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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracoval(a) samostatně a použil(a) jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

Plzeň, duben 2013

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Tímto bych chtěla poděkovat vedoucímu mé bakalářské práce PhDr. Robertu Vorlovi CSc. za vstřícný přístup po celou dobu jeho konzultací, cenné rady a čas, který mé práci věnoval.

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1. Introduction

“English is not the native language of Ireland, though the English themselves often speak as if it were” (McCrum et al.; 1986: 163).

The paper begins with a general classification of Indo-European languages which provides reader mainly with the stratification of the Celtic and Germanic languages from which Irish and English originate.

The first chapter is followed by the description of the historical account of the English language in Britain. This chapter discusses the language situation in Britain before the German settlement and deals with the development of English on the British soil which gradually spread out of the island and became used as ‘*a lingua franca*’ by many people all over the world.

The third chapter focuses on the historical and present-day linguistic situation in Ireland. It is divided into three subchapters. The first subchapter describes Irish Gaelic as an originally spoken language in Ireland while the second subchapter deals with the position of English in Ireland which was brought over there in the twelfth century by Anglo-Normans and its fight with Irish for language supremacy. The second subchapter is followed by the subchapter regarding the survival of the Irish language.

The fourth chapter discusses the three different terms used in the connection with English spoken in Ireland and gives the linguistic points of view of several linguists.

The fifth chapter concentrates on the grammar of Irish English and describes various grammatical features used in Southern and Northern Irish English. The same stratification is also used in the following chapter which is focused on Irish-English dialects. In addition, the chapter about dialects contains the description of two dialects undoubtedly influenced by Irish English – Scouse and partly Cockney.

The seventh chapter deals with Irish English lexicon and gives several examples of idioms. The last chapter investigates the general description of Irish English nowadays and its possible changes in the future.

The aim of the thesis is to introduce Irish English as a variety of English, describe its historical background and development and give the reader insight into spoken and written form of this language.

2. Irish and English both belong to the Indo-European family

Regarding Irish English one can recognize that the origin of this term is based on two languages – Irish and English which both belong to the Indo-European language family. Following chapter deals with the classification of languages belonging to the Indo-European family and is focused particularly on the Celtic and German languages.

According to many references, all of Indo-European nations and languages descend from one common base – the Indo European communality which had probably existed by the 4500 BC when the migration to all parts of the world, especially to west and east started (Vorel; 2003: 124, 125).

The Indo-European language family tends to be generally divided from 14 to 22 sub-families which are historically related to each other. Vorel stratifies the Indo-European languages in Indic, Iranian, Armenian, and Albanian, Tocharian (extinct), Balto-Slavic, Hellenic, Celtic, Baltic, Italic, Greek, Slavic, German and Anatolian (extinct) (2003; 124-127).

The Celtic languages were spoken predominantly on the British soil before the Germanic invasion. The isolation helped the British Celts to survive and by some time their language developed into two branches: *Brittonic* and *Goidelic* (Vorel; 2003:127).

The *Brittonic* languages were probably spoken before the Roman invasion in the fifth century in most parts of Britain and as a consequence a large number of Latin borrowings are recognized (“Brythonic languages”; 2013).

The *Goidelic* languages were spoken predominantly in Ireland and on the west coast of Scotland during the sixth century (“Goidelic languages”; 2013).

The difference between the *Brittonic* and *Goidelic* languages is mainly phonological. The phoneme k^w is pronounced like [p] (‘pen’, ‘mab’) in the Brittonic language while in the

Goidelic speech [k] is used ('*ceann*', '*maq*') ("P-Celtic and Q-Celtic languages"; 2013). From these mentioned above, the two main Celtic branches of languages such as *Welsh*, *Breton*, *Cornish* and also *Irish*, *Scottish Gaelic* and *Manx* developed gradually. Manx and Cornish languages practically died out (Vorel; 2003: 124-127). According to the United Nations cultural body the last speaker of Cornish died around 1777 and the last speaker of Manx, Ned Maddrell, died in 1974 (Bates; 2009).

"However, there is hope for language lovers. Unesco reports that new forms of both Cornish and Manx are being revived and neither could be regarded as endangered as the number of users seems to be constantly growing" (Bates; 2009).

The Germanic languages are divided into three main branches: the East, the North and the West Germanic languages. The East German languages with the oldest Germanic language – *Gothic* died out by the sixteenth century. To the North Germanic branch (also known as the branch of Vikings) belongs, for example, *Icelandic*, *Norwegian*, *Faroese*, *Swedish*, *Danish* or *Danish Norwegian*. Into the last branch-West Germanic branch fall *German*, *English*, *Dutch*, *Afrikaans*, the *Frisian* languages, and *Yiddish* (Vorel; 2003: 124–127). Robert Vorel points out a weak Germanic character of the English language due to the Roman influence after the Norman Conquest. English also contains the features of Yiddish (Vorel; 2003:129).

From the division of the Indo-European languages above one can easily recognize that both languages which are spoken in Ireland (Irish Gaelic and Irish English) belong to the same language family, but they originate from different sub-families (Celtic and German).

3. History of the English language on British soil

This chapter deals with a general historical background of the English language in Britain. It is necessary to describe the development of the English language because it could serve as a good illustration for the reader to give him/her basic information about the stage of development of English when it was brought to Ireland in the twelfth century. During the years, English strengthened its position not only in Ireland but it became used and spoken all over the world.

The English language belongs to the West Germanic branch of the Indo- European language family and its development is divided (as all of West Germanic languages) into three main periods (Graddol: 7):

- 1) Old English (“also known as Anglo- Saxon”) (450- 1100) – progressively influenced by the languages of the Roman, Saxon and Nordic conquerors of Britain
- 2) Middle English (1100- 1750) – the Anglo-Norman language marked by a strong French influence
- 3) Modern English (1750- ...) – rich in borrowings from Roman, Germanic and Scandinavian languages

(Graddol: 7)

3.1 Situation in Britain before the German settlement

In the first millennium BC the Celts arrived in Britain and Ireland and native inhabitants called Iberians probably adopted their language (“Languages in the British Isles”; 2013). The Iberians were skilled riders who settled in many parts of Europe, including the British Isles. They are known to be the oldest inhabitants of the Iberian Peninsula but their origin is doubtful (Saar; 2009).

“In Ireland the Celtic language developed into Irish, the earliest stage of which is Old Irish (600-900), preceded by *Ogam*, a type of Runic script used for inscriptions on stone in the first few centuries AD. In Britain, the Celtic language is known as *Brythonic* language and it

was spoken throughout Britain when the Romans arrived in 55 BC” (Hickey; “Languages in the British Isles”: 2013).

It is believed by some scholars that the Celtic tongue substantially influenced the grammatical structure of English (Durkin; 2013). A huge number of names of rivers (‘Avon’, ‘Exe’ or ‘Dover’), hills (‘Bredon’, ‘Creech’, ‘Pendle’) and places such as *cumb* (deep valley – ‘Duncombe’, ‘Holcombe’) or *torr* (high, rock – ‘Torr’, ‘Torhill’) are Celtic loanwords. The first syllables of the words ‘Winchester’, ‘Salisbury’, ‘Exeter’, ‘Gloucester’, ‘Worcester’ or ‘Lichfield’ are traces of the Celtic influence while ‘Cantenbury’ is undoubtedly the word of Celtic origin (Baugh, Cable; 2002).

There is also evidence of existence of so-called *Pictish* language on the British soil which was spoken especially in central and the northern Scotland. According to the legend the *Picts* had arrived from the colony of seafarers called Scythia to the north of Britain across Northern Ireland where they had to face Scottish inhabitants. There are at least two theories which try to uncover the origin of the *Picts*. One theory describes the *Picts* as the Celts who probably spoke a form of the Gaelic language, while the second theory identifies them as a Finno-Ugrian immigrants from Baltic (Dunbavin: 1998) (Crystal; 2005: 15, 16). Nevertheless, the *Pictish* language died out during the first millennium as a consequence of assimilation of the Picts into the kingdom of Scotland (Hickey; “Languages in the British Isles”, 2013).

