvellous invention, the automobile, has given us:

carburetor, spark plug, clutch, shock absorber, windshield, bumper and blowout.

Cinema, radio and television have given us:

screen, reel, projector, close-up, feature picture, animated cartoon, aerial, antenna, picture tube, game show and soap opera.

Even the World Wars have added words to most of our vocabularies, either new ones or old ones popularized again:

tank, blimp, gas mask, liaison, camouflage, barrage, machine gun, periscope, no man's land, blitz, blockbuster, evacuate, task force, radar, cold war and police state.

What other words coming from the areas mentioned can you think of?

We have just cited the steady growth of the English vocabulary in an age of progress in almost every area of life. Indeed, new discoveries, new life styles and new ideas must be expressed in words. Words designate the things we know and, therefore, the vocabulary of a language must keep pace with the advances of knowledge. The large store of new words coming into our language since 1800 has been formed by the same processes as those witnessed in either Old English or Middle English. The words may be new, but the principles of their formation could be paralleled with those from almost any period of our language. We have briefly mentioned

some main processes of word formation. Now as a final part of our study of English vocabulary's development, we will look at these processes as they take place around us today, alongside other processes that are more prevalent in the twentieth century than in the tenth or twelfth.

(1) Borrowings -- These constitute a major part of our present vocabulary. However, among newer words in English, they constitute only a small percentage. This illustrates the great capacity English had in the past in assimilating elements from other languages, although there is a significant tendency today, as in Old English, for the language to use its inner resources in word-making. The period of heavy borrowing appears to be over.

English, as we have seen, has always been a "word borrower" from other languages, particularly French, Latin and German. Modern English has kept up this tradition, but to a lesser degree. Many of these words have been taken over "ready-made" from the people from whom the idea or thing named has been obtained:

French -- chauffer, chiffon, garage, consomme

Italian -- confetti, vendetta

German -- zeppelin, rucksack

Russian -- vodka, sputnik

Czech -- robot

India -- afghan, loot, thug

(2) Self-Explaining Compounds -- This is a second source of new words. Previously noted, it is one of the oldest methods of word formation in language. Of recent origin we have: airworthy, fingerprint, hitchhike, lipstick, newsprint, skyline, speedboat, teen-ager and steam shovel.

These words give living evidence that two words can be combined to express a single idea or concept. This process, prominent in Old English, still exists today.

(3) Prefixes and Suffixes -- Another common method of enlarging the vocabulary is by joining affixes to existing words. Note the wide use of the Latin prefix "trans-" (across) in recent years: transcontinental, transformer, trans-Canada, transoceanic. Another is "post-" (after): postwar, postgraduage, postclassical period.

Other familiar affixes in common use: "-ful," "-less," "pre-," "sub-," "counter-," "de-."

Can you form any new words using these affixes?

(4) Common Words from Proper Names -- Another source from which English words have been derived in the past is the names of persons and places.

A "limousine" gets its name from a province in France and the American city "Charleston" has given its name to a dance. The word "colt," a gun, is merely the name of its inventor. The word "raglan" comes from Lord Raglan, the British commander in the Crimean War.

(5) Trade Names -- This is another source of words in Modern English. The trade name "Vaseline" comes from the German "wasser" (water) plus Greek "elaion" (oil). "Kleenex" and "Cutex" come from the words "clean" and "cuticle" plus a widely used, yet meaningless suffix "-ex."

(6) Clipped Forms -- This process does just what it says, "clip" or cut a longer word into a shorter one, with the shorter one becoming more popularly used than the original word. Some examples are:

pantaloons -- pants

brassiere -- bra

advertisement -- ad

influenze -- flu

What other ones can you think of?

(7) Blends -- The blending of two existing words to make a new word was probably as unconsciously done in Old English as it is today. Examples:

smoke + fog = smog

square + circle = squircle

snake + shark = snark

motor + hotel = motel

What others can you create?

(8) Acronyms -- The use of the initial letters of the words in phrases (e.g. R.O.T.P., Y.M.C.A.), sometimes of syllables (TB, TV, PJs "pajamas"), as if these were words has long been common. Examples:

SUB -- Student Union Building

POW -- Power of Women

WAVE -- Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service

Are there any you are familiar with?

(9) Slang -- The very productive area of slang has added numerous words to our vocabulary. While many have only brief lives (e.g. square, neat), others have become permanent additions to the vocabulary (e.g. mob, slob).

This concludes our brief look at the development of our language's vocabulary. We have seen our vocabulary, composed of native Germanic words, borrowed words and newly formed words, expand as man's world expands. From this hasty summary we can appreciate such things as the cosmopolitan nature of the English vocabulary and the basic word formation processes of our language. However, the major language concept to be derived here is the constant change that our language has undergone. Clearly illustrated in the development of vocabulary, it is a fact that must always be kept in mind in any consideration of language.

Questions

1. How did Old English vocabulary show great flexibility and resourcefulness?

2. Why did the Germanic tribes borrow many words from the Latin language and not from the Celtic languages?

3. Language often acts as a mirror of history. After noting the words borrowed by Old English from Latin by the sixth century, explain why this statement is true.

4. What conditions after 1200 contributed to the re-establishment of English as the official language of England?

5. What is a socially inferior language or dialect? Do we have any in the province of Newfoundland?

6. Language change occurs first in speech, then in writing. Explain this statement with a specific example from your text.

7. How was the adoption of Latin words by the Germanic tribes of Britain in the sixth century similar to the adoption of French words by the English in the Middle English period?

8. During the period of heavy word borrowing from French, why did traditional Old English processes of word formation decline?

9. Why did a standard English dialect grow up in London?

10. During the Renaissance, why was it that Latin and Greek words usually entered English through writing and not speech? Do questions #6 and #10 here contradict each other?

11. When we say Shakespeare was not afraid to experiment with English, what do we mean? Does J. D. Salinger (The Catcher in the Rye) also experiment with language?

12. During the eighteenth century, what forces were counteracting the conservative effort to regulate the language?

13. What present-day forces continue to have a massive effect on our vocabulary?

Activities

1. Using the various processes of word formation outlined, see what new words you can create. Make a list and see if the class can discover their origin.

2. Pick any one of the various processes of word formation discussed and try to find as many examples of this particular process as you can from speaking to people, reading newspapers, or listening to T.V. or radio.

3. Take an article from the newspaper. With the help of sources given in this text, find out how many of the words in the article are native English words. How many are from foreign languages? The results may be surprising.

4. Prepare a report on the social conditions in England shortly after the Norman Conquest. Draw conclusions about how those conditions affected the English language.

5. Make a list of self-explaining compounds that you are familiar with. Try to create others that might be used.

6. If you are interested in how meanings of words have changed between Shakespeare's time and the present, ask your teacher for a short exercise that can help. The exercise indicates words in lines from Shakespeare that have different meanings today. You are asked to explain the meaning the word had in Shakespeare's day.

7. Make a careful survey of <u>The Catcher in the Rye</u> to see what other uses of slang there are besides those already pointed out. See your teacher for a copy of the novel.

8. Word losses are constantly occurring. Ask your parents or older relatives for words that they used but which are no longer in use today. These might be verbs, names of objects and so on. Make a list and bring it to class.

9. Go through a chapter in your science textbook. Identify scientific words that are now considered a part of the general vocabulary. Make a list.

10. Go to the library. Find an edition of an old book or an old poem (e.g. Milton, Fielding). List words you find that are no longer in use. Explain what they have been replaced by.

CHAPTER IV

The content of this chapter is derived from two main sources:

Albert C. Baugh, A History of the English Language.

Thomas Pyles, The Origins and Development of the English Language.

We began our last chapter on the development of English vocabulary with a reasonable awareness of what "vocabulary" was. However, it is doubtful if many of us know what grammar is.

The word "grammar" immediately reminds most of us of dusty books in an old library. We think of grammar as a boring and tiresome subject, mainly because we have been forced to steadily digest its rules since grade four or five. This chapter, through looking at the historical growth of English grammar, will try to give a true picture of what it is. Hopefully, some of your prejudices against grammar may be removed or lessened and a basic understanding reached.

What is grammar? Your own experience in school over the last ten or eleven years tells you that it is mainly the rules by which we write and speak properly. You read in the introductory section of this text that grammar is much more than "rules" that guard our pens and mouths. Grammar is a description of the way a language works. It is a system we use in order to communicate. Language must have a system or there would be no basis for communication. We have briefly discussed the concept of "language system" earlier, now we will consider it more fully.

Before we ever come to school we can speak good, sound English. During our first three years at school we learn how to read and write that same English. Then, from grade four upwards, we learned something about the language we had been using for about ten years. We were exposed to new terms such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb and conjunction. We related these parts of speech to parts of sentences: the noun may be the subject of the verb, the object of the verb, the object of a preposition, the complement of a linking verb; an adjective modifies a noun or pronoun. However, we failed to look at our language as a composite of parts working together. Rather, our emphasis has been on isolating the parts of that system (e.g. "picking out" nouns,

adjectives). In such efforts we have overlooked the important "language signals" that give important insights into how the parts of sentences work together to express meaning in English. The following illustration may help.

What is this? Could it be this?

Each separate piece has minimal significance. But when the parts are brought into an ordered relationship, they create a structure with new significance. Moreover, each separate piece gains significance through its relationship to the total structure.

Now let us apply this principle to language. The first language, or more appropriately, "structure signal" in English is word order. This exercise may prove helpful.

