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English Department
208 Edgemont Blvd.
Alamosa, CO 81102

Dates & Times: OJC: June 29, 6-9 July 13, 6-9
June 30, 8-5 July 14, 8-5
July 1, 8-5 July 15, 8-5

ACC: June 22, 6-9 July 20, 6-9
June 23, 8-5 July 21, 8-5
June 24, 8-5 July 22, 8-5

Exam dates and times: OJC: TBA Make up: TBA
ACC: July 26, 6-9 Make up: TBA

Course Prerequisites: None

Course Description: This course comprises a survey of English grammar, including the basic parts of speech and an analysis of common sentence structures. Notions of standard versus non-standard usage, register (level of formality), and dialect (regional / local variations) are covered. The non-technical history of English segment will cover major moments and transitions in our language, with special emphasis on external causes of change (migrations, revolutions, literary events). A basic knowledge of the major grammatical terms and their functions (i.e., noun, verb, adjective, adverb) is assumed, but we will review these and other items before going into more detail. In addition, issues dealing with language acquisition will be discussed as they are relevant to elementary education teachers.

Student Learning Outcomes: Students will demonstrate an understanding of the basic parts of speech and common sentence structures, an awareness of standard and non-standard usage, register and dialect, and knowledge of the major events and transitions in the history of the English language, as well as some relevant issues dealing with language development among school children.

Course Assignments: A multiple-choice / true-false final exam will be administered by an on-site proctor after completion of this course. Students who fail the exam will have an opportunity to take a make-up at a later date, but will earn no higher than a C. I will
not allow students to retake the exam for a higher passing grade; only those who fail will have a chance to earn a C at best.

**Course Texts:** *English Grammar: Language as Human Behavior*, 2nd ed. Anita K. Barry
Students will also make photocopies from masters provided by instructor.

**Course Grading Policy:** Grades will be on a scale of A (90-100); B (80-89); C (70-79); D (60-69) and F (59 and lower). Incompletes are only for those students with documented personal or family emergencies. The final exam will comprise 100% of the course grade.

**Academic Integrity:** Cheating at any level will earn the student an F for the course and I will report the incident to my supervisors. I will elaborate further when we meet.

**Course Attendance Policy:** Full attendance is required. Students who must miss part of the class meeting will need to attend a session at another venue or should withdraw. Please arrive on time. I will lower your final grade if you arrive late or leave early.

**Course Schedule:** See “Dates and Times” above.

**Course Policy for Students with Disabilities:**
If you require course adaptations or accommodations because of a documented disability, if you have emergency medical information to share with me, or if you need particular arrangements in case the building must be evacuated, please make an appointment to speak to me as soon as possible.

**Workshop Schedule:** Unless otherwise noted, please read the entire chapter and attempt all of the “practice exercises” at the end of each chapter. (This schedule will vary according to specific time requirements of each venue; however, the order of items will remain.)

**Unit One (first weekend)**
“Why Study Grammar?” & “The Notion of a Standard of English”
--chapters 1 and 2
“Basic Parts of Speech and Types of Sentences”
“Nouns and Noun Phrases”
--chapter 3
“Verbs and Verb Phrases”
--chapter 4

**Unit Two (second weekend)**
“Pronouns”
--chapter 5 (exercises 2, 5, 9 only)
“Adjectives and Adverbs”
--chapter 6 (exercises 3-7 only)
“Prepositions and Particles”
--chapter 7(exercises 1-7 only)
Clause types:
Voice – chapter 8 (focus on exercises 3, 8, 9, 10)
Discourse Function – chapter 9 (focus only on exercise 8)
Affirmative versus Negative – chapter 10
(focus only on exercises 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10)

Combining Clauses into Sentences:
Coordination
-- chapter 11
Subordination
Do Not read chapter 12; I will assign handouts instead

Unit Three (second weekend)
History of English (video & timeline)
-- A handout is provided in the “course booklet” below.
-- lecture material only

Course Booklet

On the following pages, I include your course booklet. For our first session, please have read chapters 3 and 4 of the textbook, and have attempted exercises 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 on pages 44-45. Also, please attempt exercises 4, 5, 6, 7 on pages 78-79. (Chapters 1 & 2 do not have required exercises, but please read them.)

