OLD ENGLISH c.500 - 1066

- Germanic and Latin vocabulary
- Grammar - inflectional
- Beowulf

MIDDLE ENGLISH 1066 - 1500s

- Influx of French words
- Grammar - less inflectional
- First book printed by Caxton (1473)
- Chaucer's 'The Canterbury Tales' (1476)

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH 1500s - 1800s

- The rise of printing production of written material for a mass audience
  - London dialect becomes dominant
- Rise in popularity of literature and theatre
- The Great Vowel Shift occurred, changing the pronunciation of many vowels (moos -> mouse; weef -> wife)
- Spelling was not yet standardised
- Punctuation - more regularised
- Apostrophes - for possession and omission
- Inkhorn controversy
- Shakespeare's English - new vocabulary
- King James Bible (1611) - idioms
- Samuel Johnson's English dictionary (1755) - standardised spelling and usage of words
- Beginnings of colonisation - borrowings

Characteristics of texts written in E.M.E.

1 Grapholoy:

- Two forms of lowercase 's'
    - 's' (short s) - used anywhere in the word
    - 'ſ' (long s) - used anywhere but the end of the word
- The origins of the medial S were in classical Greek which used two forms of the grapheme sigma. Early written forms of English incorporated a long S in the initial and medial positions of lexical and grammatical items until advancements in printing technology led to its gradual obsolescence and the round S was favoured in its place
    - Different variants of the same letter
        - 'u' = 'v' ('loue' = 'love')
        - 'i' = 'j' ('iustice' = 'justice')
        - 'y' = 'i' = 'ie' ('worthie', 'if')

        - Ligature (combination of two letters in writing): ſt
        - Capitalisation of nouns writers deemed important

2 Orthography:

- Verbs with -ed ending written in a variety of ways ('walked', 'walk'd', 'walkt')
- Doubled consonants ('stopp')
- Silent terminal 'e' (the preceding consonant sometimes doubled) ('paine')
- Final syllable -ic was written as -ick until the 18th century ('topick')

3 Lexis

- Archaisms

4 Grammar:

- Two present-tense verb-endings

-est for the 2nd person singular following thou (as in thou goest)

-th or -eth for the 3rd person singular (as in she goeth).

Style of writing:

- Sentences long and complex
- Frequent use of relative clauses ('who', 'which', 'that')
    - '...which I have here given you'

	Subject of the sentence	Object of the sentence	Possessive form	Regular verb ending	Examplesof irregular verb endings
Archaic forms					
Second person singular	thou	thee	Thy, thine	-est	art, hast, dost
Second person plural	ye	you	your, yours	none	are
Modern forms					
Second person singular	you	you	your, yours	none	are, have, do
Second person plural	you	you	your, yours	none	are, have, do

LATE MODERN ENGLISH 19th century -
- The Industrial Revolution
- Colonisation
- Expansion in lexis - loan words (contact with other cultures caused a lexical gap)
    - vanilla, tobacco, cigar, guerilla
- Established standard form of English

Characteristics of texts written in the 19th century:

- Archaisms
- Long, dense, meandering sentences
- Conjunctions (*and*, *or*, *but*, etc.), punctuation (semicolons, commas) - unvaried

Characteristics of texts written in the 20th century:

- Informalisation of the language (Sharon Goodman 1996, Norman Fairclough - synthetic personalisation)
    - Informalisation is the incorporation of aspects of intimate, personal discourse such as colloquial language into public forms of spoken and written discourse.

Graphology: the writing system

Grammar: the rules for organising meaning (syntax is a part of grammar)

Orthography: the letters and spelling

Phonology: the pronunciation and sound patterns which affect understanding of words

Pragmatics: the social context and meaning of words and phrase

Morphology: the structure, and building blocks of words

Lexis: the words

Syntax: the word order

Semantics: the meaning of words

PROCESSES OF LANGUAGE CHANGE

- **Derivation**: new words created from existing words
- **Loanwords**: borrowed from other languages and adapted into English -
    - Functional borrowing (no alternative word)
    - Social borrowing (the word sounds more sophisticated - all the coffee related borrowing and adaptations)

GRAMMATICAL PROCESSES

- **Conversion / functional shift:** using a word in a new grammatical class (noun used as a verb - Google)
- **Affixation**: forming a word by adding a suffix or prefix (derivation)
    - **Prefixation**: like - dislike
    - **Suffixation**: slow - slowly