Each separate word has little significance:

the, the, car, my, killed, girl, in, sister

First, separate the words that have the most lexical importance:

car, killed, girl, sister

The words with the least lexical importance:

the, in, the, my

Now, organize the lexical words (i.e. nouns, verbs) in some order so that they begin to "make sense."

girl car killed sister

A sentence begins to take shape, but there is need for the other words to signal the full relationship among the parts:

The girl in the car killed my sister.

The words that relate the lexical words to one another are known as structure words. We see, then, that the lexical words must be arranged in order to make sense and they must be brought into closer relationship by structure words.

Word order and structure words are two "language signals" in English. The following exercise will show both of these signals, plus a third kind.

Read the following:

The heplamic zorflies are flinking a premounder in the rufnicks trendiously.

1. What words do you recognize at once?
2. Is this a sentence?
3. Is there a verb?
4. What is the object of the verb? What or whom are the "zorflies flinking?"
5. What is the subject? How do you know?
6. What grammatical position does "rufnicks" occupy?
7. What does "trendiously" appear to be functioning as?
8. Does this sentence describe something sad?
9. Substitute "real" words for the "berbly" ones.

Now look at the following columns:

	I	II	III
Verb	-ing	are	after subject
Subject	-(ie)s -ic	the	before verb, after "the," after adjective
Object	-er	a	after "a," after verb

What do the items in column I have in common? The items in II? Those in III?

We can now label each column:

I -- AFFIXES (prefixes and suffixes)

II -- STRUCTURE WORDS

III -- WORD ORDER

Write three sentences on your paper. Are these three "language signals" used in each case? Can you write an English sentence that doesn't contain any of these signals?

From these exercises we can see that the English language uses various elements to make communication possible. We see that certain words like "the" precede nouns, nouns usually show a change to indicate plurality, and verbs usually follow the subject. We can see how a number of parts work together in definite patterns to form a sentence. Our language, then, is more than a lot of

words that express ideas when grouped together. A language system does and must exist, though the native speaker may be unaware of his knowledge of it.

It may be helpful here to place our discussion of English language "signals" into a broader view of the basic structural characteristics of all languages. Various controversial classifications of the structure of languages have been put forth. We should avoid such controversial groupings, and instead, focus our attention on how other languages are structurally different from English.

Unlike Modern German, Old English or Latin, Modern English is an analytic language. The analytic structure depends on structure words (determiners, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, etc.) and, particularly, on word order. The analytic structure makes little use of inflectional endings. (An inflectional ending is a morpheme that is attached to a word to convey a grammatical signal. For example, the inflection -s is attached to the noun boy to convey plurality; the inflection -ed is attached to the verb look to convey change of tense from present to past.) The analytic structure of English is clearly shown in the following sentence:

He played a game with the boys in the gym.

We have in this sentence:

(1) word order

(2) structure words (a, with, the, in)

(3) inflectional endings on played and boys

Many other languages differ from English structurally in being far less analytic. Latin is a prime example of a language that makes extensive use of inflections. Languages such as Latin that depend heavily on inflections to express meaning are known as synthetic languages. Note the Latin "from the girls":

puellis

puell + is

girl + ablative + feminine
plural

The grammatical information shown above is carried in the inflectional ending -is.

The Latin sentence "agricola amat puellam" means "The farmer loves the girl." This meaning is not dependent on word

order. It could have been written, "Puellam amat agricola." The inflectional endings or "signs" are the -a ending of agricola which indicates that this noun is the subject, and the -am of puellam which shows that this noun is the object, and the -at of amat which means that this verb is in the present tense, indicative mood, third person singular. Students of Latin are well aware of the different inflectional endings needed to show number, case, gender, tense, mood, person and voice.

To change the order of "The farmer loves the girl" in Modern English to "The girl loves the farmer" would change the meaning. But Old English was, as we will soon see, also highly inflected. Modern English, on the other hand, has fewer inflections than does Latin and, therefore, relies more heavily on word order.

Turkish and Eskimo are other examples of languages less analytic than English. Both Turkish and Eskimo make extensive use of inflections. Note the Turkish "from the houses":

evlerden

ev + ler + den

house + plural + ablative case

Notice how our three different words in English are compressed into one word in Turkish. A language, such as Turkish, that joins part to part is known as an agglutinative language.

The Eskimo nunakattigingitak, "one who is not of the same country," again illustrates the incorporation of grammatical information into one word. What requires over a half dozen words in English to express is synthesized into one word in Eskimo. Indeed, such a language seems far more economical than English.

While the languages mentioned above are less analytic than Modern English, others, such as Chinese, are more analytic. Chinese is a monosyllabic language (i.e. every word has one unchanging form). Where English changes the word man into man's, men, or men's, depending upon its function in the sentence, in Chinese the word for "man," jen, never changes. Inflection plays a much more minor role in Chinese than in English. It is a more analytic language than English.

This brief summary of language structure helps put the concept of "language system" into a broader perspective. Structurally different languages demand different "systems" to operate effectively.

In an earlier section we learned how the English language came from the Indo-European family of languages and, more specifically, from the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. English, we saw, is closely related historically with German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian. All branches of the Indo-European family of languages (see chart) have certain features in common. They all have a common word stock, comprised of a number of words not found in other types of languages. Also, they all make use of inflections. Of special interest to us in our discussion of English grammar, besides these general features of English found in other languages of the Indo-European family, are the special characteristics of the Germanic branch of Indo-European from which the English language developed. These are:

(1) The formation of a past tense form by means of a suffix containing "d" or "t," as in the verbs "live" - "lived" "mean" - "meant"

(2) The reduction of inflected tense forms to two, a "present" and a "past" (as in jumps - jumped). Other so-called tenses are indicated by an auxiliary structure word (as in will jump).

(3) a fixed stress or accent, rather than a variable stress as in Greek, Latin or French. The Germanic stress pattern tends to fall on the first syllable of the word, as in Old English fæder, "father."

(There are several others, but because of their complexity they will not be treated here.)

These are particular features inherited by English from the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. These features will be met several times as we move through our discussion of the development of our language's grammar. Awareness of the third feature mentioned, the fixed stress on the root syllable, will help us greatly in understanding the major later development in English grammar, the loss of inflectional endings.

Having covered this background information, we will now move into a discussion (as we did in our vocabulary section) of the three major periods of the English language, looking at the grammar of English at each stage and tracing its development right up to today. In our discussion in the following pages, we should constantly try to see the "system" of language, how it changed and evolved. We should remember that whenever ways of saying things were changed they were always replaced by other ways. Indeed, language, whether in the area of vocabulary or grammar, is never at a loss to fill some gap that is created.

Old English (449-1100)

We have seen that the vocabulary of Old English is far different from Modern English vocabulary. However, the most fundamental feature that distinguishes Old English from the language of today is grammar.

Here is a passage from Old English (see Old English version of Our Father on overhead). Look at it closely and see what differences there are between it and the Modern English version you have on a handout. For ease in finding correspondences between the Old English and Modern English translation, substitute "th" for the letters þ and ð.

Note the order of the words and the endings on words. What about the words used? Are many of them borrowed from Latin or French? How do you think these Old English words are pronounced? Do they sound much like Modern English pronunciations? Listen to the following reading of the Our Father in Old English by Dr. Harold Paddock of Memorial University's Linguistics Department.

A discussion, guided by the teacher, on the main differences between the two passages can follow. Students might also discuss a longer passage (e.g. an excerpt from Beowulf, also on handout), citing the main differences between Old and Modern English.

From our discussion we should have hit upon some generalizations about Old English. To briefly elaborate they should include:

(1) The pronunciation of Old English is strikingly different from the pronunciation of Modern English. The difference is so great that Old English strikes our modern ears like a foreign language.

(2) The grand majority of the words in these Old English passages are Germanic. Old English, therefore, does not have a large number of loan words, as we have already seen.

(3) Inflectional endings on words are extensively used. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and even the article "the" are heavily inflected.

Inflections tell not only whether a noun is singular, plural or possessive, as in Modern English, but also whether it is subject, direct object, indirect object and so on. Even gramma-

tical gender or noun class is indicated through endings.

Old English retained masculine, feminine and neuter genders from Indo-European. These genders were not based on consideration of sex or noun class. Indeed, words like "mæġden" (girl) and "wīf" (wife) name sexually feminine persons but surprisingly belong to the neuter class of nouns. English today has a natural or logical gender.

Old English nouns had a complete system of inflections with four main cases:

Nominative (indicating subject function usually)

Accusative (indicating direct object of a verb or "object" of certain prepositions)

Dative (indicating indirect object of a verb or "object" of certain prepositions)

Genitive (indicating possession and some other functions)

Adjectives, pronouns and articles were declined in much the same way as nouns. Note the inflectional endings in the following declensions. (A declension is a presentation in some prescribed order of the inflectional forms of a noun, adjective or pronoun.)

Noun ("stone")

Singular		Plural	
N.	stān	N.	stān-as
A.	stān	A.	stān-as
D.	stān-e	D.	stān-um
G.	stān-es	G.	stān-a

Note the nominative plural ending -as. This later changed to -es and -s to show the plural of nouns. Some Old English nouns had nominative and accusative plural endings in -an. This plural form has survived in such nouns as oxen, children and brethren. What other inflections do English nouns have today?

