THESIS,
The Growth and Changes of the English Language,
FOR THE DEGREE OF
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BY
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The Growth and Changes of the English Language.

The English language is now spoken to such an extent by so many different peoples that many have tended to think that it will in time become the universal language. Whether or not their conclusions will be justified, it is not my purpose to discuss, but to ask, how many really understand and appreciate the language as it is today, and more particularly to discuss its growth and change.

In order to know a language something more is necessary than the mere ability to converse in that language. If he wishes to have a true conception of it, he must know something of its history, something of its growth, of its various stages and change.
Without such a knowledge, he is virtually ignorant of his language and though he may have acquired considerable knowledge of the grammatical rules and, to a certain extent, may have become acquainted with foreign tongues, yet he can not appreciate the breadth and depth of his gift until he has studied its history. The study of the English language in its broadest extent has for a long time been thought to be unnecessary if not uiecessary. So long as men can make known their thoughts to others and can in turn understand the thoughts and expressions of their companions they are apt to give the language itself little or no thought. They use it only as a tool or as a vehicle to convey their
thoughts to others without taking the trouble to examine the material of the tool or the various parts of the vehicle. They are satisfied to know how to use it. A philologist or one who has studied the various stages of the language is to such a man as the skilled mechanic who understands each intricate part of a machine is to him who knows only that by turning a screw here or raising a lever there the machinery may be set in motion.

All languages, if they are spoken, undergo a constant growth and change. This is true where ever we turn. The Roman tongue while a living language underwent a certain change which is traceable in comparing the older with the later Latin.
Whitney tells us the same is true of the modern dialects of India as compared with the regarded forms of speech intermediate between them and the Sanskrit and we can be sure the same is no less true of our own language if we try to read the English of Chaucer or even that of a century ago.

The disturbing events and changes in the history of a country also affect the language of the people to a great extent. For instance, when the native inhabitants of England, the Celts were conquered by the Roman forces, they became to a certain extent Romanized, and their native language was necessarily influenced by that of the Romans. Then the Saxon invasion still more
affected the Celts. They were reduced to a
sort of servitude and were compelled to
speak the Saxon when in the presence of
their conquerors; and since most of the
men were either killed or sold into slavery
and only the women were left, the original
Celtic words of our language are mostly
those of humble employment and refer
to the occupations of women. There are
besides proper names) rather more than
thirty of them. The late Mr. Garnett formed
a list of them some of which are as
follows - basket, barns, cock, crook,
dainty, darn, slave, funnel, gnaw, wicket,
moat, rail, ring, size (meaning glue), griddle
(meaning gridiron) and tackle.

The appearance of the Dance in
England and the dark and bloody period which followed was not without its effects upon the Anglo-Saxon language. The Saxons and Danes became more and more assimilated as time passed and though the Anglo-Saxon tongue acquired the superiority of the Danish having been strong and permanent, in every shire where we find the ending of compound names, suffixes, we track the Dane, and the termination son to proper names of persons, as Adam and Ulfin, marks the Danish pedigree. The conquering Normans had still more influence upon the language, bringing in many words from the French.
Thus great changes have been brought about by the natural growth of the language. King Alfred's English of 1000 years ago, which is called Anglo-Saxon, is as difficult to read as German (while Chaucer's English of five hundred years ago is mastered only by hard study and the help of a glossary. The Latin, Greek, and Hebrew are dead languages and as such they have no change while the English, being a live language, is necessarily changing. For life here as elsewhere involves growth and change as essential elements.)

As an example of the great change in the language from the time of the Saxons to the present day, let us examine the following verse of scriptures as given
by the Saxons and also the same as translated in 1389 by Wycliffe; by Tyndale in 1526 and finally compare it with our modern English. As we find it in the Anglo-Saxon scriptures it stands thus:

\textit{Utile humeta crypt du 5 dimum bretir, Brodotur, pasa start ic ut-ads} start met of dimum sagan, \textit{tone re bram bip on dimum agemum sagan?} The first difference you notice as you read this passage is the character \\textit{f} which used to represent the sound of \textit{dh}. It and \\textit{f} afterwards became in sound indistinguishable and either character was used to represent either sound \textit{dh} or \textit{th}.