Although there was a peaceful coexistence between the Celts and Romans from the second to the fifth centuries AD it had a negative effect because it caused the backwardness of war ability of Celts when the German settlement began (Vorel; 2003: 130,131).

3.2 Old English (Anglo-Saxon)

The beginning of the English language in Britain is considered in the fifth century when Angles, Saxons and Jutes have begun the settlement in Britain in AD 449 (see Figure 1). They brought with them Germanic dialects which are known nowadays as Old English. (Britain: 10)

Figure 1 The Germanic invasion in the fifth century
 (“History of the English language”: 1997-2013)



The biggest area of Britain – East Anglia, Mercia (nowadays Midlands) and Northumbria was brought under the control by the Angles. According to the name ‘*Anglaland*’ (‘the land of Angles’) the whole Britain was named ‘*England*’ and also the term ‘*Englics*’ refers to the ‘*the speech of Angles*’ (Vorel; 2003: 131). David Britain in his book *Language in the British Isles* says that “... the first appearance of the name ‘*English*’ (englics) for the language is in the late ninth century in King Alfred’s writings” (10).

The nationwide settlement of Germans is connected with the contempt for habits, lifestyle and also language of native inhabitants. This is, more or less, the reason why there are so few words of Celtic origin in the Modern English language (Vorel; 2003: 131) (Crystal; 2005: 25,26). Robert Vorel in his book *Úvod do studia Anglického jazyka* (‘*The introduction of English language studies*’) states the examples such as ‘*bin*’ or ‘*ass*’ and also the local names such as ‘*London*’, ‘*Leeds*’, ‘*Kent*’, ‘*Devon*’, ‘*Avon*’ and ‘*Thames*’ as the words of typical Celtic origin (2003: 131) . Since the seventh century Anglo- Saxon dialects were

established enough in some parts of Britain so they started to display origin the Celtic languages gradually (Britain: 10).

In the 8th century, England and also Ireland became the subjects of Scandinavians (Norwegians and Danes) incursions. As many others, the main settlements were around major rivers such as Liffey (Dublin) or the Suir (Waterford) (Hickey; “Language in the British Isles”, 2013). Thanks to King Alfred the Great, the king of West-Saxon, known for his great leadership over the England, the Vikings were prevented from obtaining dominance over the whole land when a mutual agreement was made with them in 878 in Wedmore (Vorel; 2013:132).

Although the Danish king reigned over the major parts of England in the 11th century and many loanwords from Norse such as pronouns ‘*they*’, ‘*them*’ and ‘*their*’ or the plural form of ‘*to be*’ (are) are recognized, there had not been any tracks of the Norse language in written English until the Norman Conquest (1066). The Scandinavian language which is related to a German languages considerably influenced English but it could be also recognized a great impact on Irish (Hickey; “Languages in the British Isles”, 2013).

Among the Danish borrowings in English there could be found a large number of words. More than 600 names of places such as ‘*Whitby*’, ‘*Derby*’ or ‘*Rugby*’ ending with *-by* (*by*) which has originally the meaning of ‘farm’ or ‘town’. Another 600 names of Scandinavian origins is ended with *-thorp* (‘village’), *-thwaite* (‘an isolated piece of land’) or *-toft* (‘a piece of ground’). There could be also recognized personal names ending with *-son* (Johnson or Stevenson) (Baugh, Cable; 2002: 98).

Nouns borrowed from the Scandinavian language such as ‘*bull*’, ‘*egg*’, ‘*fellow*’, ‘*gap*’, ‘*guess*’, ‘*leg*’, ‘*link*’, ‘*loan*’, ‘*race*’, ‘*reindeer*’, ‘*score*’, ‘*seat*’, ‘*sister*’, ‘*skill*’, ‘*skirt*’, ‘*steak*’, ‘*trust*’ or ‘*window*’, adjectives such as ‘*awkward*’, ‘*flat*’, ‘*ill*’, ‘*loose*’, ‘*low*’, ‘*odd*’, ‘*rotten*’, ‘*rugged*’, ‘*tight*’ or ‘*weak*’ and verbs to ‘*call*’, ‘*die*’, ‘*droop*’, ‘*gasp*’, ‘*get*’, ‘*give*’, ‘*raise*’, ‘*rid*’, ‘*scowl*’ or ‘*take*’ could serve as the best evidence of everyday English words brought to Britain by Scandinavians (Baugh, Cable; 2002: 100).

3.3 Middle English

The Norman Conquest (1066) led by William the Conqueror in the Middle Ages caused a simplification of grammatical forms in English. The Norman-French language influenced English in many ways. A huge number of borrowings from French and also Latin are recognized in Modern English since that time (Vorel; 2003: 132). “In addition, already mentioned Scandinavian loanwords were slowly starting to appear in the written language” (Durkin; 2013).

Among the Norman borrowings in English, words related to the law such as ‘*court*’, ‘*crime*’, ‘*justice*’ or ‘*penalty*’, but also words connected with military service – ‘*army*’, ‘*battle*’, ‘*enemy*’, ‘*soldier*’ or ‘*war*’ could be mentioned (Vorel; 2003: 30, 31).

After the early thirteenth century English Kings lost all of the continental possessions to the benefit of France. In this period the influence of new social class-townsmen in England increased. Although the French language was a class language in England, the mother tongue of townsmen was solely English (Vorel; 2003: 132). Educated people probably used French, Latin and English languages in the Middle period (Graddol: 7).

In 1399, Henry IV as the first ruler who ascended the British throne since the Norman Conquest used English as his mother tongue and since the fifteenth century English gradually penetrated the prestigious parliamentary proceedings (Vorel, 2003: 133).

According to Robert Vorel, the early fifteenth century is connected with changes in English pronunciation of vowels collectively known as the ‘*Great Vowel Shift*’, which continued to the late sixteenth century (2003: 133). “These were purely linguistic ‘sound changes’ which occur in every language in every period of history. The changes in pronunciation weren’t the result of specific social or historical factors, but social and historical factors would have helped to spread the results of the changes. As a result the so-called ‘pure’ vowel sounds which still characterize many continental languages were lost to English. The phonetic pairings of most long and short vowel sounds were also lost, which gave rise to many of the oddities of English pronunciation, and which now obscure the

relationships between many English words and their foreign counterparts” (Durkin; 2013). Vorel gives a schematic illustration of these changes of vowels:

Front vowels: a → ea → ee → i [ai]

Back vowels: o → oa → oo → u [ju:]

(Vorel; 2003: 133)

It is necessary to mention that the English spelling ignored these changes in pronunciation which caused the differences between written and spoken English we can recognize nowadays. This is also connected with the expansion of typography in England in the late fifteenth century. The typography caused that the written form of the English language stabilized that much that changes established in the pronunciation were not taken into the consideration (Vorel; 2003: 119,133).

“During the medieval and early modern periods the influence of English spread throughout the British Isles, and from the early seventeenth century onwards its influence began to be felt throughout the world” (Durkin ; 2013).

With the development of printing in Britain the language was stabilized and it is known to be taught in Holland and France as a foreign language in the early sixteenth century (Graddol: 7)

3.4 Modern English

There were many attempts which tried to fix the English language by issuing various dictionaries and grammars. A good example of this is a famous *Oxford English Dictionary* (1858- 1928) written by Samuel Johnson (Graddol: 7).

The late nineteenth century is connected with the decline of usage of French as an international language while English became the language of advertising and transnational institutions (Graddol: 7).

The commercial growth of Britain and a number of its colonies in America or India probably led to the spread of English to the whole world. This was supported by the period of the World War II when the American variety of English became world dominant (Graddol: 7).