Adjective ("good") masculine gender

Singular		Plural	
N.	gōd	N.	gōd-e
A.	gōd-ne	A.	gōd-e
D.	gōd-um	D.	gōd-um
G.	gōd-es	G.	gōd-ra

(There are other declensions of nouns and adjectives showing various endings. Those given above are provided to illustrate the various forms Old English parts of speech could take.)

Adjectives formed their comparative and superlative degrees by suffixing -ra (heardra "harder") and -ost (heardost "hardest"). There were a few exceptions in which the comparative and superlative forms were formed from a totally different word, for instance: good, better, best (Old English gōd, betra, betst) and little, less, least (Old English lȳtel, læssa, læst).

For adverbs, which might be formed from adjectives by adding -e (adjective slāw "slow" gives slāwe "slowly"), the endings for the comparative and superlative were respectively -or and -ost (with a few in -est or just -st). Because of later sound changes -ra and -or both end up as Modern English -er; similarly -ost became -est. In Modern English does the adjective have any inflections?

The Definite Article

Like German today, Old English possessed a fully inflected definite article.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neuter	All Genders
Singular N.	sē	sēo	þæt	Plural þā
A.	þæs	þære	þæs	þāra
D.	þǣm	þære	þǣm	þǣm
G.	þone	þā	þæt	þā

These numerous forms are in sharp contrast with the single unchanging form of the definite article in Modern English "the."

Although the usual meaning of sē, sēo, þæt is "the," it was originally a demonstrative, surviving in the Modern English demonstrative "that." In Old English it was also used as a relative pronoun (who, which, that) and occasionally as a personal pronoun (he, she, it).

The Personal Pronoun

The personal pronoun has numerous forms in Modern English. A comparison with Old English and Middle English shows that the personal pronoun always had many forms and also illustrates the gradual development of the pronoun from one period to the next.

First person
Singular

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	ic	I	I
A.	mē, mec	me	me
D.	mē		
G.	mīn	mine, my	my mine

Second person
Singular

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	ðū	thou	(thou)
A.	ðē, ðec	thee	(thee)
D.	ðē		
G.	ðīn	thine, thy	thy thine

We should note that a difference in pronunciation (mine/my and thine/thy) in M.E. becomes a difference in grammar in MOD.E.

M.E.
mine eyes, mine help (mine before vowels and letter "h")
my son, my foot

MOD.E.
This is my book.
This book is mine.
(In MOD.E. my takes on an adjectival function; mine takes on a pronominal function.)

We will see from the next paradigms that a similar split has occurred in the other genitives, but it has taken place here through analogy with the -'s form of nouns. We will learn more about the process of analogy soon.

First person
Plural

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	wē	we	we
A. D.	ūs	us	us
G.	ūser, ūre	our	our ours

Second person
Plural

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	gē	ye	
A.	ēow	you	you
D.			
G.	ēower	your	your yours

Third person
Singular Masculine

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	hē	he	he
A.	hine	him	him
D.	him		
G.	his	his	his (This is his book.) his (This book is his.)

Feminine

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N.	hēo, hio, hīe, hi	she	she
A.	hīe, hi, hȳ, hēo	hir	her (This is her book.)
D.	hiere, hire, hȳre		hers (This book is hers.)
G.			

Neuter

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N. A.	hit	it	it
D.	him	him, it (?)	it
G.	his	his	its (This is its leg.) its (This leg is its?)

Third person
Plural All Genders

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
N. A.	hīe, hi, hȳ, hēo, hio	they	they

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
D.	him, hēom	him	them
G.	hiera, hira, hȳra, hēora, hiora	hir	their (This is their car.) theirs (This car is theirs)

The irregularity of the personal pronoun throughout the history of the English language is evident from the above paradigms. Frequently used words seem to have a natural tendency to remain irregular. Let's take a little closer look at the personal pronoun in Modern English.

The Personal Pronoun — Modern English

	Standard Speech							Non-Standard	
Subject	I	you	he	she	it	we	they	who	thou	ye
Object	me	you	him	her	it	us	them	whom	thee	ye
Genitive A	my	your	his	her	its	our	their	whose	thy	yeer
Genitive B	mine	yours	his	hers	its	ours	theirs	whose	thine	yeers

What regular patterns can you see? Are there any? How about the non-standard ye yeer yeers? Are these forms found in your own dialect?

Before looking at Old English verbs, we must mention here that words used with nouns (i.e. adjectives, articles "the good man" sē gōda mann) had to agree with them in number, case and gender. We must also keep in mind that some of the work done by prepositions (e.g. with, from) or helping verbs in Modern English was done by inflectional endings in Old English.

Verbs

Old English verbs express only two simple tenses by inflection, a "present" and a "past." The passive voice was formed both with wesan (to be) and weorþan (to become). The Old English verb recognized the indicative, imperative and subjunctive moods. It had the usual two numbers and three persons.

Old English verbs were of two types, strong and weak. "Strong" verbs (known as "irregular verbs" in Modern English) like "sing, sang, sung" were so called because they had the power of indicating change of tense by a modification of their root vowel. In the "weak" verbs (Modern English "regular verbs"), like "walk, walked," this change is brought about by the addition of a suffix

containing "d" or "t." This is precisely the same situation as in Modern English, the only difference is one of degree. Old English had many more strong verbs than Modern English, many of which have now become weak, while others have been lost. Some of the old past tense forms survive in non-standard speech, for instance, "holp" as the past tense of "help" and "clumb" as the past tense of "climb," verbs which did not take on their weak forms until much later. Practically all verbs which have entered the language since Germanic times are inflected by the addition of a "d" or "t" suffix. Indeed, the "weak" conjugation has come to be the dominant one in our language.

Conjugation of the verb "to write" in the indicative mood.

Indicative

Present

Sing.	Pl.
ic wrīt-e	wē writ-aþ
þū wrīt-(e)st	gē wrīt-aþ
hē wrīt-e , wrītt	hīe wrīt-aþ

Past

Sing.	Pl.
ic wrāt	wē writ-on
þū writ-e	gē writ-on
hē wrāt	hīe writ-on

We can see, then, the predominance of inflections in Old English. As we have seen, the use of inflections permits flexibility of word order in sentences. Modern English has little inflection and, therefore, must maintain a fairly set word order. Yet, we can see from our Old English passages that Old English sentences follow much the same word order as those of Modern English. Old English sentences tended to fall into the subject-verb-object order of Modern English.

(4) Because of the wide use of inflections, word order in Old English is not fixed. However, the subject-verb-object (complement) pattern of Modern English was becoming established.

In our next section on Middle English we will see the gradual decay of inflections. Before the end of the Middle English period this decay left, from the great number of inflections we have already witnessed, only a few endings on the noun and verb, a single form for the article and little of the old adjective declen-

sion. Grammatical meaning came to depend almost entirely upon more or less fixed word order.

Without a doubt the changes in English grammar may be described as a general reduction in the inflections we have just noted. Indeed, the most general trend to be found in the history of English is a steady "drift" towards reduction of inflections.

Middle English (1100-1500)

We have seen the extensive changes that took place in the vocabulary of Middle English. We have cited the effects of the Norman Conquest of England on English vocabulary. Massive changes also occurred in grammar. The grammatical changes were both the result of the Conquest and the continuation of tendencies that had begun to manifest themselves in Old English.

Languages tend to borrow words from other languages, but not their grammar. Grammar seems to be a much more stable and deep-rooted part of language than vocabulary. The changes which affected the grammatical structure of English after the Norman Conquest were not the result of contact with the French language. These changes are the result of the Norman Conquest only in so far as that event created conditions favorable to such changes. By making English the language mainly of uneducated people, the Norman Conquest made it easier for grammatical changes to go forward unchecked. These changes, as we will see, brought English from a highly inflected language to an extremely analytic one.

The general reduction of inflections that occurred in Middle English can best be seen by discussing the general trends and by comparison of inflectional endings in Old English and Middle English.

One of the chief reasons for the reduction of inflectional endings was a change in the method of accenting words. In Old English, although the stress was generally on the root syllable, unstressed vowels were clearly pronounced (e.g. "stānum"). But in Middle English the stress began to be stronger on the first syllables of words, as it is in Modern English, thus making weaker the syllables following (pronounced "stānum" with weakening of final syllable). Now the vowels a, o, u, e in inflectional endings were obscured to a sound written "e." As a result a number of distinct endings such as -a, -u, -e, -an, -um were reduced to the "e" sound and the grammatical distinctions they had conveyed were lost. (e.g. "stānum." The ending here changed to an "e" sound. The form of the word no longer showed it was dative plural or whether it was a

masculine, feminine or neuter noun.) This major phonetic change seems to have been carried out by the end of the twelfth century.

The noun "stān," which we have seen in its Old English a form, was now altered and the Old English forms stān, stānes, stāne in the singular and stānas, stāna, stāne, in the plural were now reduced to three: stoon, stoones, stoone. A closer look at the changes taking place in the noun "stān" from Old to Middle to Modern English provides some important insights.

"stan" stone

	O.E.	M.E.	MOD.E.
Singular			
N. A.	stān	stoon	stone
D.	stāne	stoone	
G.	stānes	stoones	stone's
Plural			
N. A.	stānas	stoones	stones
D.	stānum	stoone	
G.	stāna	stoone	stones'

From the above paradigm the following generalizations can be made:

(a) Vowel reduction in inflections make O.E. -es and -as fall together as M.E. -es so that the nominative and accusative plural sounds the same as the genitive singular in both M.E. and MOD.E.

