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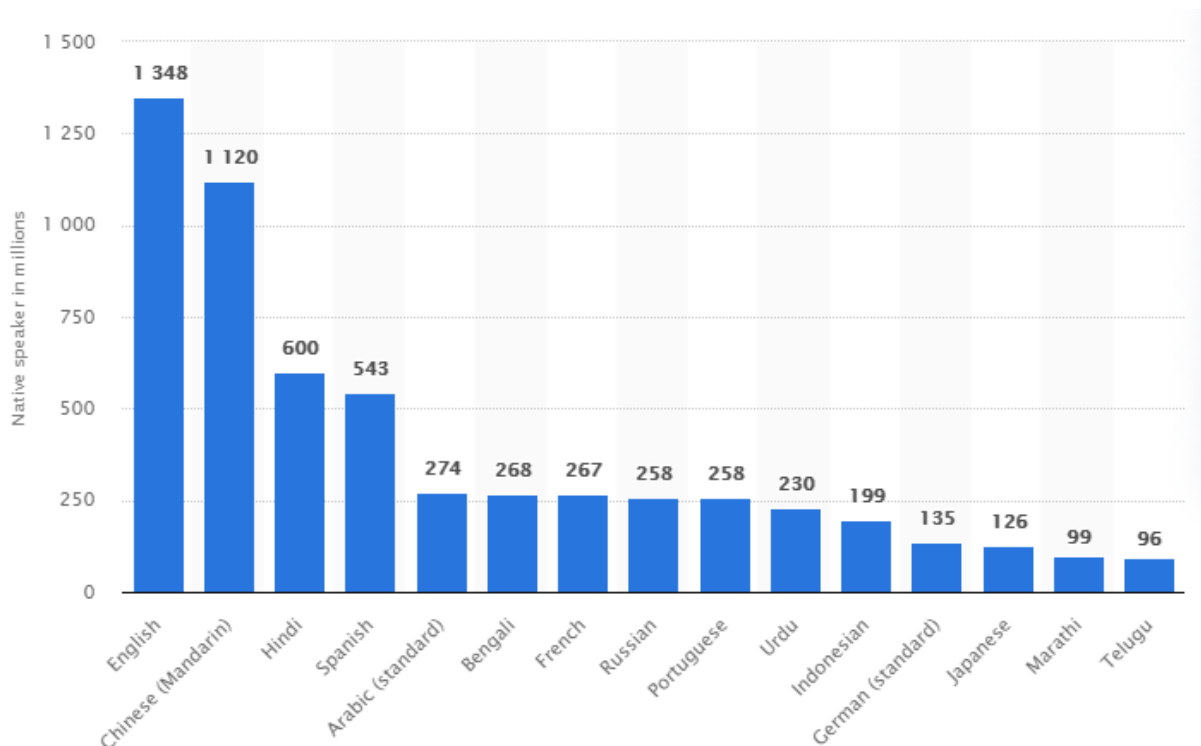
**COURSE NAME:
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In order to teach something – with full confidence and to your best capacity – you need to understand its origins, how it develops and how it has become what you know today. This is true even for a subject as outlined and detailed as English. Does it ever cross your mind why the plural of foot is feet and not fooks? What if a student in your English classroom wonders about these same irregularities? It is commonly thought that the past holds the key to the future therefore our past is where we should begin. Today English is a recognized powerfully dominant international language with different dialects, dialect specific spelling and pronunciation. According to statistics 2021 poles “there were around 1.35 billion people worldwide who spoke English either natively or as a second language, slightly more than the 1.12 billion Mandarin Chinese speakers at the time of survey. Hindi and Spanish accounted for the third and fourth most widespread languages that year.” (M. Szmigiera 2021) see graph 1 below.

The most spoken languages worldwide in 2021



The demand for English speaking persons in the work force or even for academic purposes are in high demand. This was not however, always the case. English was not

always the critically acclaimed language it is today and odds are in the future things might change once again.

In this essay I will be discussing the origins of the English language. I will start off by looking into the original parent languages and how division and classification look place. Thereafter, I will discuss the well-known language theories followed by the most important developments that took place in Anglo-Saxon English (old English) in order to form the English that we are familiar with today. For a more in detailed view, I decided to strictly stick with Anglo- Saxon English and not talk about developments in Middle- or Modern -English as each of these stages in English can be a whole research paper on its own. Lastly, I will express my personal views on where the language might stand in the future.