The expansion of British colonial power and the spread of English to the United States during twentieth made this language dominant over others and now it is used by many countries as an official language all over the world. It also plays an important role in the economics, politics, science and technology, popular music or culture (Crystal; 1995:106).

The stratification of English is based on the connection between the social and dialectological classification of the speaker. Among various dialects and accents of the English language the best example could be Cockney English which is considered to be a regional London language and also a language of the Lower Classes (Vorel; 2003: 134).

According to Graddol there are three main types of English speakers in modern world: a native speakers who use the English language as their first language (US, Canada, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, The Republic of Ireland, Scotland or Wales), then a speakers who use their local form of English as the second language (India, West Africa and East Africa) and finally the people who learn English as foreign language (Graddol: 10, 11).

4. Ireland as a linguistic area

The original language of the Irish population is Irish Gaelic which was predominantly spoken in Ireland until the nineteenth century. The present-day Ireland is more or less generally recognized as English-speaking country, but it is important to mention that English had to fight with the Irish language for its dominancy for many centuries and the establishment of English in Ireland was not as much easy as in other British colonies because Irish Gaelic had a strong language background and position (Hildegard, Tristram; 2004).

4.1 Irish Gaelic

Irish Gaelic belongs to the Goidelic branch of the Indo-European family. It has a long history and it is marked as "... the oldest vernacular literature in Europe after Greek and Latin" (Green; 1966, quoted in Alladina, Edwards; 1991: 68, 69).

A language was probably brought to Ireland by Celtic groups from Europe (Britain: 218). Those who came to Ireland adapted to native language and habits of Irish people. This process, commonly known as *gaelicization*, was recorded even in the twelfth century when the Normans came to the country (Alladina, Edwards: 68, 69).

It is known that Irish colonized the Scotland and their power also rose because of the establishment of numerous Christian monasteries there. That was also the reason why Irish became a language commonly used in Scotland. In the thirteenth century Irish Gaelic was the language of educated people in Ireland and Scotland but one can recognize the impact of language used by the Norse invaders from this period. The impact of the Irish language on Scottish Gaelic, which was originally spoken in Scotland, was mainly morphological (Britain: 218, 219).

Irish Gaelic is usually divided into three main dialects of Munster, Connacht and Ulster, but there are also distinguished various dialects from the south to north of Ireland. The biggest differences among them could be found in phonology, especially in the stress which is put on the words, while the syntactic differences are relatively small (Britain: 219, 221).

The Irish language use the letters of the Roman alphabet except the letters < l k q x z >. Many borrowings from Welsh, Norse (Norman French) and Old and Middle English

affected its lexicon (Britain: 223). Several centuries lasting indirect influence of the Latin language, which was used together with Greek for creating new specialised vocabulary, is also recognized after the Christianisation of Ireland in the fifth century. The words such as ‘*offering*’ (*offerendum*), ‘*church*’ (*cill*) or ‘*cell*’ (*cella*) are of Latin origin (Hickey; “Languages in the British Isles”: 2013).

The Irish language was as a dominant language in Ireland fixed by various literary scholars during the Middle Ages which helped to standardize its form. However these changes were about to happen as the English kingdom was decided to change the language situation there (Britain: 219).

4.2 English in Ireland

According to Raymond Hickey, the history of Ireland has had a strong relationship with England since the late Middle Ages (Hickey; 2007: 30). “This is taken to have begun in the late twelfth century. But just as there had been contacts with the Germanic tribes of the continent before the actual invasion of England in 449, trade had been carried on between Ireland and England before the invasion of the country by a collective force of Anglo-Normans, English, Welsh and some Flemish in 1169” (Hickey; 2007: 30).

“English arrived in Ireland with soldiers and settlers accompanying Anglo-Norman lords in 1169. They settled along the east coast, establishing a colony that persisted through the Late Middle Ages in and around early towns” (McCaferty: 17).

“It is known from historical records that there were at least three languages represented in this early group: Anglo-Norman, a variety of medieval English, Welsh and perhaps, to some degree, Flemish” (Hickey; 2007: 31). These languages probably served for the next linguistic development of Irish and English. Although the Welsh language was also the language of the first invaders, no traces could be found in modern Irish English (Hickey; 2007: 31).

The biggest settlement in the late Middle Ages was on the east and south-east coast of Ireland above the cities of Wexford, Waterford, Kilkenny and Dublin (which became a capital city in late twelfth century). Because of its favourable position in the middle of the east,

Dublin was quickly occupied by English. After the Charter of Dublin was issued by Henry II in 1172, English has existed continuously here. There were also places such as Carrickfergus on the north which also created one of the Anglo- Normans outposts (Hickey; 2007: 31, 32).

The part of Ireland around Dublin where the native Irish people lived and which was under English (and Anglo- Norman) control was called ‘Pale’ (Hickey; 2007: 32). “This term comes from Latin *palus* ‘stake’, via French, and refers to a stake in fence” (Hickey; 2007: 32). It is important to mention that the Pale area (see Figure 2 below) played a significant role for the survival of English in Ireland because the English political influence strengthened a development of the English language there (Hickey; 2007: 32). Hickey in his book *Irish English: history and present-day forms* also explains the phrase ‘*beyond the pale*’ which due to him refers to a ‘*socially unacceptable*’ uncivilised people who lived inside the Pale in the late medieval period (2007: 32).

Figure 2 The area of Pale (Hickey; “The area of Pale - Ireland”, 2013)



“After the twelfth century, settlements spread to other cities, e.g. in the south (Cork) and in the west (Limerick and Galway)” (Hickey; 2007: 32). English was not a dominant language in medieval Ireland and it competed with Anglo-Norman for its supremacy. Both of these definitely influenced the original Irish language. Hickey also claims that a numerous visits were carried out by English kings such as John (in 1210) and Richard II (in 1394 and 1399) to assert the influence of English court in other colonies. These visits tried to impose the limitation on the power of the ostensibly English nobility (Hickey; 2007: 32).

There was a decline in the development of English in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries when English tried to resist the process of ‘*gaelicisation*’. Various rules were implemented and those who used Irish were punished by paying heavy penalties. But these attempts as many other measures were found unsuccessful and the usage of Irish continuously exceeded the usage of English in rural areas and towns (Filppula; 1999: 4, 5).

Tracks of the English language which was spoken in Ireland could be seen in a literature. The form of so-called medieval Irish English is recorded in the historical collection of 16 poems collectively known as the *Kildare Poems*. This collection, written probably by more than one individual, dates back to the early fourteenth century and there could be found traces of a strong influence of the Irish phonology (Filppula: 4, 5).

Irish English is also known to be used by Irish writers such as Jonathan Swift or G.B. Shaw and what is interesting is that some features of Irish English could be found even in writings of the greatest English writer William Shakespeare. A good illustration of this could be the use of double negation which is one of the typical features of Irish English (Hickey; 2007: 297- 301).

A decline of English was connected with the adoption of Protestantism by the English government during the reign of Henry VIII when ‘Old English’ increasingly started to accept the native Catholic religion (Hickey; 2007: 32). Filppula quotes the dominance of Irish by the mid-sixteenth century including the area of Pale (5).

“Still more indicative of the vitality of Irish is the account from the sixteenth century of the proclamation of a bill in the Dublin parliament (1541) which officially declared the assumption of the title of King of Ireland by Henry VIII” (Hickey; 2007: 34). Filppula

confirm that only the Earl of Ormond of all the 'Old English' representatives was able to understand and translate this bill from English into Irish (6).