Even after taking the difference of the alphabet explained to him, an ordinary English man will not understand the
passage or discover that it is English because the pronunciation is entirely different.
Second, the articles are inflected. Third, some words are obsolete, others are new.
gradually changed in meaning through the long time between Old and the present. Till now they show little or no
connection with their present meanings. There were, besides, the sounds in Anglo-Saxon which are unknown in modern
English. They are the $ as used in humming or eight which is almost the same
as the $ in German: and the $ as used
in some words and corresponds to the German
and the French $ sound.
If we explain the forms and meanings
of some of the words, the likeness between
the ancient and modern English will perhaps be made more distinct. The first
word of the passage òttu is a conjunction and meaning &. It is allied to òttu
which when repeated means the one—the other. Òttu is an intermediate form be-
tween them. Now if we substitute the th
for the ò in òttu one have our word other.
Hunna is an adverb meaning here. A
simpler form is òtt which is the instru-
mental form of òtt, a neuter pronom-
meaning here. Òtt is the present
time, second person, intransitive mode of
óstan meaning to go, to go by. The word
is derived from the Gothic òstan. Due to
óstan, we at once recognize as a personal
pronoun of second person. The find a
corresponding Soon in German but and
the tie of the Latin and French.
It is a preposition and is the same now as
then and diminum will be easily accounted for
when we remember that the Saxon declined
their pronouns and had grammatical gen-
der. This is the dative singular of 'the' kind is
governed by the preposition 'to.'
Brother in Spanish very like our modern equi-
vivalent brother the only change is the 'e' to 'o'
and this is a noun that is irregularly declined.
The nominative, accusative and vocative bro-
ter or brother. In Baja we find the impera-
tive form of the verb 'paliart' meaning to suf-
fear I consent permit, allow. ye noticed in the
infinitive the ending on. This ending or ei-
ther in always shows the infinitive of the
Old English in place of the preposition to that we use today. The next word starts differ only from our modern that in having the vowel i used with a as a diphthong. It is the personal pronoun I and corresponds to the i of the German. Ut-adv is compounded of out meaning out and adva to do or put out. It is the present tense indicative, first person and conjugated in the singular: do, dust, did or deth. In I we find a preposition governing the dative and meaning out of, from. We get our adverb out from this word. England is a neuter noun of the weak declension. The nominative is edge which is not very different from the edge of present. This form lies in the dative far shown by the termination.
an and also by the preposition of. Beam is a masculine form of the strong declen-
sion. We still commonly use the word in
this form. Ur has several meanings.
In the case used it means in, but in many
other cases it is used as we use it today.
If we now read My cliff's repen-
ur what manner paint thin to the brother
Brother, suffre that I passe out a fute pro
thin size and buy a romance is in thinge
owne size? we can trace a likeness between
them: Don't seen My cliff's English is not like
ours of today. We brother the grace of i instead
of y in the pronoun thy. The position of re
be suffre as reversed. We use a new word
justin instead of mote and final e is used
in caste, feeding, and where it is thine.
Tyndall's version does not materially differ from the latter and is as follows: We askest them to thy brother suffer me to pluck out a mote out of thine eye and behold a bramble is in thine own eye. We have the forms of many words very tendency towards abbreviation e.g. caste, brance, synke, rite, wise, pluke, tyme and wone. The Saxons and Early English almost regularly added a final e which was pronounced. We have a tendency to drop it and even if it is retained it is usually silent. Another change is in the neuter monosyllabic nouns. They formerly had no plural ending but now every form with but few exceptions from its plural in e. Again the Anglos Saxons had grammatical gender like the
Latin and Germans while we have natural gender.

In reference to the changes a language may undergo, Mr. Whitney has given us an exhaustive classification. He says that a language may undergo change by I Alternating of old material of language: change of the words which are still retained as the substance of expression: and this is of two kinds: 1st change in uttered form, 2nd change in content or signification.

II Loss of old material of language: 1st loss of complete words, 2nd loss of grammatical forms and distinctions.

III Production of new material: 1st additions to the old stock of a language in the way of new words or new forms. 2nd
external expansion of the resources of expression.

The changes of the English language by the first division are not so noticeable as the second part of it, but still they demand notice. The old English spelling was conducted upon an intelligible principle, and was intended to be protected as one sees by perusing the works of Chaucer, Spenser or others of the writers between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries. Bound by no particular laws, each printer did the best he could to represent the sounds which he heard and the notion of putting in letters that were not pronounced was (except in the case of the final e) almost unknown.

These variations are of value since they help...
to make more clear in each case what the pronunciation was which the scribes were trying to represent. The pronunciation changed more rapidly than the spelling. Ellis says that "whereas our modern English pronunciation of the vowels especially, differs widely from the pronunciation adopted in the continent it is certain that in early times this difference was but slight." It is a noticeable fact that since there was no very wide difference in the fourteenth century between the French and English vowel systems, numerous French words must have been introduced into the English. Our vowels are much more liable to change than the consonants. The cause of the consonants
being dropped is a general one and characteristic of all human action viz. the desire to do what is to be done with the least possible expenditure of energy. Rule says: "People will substitute an easier sound for a sound or combination of sounds which they find difficult or they will drop the sound altogether." This change in pronunciation is brought about by dissimilation, dissimilation or indistinct articulation.