I encourage you to supplement the text with other grammar handbooks, but please be aware that there are multiple approaches to our understanding of grammar, and some of what I instruct will differ from what you have learned or may discover elsewhere. That’s how grammar is! When in doubt, please follow my lead. At times, I will give information that contradicts our text, but in your initial reading, don’t worry about that.

Chapters 3 and 4 are the most difficult chapters of our course because much of the material is so new, and because the chapters cover a lot of ground. If you can get a good head start on these chapters, however, the rest of the material will be much easier to approach.

As you read chapter 3, keep the following notes on hand to help you understand (1) determiners [don’t even read page 28 of our text, read my handout instead!]; (2) gerunds and infinitives; and (3) functions of the noun phrase. Don’t worry if you don’t understand all of the material. If you read the text and these notes carefully, you will understand some of it, and you will be better prepared to ask more pertinent questions when I join you.

When we meet, I’ll provide more supplements. Relax, read slowly, & take notes!

See you in a few weeks!
The determiners at a glance (DON’T read p. 28 in Barry, just study this sheet): Determiners identify which noun we’re talking about and tell us how many or perhaps, how near the noun is to the speaker. There are five types:

1. Articles (3): the, an, a

2. Demonstratives (4): this – that
   these – those

This car needs washing. She gave this letter to the secretary.
That house is new. He wants to buy that book.
These children are noisy. Why are these people waiting in line?
I want those documents. He asked for those documents.

If I say “I want those” or “She gave this to the secretary,” for example, I am no longer using the demonstrative as a determiner, but as a demonstrative pronoun. Note how the demonstrative in these two examples is not followed by a noun; rather, it stands in the place of the noun phrase. It is better to use the demonstratives as determiners because, when they are followed by a noun, your writing is clearer. To illustrate, please consider which is clearer: (A) She gave this letter to the secretary. OR (B) She gave this to the secretary. You probably have chosen (A) because the determiner specifies which letter.

3. Possessive pronouns (8): These are the possessive forms of the subject pronouns (left column). Some grammar books call these “possessive adjectives” because they always go right in front of the noun, as most adjectives do.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Possessive pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>her</td>
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<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>its</td>
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<td>We</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that we repeated “you.” The one above is second person singular, the one below is second person plural. In English, both pronouns are the same in every case except the reflexive, where the singular yourself differs from the plural yourselves. The second person plural is different in many languages; for example, in Spanish, the singular form is tu (or usted, if the situation is very formal) and the plural is vosotros.

My cat eats dog food. She gave your letter to the secretary.
I want your documents. He wants to buy our book.
Their children are noisy. Why are her friends waiting in line?
4. **Quantifiers** (multiple): many, several, enough, few, little, much, any, some, no, two, both, half, all, none . . .

I have many friends, and she has several friends coming to the party. I think we have enough time to prepare. Few people will come down for the entire weekend, but lots of folks will make it to the party on Friday. I have some space at my house if half of them decide to stay. She said that two of them would like to stay overnight, which is fine with me. I have no time to make loads of preparations; we’ll just see how things go.

Note that many of these quantities can be followed by the preposition “of.” Often when a determiner of quantity is followed by “of,” another determiner may be placed in front of the noun like an article, a demonstrative, or a possessive pronoun.

- All of the **people** in the room were shouting.
- None of those **birds** is able to fly.
- The soccer team wanted both of **my sisters** on its roster.
- I spoke to few of the **members** in the room.

We can stack up to three determiners in a row, the first being called a “pre-determiner,” and the last being called a “post determiner,” but **all I ask** is that you recognize what a determiner is. Please study and memorize the five types.

Main: **Few people** in the room smoke.
Pre-: **Few of the guests** came to the reception.
Post-: **The few guests** who did come to the reception were all smokers.

Note the last noun phrase, “all smokers” uses “all” as its main determiner.

5. **Possessive noun phrases** (multiple): John’s, Mary’s, The cat’s, The city’s, Our dogs’ etc.