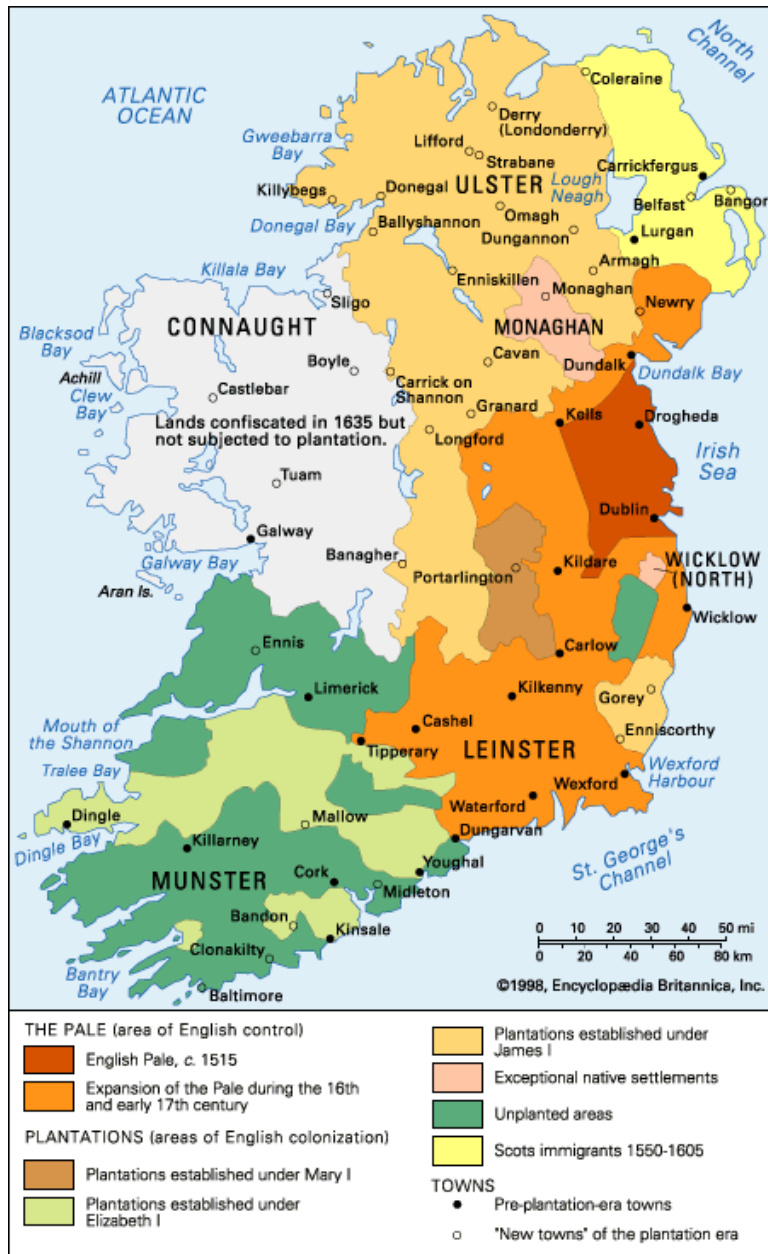
Ireland was also affected by numerous anglicization settlements in the Tudor period (1485- 1603) collectively known as 'plantations' (Hickey; 2007: 35). "This process began during the reign of Henry VIII and continued under Mary I and Elizabeth I. It was accelerated under James I, Charles I and Oliver Cromwell, and in their time planters from Scotland came" ("Plantations of Ireland", 2013).

McCaferty explains that "...plantations changed the language status" (17). They were sanctioned and supported by English government and in terms of size the two biggest plantations areas are mentioned: the Munster plantation and the Ulster plantation (see Figure 3 on the next page) (Hickey; 2007: 36). "The prerequisites for the plantations were provided by Henry VIII who was the first English king to lay a practical claim to all of Ireland" (Hickey; 2007: 36). The aim of his plantations was to apply English rule not only to the area of Pale but into the entire Ireland (Hickey; 2007: 36).

Plantations included the confiscation of lands which went to the English government and also establishing of segnories which are described by Hickey as "... units allotted to Englishmen who were to assume a leading role in recruiting further English settlers on the land" (2007: 36). The government also took measures connected with the defence of lands (Hickey; 2007: 36).

Plantations in Ireland caused one of the largest migrations in early modern Europe in the late sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (McCaferty: 17). But there were a difficulties in Munster province during the plantations as many of the English who settled in that place (1586-92) assimilated to the local Irish and many of 'undertakers' who controlled the land and were responsible for the recruiting of further English settlers on the land often failed. However, plantations showed that this kind of system could be made to work and Irish was about to become the language of peasant class (Hickey; 2007: 36, 37).

Figure 3 Plantations in Ireland (University of Florida online)



The seventeenth century in Ireland is described as ‘*a break in its development*’ by Hickey (37). Many plantations were made throughout the country (Hickey; 2007: 37). According to Canny (quoted in Hickey; 2007: 37) “... the largest and most successful settlements were in Ulster” (quoted in Hickey; 2007: 37). This language area was highly affected by the settlement of the Scots in the seventeenth century. Because of a strong

influence of the Scottish one can recognize differences between the north and south Irish English (Hickey; 2007: 38).

In 1649 Oliver Cromwell, later The Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland was sent to Ireland to put it under complete English control. He used a cruel method to fulfil his duty when about 3000 men including all officers, Catholic priests and friars were killed (Morrill; 2011). He also tried "... to push the Irish further west and the reallocation of freed lands to those loyal to the crown – overwhelmingly English settlers – led to increasing anglicisation" (Hickey; 2007: 37).

By the 1658 a several hundred thousand of Catholics were banished to the west, especially to the province of Connaught and the Irish from north were moved to the southern parts of Ireland such as Roscommon, Mayo, Galway and Clare. This process is generally known as '*transplantation*' (Hickey; 2007: 39).

The Cromwellian settlement in Ireland was followed by '*transportations*' of prisoners, members of the Catholic clergy and general vagabonds to the eastern Caribbean (Barbados, later to Montserrat). As a consequence of these transportations Irish English spread to the Caribbean (Hickey; 2007: 39, 40, 385).

In Filppula words, there was a "... diffusion of the English language..." (7) in Cromwellian era. Nevertheless, native Irish could be still heard in Ireland during the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries (Filppula: 7).

Regarding Irish planters – they switched from Irish to English between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries (Hickey; 2007). Hickey points out that this change could be caused by the implementation of punishment on the use of Irish (known as Penal Laws) and also by social bonuses which were gained when using the English language (2007: 37). In addition, native Irish people had to use English in order to understand the instructions from their owners and planters and as they still use Irish as their mother tongue they mixed together Irish pronunciation with English vocabulary which led to the existence of special form of English ("Irish-English explained"; 2012). That is also the reason why is Irish English sometimes called the '*English of peasant class*' (Hickey; 2007: 37).

However, the language shift in Ireland was significantly influenced by the Great Famine in 1845. The most important crop of Irish inhabitants, potatoes, became inedible because of blight and fungus. There were several famines before but this Great Famine exceeded all of them (“The Great Famine of 1845”, 2000-2013). “Between 1846 and 1850, the population of Ireland dropped by 2 million which represented 25% of the total population. Consequences of famine were devastating- approximately one million people died of starvation and diseases and the rest million emigrated to North America, Scotland (Glasgow) or England (Liverpool) ” (“The Great Famine of 1845”, 2000-2013). Famine affected mainly the rural inhabitants and most of them were native speakers of Irish which led to the decline of Irish language (Hickey; 2007: 46).

When dealing with the system of education for native population in Ireland, Hickey refers to a formation of a system of National Schools in 1831 which helped to decrease illiteracy and as the instruction was in English it also led to the language shift (44–46). By that time there was practically no formal education for the native population and the penal laws prevent Irish children from attending school. There is also known the presence of informal ‘*hedge schools*’ in the late eighteenth century where various subjects, including English were taught by the Catholic lay schoolmasters who were often poets and scholars. Their lessons sometimes took place in the open air in order not to be punished by the authorities. In the beginning of the nineteenth century there were established so-called ‘*Pay Schools*’ organized for children of native Irish who could afford to pay fees. It is certain that English, which knowledge was important for social advancement, was an integral part of instruction at the above mentioned types of schools (Hickey; 2007: 44, 45, 46, 125).