As an example of the changes between the form and content I take the word "volume" which no longer means "rolled up" when the name was given; also book does not now have its old limited meaning of a block of birch wood; again paper is
now made of other material than papyrus and bank has a much broader meaning than the simple bank of money lenders in the market place.

II Losses of old material of language, i.e., words go out of the vocabulary. As a language, as soon as they are dropped from use, like a useless gem and advanced, new expressions are needed for their new ideas and new names that are common at one time are almost unknown at another. Once the names of Thor and Odin were as common in England as those of Christ and the Virgin Mary are now. But save for their generally unrecognized retention in the names of Thursday and Wednesday, they have become extinct. So also
the technical terms of chivalry mostly fell out of use as those of modern warfare came in. Again, words are crowded out of use by new words having the same meaning as the old but finding more ready acceptance with the people as the old Anglo-Saxon words and learning-christmas have been superseded by sabbath and disciple.

One result of the Norman conquest was the acceptance of a great many French words into the English. These words enriched the language by giving it new ideas and expressions but so many were added that not a few good English words were crowded out.

Ind. Loss of old distinctions of grammar.
ical form. The English language represents better than any other language hundred to it the narrative of linguistic change consisting in the loss of grammatical terminations. There is no other language that after having so many has retained so few, if any, others that has disregarded so many suffices of the roots and left them unisyllabic. This has been caused by the tendency of the English to ease and conservatism. Novel and strictness of traditional transmission has not been able to resist its invades.

We have lost the termination in and one of verbs as uncommon and no mark out the plural of verbs only by the pronoun or noun used as its subject. The he and
the of Anglo-Saxon as forms for the singular and plural and 
(they = seis; and neither = that) are instances of grammatical distinctions that have 
gone entirely out of use.

The present English has no dative case 
and its accusative except in case of a few pronouns as him, them and whom, while 
the English of a thousand years ago was 
rich in cases, having six. We have also 
early given up the subjunctive. Most 
of the changes have been made within the 
last few hundred years, the greatest of 
which took place between the thirteenth 
and sixteenth centuries. Since then there 
has been comparatively few as the invention of printing has had much to do with
settling the forms of the language. The distribution of the case endings was mostly due to the Norman invasion. The conquerors first got the general idea as transmitted in the root of the word and were careless about the endings. These endings were made up for by a class of prepositions that came into use and in which the same reason compelled to use more pronouns as distinct and independent words. We have more auxiliaries because we must express the moods and tenses that were formerly expressed in the verb itself. Our auxiliaries exhibit the verb forms in expressing all the old relations and many new ones besides. Most of the nouns retain their old quintis case but not without restrictions of the ex-
tent of its former uses: and in pronouns we separate the object from the subject as he from him, they from them. There is really no objective case in the language but because the distinction is so clear we say that all nouns have an objective case.

III

In the production of new material by adding new words and forms, we see that most of the new words are borrowed from other languages, while very few are deliberately invented. The word gas was invented by a chemist. Other words are the descriptive ones, his, buzz, bang, etc.

Borrowing to a greater or lesser extent is resorted to by all languages. Names for articles and institutions of foreign growth which have been adopted are generally
accepted into a language as more convenient than the coinage of new words. Banana
keeps its own tropical name. "Our language
contains words from dialects of very difficult origin, because it comes in contact with
all the nations in the world and because we take to ourselves whatever we can find.
I value to us." Things from the Hebrew are
but sabbath, scharaf, and jubilee; from the
Arabic, algebra, alkali, magazine, sherbet,
cipher and gemith; while shawl, cheese, car-
avan, chick, and orange come to us from
the Persians. We take incorporated words
without number from the French: yacht
and yacht from Holland; calico, chintz,
jean and toddy, rice and sugar from India.
The Chinese give us tea and Hankou: our
common word gingham comes from Java, canine moccasins and potato eelies from the Indian; such words do not make up a very great part of our entire vocabulary but they give us information upon the process of names gisting. Over half of the words found in our great dictionaries are of classical derivation. The bulk of the material of ordinary speech however and nearly all its machinery, are Germanic. New words are formed by combining two or more words and elements into one compound word e.g. headache, foot-print, headway, motion in the direction of the head: shire-ree makes sheriff: good man makes husband: light-heartedness is another example. We have seen that the greatest changes
of the English syntax and vocabulary
more between the 13th and 16th centuries.
Since that time the art of printing has
been the most efficient instrumentality in
producing uniformity of language and in
stopping away with local dialects. It also
has a power towards centralization and
thus checks its further change and decay.

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