The possessive noun phrase may be a name and may be preceded by an article or demonstrative or possessive pronoun (don’t confuse the pronouns with noun phrases) or a quantity. As the author notes on page 29, you can have a noun phrase inside of a larger noun phrase.

- Johns’ car; Mary’s car; The cat’s dish; Our dogs’ biscuits; That cat’s mess; Those dogs’ owner; The city’s fame.

**Determiners** are not always necessary in the noun phrase, of course. In the noun phrase, they are optional, as are adjectives. The formula for the noun phrase is

\[
\text{NP} > (\text{dets})(\text{APs})\text{N}(\text{PP})
\]

That means: the noun phrase consists of optional determiners, optional adjective phrases and mandatory noun, followed by an optional prepositional phrase, in that order.

*Please memorize the formula—it is our “key” to grammar!*
**Gerunds and Infinitives:** chapter 3, nouns and noun phrases

Gerunds are always nouns. Don’t confuse them with the –ing verb, as in *The children are running.* Gerunds don’t have the helper verb “be.” They often stand alone and never need a helper verb:

*Running through the woods is the children’s favorite activity.*

A) Identify the subject and predicate of the sentence above. Then, identify all the noun phrases. Write the noun phrases in the space below, then label the function of each.

Your response:

Most nouns name persons, places, and things, but gerunds typically name actions, hobbies, states of mind or states of being. You can identify gerunds by a simple test: switch the gerundive phrase (see p. 38) for the word “something” or “it” and, though the sentence may seem weird, it will be grammatically correct: *It is the children’s favorite activity.*

The same test will help you to identify the function the gerund is performing. You should have identified the function of the gerundive phrase “running through the woods” already when you did exercise A. If you haven’t, identify it now, using “it” as a substitute.

Running through the woods (“it”) ______________________________

Look at these sentences. Underline the gerundive phrase and then label what its function is on the line that follows each, **Subj, DO, SC or Obj of Prep.**

1. Both students and teachers enjoy taking a day off from school. _________________

2. My favorite game as a kid was shooting marbles. _________________

3. Jogging is definitely good for your health. _________________

4. My dad likes fly-fishing. _________________

5. After investigating many colleges, Alfred decided upon Adams State. _________________

6. By not facing your problems, you are letting them grow. _________________

7. We consider his lying a nuisance. _________________
Sometimes the gerund has a possessive noun or possessive pronoun in front of it acting as a determiner, as in number seven from page one, his lying.

His smoking annoys his friends.

I disliked Harvey’s joking.

Your preaching will eventually get you into trouble.

Note the possessive pronouns (my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their) are the correct forms to use in front of the gerund. We sometimes use or hear object pronouns, especially third person him, but that is not standard: *Him singing all night kept us awake.

**Infinitives:** Our textbook suggests that infinitives are always noun forms (p. 39). That’s not correct. Infinitive phrases, or “infinitival phrases,” can often function as noun phrases, but sometimes they function as adverbials or adjectivals. You know which is which by the location of the infinitival. After practice, it gets easier.

An infinitive is the verb form plus “to,” exactly as you would see the verb in a dictionary, like to go, to do, to build, to run, to dislike, to smoke, to preach, etc. When it functions as noun phrase, the infinitive phrase acts much like a gerund with no change in meaning:

**Gerund:** Remaining neutral on this issue is unacceptable.
**Infinitive:** To remain neutral on this issue is unacceptable.

The infinitive will also function as a subject, direct object, or subject complement. Identify the functions in the sentences below. The inf phrase is already underlined.

1. To be a successful student requires lots of study and time management. _____________

2. My sister wants to be a successful student. ___________________

3. My sister’s goal is to be a successful student. __________________

4. Sylvie plans to visit her parents at Christmas. ________________

5. To live according to a code of honor is all I can ask of you. ________________

6. MacBrodie likes to dance a Scottish reel with nothing on but a neon kilt. ___________

7. To know him is to love him. __________________ & __________________

(Note you can substitute “something” or “this” or “it” etc., for the infinitives, too.)
Underline the gerund or infinitive phrases (all of which are “nominal”, or “noun” phrases). Tell what each is, gerund or infinitive, then label the function of each underlined noun phrase.
Number one has been done for you.