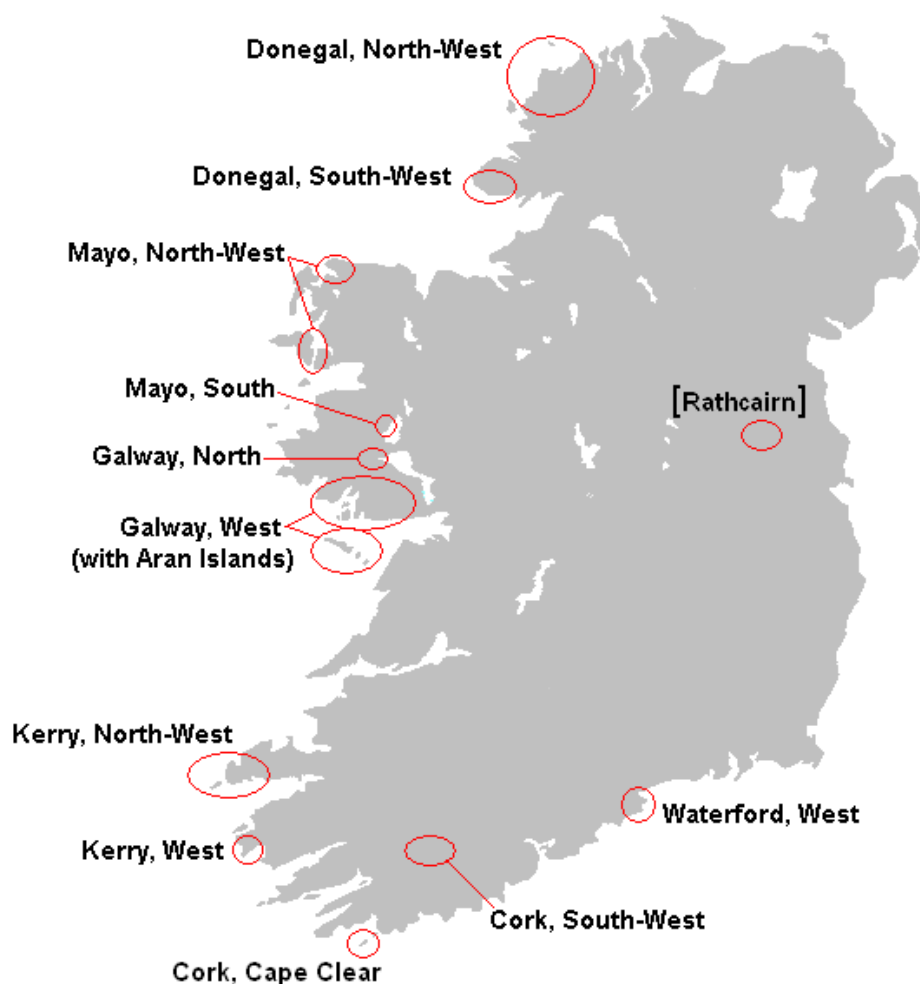
Filppula agree that the language situation in Ireland in the nineteenth century was connected with the improvement of English and the decline of Irish by commenting it, that the number of Irish-speakers “...fell from just over 300,000 in 1851 to 38,000 in 1891” (8,10) .

4.3 Survival of the Irish language

Although English expansion led to the decline of Irish, this language didn’t die out and people, especially in the countries along the west coast of Ireland, continued to speak in their native language. Places, such as Connacht, where Irish was spoken as a first language were called ‘*Gaeltacht*’ (see Figure 4) (Britain: 224). These areas were mainly concentrated on

agriculture and traditional industries (Alladina, Edwards: 71-73). However, Alladina and Edwards quotes that the state organizations and institutions were established in Gaeltacht areas in order to make their inhabitants use the English language which led to the decline of Irish spoken there. The Irish-speaking community has also become thinner as a result of past and contemporary emigration from Ireland when many members of the Irish community settled in Britain (especially in London, Birmingham and Liverpool) (Alladina, Edwards: 71–73, 83).

Figure 4 Areas of Gaeltacht (Hickey; “Irish Dialects”, 2013)



The areas in Ireland today in which native speakers are found in historically continuous communities. Some areas are in a stronger position than others, e.g. North-West Donegal and West Galway have the most vibrant communities whereas North-West & South Mayo, West Kerry, Cape Clear and West Waterford are in a much weaker position. Rathcairn is an entirely transported community (from Galway in the early 20th century).

The Republic of Ireland became independent in 1922 and after that Irish was declared the first official language. Nowadays, Ireland has two official languages: Irish and English, when most people use English as their mother tongue (“Languages spoken in Ireland”; 2013). On the other hand, Irish is always presented as the first official language and since 2007 it became one of the official languages of the European Union (“Jak se mluví v Irsku”; 2006-2012).

The Irish government tried to take some measures to save the Irish language, for example by establishing it as a compulsory subject at primary and secondary schools. However, Irish is seemed by students as a difficult and unexciting subject (“Languages spoken in Ireland”; 2013).

But there are still many people in Ireland who are interested in the Irish language and its culture. During the early twentieth century an important organization called ‘*The Gaelic League*’ was found to support the revival of the Irish language (Alladina, Edwards; 1991: 70). The interest of Irish is also supported by existing of the Irish radio (*Raidió na Gaeltachta*) Irish television station (*RTE*) and also magazines (*Cohmar, Anois*) and newspapers (*The Irish Times, The Irish Press*) in Ireland which, more or less, also leads to the expansion of the Irish language among the Irish population (Hickey; “Official status of Irish”, 2013) (Alladina, Edwards: 78-79).

According to the corpus of Central Statistics Office in Ireland carried out in April 2011, there are about 1,77 million people of all population in Ireland (4,588,252) who are able to speak Irish which means that a total number of the Irish speaking population increased by 7.1 per cent between 2006 and 2011. 77,185 of the 1, 77 million of the population of Ireland said that they spoke Irish daily outside the educational system (Central Statistics Office; 2011).

In the United States of America there are many people called Irish Americans. These people are descendants of the Irish emigrants. Among American Presidents with Irish ancestry one can find names such as J.F. Kennedy, Andrew Jackson, Ulysses S. Grant, Theodore Roosevelt or Richard Nixon. Both parents of world-famous Irish-American dancer Michael

Flatley, who is known for his Irish dance shows – Lord of the Dance or Feet of Flames around the world, were Irish and for example actor Bill Murray also has Irish ancestors (Mc Crum et al.; 1986) (Crystal; 1995).

The numerous Irish communities can be found in Boston, New York, New Jersey or Philadelphia. The Saint Patrick's Day is also annually celebrated holiday in the USA as a symbol of national ancestry (Kliff; 2013).

“According to the Census, there are 34.5 million Americans who list their heritage as either primarily or partially Irish. That number is, incidentally, seven times larger than the population of Ireland itself (4.68 million). Irish is the second-most common ancestry among Americans, falling just behind German” (Kliff; 2013).

5. ANGLO-IRISH, HIBERNO-ENGLISH or IRISH ENGLISH?

When dealing with English spoken in Ireland it is necessary to mention that although most inhabitants of Ireland use English as their mother tongue nowadays, English had to fight against Irish for its supremacy over centuries which led to the formation of a new variety of English called Irish English (Hildegard, Tristram; 2004).

It is necessary to explain the three basic terms used in connection with the term Irish English. The following three terms are frequently used when reading linguistic books, but we can find differences of explanations among various linguists.