(b) Vowel reduction plus loss of final nasal in -um makes the dative plural fall together with the dative singular in M.E.

(c) The -s of the nominative and accusative plural in O.E. and M.E. was extended to all plural forms in MOD.E. The -s ending came to be thought of as the sign of the plural. Some nouns had ended in -en in the nominative and accusative plural. As previously mentioned, a few Modern English remanents of this process are found in oxen, brethren, children.

(d) The genitive plural in MOD.E. acquired a genitive -s by analogy with the genitive singular. In MOD.E. stones',

this genitive "s" is not pronounced as a second -s after the plural -s, but is merely indicated by an apostrophe in spelling. However, it is pronounced in other genitive plural words such as children's.

We can, therefore, say for the noun stone that:

(1) O.E. had six different forms of stān which indicates six different case-number functions.

(2) M.E. had three different forms of stoon which indicated six different case-number functions. Note that two of the forms (stoone and stoones) had two different functions each.

(3) MOD.E. has only two different forms for stone but these are given four different spellings to indicate four different case-number functions. Thus, MOD.E. spelling sometimes indicates grammar as well as pronunciation.

With the loss of inflections, the noun lost grammatical gender and the idea of sex became the only factor in determining the gender of most English nouns. (Note exceptions like feminine ship "She went aground;" feminine car "Fill'er up.") With the loss of grammatical gender in the noun went the loss of agreement, so far as gender is concerned, in inflection between the noun and its adjective. The inflectional endings in the adjective levelled off as they had done in the noun.

In the fourteenth century the final "e" was no longer pronounced. It survived only in spelling and by the end of the Middle English period the adjective had lost all inflections. There were now many fewer endings in both the adjective and the noun than there were in Old English.

Drastic reduction of inflections occurred in the definite article. The previously mentioned process of analogy was at work here. (This process involves substituting one form for several different ones; copying one form on the style of another.) Since the majority of the forms of the definite article began with "þ" or "ð" (equivalent to "th"), the "þ" was substituted for "s" of sē and sēo, giving the nominative singular þe, þeo, þæt. The vowel of þeo became the same as that of þe by a regular phonetic development, and with the discarding of grammatical gender in the noun, the one form þe was employed for all three genders. The form þæt remained a demonstrative (that). Analogy extended even further in that e became the one form for all numbers, genders and cases of the article after the loss of inflections in the noun. Thus, one form, giving Modern English "the" forced out the many forms of the Old English definite article.

In the personal pronouns the losses were not so great. Here there was greater need for separate forms for the different genders and cases and most of the distinctions that occurred in Old English were retained.

The division of the verb into strong and weak or irregular and regular continued in the Middle English period. However, there was a tendency for the strong verbs to become weak, a more regular and simple form which appeals to us humans. Verbs, too, underwent the leveling of inflections and the weakening of endings in accordance with the general tendency.

The Middle English period, then, was one of great grammatical changes. It began with English a highly inflected language, like Latin or Modern German. After a few centuries, however, it had become an analytic language, with rapidly disappearing inflections. Grammatical gender had been replaced by semantic gender and due to loss of inflections, word order was becoming fixed. The subject-verb-complement pattern of Modern English was established.

Your teacher will provide you with samples of Middle English (e.g. The Lord's Prayer, Chaucer's The Wyf of Bathe). Discuss and compare these passages with Old English and Modern English versions. (In the case of Chaucer's work, comparison can only be made with a Modern English version.)

Modern English (1500-present)

As with vocabulary, our third major division in the historical development of grammar, Modern English, begins around the year 1500 with the emergence of the Renaissance and Modern History. English grammar in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is marked more by the survival of certain forms and usages that have since disappeared than by any fundamental developments. The great changes which reduced the inflections of Old English had already taken place. The major changes to occur in Modern English are those in vocabulary. The changes in grammar are relatively slight. Few significant developments occur in grammar during the Early Modern period. On the whole the grammar of this period is very much like that of English today.

In the following pages we will continue our discussion of general grammatical trends. We will also look at grammar in Shakespeare, for his language is somewhat representative of Early Modern English. Our discussion will also bring us to the eighteenth century attempt to regulate the English language, an event that was to have far-reaching effects. Finally, we will note some of

the main grammatical changes in English today, changes which many of us are unconscious agents of.

In the noun the only inflections retained were those marking the plural and possessive singular. The "s-plural" had become so generalized that except for a few nouns like "sheep" and "swine" with unchanged plurals and a few others like "mice" and "feet" with changed vowels, we are barely conscious of any other forms. The old plural ending -n (noted before) had given way to -s forms (e.g. M.E. fon, kneen, fleen give MOD.E. foes, knees, fleas).

Since the adjective had already lost all its endings, so that it no longer expressed distinctions of gender, number and case, the chief interest of this part of speech in the modern period is in the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees. The two methods most used to form the comparative and superlative, by the endings -er and -est and with the adverbs "more" and "most," had been customary since Old English times. However, their use was varied. Shakespeare used "honester" and "violentest" (now, "more honest," "most violent"). Shakespeare also used the double comparative and superlative (i.e. "more larger;" "most boldest").

In Shakespeare's play, Julius Caesar, we have:

Cassius: ". . . and we will grace his heels with the most boldest and best hearts of Rome."
(Julius Caesar, III,i,132-3)

Anthony: "This was the most unkindest cut of all . . ."
(Julius Caesar, III,ii,194)

The chief development affecting the adjective in modern times has been the gradual division of usage, so that one syllable adjectives take -er, -est, while most adjectives of two or more syllables take more, most.

Many adverbs which now must end in -ly did not require the inflection in Early Modern English times. The works of Shakespeare furnish typical examples: grievous sick, indifferent cold, wondrous strange.

In the sixteenth century the personal pronouns took the forms they have had ever since in standard English. Some main changes involved were:

(1) Thou, thy, thee fell into disuse.

(2) The substitution of "you" for "ye" as a nominative case.

"Ye" had been the nominative and "you" the objective form. However, since both forms were often pronounced very much alike, a tendency to confuse the nominative and accusative forms occurred. "You" began to be used as the nominative. Do speakers in Newfoundland still use "ye?"

(3) An interesting development in the pronoun at this time was the formation of a new possessive neuter, "its." As we have seen, the neuter pronoun in Old English had a form, "hit" (nominative and accusative singular), which was pronounced "it" in unstressed positions. Through analogy (stone, stone's; it, it's) "it" gained the possessive sign "'s." The word was spelled with an apostrophe down to about 1800.

(4) One other noteworthy development of the pronoun in the sixteenth century was the use of the relative. "Who" as a relative only came into use in the sixteenth century. In Julius Caesar:

> "I should do Brutus wrong, and Cassius wrong,
> who, you all know, are honorable men."
> (Anthony, III,ii,134-5)

Shakespeare used the same relative pronouns that are found in Modern English: who, that, which. In Shakespeare the relative "that" occurs much more often than the other two. It is used more freely in reference to persons than it would be today.

In regard to the verb, we find certain differences which clearly distinguish this part of speech from its present form. A conspicuous mark of Shakespeare's English is the -eth ending used with the verb in the third person singular. However, the modern form -s (third person singular) also occurs. Both forms seem acceptable in all situations:

In The Merchant of Venice during the trial scene a messenger states, ". . . From whom he bringeth sensible regrets" (II,ix,93); later Portia says, "It blesseth him that gives and him that takes" (IV,i,192).

Although the -eth forms continued to be used in writing long after Shakespeare's time, it is probable that the -s forms were nearly always used in speech even in the seventeenth century and then gradually found their way into the written language.

In the language of Shakespeare there is also a noticeable absence of progressive verb forms (an important development of later times) or the auxiliary elements "be + ing." Shakespeare

uses this construction very seldom. In Modern English we use this "progressive form" to express actions that are in progress or continuing. For example, "He is talking to the man." Quite often Shakespeare uses the verb form ending in -s in sentences that would require "be + ing" in Modern English. In The Merchant of Venice:

". . . he grows kind" (Antonio, I,iii,181).

"The Prince of Arragon hath ta'en his oath and comes to his election presently" (Nerissa, II,ix,3-4).

"He comes, my lord" (Salerio, IV,i,16).

Here we see the tendency towards phrasal structure in Modern English and the movement away from inflected forms, as used by Shakespeare.

When the verbal auxiliary "do" is used in Shakespeare, it does not follow the same pattern as in Modern English. Nerissa asks, "Do you not remember . . .?" (I,ii,104).

Another feature of the English verb in the sixteenth century is the occurrence of -s as an ending also of the third person plural: "whose own hard dealings teaches them suspect the deeds of others." The best explanation of this usage is due to analogy with the third person singular. Plural verb forms in -s are occasionally found as late as the eighteenth century. (Your teacher might wish to compare Newfoundland English. Many of our province's dialects still have plural verb forms in -s, e.g. they bakes; we goes).

In asking questions of the yes/no type, Shakespeare's characters show another way in which the language of 1600 differed from Modern English. The word order in such questions is not the same as ours. In The Merchant of Venice:

"Call you?" (Jessica, II,v,11).

"Hates any man the thing he would not kill?" (Shylock, IV,i,68).

"Come you from old Bellario?" (Duke, IV,i,170).

In Modern English we would use the word "do" in asking these questions (i.e. "Did you call?" "Does any man hate . . .?").