1. The smart thing is to fess up. ---infinitive ---subj. complement

2. By maintaining your silence, you are allowing an innocent man to die!

3. To fight the system would be futile.

4. After careful consideration, Harold chose to buy the Ford.

5. Raising the students’ morale was the new president’s first goal.

6. The child’s complaining made everyone on board the life raft thoroughly unhappy.

7. I appreciate your driving me to the airport.

8. I want to go.

9. My plan is to go.

10. Schnozeling in my spare time is my favorite hobby.
Study guide: Direct Objects; Indirect Objects; Object Complements

Each of these noun phrases comes after a transitive verb. A transitive verb MUST be followed by a direct object. That direct object (DO) MAY stand alone, or it MAY have an indirect object (IO) in close proximity or it MAY have an object complement.

Let’s start with the DO. Look at these sentences where the DO stands alone.

The students studied their assignment.
The lead-off batter hit a home run.
That car needs four new tires.
We enjoyed the game.

Each sentence NEEDS a noun phrase after the verb, and notice that the NP after the verb has a different referent than the subject NP (“the students” are not “their assignment”). Sometimes, however, a verb may be used transitively and sometimes not. Look at these two sentences

A. Our team won. MacBrodie drove.
B. Our team won the match. MacBrodie drove the car.

The verbs “won” and drove in sentences A are not transitive in this case, but they are in the next sentences. “The match” (& “the car”) in the second sentence is the target of the verb. The NP “the match” is called the direct object. Very few verbs in English must always be transitive. Verbs like examine, enjoy, & elect are always transitive. Verbs like die, sleep & snooze are always intransitive. The vast majority can go either way. Look for the DO to help you decide.

Sometimes the DO is understood; that is, it is missing because it is very general or it is obvious from context, like in the two sentences below, where the understood object of the italicized verb follows the sentence in parentheses, but is actually missing.

Bill Hardy writes for the South Coloradan. (articles)
The great maestro was conducting. (the orchestra)

The DO, however, MUST be present if the verb is considered transitive; therefore, if the sentences above appeared on an exam here, we would label the italicized verbs as intransitive, simply because the DO just isn’t there.

Remember that a DO is always a plain noun phrase that is not the object of a preposition. (So, sentences that contain prepositions immediately after the verb (like “The cat stared at the bird”) are NOT transitive.)
Think of the DO as the answer to a what or whom question.

The students studied (what?) grammar.
Keisha helped (whom?) her little sister.

One important thing to remember is that the answer to the what or whom is NOT the same entity as the subject NP. Students are NOT grammar; Keisha is NOT her little sister. The ONLY exceptions are as follows: if the DO is a reflexive pronoun or reciprocal pronoun, then and only then are the entities are the same. John cut himself & John and Mary love each other. The underlined pronouns are DOs.

Label the NPs below. Remember that NPs always include the determiners and adjectives, if there are any, and can include a prepositional phrase right after the noun.

1. The boys prepared a terrific spaghetti dinner.
2. The neighbor across the hall walks his dog in the mornings.
   There’s another NP above, not underlined. What is it?
3. Betsy often jogs with her dog.
4. The mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation. [Thoreau]
   There’s another NP above, not underlined. What is it?

Now onto the IO. The IO is usually a person or group of people who are the recipients or beneficiaries of the DO. The IO has one rule that never changes: it must always be accompanied by a DO somewhere in the predicate. In sentences where an IO is present, there are three separate NPs that are different entities (the exceptions are, again, reflexive or reciprocal pronouns--more on those below). The verb in sentences with IOs always has a meaning similar to “give,” like in the sentences below, where the IO is underlined, the verb italicized, and the DO is in bold.

The students gave their homework to the crabby professor.
The judges awarded custody to his no-good, two-timing wife.
The clerk handed the ticking package to me, and immediately left the room.
Jim’s father bought a new car for him.
Freddy cooked dinner for his parents. [“cooked” doesn’t necessarily imply “give”, but you can see that Freddy gave the meal to his parents, can’t you?]