According to Hickey (2007: 3) the term with the longest tradition, but, on the other hand, most problematic, is the term *Anglo-Irish* used in literature, politics, etc. It is defined by him as "...a term for English settlers of Ireland as early as 1626" (Hickey; 2007: 3). Another linguist, Hogan (quoted in Filppula; 1991: 34) says that Anglo-Irish "... covers the English language as spoken in Ireland in general and can be further divided into Medieval or Middle Anglo-Irish and Modern Anglo- Irish" (Filppula: 34). Markko Filppula comments it by saying that this term refers today to the English literature written by Irish people (also known as "Anglo- Irish" literature) and it is almost never used in recent linguistic and dialectological studies (34).

The second and frequently used term is *Hiberno- English*. The origin of the first element comes from Latin *Hibernia* 'Ireland' (Hickey; 2007: 4). Filppula claims that 'Hiberno-English' started to be used by many linguists such as Lass, Ó hÚrdail or Britton and Fletcher as a general term for the Irish dialects of English (35).

Together with an expert on Hiberno-English Terence Dolan, Filppula also belongs to the group of scholars who prefer using this term rather than Irish English, because it is understood by him as established enough in linguistic literature and international usage (Filppula: 35) ("Irish-English explained"; 2012). Dolan also adds that the term Hiberno-English is used in Ireland since the nineteenth century by various writers and scholars (for example Seamus Heaney used this term in his introduction to the translation of *Beowulf*) and

points out that relations between Irish and English are “...kind of unruly shotgun marriage together, fighting all the time over the centuries, for syntax, pronunciation, vocabulary, idiom”(Amador-Moreno; 2007). It means that there is a considerable connection between the two originally heterogenous and independent languages which both had a strong background and there is undoubtedly hardly any place where English had to fight with another language as much in Ireland (Amador-Moreno; 2007).

Irish English is defined by Hickey as “... a more neutral label which refers to varieties of English in Ireland and is parallel to labels such as Canadian English or Australian English” (2007: 5). Dolan, on the other hand, denies the term Irish English and states that it is not a good term for English spoken in Ireland as it makes it similar to Australian, Canadian or American English which is not correct (Amador-Moreno; 2007).

In conclusion, it is quite difficult for us to choose one of the terms above which could better refer to the English language used in Ireland. But, usually, scholars and authors of the linguistic books decide to choose Hiberno-English or Irish English as Anglo- Irish is considered to be obscene nowadays. In this thesis the terms Irish English and Hiberno-English are going to be used respecting the terminology of various linguistics.

6. Irish English Grammar

As professor Terence Dolan states, there are three main components of Irish English: the spoken world's grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation ("Irish English explained"; 2012). After reading a chapter about the history of English in Ireland one could recognize that Irish English is undoubtedly based on the Irish language which also influenced its grammar. In this chapter basic and most typical grammatical features of Irish English will be mentioned.

It is necessary for one to define the term Standard English because this chapter also deals with differences between Standard English and Irish English. Hannah and Trudgill define Standard English as "...the variety of the English language which is normally employed in writing and spoken by educated speakers in England with minor differences in Wales, Scotland, New Zealand and South Africa. It is also a variety of English taught during the studies of English as a Foreign or Second Language (EFL/ESL) when receiving formal instruction" (1985:1). Standard English is connected mainly with grammar and vocabulary rather than with pronunciation (*accent*) (Hannah, Trudgill: 1, 2).

1. The syntactic feature of Hiberno-English which best reflects the 'mismatch' between Irish and Standard English is so-called '*after perfect*' (Fillpula: 99). This aspect is one type of Perfective aspects (Britain: 146). It could be also expressed by the terms such as 'immediate perfective' or '*hot news*' perfective and it is made by following construction (Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013).

after + V-ing (+ O) (Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013).

This structure is used in order to express information which is considered to be unknown to the hearer (Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013). *After* is followed by a continuous form of the verb and it could be only found with non-stative verbs (Hickey; 2007:18).

- a. *He's after breaking the glass*

(He has just broken the glass) (Hickey; 2007: 18)

- b. *They're after leaving off more than 20 workers.*

(They have just left off more than 20 workers)

(Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013)

This construction is used with the adverb '*just*' in Standard English which made the time more precise. There is no doubt that this feature originates from Irish and similar construction could be also found in the Scottish Gaelic (Fillpula: 99). "The Irish construction comprises the 'substantive' verb *tá* 'be', followed by the subject, the preposition *tréis* 'after' (originally *tar* 'éis) and the verbal noun" (Fillpula:101). This could be illustrated by following examples:

"Tá sé tréis imeacht.

(lit. 'He's after going')

'He has just gone.'

Greene(quoted in Fillpula: 101)

2. The second type of Perfective aspect is the Resultative perfective (Britain: 146). The structure of resultative perfective reflects intentional action expressed by placing the object before the past participle, but one can also see the variance between the structures such as *Past Participle+ Object* (see example c. below) (Hickey; 2007: 18).
- a. *She has the meal prepared* (the meal is now ready) (Hickey; 2007: 18)
- b. *I've the room hovered* (the room in now clean)
- (Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013)
- c. *Have you 'Ulysses' read?* (Are you finished reading the novel?)
- (Hickey; "The Syntax of Irish English", 2013)

Resultative perfect, called by Fillpula '*medial-object*' perfect, is used mainly with transitive verbs but sometimes also with dynamic verbs of activity or accomplishment (108). Fillpula also gives examples of the most common verbs used in this perfect such as *do, make, build, get, and forget* (108).

This feature is again used because of the strong influence of Irish model (see example below) which uses "...‘substantive’ verb *tá* ‘be’ (as opposed to the ‘copula’ *is* ‘be’), followed by the syntactic subject, the past participle and, at the end of the phrase, the prepositional pronoun denoting the logical subject" (Fillpula: 110).

He has it written.

Tá sé scríobhtha aige.

‘Is it written at-him.’ (Henry; 1957:177, quoted in Fillpula: 110)

Both Resultative and Immediate perfectives are typical for all varieties of Irish English (Hickey; 2007: 18).

3. Another aspect used in Hiberno-English is a *habitual aspect* which is expressed by the construction ‘do + *be*’ or ‘*bees*’ or inflectional – *s* in the first person singular (Britain: 146).
 - a. I *do be* drunk (I am habitually drunk) (Trudgill, Hannah: 94).
 - b. He *does be* working in the evening (Hickey; 2007: 18).
 - c. The boys *bees up* late at night (Britain: 146).
4. The feature which helps one to indicate Irish English is the implementation of singular forms of the verb with plural subject. This is another example of Irish influence as the verb form does not change into plural either in Irish. One may notice that many Hiberno-English speakers use the singular form with plural subjects but it is a consequence of using of the Irish language (Dolan; 2004: 26).

There *was* fifteen people there (Dolan; 2004: 26).
5. Another example of non-standard English grammar in Hiberno-English is the use of ‘*be*’ as an auxiliary verb together with progressive verbal form (Dolan; 2004: 26).

Be starting your tea (Dolan; 2004: 26).

6. As Dolan states, there is also a difference between the use of forms ‘*will*’ and ‘*shall*’ when describing emphatic or normal future in the Standard English grammar. Nevertheless there is no distinction between these two in Hiberno-English and the form of *wil* is used with all pronouns in emphatic situations while the *shall* is used either in Hiberno English, Scottish English, Northern Irish English or North American English relatively rare. This may be caused by influence of Irish because there is only one form for the future in native Irish language (‘*inseoidh*’ – I shall/will tell). The strange choice of future forms in Hiberno- English dates back to Old English when the present tenses were used to express the future. But in Early Middle English the two verbs ‘*willan*’ and ‘*sceolan*’ were figured out and they started to be used in future sentences (Dolan; 2004: 25, 26). However, the speakers of Hiberno-English ignored these changes and that is the reason why the sentences such as “Will we go to bed?” (Trudgill, Hannah: 94) are used (Trudgill, Hannah: 94).
7. Very frequently used in Irish English are progressive verb forms based on the Irish progressive imperatives (‘*ná bí ag caint*’) which are classified by the prescriptions of Standard English grammar as a non-standard features of English as well (Dolan; 2004: 26).