The trend that developed during the Middle English period, "strong" verbs becoming "weak," has continued ever since. For example, "help" now adds -ed for past tense and past participle.

In the early modern period, Shakespeare could, as we cannot, say, ". . . that hath holpen someone." Impossible as it now seems, many verbs like "milk," "shave" and "laugh" formerly behaved like "ride, rode, ridden," changing the vowel instead of adding the -ed ending to form past tense and past participle.

Shakespeare wrote English sentences using very nearly the same set of grammatical rules that we do. The differences in sentence structure and word forms are minor ones and where they do exist are not serious obstacles to communication.

With the gradual loss of inflections, word order was becoming more and more stable and the once unimportant preposition was acquiring great importance as it now served to indicate grammatical relationships once shown by inflections (e.g. to my house; with the stick).

We must not forget that extra-linguistic, social factors affected grammar as well as vocabulary. In our chapter on vocabulary we cited four main new conditions of the Renaissance that helped change the face of English vocabulary. While these forces were fostering the growth of vocabulary, they were having just the opposite effect on grammar and usage (an important term we will soon discuss). These forces (see overhead), evident during the Renaissance, are also affecting the language in a similar fashion today.

Forces:
1. printing press
2. popular education
3. improvements in communication
4. social consciousness

(Discuss these forces with your teacher and their effects on English grammar.)

The last force mentioned, "social consciousness," along with the eighteenth century mania for order and regulation, combined to bring about a massive attempt by certain men to regulate what they felt was a chaotic, disordered language. A brief discussion of this significant event will open your eyes to many of the erroneous ideas you may have had about grammar. In the introductory chapter you were given some insight into the misconceptions that grew out of this period. Let's look at them a little closer.

The eighteenth century was an age that sought system, regularity and order in all spheres of life. Language, an important and ever-present part of life, fell under the sway of this movement. For the first time attention was turned to grammar or the

system of language. The English language was deemed by the "intellectuals" unsystematic and in disarray. Everything was uncertain. Unlike Latin, it had no clear-cut system or "rules." Something had to be done!

The grammarians then set about to refine the language, to remove defects and introduce improvements. They also decided to draw up rules for correct usage. Finally, they hoped to "fix" the language in a permanent form. It is from these well-intentioned, but misled men, that we get the "rules" of grammar today. It is from them that we have gotten many of our rigid and unsympathetic attitudes towards language.

As we are quite aware by now, language changes. The English language, from Old English to Modern English, has changed drastically and it will continue to change. The eighteenth century grammarians failed to realize this fact and thought that they could "freeze" the language in the form they thought best. We might ask, "Who gave them the authority to legislate on language?" The answer is, "No one." They were ordinary, misguided men more concerned with setting a language standard for the rising middle classes that set them apart from the crude, "improper" language of the lower classes than trying to seriously understand language. From all this the concepts of "right" and "wrong" language developed. People who did not follow the "rules" that these men drew up (e.g. conditions governing the use of shall, will; the use of the double negative, etc.) spoke "bad," poor or "incorrect" English. Today, individuals (and the notion is almost universal) think that language rules are of divine origin, sent down by some powerful deity to accompany the language he gave us. They fail to realize that mere mortals, misguided and narrow-minded, were the inventors of these rules.

Rule followers spoke "proper or correct" English. Such terms, are totally inaccurate. The fisherman who says, "I iddn' goin' in there no more," or, "She bees sick a lot, do she?" speaks just as "correctly" as the bank president who says, "I'm not going in there anymore," or, "She's sick a lot, is she?" It is not physics or chemistry we are dealing with, it is language and the terms "right" and "wrong" have no place. The word that should be used is "appropriate." The fisherman who speaks to his fellow fishermen in the above fashion is speaking appropriate English for his mode of life (and the banker is speaking appropriately for his). If you say, "I knows it," you are not wrong, but rather, you are not speaking appropriate English. How you speak is not the accepted way of speaking in your situation (right now, in school). At a party you may say, "You looks sad." In the informal setting who is to say you can't speak this way? However, if being interviewed by a store manager for a job or in giving a speech to

the P.T.A., you said, "You looks sad," you would obviously be speaking inappropriately because your hearers might discriminate against you for using such grammar.

What we must realize, then, is that a confident command of language allows us to use our language differently to suit appropriate situations. The person with a good control of his language is the one who knows how to speak in various situations and does so. Language "correctness," therefore, is relative, not absolute. It depends on time, place and circumstances.

Taking this a step further, what the majority of people in a community (e.g. St. John's, Canada, North America) see as appropriate is really the signpost or standard we should use to guide our speech and writing. What the public generally accepts should be our main standard of speech. Since language constantly changes, our only real criterion of appropriateness is what the majority of educated people employ in their speech. If tomorrow, newscasters, teachers and politicians started saying, "I knows," as in "I knows the answer," and it became accepted, then it would be "correct" speech. The only real criterion or standard of speech, then, is not the set of rules devised by long-dead men, but usage, the generally accepted speech of educated people.

Language conventions exist and we must see the real necessity of them for order in language. Without the conventions of grammar, sentence structure, punctuation, capitalization and the mechanics of English in general, we would expose ourselves to language chaos and communication of an exact and honest nature would cease.

The "rules" of grammar, those sacred things we've feared so long, are not as fearsome as we think. They are often misguided contrivances of men who knew little of the nature of language. Your knowledge of this nature will help you to put these "rules" in their proper perspective.

> (By now the difference between grammar and usage should be clear to you. These two terms are often confused. Grammar describes how the structure of a language or dialect works. But usage is the mode of speech that becomes acceptable to the general population.)

The English language from 1700 to today has not shown enough significant changes to warrant discussion here. Far more profitable and suitable as a leaving off point would be to note some of the main grammatical changes occurring in present-day English. I am sure some of the changes we have discussed seem distant and abstract. Undoubtedly, noting changes in the language you hear every day will be more meaningful to you.

Some Grammatical Changes in Present-Day English

(This short section on present-day grammatical changes is derived from: Charles Barber, Linguistic Change in Present-Day English.)

(1) As we have seen, the complex inflectional system of Old English has become so simplified that only the following inflections remain in Modern English:

(a) the third person singular inflection of the verb (e.g. he walks)

(b) the past-simple inflection (e.g. he walked)

(c) the -ing form of the verb (e.g. walking)

(d) the -en form of the verb (e.g. eaten, broken)

(e) the plural and possessive forms of the noun (e.g. boy - boys; man - man's)
The old plural ending -en survives in few words (e.g. children)

(f) the possessive form of pronouns (e.g. yours, hers, its, ours, theirs)

(g) the nominative-objective contrast in the personal pronouns (e.g. we/us; he/him)

(h) the -er and -est of adjectives and some adverbs (i.e. compared words)

Right now these inflectional endings seem as secure as ever. Could they be dropped too in time?

(2) The loss of inflection is clear, however, in other cases. It is especially clear in the contrast "who/whom." The inflected form "whom" is disappearing from the spoken language (it is slower to disappear from the written language) and is being replaced by "who." It is natural to say, for example, "I don't know who to suggest." Though, in writing, many people would use "whom." After a preposition whom seems secure: "I don't know for whom it is intended." However, this sentence really belongs to the written language. Most people would say, "I don't know who it's intended for."

(3) "Me" is now normally accepted as the form to use after

the verb "to be." Nowadays, it sounds stilted to say, "It is I." The normal form is "It is (It's) me."

(4) Another change is to be seen in the growing use of more and most to express the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives instead of the endings -er and -est. This change is interesting because it is another example of that trend in the history of English from complex to simple forms or from synthetic to analytic forms. People still use more and most with adjectives of three syllables or more (e.g. beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful); they still use -er and -est with adjectives of one syllable (e.g. fine, finer, finest); and they still use either with two-syllable adjectives (e.g. lovely, more lovely, most lovely or lovely, lovelier, loveliest). Today, however, the analytic forms with more and most are clearly gaining ground over the synthetic forms in -er and -est.

Yet, there is apparent in the language today a change that goes against the trend towards loss of inflection. This is the spread of the "'s-genitive" at the expense of the "of-genitive." We constantly hear and read today of "London's theatres" instead of "the theatres of London;" the city's mayor, not the mayor of the city.

(5) The distinctions made between shall and will are being lost, and will is coming increasingly to be used instead of shall. In speech we often say neither shall or will, but just "'ll" as in "I'll see you tomorrow." Thus, there is often doubt in a speaker's mind whether will or shall is the appropriate form. In this doubt it is will that is spreading at the expense of shall.

A similar case is, "He's gone." Does this come from "He has gone" or "He is gone."?

(6) Other changes are taking place among the auxiliary verbs, and new auxiliaries are gaining ground. Get and want are now being used as auxiliaries. Get is used for forming a passive, "He got hurt," and "You'll get hurt;" want is used to mean "ought" or "must" as in "You want to be careful;" "You want to go to a doctor.

(7) Another development that is mainly heard in children's speech and occasionally in adult speech is the use of "of" for "have." This has arisen because both "of" and "have" possess the weak form av , as in "lots of money" and "I'd have done it."

Have you written this yourself: "I would of gone;" not "I would have gone?"

(8) A new interrogative structure in the second person forms of verbs seems to be developing. Instead of, "Would you like a cigarette?" or "Will you have a drink?" we are now hearing, "Like a cigarette?" "Have a drink?" The intonation shows it is a question. The voice rises with the final word. If it fell with the final word what would we have? Note that the initial interrogative words have been dropped (language simplification?).