Note that the prepositions “to” or “for” precede the NPs (and I’ve underlined the NPs in their entirety--note I did NOT include the prepositions to or for). The NPS may be long or may be formed by a short pronoun, it makes no difference.

Take the sentences above and invert them. To do so, just put the IO right after the verb and then plug in the DO. (See page 35 of our text.)

The students gave the crabby professor their homework.
The judges awarded his no-good, two timing wife custody.
The clerk handed me the ticking package, and immediately left the room.
Jim’s father bought him a new car.
Freddy cooked his parents dinner.

There is no difference in meaning between inverted and uninverted sentences. You might argue that those which retain the to or for prepositions seem clearer, but I’m not convinced either way.

The NPs are all different entities: students are not crabby professors, who, in turn, are not homework. The clerk is not me, and I’m not a ticking package (usually). But sometimes the IO and the subject NP are the same, when the IO is a reflexive pronoun (myself, yourself, himself, etc.,) or a reciprocal pronoun (each other, one another). Below, the IOs are underlined, the Dos are in bold.

Alfred gave himself a beer. Alfred gave a beer to himself.
We gave each other a fat lip. We gave a fat lip to each other.
The lottery winners bought one another a Cadillac. The lottery winners bought a C for one another.

Underline and label the NPs below. Remember that NPs always include the determiners and adjectives, if there are any. Not all will have IOs!

1. Gerlinda made her boyfriend some poison cookies.
2. I made a cake for my grandmother.
3. Derwood made himself a big sandwich.
4. My teacher wrote a letter of recommendation for me.
5. Drake cooked us a wonderful quiche on the deck of his yacht.
6. Steinbrenner paid the rookie an outrageous salary.

Now for those sentences with DOs and Object Complements. Object Complements have a lot in common with subject complements. OCs, like SCs, rename or describe the NP they are “linked” to. OCs, however, rarely have a verb between them and the DO they follow--and note the word “follow.” There are two pretty reliable tests you can do to make sure that the OC is an OC, and not something else, like an IO. Take the sentence

The students considered the teacher a spy.

The OC is in italics, the DO is bold. You can rephrase the sentence thus: The students considered the teacher to be a spy. If you can plug in “to be,” you’re dealing with an OC. Also, eliminate the subject and verb: the teacher a spy. Now, use the linking verb
“is”: The teacher is a spy. If you can do that, you’ve got a DO and its OC. Try both tests on these sentences.

The referees declared the young kid the winner.
The voters elected Joe Schmoe president.

Tests work well above, but be warned! The “to be” test doesn’t work nicely on these sentences: The teacher made the test easy. / The boys painted the fence blue. The “is” test works nicely, but why doesn’t the “to be” work? Figure it out.

If you’ve said that the “to be” test works when the OC is an NP and not an adjective, as it is in the two sentences in this same paragraph, than you’ve won the contest! Yes, like subject complements, the object complements can also be adjectives.

The OC can sometimes be left out and the sentence still makes sense: The voters elected Joe Schmoe. But sometimes it can’t: The referees declared the young kid. So there is no test we can do by eliminating phrases. Note, however, that verbs often indicate the action of becoming (declared, elected, voted, made) or state of believing (consider), but memorizing such verbs may be fruitless. Just try to focus for now on the NP right after the DO and see if that NP renames the DO.

Underline and label the NPs below. Remember that NPs always include the determiners and adjectives, if there are any. Not all will have OCs! Some may even lack DOs! The possible NPs will be: Subjects; Subject Complements; Direct Objects; Object Complements; Indirect Objects; Objects of Prepositions. (And be careful not to label any adjectives as NPs --remember adjs can take the word “very” in front of them.)

1. This rainy weather stinks.

2. Bill tore his coat.

3. The pasta was cooking.

4. The tunnel was long.

5. The inflation made many people poor.

6. The nitroglycerine exploded.

7. Lisa bought her poodle a fancy dress.
8. The weather is very warm.

9. The heat melted the asphalt.

10. The firm promoted John.

11. Mr. Weisenheimer became angry.

12. Margie sent the warden a box of chocolate.

13. We listened carefully.

14. Sylvester swallowed that small, yellow bird.

15. You are getting pretty good at this stuff.

16. Jane found Herbert a delightful companion.

Did you notice that number 16 can be understood in two different ways? What are they?