I'm seeing it very well (Trudgill, Hannah: 94)

8. Although Standard English use ‘*if*’ or ‘*whether*’ to make indirect questions; Hiberno-English speakers try to avoid them; so an indirect question is made by the switch of word-order in the original questions (Dolan; 2004: 26).

I wonder has he come (Hiberno-English)

I wonder *if* he has come (other varieties of English)

(Trudgill, Hannah: 95)

9. The use of epistemic negative ‘*must*’ while Standard English use *can't*. (Britain: 146) Except of Liverpool dialect, most of people in England do not know this feature but it is also common in Australia and the USA (Crystal; 1995: 338).

He *musn't* be Scottish. (Britain: 146)

10. The conjunction 'and' (Irish '*agus*') is used in wider range in Irish language rather than in English which enabled Hiberno-English to connect a finite clause with non-finite clause to form subordinate adverbial clause (Trudgill, Hannah: 95).

It only struck me and you going out of the door
(the most probable variety used instead of *and* is *when* or *while*)

(Trudgill, Hannah: 95)

11. The typical of Hiberno-English is also '*negative concord*', sometimes called '*double negation*', which deals with the relation rule between verb and its complement. When the verb is negated then any part of verb's complement is negated as well. This rule probably dates back to the eighteenth century when various English and Irish writers used it in their works. It is known among all varieties of Irish English (Hickey; 2007: 269, 270).

- a. And still he wasn't giving me no money. (Hickey; 2007: 270)
b. He is not interested in no cars. (Britain: 146)

12. One can recognize that there is a lower frequency of the use 'yes' and 'no' answers in Irish English. Instead of the two mentioned above verb phrases are used (Trudgill, Hannah: 95).

- a. Is it time? It is
b. Did he come? He did not (Trudgill, Hannah: 95)

13. Clefting for topicalisation purposes is another example of distinctive features in Hiberno-English. This means that the topic is moved to the beginning of the sentence and the redundant personal pronoun is added after proper noun to put emphasis on it (Britain: 146), (Dolan; 2004: 27). Crystal adds that cleft sentences are results of the Gaelic influence (Crystal: 338).

- a. It is to Glasgow he is going. (Britain: 146)
- b. Mr McGuire, he read his poems to me. (Dolan; 2004: 27)

14. Hiberno-English can be characterized, for instance, by the distinction between second singular and plural personal pronouns which is not contained in British and American English (Britain: 146). This is one of many features which are common for both Hiberno-English and the Irish language. (Irish ‘*tú*’ (for singular you) derives from ‘*sibh*’ (you plural)) As most plurals in English were formed by - *s* addition, the plural form was probably adopted into Hiberno-English language by the early Hiberno-English speakers (Dolan 2004: 26). However, this feature is also typical for other varieties of English in Liverpool, Glasgow, Australia or many parts of North America (Crystal: 338). (Afro-American English use ‘*you*’ and ‘*yous*’ to distinguish singular and plural forms of personal pronouns) (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985).

Second singular pronoun *ye* [ji]

Second plural pronoun *youse* (Crystal: 338)

So I said to our Jill and Mary: *Youse* wash the dishes. (Nodquist; 2010).

15. The special use of definite article ‘*the*’ is influenced by the Irish language where could be found any indefinite article (like ‘*a*’ or ‘*an*’ in Standard English) (Dolan; 2004: 26).

- a. She came home for *the* Christmas . (Dolan; 2004: 26)
- b. *The* wife (=‘my wife’) will be expecting me (Crystal; 1995: 338)

16. ‘*Let*’ can be used not only with the first and the third personal pronouns but also with the second person imperatives. (Trudgill, Hannah: 94) As Dolan (2004: 26) adds *Let* could be substituted by *leave* in some parts of Ireland (see example b.).

- a. *Let* you stay here. (= stay here) (Trudgill, Hannah: 94)
- b. *Leave* you get to bed. (Dolan, 2004: 26)

The other features typical for Irish English:

17. '*Those*' is replaced by '*them*' which is used as a demonstrative (Dolan; 2004: 27).

a. You all know all *them* things (Dolan; 2004: 27).

b. *Them* shoes in the hall (Britain: 146).

18. '*That*' is also preferred as a relative pronoun, but, on the other hand, it is also often omitted (see Dolan's example below) (Britain: 147), (Dolan; 2004: 27).

a. This is the book *that* I read (Britain: 147).

b. I know the builder will do the job for you (Dolan, 2004: 27).

19. Time reference for '*never*' is singular as a consequence of the English input (Britain: 147, 148).

She *never* rang yesterday evening (Britain: 147).

20. Use of positive '*anymore*' which is also used in some US Midland dialects (Crystal; 1995: 338).

He fights a lot *anymore* (Crystal; 1995: 338).

6.1 Typical grammatical features of Northern Irish English (NlIrEng)

Many grammatical features of NlIrEng which differs from Standart English are also typical for Scottish English or SIlrEng (Trudgill, Hannah: 90, 91). Grammatical features characteristic mainly for NlIrEng are, for instance:

1. ‘*For-to*’ infinitives of purpose (frequently used among older speakers in Belfast) which may originate to Irish which use preposition + verbal noun construction in a similar function (Britain: 132,133).

He went to Dublin *for to* buy a car (Britain: 147).

2. The use of ‘*whenever*’ which refers to the single occasion while in other Englishes *when* is used (Britain; 2007: 132). This grammatical feature could be also found in New Zealand or parts of Australia (Crystal; 1995: 338).

Whenever my baby was born, I became depressed.

(‘When my baby was born...’)

(Trudgill, Hannah: 90)

Subordinating *and*, perfect aspect or habitual *be* are another examples of features used in NlIrEng (Britain, 128–131).

6.2 Typical grammatical features of Southern Irish English (SIlrEng)

The differences between SIlrEng and NlIrEng are mainly found in the speech rather those in grammar. Apart from the use of simple past tense when the past perfect is required (see example below) the other grammatical features such ‘*yes*’ and ‘*no*’ use, indirect questions made by question-inversion, the use of ‘*Let*’ with the second person or habitual actions created by placing ‘*do*’ could be mentioned (Trudgill, Hannah: 94).

The use of simple past tense

SIrEng *If I saw her, he would not have done it*

Other Eng *If he had seen her, he would not have done it*

(Trudgill, Hannah: 94)

In conclusion, it is obvious from linguistic literature that different authors; Britain, (2007), Crystal (1995), Dolan (2007), Fillpula (1999), Hickey (2007) and Trudgill, Hannah (1985) use various grammatical features to describe Hiberno-English. Ones linguistics books are more precise, while others give the reader the main idea of constructions and different grammar structures used in Irish English.

Among grammatical features used in Irish English the influence of Irish could be recognized. Subordinating *and*, clefting for topicalisation purposes, distinctive form of second singular and plural of personal pronouns, the use of indefinite article or singular forms of verb with plural subject are suggested to be of Irish origin (Britain: 147,148).

On the other hand, the grammar of Irish English has been affected also by English input which could be exemplified by the use of reduced number of forms, pronoun ‘them’ as demonstrative or verb ‘be’ as auxiliary (Britain: 147,148).