Language is first and for the most part spoken and not written, the means of recording spoken language in different forms starting off with writing was a very important step forward. Without this notion we would not have material to study and all questions in regards to our ancestral tongue would go unanswered. We study speech via this form of recording that is how we know the language of the greats like Caesar. In the future these same methods will be used to study the language we speak now. With inventions like tape recorders and gramophones video recorders with sound written works is no longer the only means to study linguistics. Reading and writing is regarded as a normal part of everyday life that we often mislabel it as language however, spoken language as the term directly states is oral and, in this regard, reading and writing is just a substitute. This has not stopped writing from influencing language because as believed what is written is what is said. A form of language that is not spoken is sign language.

In language change is constantly on going we often assume that it is fixed that the Portuguese and Italian of today will be the Portuguese and Italian of tomorrow. This is just not the case even in our own life time the English that your grandparents have spoken is not the same English that you speak. In fact, many older generations think that the way we speak now is a disgrace and a tarnish to the good old fashion English customs. It seems logical to think that the further you go back the more rapid the

process of change was however, the period that most significant developments were made is a period that we have little to none documented evidence on. Speech is an identifying characteristic, one of the attributes that distinguish us from our foreign neighbors or even from other species. According to professor Lloyd James many animals have all necessary speech organs and had they used them like the primitive man did they would have developed in a similar direction (A.L James 1939). The discovery of speech was a very important Turing point in the development of man the only downside is we aren't exactly sure when that was. There are four main language theories.

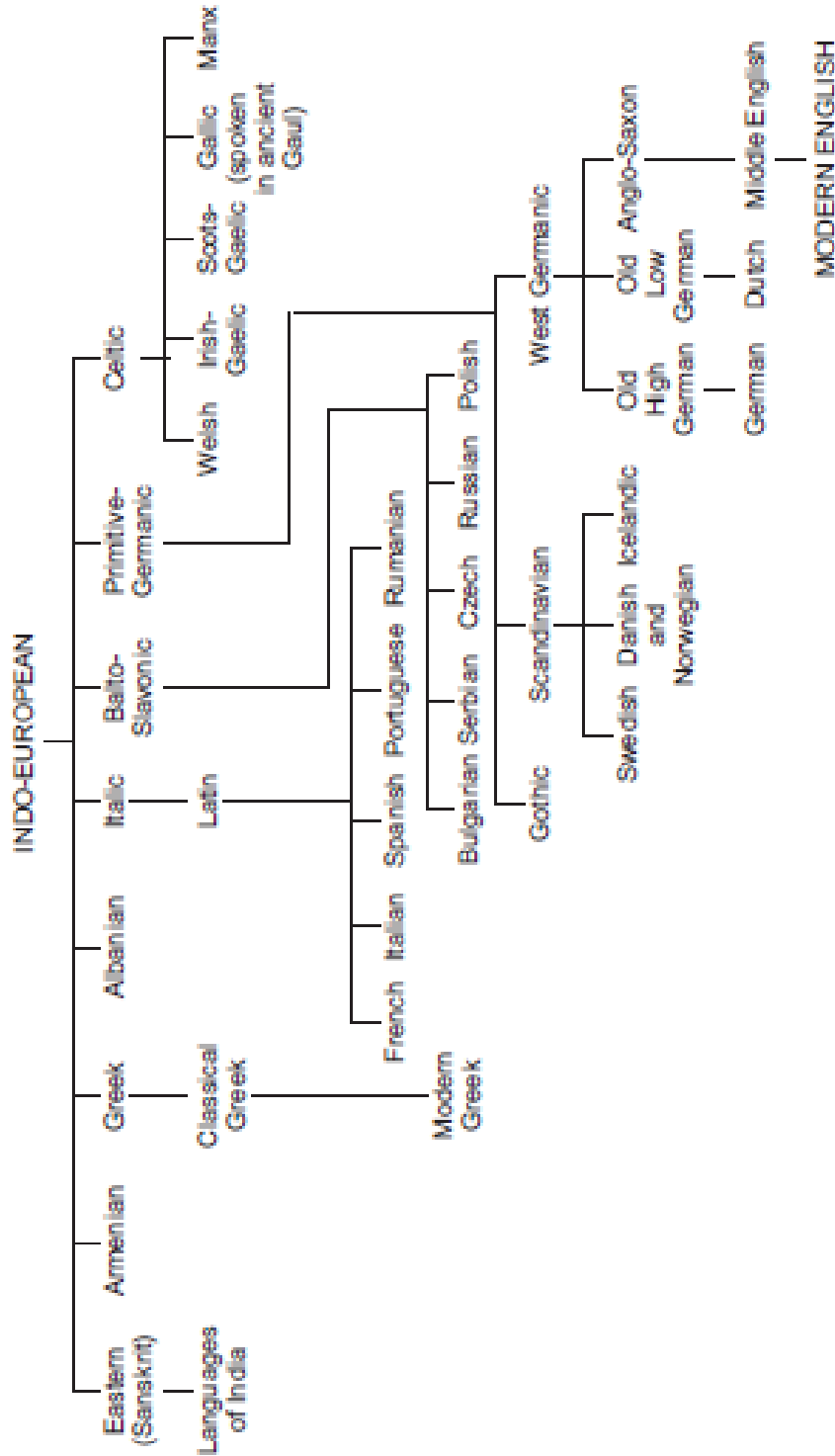
1. The bow-wow theory: first coined by Max Müller and known as the earliest language (speech) theory. This theory states that speech was produced by men attempting to imitate sound characteristics of the thing around him (animal and or object) which he was referring to. If left alone a child will adopt similar methods of expression by reproducing the behaviour of the adult. To him the thing the distinguishing characteristic of a dog from another animal is the bark, becoming known as the animal that says "bow-wow" and soon he begins to call it "bow-wow". Words that seem to go far back fit such assumptions such as "snake" in which you can hear the hissing sound in almost all ancient European languages. The onomatopoeic element plays a large part.
2. The ding-dong theory: also associated with Müller however, others have adopted it. The beginning of language is found in a sense of rhythm innate in man from the primitive stage of existence. This too falls back to imitating but, in this case, it is the imitation of movement rather than sound. For instance, observing the rhythm of a stream or trees in the wind. Primitive man ding donged phonetically to them s accompaniment and imitation. This speech gradually developed in its 1st stages as being a rhythmical hum or chant. This theory connects the origin of speech with the same impulse that later gave rise to war dances and medieval ballads even sea chanties. It can also account for why whistling is a habit following the manual processes.