1.

2.
History of English: notes (to be covered in our 2nd meeting)

Please study these notes and refer to them as you respond to questions on your final project.

Three periods: OE: 450-1100; ME: 1100-1500; Mod: 1500-present
In class we will create a timeline and attach that to these notes.

Characteristics of Old English Grammar:
1. Case system for nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASE</th>
<th>Old English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative (Subject: The stone is granite.)</td>
<td>stān</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive (Possessive: a stone’s throw away)</td>
<td>stān-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative (Indirect Object: Attach a handle to the stone.)</td>
<td>stān-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative (Object: He threw the stone.)</td>
<td>stān</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Nouns have gender, including the neuter (like in present day German)
   examples: stān (stone) is masculine; mōna (moon) is masculine; sunne (sun) is feminine. [In French, pierre; lune; soleil are the opposite!]
   more examples: mægden (girl); wīf (wife); bearn (child, son), and cild (child) are neuter. However, wīfmann (woman) is masculine (!) b/c the 2nd half of the compound noun is masculine. There is no logical pattern to the assignment of gender to a word.

3. Adjectives were “strong” or “weak”. Strong adjectives stood alone with the noun; that is, they were not accompanied by determiners of any kind, as in gōd mann (good man). Weak adjectives had a determiner of some kind, so the form of the adjective would be different, as in sē gōda mann (the good man). Note the letter –a after gōd. The variety of adjective forms and their cases was quite complicated.

4. The definite article was, like the adjective and noun, also inflected, somewhat like contemporary German. Look just at the masculine singular forms of the article (while we ignore the feminine singular, the neuter singular and all the plurals!)

   nominative (subject) sē
   genitive (possessive) ðæs
   dative (indirect object) ðæm
   accusative (object) ðone
Today we would understand the definite articles above to be “the,” but we would translate some of them into demonstrative pronouns.

5. Verbs were either “strong” or “weak.” There were a little over 300 strong verbs, and they were irregular (like our break, broke, broken). Weak verbs were regular, like walk, walked, walked. While we have 3 main forms of the verb, however, they had FOUR: the infinitive, the past tense singular (1st and 3rd person), the past tense plural, and the past participle. (Our 3 would be infinitive, past tense, past participle).

An example: to speak

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Past I, we</th>
<th>Past Plural</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sprecon</td>
<td>spræc</td>
<td>spræcon</td>
<td>sprecen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Word formation: compounding. One aspect that remains in today’s English is that we can form words by compounding. Some examples: in OE, woroldcyning (world-king) meant “earthly king” (as opposed to heavenly), and dœgred (day-red) meant “dawn.” Gimmwryhta (gem-worker) meant “jeweler.” Ealohus meant alehouse, a word we may still use and that was very common still in the 19th century. Compounds that we use today include aircraft carrier, driver-side airbag, picture tube, and weapons inspector. As you can see, word compounding is alive and well.

7. OE sentence structure. OE has generally been considered as a rather simplistic in its sentence structure (syntax). As you know from our chapter 12, English syntax today is loaded with subordinate clauses, items which can, in fact, be piled higher and higher, deeper and deeper, making rather long sentences which can be rather convoluted. Writers that write in a very straightforward manner are said to use a paratactic style. Ernest Hemingway was one such writer. OE writers are supposed to employ a paratactic style. Writers that prefer longer sentences with lots of subordination, like Milton or like Henry James, write in a hypotactic style. Parataxis seems immature or childish. Parataxis seems to be the syntactic norm for OE. Lately, however, new readers of OE are re-interpreting the old texts and discovering that they are, in fact, often very complex. We seem to have been confusing OE independent and dependent clauses. We have also to realize that hypotaxis and parataxis are matters of literary style. Afterall, was Hemingway really an immature writer?