(9) Changes are also taking place in the use of adverbs and conjunctions. The phrases "sort of" and "kind of" are coming to be used as adverbs meaning "so to speak" or "vaguely." Examples are:

"I sort of felt faint."

"I kind of imagined that you might come."

The words "like" and "same as" are not being used as conjunctions:

"He can't do it like I can."

"He likes football, same as I do."

(10) It is becoming exceedingly common to omit the relative "that." For example, one now hears, "a man I know," rather than, "a man that I know." Again, in writing the relative is often maintained, but in speech it is rarely heard.

(11) There seems to be a growth of compound verbs or verb phrases, especially consisting of verb plus adverb. The verb-adverb combination must be distinguished from the verb followed by a prepositional phrase.

(A) He ran down the road.

(B) He ran down his rival.

In (A) "ran" is a simple verb and "down" is a preposition with "road" as its object. In (B) "ran down" is a compound verb (meaning to scold, disparage) and "rival" is its object.

Note the possibility of a slight pause after "ran" in (A), whereas in (B) the pause is after "down."

In the whole of the Modern English period there has been a great growth of compound verbs (another sign of analytical tendencies in the language). New combinations are constantly being formed:

start up
bug off
fall for
butt in
eat up

A look at any good dictionary will show an enormous number of these. Look up the verbs "get," "put" and "try."

(12) Finally, we can note another change, change in function. That is, one part of speech is used as another (e.g. the noun "horse" can be used as a verb, "They were horsing around.").

Such changes began in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries when many inflections were being weakened and lost. In the sixteenth century no one was more daring than Shakespeare in making such changes.

Note the different functions of the word "down" in the following:

(a) Two trees fell <u>down</u> in the gale. (adverb)

(b) I ran <u>down</u> the slope. (preposition)

(c) They <u>downed</u> their drinks. (verb)

(d) We all have our ups and <u>downs</u>. (noun)

Among these "functional shifts," the shift from noun into verb remains the most common and a close second comes the shift from verb into noun.

What other functional shifts can you think of?

These are some of the more obvious changes taking place in the grammar of English. In comparison to the changes occurring today in vocabulary and pronunciation (an area too complex for us to look at here) they are small. In Modern English, then, the grammatical or structural changes are minimal and, as in past centuries, more rapid changes are taking place in the spheres of vocabulary and pronunciation.

Questions

1. Write two definitions of grammar. The first one represents what you felt grammar was before you began this unit; the second represents your new conception of grammar.

2. What special features of the Germanic Branch of the Indo-European language family did English inherit? What effects have these features had on the development of English grammar?

3. Why was word order less fixed in Old English? Why is it more "fixed" today?

4. We have said that the most general trend to be found in the history of English is a steady drift towards analytic structure. Explain this statement using sound language facts.

5. What is meant by "natural gender?" Did English always have natural gender?

6. Explain how the Norman Conquest affected the grammar of the English language. What effect would the many -s plurals in French have on noun paradigms in Middle English?

7. What main factor brought about a reduction of inflectional endings in Middle English?

8. Why did prepositions begin to gain importance in Middle English?

9. Briefly explain how the new conditions of the Renaissance helped promote standard forms in grammar and usage.

10. What misconceptions surround grammar "rules?" What sound linguistic stand should be taken on the topic of grammar rules?

11. Explain as fully as you can the concept of "usage."

Activities

1. Examine The Lord's Prayer in Old English. List specific examples of words or grammatical items that are still in use today.

2. Create your own "code language" by utilizing a new inflectional system with your own conventional vocabulary. Illustrate the number of different word order possibilities made available in

a reasonably complex sentence such as S-V-I.O.-D.O. Give your adjectives the same inflections as the words they modify. (Example: Johne gave littler Biller onem peanutem.)

3. The teacher will play a conversation in the 1950's between two students discussing school. The students make ample use of the slang of the day. Listen to the tape and make up your own conversation on the same topic using today's slang. Record your conversation and play it for the class.

4. The teacher will provide you with a list of twenty Indo-European words. Write two paragraphs describing the life of these people as suggested by these words.

5. The teacher will provide you with a passage from the heroic poem The Battle of Maldon written in 994. The Modern English equivalents are given beneath each line of the poem. Determine the meaning of the passage and rewrite it in clear, idiomatic English.

6. Make your own survey. Draw up a small questionnaire. (e.g. What is grammar _____
Does language change _____)
Give it to your friends, parents or relatives. Bring your results back to class.

7. Using newspapers, T.V., or the speech of friends as sources, make a list of examples of contemporary grammatical changes we have discussed that are found in these sources. If you notice others we haven't mentioned include them. Point out the ones that you yourself use in your speech or writing.

8. Discuss the role of inflections in some other language besides English which you are familiar with (e.g. French, Latin, German, Spanish).

9. Take Shakespeare's The Merchant of Venice or any of his plays and find whatever examples you can of functional shift. What does he "shift" most often, nouns to verbs or verbs to nouns?

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

accusative: the case which expresses the direct object of a verb; now called the objective case because it has the same form as the dative or indirect object. This Modern English objective case exists as a distinctive form only for certain pronouns (see dative below). (e.g. The ball hit him.)

affix: an element attached to the beginning or end of a word, serving to change the meaning or form; a prefix or suffix.

amelioration: one process in which the meaning of a word changes; it becomes "better" or more pleasant. It can be said to rise on the scale of value.

case: the form taken by a noun, pronoun or adjective in Old English to show its syntactic relationship to other words in the sentence; now existing only in pronouns or possessives of nouns.

cognate: derived from a common earlier form, such as cognate words or cognate languages. (e.g. English "apple" -- German "apfel")

conjugation: the inflectional pattern of a verb.

cosmopolitan language: a language composed of words and elements from many parts of the world.

dative: the case which denoted "to" or "for," surviving in the indirect object of Modern English. (e.g. John gave Mary a present; she poured him a coffee.) Like the accusative, it has a distinctive form in Modern English only in some pronouns.

declension: changes in the form of a noun, pronoun, or adjective, generally by the addition of suffixes to indicate a change in meaning or syntactic relationship to some other word or group of words.

derivation: a method of forming new words. It involves the additions of affixes to another word or to a base morpheme.

dialect: a variety of a language that differs from the standard language in features of phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, or meaning.

functional shift: a change in grammatical function. When a verb such as "run" is used as a noun (e.g. She had a run in her nylon.), a "functional shift" has taken place.

gender: the classification by which nouns, pronouns, and often adjectives are grouped and inflected in relation to sex or lack of it. In English, gender is natural: animate things are usually classified as masculine or feminine; inanimate things, usually neuter.

genitive: the case used chiefly to express possession: Tom's bat is missing.

Germanic: early, unrecorded language from which Old English developed. Germanic, which developed from the even earlier Indo-European, was brought to Britain by invading Germanic tribes in the mid-fifth century A.D.

grammar: the system of language. A description of how a language works.

Indo-European: early, unrecorded language from which practically all the languages of Europe and some parts of Asia developed.

inflection: a change in the form of a word to indicate a syntactical change in the relationship to another word or group of words, such as the change in the form of a verb to indicate a change from present tense to past (e.g. he plays -- he played).

lexicon: the vocabulary of a language.

linguistics: the scientific study of language.

morpheme: the smallest meaningful unit in a language. (e.g. "box" is one morpheme; but "boys" contains two morphemes 'boy' and noun pl.).

morphology: the study of the elements and processes of word formation in a language.

nominative: a case which, as its chief function, expresses the subject of a verb. In Modern English this has a distinctive form only in such pronouns as I, he, she, we and they.

pejoration: one process in which the meaning of a word changes; it becomes "worse" or more pleasant. It can be said to fall on the scale of value.

phonology: the study of the sounds of a language.

Renaissance: the great revival of learning that swept Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

standard speech: the speech of the majority of educated members of a society. It is the language of our churches, courts and schools, our entire official community. It is arbitrary in nature.

strong verb: a verb forming its past tense internally by vowel change. (e.g. ride -- rode)

syntax: the processes by which words are put together to form phrases, clauses, or sentences.

weak verb: a verb forming its past tense by adding a suffix containing the sounds represented by "d" or "t." (e.g. stabbed; stopped)

usage (common usage): the mode of speech that is acceptable to the general population.

APPENDIX C

OVERHEAD TRANSPARENCIES

Social Forces Affecting Grammar and Vocabulary

(These came to the surface during the Renaissance.)

I. Printing Press

II. Popular Education

III. Improvements in Communication

IV. Social Consciousness

To A Mouse

"Thy wee bit housie, too, in ruin!
. . . . An' naething, now, to big
a new ane."

Robert Burns

Old Mortality

"A' the warld kens that they maun
either marry or do waur."