3. The pooh-pooh theory: traces speech back to emotional interjections evoked by surprise, pain, pleasure etc. our current language still incorporates this theory today these cries and noises helped coined the name the “pooh-pooh” theory and thus these noises through frequent use acquired meaning.
4. Gesture theory: advanced by Wilhelm Wundt and restarted by Sir Richard Paget in the book human speech (James, A 1930). Communication using sign and gestures with hand. Till today we communicate like this, hand gestures were accompanied by tongue, lip, mouth and jaw gestures over time these gestures replaced the hands passing from sign- to spoken language. If you point above you without knowing your tongue moves up touching the top palate too resulting in the sound ‘al’ which is a basic syllable for the words up or high in many ancient languages.

These aren’t the only language theories however they are the most well-known. Perhaps that they all did play a role in the development of language maybe not all at the same time. It’s most likely that many processes took place instead of only one however, it will be impossible to pin point the actual correct answer.

Language can be grouped into families which may now seem extremely different but are traceable to a common ancestor. No one will say there is a similarity in German, Italian and Indian yet scholars have shown they belong to the same family and go back to a common origin. This parent language has been given the name Aryan, Indo-Germanic or Indo-European. The first name has been abandoned, the best way to classify it would be Indo-European. Generally agreed that it was spoken about 3000-3500 years B.C by nomadic tribes near the black sea and Siberia later splitting across euro Asia each taking the parent language with. Becoming isolated and developing different dialects. See Graph 2 for the family languages (Frederick T. Wood. 2016) on the following page:

The Indo-European family of languages:



THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES.