8. Scandinavian (Viking) influence: Words that begin with or have the “sk” sound are very likely scandinavian: sky, skin, skill, scrap, scrub, skirt, bask, whisk. The hard pronunciation of “k” and “g” as in kid, dike, get, give, gild, and egg are of Scandinavian origin. Many place names are viking: names that end in –by, -thorpe, -wick, -thwaite, and –toft. (Not many places in the US end in thwaite or toft, but plenty do, apparently, in England, especially in the north!) Many words for warfare and sea adventures entered the English language from the Vikings, but such words were eventually replaced by French terms. Wednesday (Wodensday; for Odin) and Thursday (Thors day; for Thor) are of Viking origin, though they had close OE counterparts.

9. Norman (French) influence: Inflections of nouns were leveled greatly, due in large part to differences in pronunciation among OE speakers and new French arrivals. The
words that ended in vowel sounds like –a, -u, -e, -an, -um were reduced to the written “e” and sometimes became silent. The only inflectional endings that may survived were the more common ones, the –s on possessives and plurals. For a while, the –en plural existed with the –s, especially in the south of England, but it died out gradually in the 1200s and expired almost completely in the 1300s. Gender (masculine or feminine nouns and adjectives) died out as a consequence of the loss of inflections, again, due in large part to pronunciation differences. Inflections of adjectives followed the path taken by nouns, gradually disappearing. For a while, adjectives indicated singular and plural distinctions, but those, too, faded. Strong verbs became fewer and new verbs that entered the language were generally weak (or regularized). Strong verbs were gradually disappearing anyway; about 90 were gone by the Middle English period because they were rare to begin with. Another dozen or so were distinctive of a particular region in England, and they, also, went. 30 strong verbs disappeared in the ME period, and another 30 disappeared in the 1500s and 1600s. Today, we’re left with some 150 in standard English, and some, like dreamt and slept and lit, are already seriously challenged by regularization. Rarely, regular verbs become irregular over time. The past tense of “dive” used to be “dived,” but most folks now say “dove.”

Syntax: English becomes a more “word-order” language because it has lost the inflections. With inflected nouns, it does not matter where the word goes in the sentence because the word’s ending (-a, -um, -an, etc.) tells you the grammatical function (subject, object, etc.). Lose the inflections and the word order tells you the grammatical function. The loss of inflections (and thus the emphasis upon word order) has little to do with the Norman conquest because the “levelling” was happening anyway and would have continued to develop due to the “principle of least effort.”

Vocabulary: This is the whopper. During the ME period, some 10,000 French words entered the English lexicon via French, and 75% of them are still used today. The borrowings were gradual and began with the nobility (baron, noble, dame, servant, messenger) and church affairs (religion, theology, sermon, homily, sacrament, baptism, prayer, clergy, chaplain, pastor, abbey, cloister). Governmental words (crown, state, empire, realm, reign, royal, authority, parliament, marshall, governor, minister) and words associated with the law (plea, plaintiff, defendant, attorney, petition, complaint, judgment, verdict, sentence, felon, evidence, proof) came “next.” Military terms (army, navy, peace, retreat, enemy, arms, battle) also come into the language, as do many other types. Here are some numbers you should memorize:

85% of OE words have slipped from our language, BUT
83% of the most common 1000 words we use are of OE origin while
11% are French. However, in the NEXT 1000 most common words,
43% derive from OE and
46% derive from French.

One of the biggest reasons for our weird spelling is because the French words came into English intact; that is, while the pronunciation changed, the spelling remained the same. Why? William Caxton brings the printing press into England in 1476, at the end of the ME period. The Great Vowel Shift, in which vowels generally were pronounced at
higher points in the oral tract than previously ("raising"), also contributed to our spelling nightmares as the spelling of many words became fixed before the change was complete.

**American English**

4 periods of immigration to be considered:
1607 (Jamestown) till Revolutionary period. Majority of settlers are English.
1790 (1\textsuperscript{st} American census) till 1860. Period of westward expansion. Majority of settlers are German and Irish.
1860-mid 1900s: southern European and Slavic immigrants.
mid/late 1900s-Current: Asian and Spanish-speaking (or Spanish as 2\textsuperscript{nd} lang)

Regardless of origin, many immigrant groups settle in one area, only to uproot and move elsewhere. It was usual for immigrants to try settling in an urban area, only to be enticed to rich farm country further west, and then to be enticed still further west (or north, or south, etc.) by cheap land. The result is that American English has been uniform; that is, it does not have the wide variety of pronunciations that you find in much smaller geographic zones, like the UK.