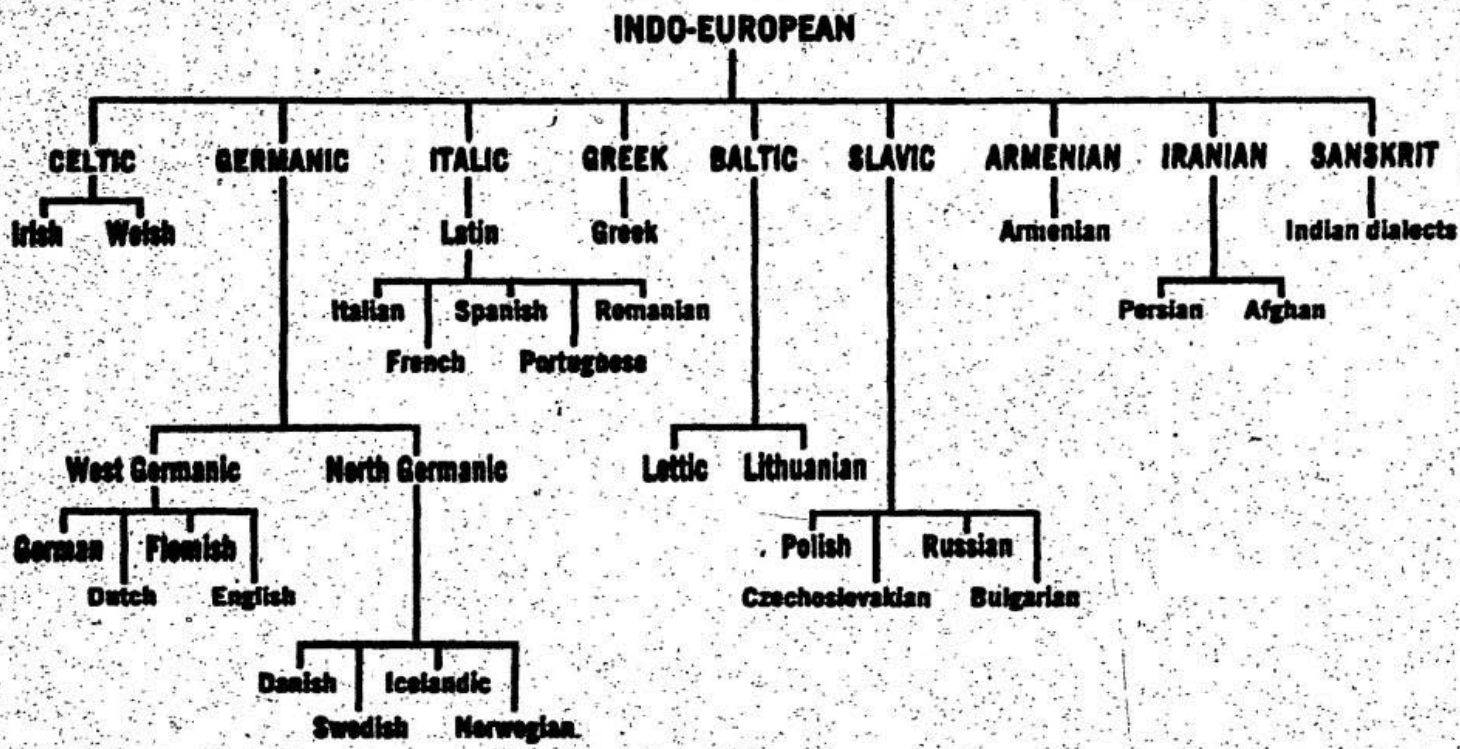
Sir Walter Scott

The Lord's Prayer (Old English)

Fæder ūre
þū þe eart on heofonum,
Sī þin nama gehālgod.
Tōbecume þin rīçe.
Ġewurþe ðīn willa on eorðan swā swā on heofonum.
Ūrne gedæghwāmlīcan hlāf syle ūs tō dæġ.
And forġyf ūs ūrne gyltas, swā swā wē forġyfað ūrum gyltendum.
And ne ġelǣd þū ūs on costnunge,
ac ālȳs ūs of yfele. Sōþlīçe.

Oure fadir
that art in heuenes,
halewid bę̄ thī nāme;
thī kyngdo̱o̱m come tō̱;
bę̄ thī wille dō̱n in ę̄rthe as in heuene;
ȝyue tō̱ vs this dai oure brę̨ed ō̱uer ō̱thir
substaunce;
and forȝyue tō̱ vs oure dettis, as wę̄ forȝyuen
tō̱ oure dettouris;
and lę̄de vs not in tō̱ temptācioun,
but dę̄lyuere vs frō̱ ȳuel. Amę̄n.

THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES



APPENDIX D

TEXT OF 1950 STUDENT CONVERSATION

TEXT OF 1950 STUDENT CONVERSATION

School has been dismissed for the day. Jim and Kathy meet outside Jim's homeroom.

Jim: Hi, Kathy! Howzit?

Kathy: Hi, Jim. Say, what gives in your class these days? Jeepers, I never saw so much junk!

Jim: Not junk, sister. Pyramids. We're building Egyptian doo-dads in social studies.

Kathy: How come?

Jim: It's for the glass gadget in the hall. We're going to stash the stuff in there so the other kids can glim it.

Kathy: Terrif! That's a lot more fun than eye-balling the old books all day. This brain factory's looking up.

Jim: Well, I gotta beat it now. Time to put on the feed-bag. Dig ya later?

Kathy: Natch.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLES OF OLDER LITERATURE

BEOWULF.

Hwæt we Gâr-Dena,
in geár-dagum,
þeód-cyninga,
þrym gefrunon:
hû ðа æþelingas
ellen fremedon.
Oft Scyld Scêfing
sceaþena þreâtum,
monegum mægþum,
meodo-setla ofteâh:
egsode eorl[as]
syððan æreat wearð
feâsceaft funden:
he þæs fröfre gebâd,
weox under wolcnum,
weorðmyntum þâh,
oð þæt him æghwylc
þâra ymb-sittendra
ofer hrón-râde
hýran scolde,
gomban gyldan:
þæt wæs göd cyning.
Dêm eafera wæs
æfter cenned,
geong in geardum,
þone God sende
folce tó fröfre:
eyren-þearfe ongeat
eþ hie ær drugon
aldor-[le]âse,
lange hwile.
Him þæs Lîf-frêa,
Wuldres Waldend,
woruld-âre forgeaf.

Ay, we *the* Gâr-Danes',
in days of yore,
the great kings',
renown have heard of:
how those princes
valour display'd.
Oft Scyld Scef's son
from bands of robbers,
from many tribes,
their mead-benches drag'd away:
inspired earls with fear,
after *he* first was
found destitute:
he thence look'd for comfort,
flourished under *the* clouds,
in dignities throve,
until him every one
of those sitting around
over *the* whale-road
must obey,
tribute pay:
that was *a* good king!
To him *a* son was
afterwards born,
a young *one* in *his* courts,
whom God sent
for comfort to *the* people:
he the dire need felt
that they ere had suffered
while princeless,
for *a* long while.
To him therefore *the* Lord of life,
Prince of glory,
gave worldly honour.

The Wife of Bath; Prologue and Tale

The Portrait of the Wife of Bath

(from the General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, A 445–76)

A good WYF was ther of bisyde BATHE,
But she was somdeel deef, and that was scathe.
Of cloth-making she hadde swich an haunt
She passed hem of Ypres and of Gaunt.
In all the parisshe wyf ne was ther noon
That to the offring bifore hire sholde goon;
And if ther did, certeyn so wrooth was she
That she was out of alle charitee.
Hir coverchiefs ful fyne were of ground –
I dorste swere they weyeden ten pound –
That on a Sunday were upon hir heed.
Hir hosen weren of fyn scarlet reed,
Ful streyt yteyd, and shoes ful moiste and newe;
Bold was hir face, and fair, and reed of hewe.
She was a worthy womman al hir lyve;
Housbondes at chirche-dore she hadde fyve –
Withouten other companye in youthe;
But therof nedeth nat to speke as nouthe –

And thryes hadde she been at Jerusalem.
She hadde passed many a straunge streem:
At Rome she hadde been, and at Boloigne,
In Galice at Seint Jame, and at Coloigne;
She coude muche of wandring by the weye.
Gat-tothed was she, soothly for to seye.
Upon an amblere esily she sat,
Ywimpled wel, and on hir heed an hat
As brood as is a bokeler or a targe;
A foot-mantel aboute hir hipes large,
And on hir feet a paire of spores sharpe.
In felawship wel coude she laughe and carpe.
Of remedyes of love she knew, perchaunce,
For she coude of that art the olde daunce.

APPENDIX F

MATERIALS ACCOMPANYING STUDENT EXERCISES

Hamlet Exercise

Today, we use some of the simple, everyday words of English with meanings which are completely different from the meanings which the Elizabethans assigned to the same words. The following passages from Hamlet include some examples of words that can confuse us unless we understand Shakespeare's usage. In the space beside each passage, write a brief synonym or definition of the underlined word as Shakespeare used it.

1. If you do meet Horatio and Marcellus,
   The rivals of my watch, bid them make haste. _____

2. My father's spirit in arms! All is not well;
   I doubt some foul play. _____

3. 'Tis an unweeded garden,
   That grows to seed; things rank and gross
   Possess it merely. _____

4. Unhand me, gentlemen--
   By heaven, I'll make a ghost of him that lets me! _____

5. Thou com'st in such a questionable shape
   That I will speak to thee. _____

6. Yea from the table of my memory
   I'll wipe away all trivial fond records. _____

7. It likes us well;
   And at our more consider'd time we'll read,
   Answer, and think upon this business. _____

8. Roasted in wrath and fire,
   And thus o'er-sized with coagulate gore . . . _____

9. Remorseless, treacherous, lecherous, kindless villain! _____

10. . . . your behaviour hath struck her into amazement and admiration. _____

11. Why, look you there! Look, how it steals away!
    My father, in his habit as he lived! _____

12. . . . Whereon the numbers cannot try the cause,
Which is not tomb enough and continent
To hide the slain?