Sketch to show the descent of Modern English and its relation to the other members of the family

A noticeable fact is that pronouns in older tongues bare a very close resemblance (mother, father, brother) though there is no correspondence for more distant relationships such as aunt, uncle or cousin. By the time the divide took place ancient Indo-Europeans had not yet come to recognize any relationships outside the immediate family consequently, having no words to express them. We can see clear resemblances in numbers up to ten as seen on table 1 attached to the appendix. In addition to what is on the table we could add even more languages such as French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese to see how they are all close in resemblance to Latin therefore are derived from Latin. However, if we are to look above the number 10 the resemblance no longer holds. The explanation for this is that; men only counted with their fingers up until the divide making the first 10 numbers bare resemblance.

In Henry Bett's book *Wanderings Among Words* (1936) he comes to notice that the number five and the word for hand in some older languages and if we think about it for a moment the reasoning is quite clear. The Roman system for examples has it numerals as letters (i, ii, iii, iv, v) if we look at this in depth it can be a representation of the hands and fingers starting with one finger up till your hand is completely open. When larger sums were to be made the roams looked at pebbles for help the word for pebbles in Roman is calculus: bringing forth our verb to calculate.

If we are to look into studying English the most important of the eight language groups is that which we come to know as primitive Germanic (Teutonic), Since it if from this branch in the Indo-European family that Germanic languages such as English come from. Spoken over the larger part of central and northern Europe from about 2000-1000 B.C in a constant state of flux. Many modifications were taking place just as it had done with its parent language primitive Germanic was breaking up into several dilates.

One important change called the primitive Germanic consonant shift took place. The branch of next importance of the Indo-European languages after primitive Germanic was Italic, the main descendent to Latin and through this, modern languages such as Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, French and Romanian (a romance language although Romania was geographically situated among the Slavonic group of people). A German

scholar in the 19th century Jacob Grimm, noticed that when comparing a number of words in Germanic languages to the equivalent in Latin that it almost invariably happens that where is a **p** in Latin the Germanic word has an **f**. **T** in Latin was a **ō** the (th sound) in Germanic; **d** in Latin, was a **t** in Germanic, etc. Concluding that the Italic group of languages kept the Indo-European consonant system intact whereas primitive Germanic changed it. The change proceeded so regularly that it must have followed some definite methodical course, as a result of further research, he formulated a law underlining these changes “Grimm’s Law”. It wasn’t always accurate for all changes, this deficiency was later made up by Verner’s Law named after Danish philologist who formulated it. Following are the most important sound changes that appear to take place in Primitive Germanic:

p>f	Lat. <i>pes, pedem;</i>	A.S. <i>fōt;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>foot</i>
	Lat. <i>piscis;</i>	A.S. <i>fisc;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>fish</i>
	Lat. <i>pater;</i>	A.S. <i>fāðer;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>father</i>
t > ð ²	Lat. <i>tres;</i>	A.S. <i>ðni̅;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>three</i>
	Lat. <i>tu;</i>	A.S. <i>ðu;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>thou</i>
	Lat. <i>frater;</i>	A.S. <i>broðor;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>brother</i>
k>h.	Lat. <i>canis;</i>	A.S. <i>hund;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>hound</i>
	Lat. <i>cor;</i>	A.S. <i>heorte;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>heart</i>
	Lat. <i>caput;</i>	A.S. <i>hēāfod;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>head</i>
kw>hw.	Lat. <i>quis;</i>	A.S. <i>hwā;</i>	Mod. Eng. <i>who</i>
	Lat. <i>aqua;</i>	{ A.S. <i>waeter;</i> Gothic, <i>a a;</i> ³	Mod. Eng. <i>water</i>

Primitive Germanic later split into three important branches: Gothic, Scandinavian and West Germanic. The first we have record of left in fragmentary translations of Christian Gospels by Bishop Ulfilas who lived from 311-381 A.D. the second (Norse) gave us modern Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Icelandic. The earliest records are runic inscriptions dating to the 4th Century A.D. the latter which connects to English is a purely theoretical language, we have no documented evidence but from a comparative study

of certain later tongues (Anglo-Saxon, Dutch, German) philologists believe that these must be derived from a third branch of primitive Germanic different from the first two.