**Diffs. between American English and British English**

American English has retained many aspects of English as it was spoken in the 1700s. We pronounce the “\textit{r}” in most words, as some speakers still do in northern England. And we have the flat “\textit{a}” in “fast, path, dance, can’t, half” etc. The \textit{“o”} in hot, cot, pot, top, is flat in American, rounded in Britain, as it was in the 1700s. We generally pronounce either, neither with the long “\textit{e}” (like in “teeth”). We still say “mad” to mean angry, and “sick” does not imply nausea; we use “fall” instead of autumn. However, we do not say “fortnight, iron-monger, heath, moor” as they still do in the UK. American speech has less variety of pitch and intonation; it sounds monotonous to British English speakers. American pronunciation differs from English in that British English has evolved, perhaps more so than American. In addition, the accent from southern England has become most prestigious since American independence.

**Noah Webster** (1758-1843) had a profound impact on American English through his writings on spelling and grammar, and especially, his two-volume dictionary, the \textit{American Dictionary} (1828). We write honor and color, w/o the “\textit{u},” theater and center with the –er, not the –re (at least, every where else but ASC), defense and offense are spelt with an “\textit{s},” not a “\textit{c}”; and we spell \textit{ax}, \textit{plow}, and \textit{tire}, though the British \textit{axe}, \textit{plough}, and \textit{tyre} are recognizable.

American English is very uniform, but it can be divided into certain dialects, most of which are on the east coast. Of most interest to linguists is \textit{vernacular black English}, which has these main features: the “d” sound for words that begin with “th-“ (also typical in the New York dialect); the “f” sound for “–th” at the end of words, as in \textit{mouf} for \textit{mouth} (as is typical of the southern dialect); a dropping of the final consonant as in \textit{cents}, or \textit{fo}’ for \textit{four}. The verb “to be” is often deleted as a linking or helping verb, as in \textit{He tall} or \textit{He running}. Sometimes the form “be” is used to indicate a longer period of
time, as in *He be running*, whereas *he running* means “right now.” The 3rd person “s” is sometimes dropped: *He talk* instead of *he talks*.

Hispanic American English is another variety that has earned interest. This is spoken by people who are bilingual or first or later generation English speakers of Hispanic descent. The major feature of this dialect is **code switching**; that is, using Spanish words in English sentences (although code switching refers to mixing any 2 or 3 languages). For example, you may have noticed that some speakers in the SLV add Spanish words to their conversations in English, like: “Pues sí, it’s all in the paperwork.” English is also borrowing words like *nachos, burrito, sangria, margarita*, as these refer to items in our popular culture. Of course, English has long borrowed Spanish words, like *mesa, mosquito, patio, siesta* and *rodeo*, which, coincidentally, is gradually reverting to its more Spanish sounding pronunciation: ro-day-o, not ro-dee-o.

Some people would consider some of the words as not part of standard English, but then, who makes the rules, anyway? And where would contemporary English be if our ME ancestors had not incorporated some 10 to 12 thousand words from French?

A final word about British and American borrowings and evolving language differences: Many British English purists reject “Americanisms,” words that originated in the US, like “guy, outgoing, movie,” and reject American terms like “elevator” for “lift,” “windshield” for “windscreen” and “trunk” for “boot” (though thanks to movies—or films—Americanisms are becoming more and more common in the UK and globally).

Of course, few American parents would like their daughter’s boyfriend to come round and “knock up” their daughter, would they?

**Other notes of note:**

Indo-European languages account for only 3% of the world languages spoken today, yet half the world’s population speaks them.

The British Empire once occupied 25% of the earth’s surface: “The sun never sets on the British Empire” was a common slogan of the 1800s.

English has 1.5 billion first and second language speakers today.

80% of the world’s computer information is stored in English.

70% of the world’s mail is in English.