13. Thought and affliction, passion, hell itself,
She turns to favour and to prettiness.

14. And therefore I forbid my tears. But yet
It is our trick. Nature her custom holds,
Let shame say what it will.

15. This fellow might be in's time a great buyer of land, with his statutes, his recognizances, his fines, his double vouchers, his recoveries. Is this the fine of his fines, and the recovery of his recoveries, to have his fine pate full of fine dirt?

Indo-European Word Exercise

The twenty words in the following list are Indo-European words. Let us assume that these represent all known Indo-European words, and are all that we know about the people who spoke the original Indo-European language. Using just this list as your source of information, write a description of about two paragraphs of the life of these people: their living conditions, economy, customs, etc.

wool	cheese
king	axle
door	weave
son-in-law	swine
hundred	sword
honey	saddle
plow	wheat
copper	bread
dog	gold
millstone	butter

The Battle of Maldon Exercise

The heroic poem *The Battle of Maldon* records a battle being fought against invading Danes in the year 994. Though the poem was written late in the Old English period, it accurately captures the spirit of the "comitatus"—that heroic bond uniting the lord and his retainers, which would not break even in the face of certain death. In *The Battle of Maldon,* the king is killed on the battlefield, and his retainers refuse to retreat in spite of their own imminent destruction. One warrior's thoughts are expressed in the following passage.

Using the modern English equivalents given beneath each line of the poem, determine the meaning of this passage.

1 Hige sceal þē heardra, heorte þē cēnre,
Courage shall (be) the bolder (hārðer) heart the keener

2 mōd sceal þē māre, þē ūre mægen† lȳtlað.
spirit shall (be) the greater as our power diminishes ("littles")

3 Hēr liġð ūre ealdor eall forhēawen,
Here lies our lord all cut down

4 gōd on grēote; ā mæg gnornian
good (man) in dust (grit) ever may (be) lament

5 sē ðe nū fram þīs wīgplegan wendan þenceð.
who now from this battle (war-play) to go intends

6 Ic eom frōd fēores: fram ic ne wille,
I am old in life from (away) I not will

7 ac ic mē be healfe mīnum hlāforde
but I me by side of my lord

8 be swā lēofan men licgan þence.
by so beloved a man to lie intend

† *Mægen* is still used in the phrase "might and main."

APPENDIX G

PRE/POST TEST

TEST

The first twelve items in this test have three possible answers. You are to read each question carefully and choose the one answer you think is right. There is only one right answer for each question. Put a circle around your chosen answer.

The last eight items are not multiple choice. Give concise, well written answers to these.

1. Language is:

   (a) letters

   (b) a system of sounds

   (c) a frozen, never-changing human possession

2. The speech of uneducated people is often:

   (a) bad

   (b) incorrect

   (c) different, but no worse or better than the speech of educated people

3. English is most closely connected historically with which language?

   (a) German

   (b) Greek

   (c) Portuguese

4. Events such as war, migration and intermarriage between races have:

   (a) no effects on language development

   (b) significant effects on language development

   (c) only very slight effects on language development

5. Which of the following historical events had the greatest effect on the English language?

   (a) World War I

   (b) The Norman Conquest of England in 1066

   (c) The Black Plague

6. An example of Old English literature would be:

   (a) A Tale of Two Cities
   (b) The Old Man and the Sea
   (c) Beowulf

7. Which of the following present-day English words are of Scandinavian origin?

   (a) fish
   (b) sky
   (c) slippery

8. In England, after the Norman Conquest of 1066, the nobility and upper classes spoke:

   (a) English
   (b) German
   (c) French

9. Old English was a (an):

   (a) synthetic language
   (b) analytic language
   (c) agglutinative language

10. Shakespeare often used:

   (a) a double superlative (e.g. "most unkindest")
   (b) a progressive verb form (e.g. "He is doing his work.")
   (c) the word "do" in asking questions (e.g. "Did you call?")

11. The study of meaning in language is called:

   (a) syntax
   (b) semantics
   (c) usage

12. Which of the following should be our main guide in questions concerning language?

    (a) old grammar books

    (b) the language of our parents

    (c) that speech accepted and used by educated speakers

13. During the Renaissance certain social forces fostered the growth of English vocabulary. Name <u>two</u> of them.

    _____

    _____

14. List <u>two</u> traditional processes of word formation.

    _____

15. Briefly define "grammar." _____

    _____

16. List <u>two</u> main differences between the language of Old English and Modern English. _____

    _____

    _____

17. Most of our grammar "rules" were drawn up during the _____ century.

18. Briefly define "dialect." _____

    _____

19. Give an example of "functional shift." _____

    _____

20. List <u>two</u> grammatical changes that appear to be taking place in English grammar today. _____

    _____

APPENDIX H

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRES

STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one.

Write +1, +2, +3, OR -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1:	I AGREE A LITTLE	-1:	I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2:	I AGREE ON THE WHOLE	-2:	I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3:	I AGREE VERY MUCH	-3:	I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

_____ (1) Language must have a definite system in order to operate efficiently.

_____ (2) Language never changes.

_____ (3) Grammar "rules" are just as absolute and unchanging as Physics "rules."

_____ (4) The speech of some people is "better" than that of other people. (e.g. The speech of "mainlanders" is better than that of St. John's people.)

_____ (5) The written language is the only "real" language; speech is really a secondary representation of language.

_____ (6) A "dialect" is a corruption of "good" English.

_____ (7) Scholars have vast amounts of information on the origin of language.

_____ (8) Some languages are "better" than other languages. (e.g. English is better than French.)

_____ (9) Language exists in a vacuum. It is not affected by political, social or economic events.

_____ (10) <u>You</u> contribute to the development of the English language.

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

a) This unit is about _____

b) Today's date is _____

c) My name is _____

d) I am _____ a boy _____ a girl

e) My age is _____

f) I am in grade _____

g) My teacher's name is _____

h) My school's name is _____

The following are some statements about what happened in the class during this unit. Circle the letter at the right side of the sheet which best tells how you feel about what happened. Write in the space provided any comments you may wish to make.

First let us give you an example:

Suppose we ask you to respond to a statement about a film you viewed sometime during the teaching of the unit:

	Not at all (a)	Not much (b)	Much (c)	Very much (d)	Not applicable (e)	COMMENTS
I enjoyed watching the film.	a	b	c	d	e	_____

If the film did not interest you or was boring then circle the letter "a" which represents "not at all."

If you found parts of the film interesting, and you enjoyed only these parts, then circle the letter "b" which represents "not much."

Suppose you found the film interesting but not all that exciting, then circle the letter "c" which represents "much."

But if you thought the film was very interesting and very exciting, then circle the letter "d" which represents "very much."

Do not waste time puzzling over which letter to choose--circle the letter which first seems best and go on to the next.

	Not at all (a)	Not much (b)	Much (c)	Very much (d)	Not applicable (e)	COMMENTS
1. I enjoyed work the other students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
2. I enjoyed working with the teacher during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
3. I enjoyed working with the books, laboratory equipment or other materials.	a	b	c	d	e	
4. I enjoyed the activitied that occurred during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
5. I enjoyed the physical arrangement (grouping) of students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
6. I enjoyed the location of the class for some activities.	a	b	c	d	e	
7. The teacher enjoyed working with the students.	a	b	c	d	e	
8. The teacher enjoyed working with the books, laboratory equipment or other materials during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
9. The teacher enjoyed the activities that occurred during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	
10. The teacher enjoyed the location of the class where the lessons were held.	a	b	c	d	e	

	Not at all (a)	Not much (b)	Much (c)	Very much (d)	Not applicable (e)	COMMENTS
11. The teacher enjoyed the way the students were grouped for the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
12. I understood other students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
13. I understood the materials that were handled in these lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
14. I understood the activities that occurred during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
15. I understood the purpose for using the materials during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
16. I understood the purpose of the activities that took place during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
17. I understood the purpose for the class grouping during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
18. I understood the purpose for the location of the class during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
19. The teacher understood the students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
20. The teacher understood the materials.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
21. The teacher understood the activities that took place during the unit.	a	b	c	d	e	_____

	Not at all (a)	Not much (b)	Much (c)	Very much (d)	Not applicable (e)	COMMENTS
22. The teacher understood the purpose for the location of classes.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
23. The teacher understood the purpose for the way the students were grouped.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
24. The teacher understood the purpose of the materials for the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
25. I encouraged the teacher during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
26. I encouraged other students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
27. The teacher encouraged the students during the lessons.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
28. Other students encouraged the teacher.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
29. The materials were appropriate to me.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
30. The activities were appropriate to me.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
31. The materials were appropriate to the teacher.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
32. The materials were appropriate to other students.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
33. The activities were appropriate to the teacher.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
34. The activities were appropriate to other students.	a	b	c	d	e	_____

	Not at all (a)	Not much (b)	Much (c)	Very much (d)	Not applicable (e)	COMMENTS
35. The class grouping was appropriate to me.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
36. The location of the class was appropriate to me.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
37. The students grouping was appropriate to the teacher.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
38. The students grouping was appropriate to other students.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
39. The location of the class was relevant to the teacher's method of teaching.	a	b	c	d	e	_____
40. The location of the class was relevant to the other students.	a	b	c	d	e	_____

What improvements would you suggest in this unit?

_____

_____