The most important modification that took place in the 3rd branch that did not take place in the first 2 concerned the consonant sound **z** that had developed in primitive Germanic from **s**. when it occurred in a word it was now modified to an **r** while at the end of the word the tendency was for it to disappear altogether. This explains why in modern English the plural of *was* is *were*, and *is* becomes *are*. It also occurs in consonantal differences in such closely related words such as *more* and *most* and underlines the distinction between the comparative termination of adjectives in **er** and the superlative in **est**.

Historians of English distinguish 3 main stages in its development.

1. Old English (Anglo-Saxon) period 600-1100 A.D
2. Middle English 1100-1500
3. Modern English 1500 onwards

It must not be imagined that there was a complete and sudden change, the evolution of language is continuous there are periods where changes occur more rapidly than others.

By 600 the invading Anglo and Saxons had succeeded in establishing their power and implanting their language in Britain. Forming a suitable starting point in 1066 the Norman invasion and conquest took place, by 1100 the Normans consolidated their power and their language was beginning to influence the native Saxon tongue.

Therefore, the 11th century can be seen as closing one chapter and the beginning a new one in English. In 1500 the full tide of the renaissance began to alter English (less rapidly at 1st than is commonly supposed) due to the church.

The Tudor dynasty on the throne after the battle of Bosworth field had made England a nation like never before. All of this had an influence in English. The earliest inhabitants of these islands were Britons and their language was a form of Celtic. It had affinities with languages spoken in some districts of northern France notably the part we now call

Brittany and probably was in general use throughout the whole roman occupation from 55B.C- 410A.D though it must have become mixed with Latin from the speech of the roman soldiery. The Britons saw the romans as protectors more than conquerors. When trouble came to the island the legions were recalled, the tribal chiefs petitioned for their return but their request fell on deaf ears. Soon thereafter the Angles, Saxons and Jutes tribes from northern Germany descended with their hordes. The Celtic supremacy came rapidly to an end. Many Britons fled into the hills of Wales, Cornwall and Scotland where their language continued. Consequently, the tongue of the invaders become the tongue of Britan England as it is now called.

It was not a single homogeneous language, even in modern times we have our own dialects during the Anglo-Saxon Period this too was the case. Comparative isolation of one part of the country from another tended to accentuate any differences. Of all the dialects that of Wessex (west saxon) became the most important. For two main reasons.

1st. Wessex was the most highly civilized of all and the first to attain any kind of political unity with a fairly ordered system of government.

2nd. Most of the literature of the period was written in the Wessex dialect. We have a number of documentation from this era in forms of poetry and religious writing as well as the Anglo-Saxson Chronicles which can be found below (historical records kept by kind Alfred).

(Frederick T. Wood. 2016)

893. Her on oysum gaēre for se micla here, ðe wē gefyrn ymbe sprāēcon, eft of ðaem ēāstrice westweard tō Bunnan; ond ðaēr wurdon gescipode, swā ðaet hiē āsettan him on aenne sið ofer mid horsum mid ealle; ond ðā comon up on Limene muðan mid ccl hunde scipa. Se muða is on ēastweardre Cent aet ðaes miclan wuda ēastende ðe wē Andred hātað.

[TRANSLATION: 893. In this year the great army, to which we have already referred, came again from the east kingdom, westward to Boulogne, and there embarked, making the crossing, together with their horses and all other things, in a single journey. And they came up to the mouth of the Limen with two hundred and fifty ships. The mouth is in the eastern part of Kent, and at the east end of the great forest which we call Andred.]

The English of today is mainly descended from Wessex however, traces of other dialects still remain. One can see this in the existence of doublets, two words slightly differentiated in meaning but were originally dialectal variants of the same word. Whole (bible sense of health) and hale both coming from old English hal. Anglo-Saxon grammar was very complicated. There were two declensions for the adj. strong and weak, for it's nouns like modern Germany it had the three-gender system but fixed very arbitrarily. So the word for girl in the face of logic was neuter whilst the two words for woman was neuter and masculine. Through this period a process of level-ling out took place by 1000 A.D inflexions were disappearing paving the way to a more simplified version in the middle English period that was to follow. For example, there was different declensions for a noun most common were that in which the nominative and accusative plurals ended in either **-as** or genitive singular **-es**. many words were made to conform to this rule that is why in modern English we form the plural with an s and genitives with an apostrophe s. these are in fact all that remains in regards to the nouns from the Anglo-Saxon period.