LEXICAL PROCESSES

- **Coinage**: creation of new words which are often nouns (e.g. Google)
    - Neologism - brand new word
    - Eponym - based on the names of creators
- **Blending / telescoping:** two words being combined; one or both words are incomplete (brunch, Brexit)
- **Compounding**: joining two whole words (laptop, airport)
- **Acronymisation**: initial letters of a series of words which are together said as a word (NASA, UNESCO)
- **Initialism:** initial letters of a series of words pronounced by spelling the letters (FBI, UK)
- **Clipping**: shortening of long words (e.g. demonstration - demo; advertisement - ad)
- **Backformation:** a form of clipping where a long word or phrase is shortened and gives a new word in a different form – nouns to verbs are common (e.g. babysitter - babysit; option - opt; emotion - emote)

- **Onomatopoeia/reduplication:** processes which replicate the sounds of a word (e.g. meow, murmur, chit-chat) or duplicate sounds, often making the resulting words sound lively and informal (e.g. chick-flick, mish-mash, ping-pong).

SEMANTIC PROCESSES

- The study of the ways in which words change their meaning is known as <u>etymology</u>.
- **Semantic shift**: changing a meaning or adding a new meaning to a word
- **Broadening**: expanding a word's meaning to refer to a greater range of items or to include additional meanings
- **Narrowing**: reducing a word's meaning to refer to a smaller range of meaning than previously (e.g. 'girl' originally meant 'young person' and 'meat' originally meant any form of food)
- **Pejoration**: shifting a word's meaning from positive to negative, or adding a secondary negative meaning, possibly in slang (e.g. 'silly' originally meant 'blessed')
- **Amelioration**: shifting a word's meaning from negative to positive, or adding a secondary positive meaning, possibly in slang (particularly common in youth dialect, where it may be an act of rebellion to use a word differently to its 'real' meaning)

REASONS FOR THE LANGUAGE CHANGE

- When analysing any Contemporary English text, it is useful to be able to comment on the processes that have produced any interesting neologisms

- Key areas that have led to many new words and phrases over the past century are as follows:
    - movements concerned with social justice, such as feminism and civil rights
    - Environmentalism
    - shifting powers due to the world wars and the Cold War
    - increase in leisure time and rise of the entertainment industries
    - changes in fashion and beauty ideals
    - increase in world travel
    - political correctness

- There are many **theories about why language changes**:

- **functional theory (Michael Halliday)**: language changes to suit the needs of its users

- **theory of lexical gaps**: language change occurs as a result of the need to fill gaps in the lexicon

- **random fluctuation (Charles Hockett)**: changes in language are random and unpredictable

- **cultural transmission theory - Bandura (1977)**: Language change is the result of socialisation and cultural learning; It is passed on from generation to generation by way of transmission

- **cultural transmission theory - Hartl and Clark (1997**): language change occurs when an individual perceives a benefit in adopting a linguistic innovation or variation

- **substratum theory (William Labov)**: Varieties of the same language influence each other

https://www.studocu.com/en-us/document/cambridge-college/coordinated-sciences/theories-of-language-change-table/22115323

- There are several key models of <mark>how language spreads</mark>:
  - **the wave model** - Schmidt (1872): Linguistic innovations spread from one language or dialect through contact of the part of speakers of neighbouring languages and dialects
  - **the S-curve model** - Chen (1968): a new word will initially experience a fairly steady uptake, followed by a rapid increase in the number of new users picking it up.Then, after a while, the number of people adopting it will flatten out again as everyone who is going to take it on will have done so.
  - **the tree model** - Schleicher: languages change only by splitting from a common core and can be grouped in the same way as a family tree, as each language can be traced back to an earlier parent one

- **The tide model** - David Crystal**:** language is like the tide - when the tide goes out it leaves some things behind on the beach, then it comes in and so me of these things are taken away again while new ones are left behind

- **Jean Aitchison**: three language myths

- the Crumbling Castle

- the Damp Spoon

- the Infectious Disease

APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE

- A **prescriptivist** approach to language is to tell people how to use it: to prescribe what is correct.

- A **descriptivist** approach to language is to explain how language is used: to describe how it is.

ONLINE COMMUNICATION AND LANGUAGE CHANGE

- New discourse genres (memes, reels, podcasts, blogs…)
- Semantic shift, i.e., meaning change (story, like, friend, pin, tweet, reels…)
- Lexis - neologisms (selfie, google)
- Graphology
- Abbreviations due to character limits (irl, brb, fomo, fr…)
- Use of emojis - do they affect the meaning of language?