Two other characteristics have bearing upon the speech of the present day: gradation and mutation. Gradation process is seen most clearly in the principal parts of verbs by which vowels sounds undergo a change according to whether they occur in stress or unstressed syllables. It is not peculiar to Anglo-Saxon but goes back to the parent tongue and can also be seen in Latin. This can be illustrated by the example below, the same sentence with the same syllables accented differently.

Can he do it ?

Can hé do it ?

Can he dó it?

Saying this one after the other you will note that the position of stress makes a difference to the vowel pronounced in “can”. First short ä sound, second u sound like in gun and in the third sentence it is hardly pronounced at all. In the same way adding a suffix to the root of a verb to make a tens or participle might involve shifting of an accent and lead to modifications in the root syllable. Hence it happened that in man Anglo-Saxon verbs the present tense, the past tense and past participle show change or a “grading” in the vowel of the root syllable. As an example, let us take the verb *drīfan* (to drive) and *rīdan* (to ride) which had the past tense *drāf* and *rād* and past participle *drīfen* and *rīden*, giving our present-day forms of *drove* and *rode* as well as *driven* and *ridden*. Some verbs have to dispense with it, example the verb: *climban* (to climb) which had *clamb* and *clumben* as its past -tense and -participle. Today it is a weak verb forming both these parts by adding the syllable **-ed**, others that were once graded but now dispense with the gradation are the verbs for example *to help*. In Anglo-Saxon a large number of verbs had a different vowel in the past tense plural from that in the past tense singular. In modern English this distinction has disappeared and the whole past tense is conjugated uniformly on the model of the singular more important from the point of view of modern English mutation (or i-mutation). This took place in early Anglo-Saxon itself.

This process occurred slowly but was thought to be well advanced by A.D 600 and complete by 700. In Latin mutation means change, the process was called i-mutation because it was caused/influenced by the vowel I (or sometimes j).

In early Anglo-Saxon, vowels in accented syllables were modified through the influence of an i or j in the next syllable, the i or the j subsequently disappearing. The vowels affected were: $\check{a}, \check{æ}, \check{o}, \check{u}, \bar{a}, \bar{æ}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}, \bar{ea}, \bar{io}$ (Frederick T. Wood. 2016).

They were all diphthongs in which one of the elements were a back vowel. The front vowels e and i were unaffected. The following modifications took place:

<i>Short Back Vowels and Diphthongs</i>	<i>Long Back Vowels and Diphthongs</i>
$\check{a} > \check{e}$	$\bar{a} > \bar{æ}$
$\check{æ} > \check{e}$	$\bar{æ} > \bar{e}$
$\check{o} > \check{e}$	$\bar{o} > \bar{e}$
$\check{u} > \check{y}$	$\bar{u} > \bar{y}$
$\check{ea} > \check{ie}$	$\bar{ea} > \bar{ie}$
$\check{eo} > \check{ie}$	$\bar{eo} > \bar{ie}$
$\check{io} > \check{ie}$	$\bar{io} > \bar{ie}$

Later \check{ie} (from \check{ea}, \check{eo} or \check{io}) was simplified to \check{i} or \check{y} .

Why is the plural of foot, feet and not foets? Or Goose is geese and not geoses. Why do we speak about a person's strength and not strongth. Why are there two different forms of comparative and superlative degrees of adjective old, older and oldest besides elder and eldest. What is the correct plural of brother, brothers or brethren (biblical)? All these

are explained by i-mutation. The results of the processes, as they are seen in the English of the present day may be classified under 5 main heads.

1. Mutated plurals

In early old English plural were formed by the addition of the inflexion -iz (the predecessor of the plural ending in -s). In Certain combinations i-mutation would become aperitive. Tōð the old English word for tooth had an early plural: tōðiz, later changing to tēð as a result of mutation bringing us today's teeth. This process is how we can explain words like men, geese, mice, and feet. This class of plurals was much larger than it is now with many nouns having dropped the mutated plural during the middle English period and conformed to the growing tendency to add an 's' to the singular such as one in bōc the old English word for book. The plural was bēc, via the rules of linguistic development today the plural should have been bech or beech but no such word exists. The word brother has two plurals one being rather odd. In old English brōðor was both singular and plural but had a dative case (singular) brēðer, it formed one plural in modern English following standard rules by adding an -s and a second one from the dative by adding an -en in middle English maybe through popular association of the mutated dative, with a mutated plural (H.C. Wyld 1918). Therefore, brother is actually a double plural and a false one. If the word had developed along strictly historical lines it would have had an uninflected plural like sheep or deer.

2. Mutated abstract nouns derived from adjectives.

To form abstract nouns from adjectives the Anglo-Saxons added the termination – iðu which later dropped the unaccented u becoming – ið. Thus, the adjective from which we got the modern long was lang; the quality of long-ness was expressed by langiðu which by i-mutation became lengð becoming modern day length. The same happens in the difference between the vowels in strong and strength. The adjective hāl gives the modern whole (free of disease)

3. Verbs derived by Mutation from cognate nouns.

Certain verbal infinitives were formed by Anglo-Saxons by addition of the suffix -jan to a noun. Dōm their word for judgment gives our modern doom (though with change of meaning however, we still use it as doomsday with the same meaning). To make a judgement was dōmjan, this by i-mutation became deman and so we get out verb deem. Similarly, to food the verb feed, meet the noun meeting.

4. Verbs derived from adjectives by mutation.

The termination -jan was also added to some adjectives to make verbs. Full gave fulljan becoming fullan producing the modern "fill".

5. Mutated comparatives and superlative degrees of adjectives.

The only remaining traces of these are elder and eldest. The Anglo-Saxon suffixes for the two degrees in question were -ira (Comparative) later becoming the modern er and ist (superlative) becoming est. Thus eald (old) giving elder and eldest the correct decedents. Alternatives have also been formed on the analogy of the positive degree. Of the two the latter is now more generally employed. Elder and eldest are only used for persons and not inanimate objects and even then, in a restricted sense. We speak of my elder sister but not the eldest inhabitant and nor should we say my sister is elder than me but should say she is the elder of the two. Mutation occurred in the comparison of a number of adjectives. Thus, to be historically correct we should have to compare strong, strenger, stregeest or young, yenger, yengest but in all cases with the exception of the one noted at the beginning, the mutated forms have been dropped and all three degrees made uniform on basis of the positive.

An Anglo-Saxon dictionary contains 20 000 words as compared with over 400 000 of modern English. The greater parts of these were what might be described as native belonging to the vocabulary of the Anglo and Saxons brought from their German homes. But even in early periods signs of foreign elements were visible by 1000AD

certain words were directly inherited from the Indo-European parent tongue. Majority of these words referring to elementary/obvious things which were noticed and named by even primitive tribes: day, night, sun, moon, thunder, earth, fire, water, wind, cow, goose, mouse and wolf are all Indo-European mostly associated with daily life. To our ancestors all trees were just that, trees it was left to later generations to name the specific types. What is a bit odd is that Indo-Europeans gave us words for red and yellow yet there seems to be no trace of green which was then a very common natural colour.

Seeing that Celtic was the original language of Britain one would think that it was largely absorbed into old English in reality very little of that is true, placing emphasis on just how strong a power the invaders had on the land. Some Celtic words mainly for natural features and landscapes did however make the cut, old English *dūn* for a down or hill was most likely of a Celtic origin.

Much more important was Latin, Walter Skeat noted that 108 words that we use today came from Latin by way of the Anglo-Saxon, others identify many more words. This could have happened in one of two ways:

1. The legacy of the Roman occupation.
2. The introduction of Latin Christianity.

The latter must have been the addition of many words however, it ended up later facing the same fate as Celtic. What survived was practical connected with Roman Characteristics that contributed to the Britain civilization for example “win” wine, from Latin *vinum*. Wall Anglo-Saxon *weall* from Latin *Vallum*. *Latis via* (road) appears in old English as *weg* by development giving us *way*. *Via strata* (a paved road) giving us *street*.

Most widespread traces of the Roman occupation can be found in place-names ending in *-chester* and *-caster* which mark sites of Roman camp/military stations. *Caster* Latin for camp is found in Anglo-Saxon as *ceaster*, in dialects of Wessex ‘c’ before a front vowel was pronounced like the modern ‘ch’. Districts of north- north east influenced by

Danish pronounced it with a hard 'k', bringing forth the difference between chester : Manchester, Winchester, Rochester and caster: Doncaster, Lancaster and Tadcaster.

The Danish and Norse elements in old English was important for the future development of English. The invasion of the Danes started around the end of the 8th century. Bands of Norse attacked the east coast and finally established settlements there. 100 years later with more attacks settlements increased not confined to solely the east coast. With the treaty of Wedmore in 878 Danes were allowed to settle north of a line drawn from London, South of this was Saxon. This division was political but very important to the development of language in the two parts of the country. The Danes and Norsemen's raids came to a climax when in 1017-1035 a Danish king sat on the English throne. The influence of these events upon the language of the Anglo-Saxons Manifested in three directions:

1. Place names in the territories settled by the Norsemen.
2. Introduction of new words of Danish or Norse origin.
3. Modification of existing language.

Skeats etymological dictionary gives around 500 words still in use today of Norse origin or influence. By is today the normal Danish word for a town related to the English word borough with the termination bury in names like Canterbury. Found in place-names like Crimsby, Selby and Whitby all ancient Danish settlements. Some Danish and Norse words are Completely gone but some are still used in different parts as a dialect. Important words like get and take were introduced by Danish. Husband is of Norse origin, old English sweostor from Norse syster gave us sister. A map is attached under the appendix labelled image 1 to indicate the Anglo-Saxon period. The word gesture has the first syllable pronounced as guess. Give has a much harder 'g' this is because of Danish influence as in old English giefan would have been pronounced with a 'y'.

Professor O. F. Emerson analysed the use of vocabulary among the greatest English writers in his book *A Brief History of the English Language* (1896; new ed. 1920) in order to see the percentage of pure English Anglo-Saxon origin.

The Bible (Authorised Version)	–	– 94%	Pope	–	–	– 80%
Shakespeare	–	– 90%	Johnson	–	–	– 72%
Spenser	–	– 86%	Hume	–	–	– 73%
Milton	–	– 81%	Gibbon	–	–	– 70%
Addison	–	– 82%	Macaulay	–	–	– 75%
Swift	–	– 75%	Tennyson	–	–	– 88%

The results as seen above was predictable if we are looking at the bible or Shakespeare but he did not stop then he analyzed later authors: Bernard Shaw 73%, T. S. Eliot 74%, Aldous Huxley 77% and Galsworthy 75%. One would think as time goes on writers would adapt to the language being used however, it was evident that the majority of the vocabulary used was of original Anglo-Saxon origin.

Yes, we have borrowed words from a range of foreign languages but the Saxon influence is dominate till today. What does happen in the second stage of development in English (the middle English period) is that meanings and pronounciational changes begin to occur.

As many years have passed between now and the ages of Shaw or the predecessor Shakespeare one thing remains constant when it come to English, even comparing my own vocabulary is that the Saxon origins are here to stay. As international relationships expend English remains one of the dominant languages of the world. In order to work in any prominent company in the word English literacy is a must, courses like TEFL and online English lessons have become increasingly popular in recent years.

I chose this research topic because I am interested in becoming an English teacher. I have fascinations that run deep in regards to poetry and literature. Most authors I look up to are long gone with a string of beautifully crafted bodies of work however, I find the English foreign and confusing at best. It always helps to study the changes in language

to ease the confusion, I have a new found apparitions for this everlasting evolving prosses.

Appendix

Table 1: The resemblance of numbers in the ancient languages and modern English.

English	Anglo-Saxon	Gothic	German	Dutch	Danish	Latin	Greek (English Literals)
one	án	áíns	eins	een	een	unus	eis (en)
two	twā (Masc. twēgen)	twái	zwei	twee	to	duo	duo
three	ðri ¹	ōrija ¹	drei	drie	tre	tres	treis
four	fēower	fidwōr	vier	vier	fire	quattuor	tessara
five	fīf	fimf	fünf	vijf	fem	quinque	pente
six	siex	sáihs	sechs	zes	sex	sex	hex
seven	seofon	sibun	sieben	zeven	syv	septem	hepta
eight	eahta	ahtáu	acht	acht	otte	octo	okto
nine	nigon	niun	neun	negen	ni	novem	ennea
ten	tien	táihun	zehn	tien	ti	decem	deka

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