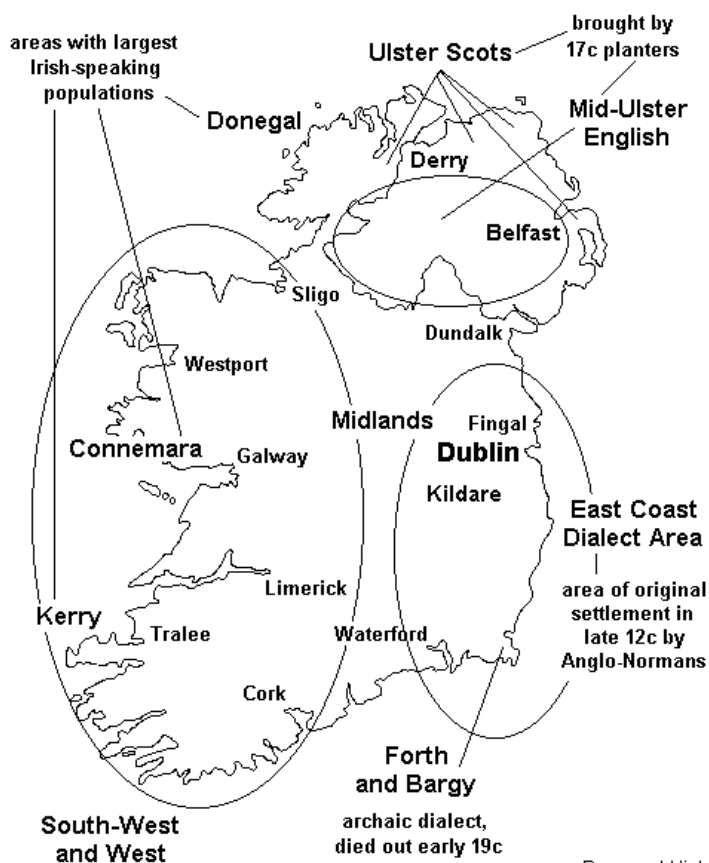
As Dolan states even non-Irish people who have the knowledge of Standard English Grammar have difficulties with Irish grammar (“Irish English explained”; 2012).

7. Dialects of Irish English

Irish English is most frequently divided into two main groups: Northern Irish English and Southern Irish English. The distinction of north accents is immediately recognized by southerners, as the north was significantly influenced by the settlers from the Scottish Lowlands. There are also mixed accents with the features of both northern and southern types which could be heard, for example, in Managhan, Cavan or Louth (Britain: 142). Although Ireland is politically divided into the Republic of Ireland (Eire) and Northern Ireland one can hear the dialects of Southern Irish English in southern areas of Northern Ireland and, on the other hand, in some areas of the Republic, such as Donegal, the speech or Northern Irish English is typical (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 90).

The dialect regions of varieties of English in Ireland are showed on the map below (Figure 5). The map also shows two archaic baronies dialects which died out in the nineteenth century – Forth and Bargo (Hickey; “Dialects in Ireland”).

Figure 5 Dialects in Ireland (Hickey; “Dialects in Ireland”)



Raymond Hickey
Summer 2005

7.1 Northern Irish English- NlrEng

English of the north of Ireland is based predominantly on the language of the Scottish settlers who came to the country together with the settlers from the north and Midlands of England in the seventeenth century. The Scots-speaking areas on the north were isolated from the south English speaking areas by the Irish-speaking territory. As a consequence, there is a noticeable language contrast between Ulster-Scots varieties, highly influenced by the Scots in the north and Mid-Ulster varieties (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 90).

When considering vowel phonology one can distinguish three major regional varieties of Northern Irish English (Britain; 2007: 123).

According to Kevin McCafferty (quoted in Britain; 2007: 123) the most spread variety of Northern Irish English is *Mid-Ulster English* which is spoken mainly in the large centres such as Belfast, Derry or smaller town of Lurgan. In addition, Todd (quoted in Britain; 2007: 123) divided dialects of rural Mid Ulster English on Tyrone, Fermanagh and Armagh dialects (Britain; 2007: 123).

The second variety- *Ulster Scottish* occupies three coastal areas of Ulster: north and east Down (most of Antrim), north-east Co (London) Derry and Laggan district of north- east Donegal (Britain; 2007: 123). What is interesting is the fact that “Ulster Scots has been recognized by the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages and, although there is no attempt to classify it as a language in The Good Friday agreement of 1998, Ulster Scots is cited as part of the cultural wealth of the island of Ireland” (“Northern Ireland: Accents and Dialects”).

The third traditional speech in Northern Ireland which could be heard in the east-west band of Ireland is called *South Ulster English* (Britain: 123).

7.1.2 Pronunciation

The speech of Northerners is like Scottish considered being rhotic as speakers pronounce an < r > after a vowel in words such as *'farm'*, *'first'*, *'better'* etc. The vowel system is ,in general, more resembling to the Scottish English rather than that to English in England or the Republic of Ireland (“Northern Ireland: Accents and Dialects”).

Although NIrEng was significantly influenced by the original Scottish language a pronunciation differences could be found. For example the vowel /e/ can be diphthongized so the word *bay* will be pronounced as [bei]. In addition, intervocalic /t/ is frequently a voiced flap [d] and /l/ is pronounced as a clear [l] in most of Northern Ireland English-speaking areas. The short vowel /ʊ/ and long vowel /ɔ:/ sounds differently but only before /p, t, k/ – so there is a distinction in the pronunciation of words *'cot* and *'caught* which in Scottish English sound homophonous (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 90).

“Many speakers, especially the older ones in rural communities still keep the pronunciation of older conservative forms of English that could be distinguished by inserting a <y> sound after initial <k> or <g> (car, garden) which are pronounced like [kyarr] and [gyarrden]” (“Northern Ireland: Accents and Dialects”).

“Generally, Northern Irish accent is defined by a perceptible tendency to raise the pitch toward the end of speech, even if the speaker is not asking any question” (“Northern Ireland: Accents and Dialects”).

7.2 Southern Irish English-SIrENG

There is little regional differentiation in the south of Ireland in comparison to the north. Britain divides the south from the linguistic point into two large areas: the east coast (including Dublin) where the first Englishes settled in the late Middle Ages, the south and west-the areas where Irish survived the longest time and significantly influenced the English language (Britain: 142,144).

7.2.1 Pronunciation

When dealing with the pronunciation of vowels one can distinguish, for example, the pronunciation of /ɔ:/ in the words *hoarse* or *mourning* rather than /ou/ so these words sound the same as *horse* or *morning*. Vowel /u:/ is pronounced in words like *book* or *cook* instead of /ʊ/. Words like *dance* or *path* often have /æ/ instead of /a/ [pat]. This feature does not occur in Dublin speech which plays a significant role among Southern dialects. Words like *doll*, *lost* or *wrong* which may be pronounced in RP¹ with /ʊ/ may have /ɔ:/ in SIrEng (Trudgill, Hannah: 92) (Britain: 144).

In the informal speech of SIrEng speaker the word *tea* may be pronounced: /teɪ/ = [t^he:], as the vowel /i:/ is used rather than /ei/. This is also used by NIrEng speakers. In addition, there is an opposition between vowels /ai/ and /ɔi/ which is neutralized in favour of /ai/ so *oil* will be /ail/ (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 92, 93).

SIrEng is like NIrEng rhotic. Consonant such as /l/ is clear in all positions [l] which during articulation mean that the tongue is moved against the centre of alveolar ridge and the escape of air could be round either or both sides (*please*, *sleep*) (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 93) (Crystal, 1995: 245). A dental stop realization in words *thin* [tin] and *this* [dis] can serve as a good illustration of the influence of Irish phonetic and phonology (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 93).

In this chapter one could see the phonological diversity between Northern and Southern Irish English. Northerners speech is affected by the Scottish influence but there are several phonological features which are used in both – SIrEng and NIrEng. However, there are recognized a differences among particular dialects which belong either to Northern Irish English or Southern Irish English so it is relatively difficult to describe all varieties of spoken vowels and consonants in particular words. Trudgill and Hannah (1985) or Hickey (2007) used records to fix and study the pronunciation in various parts of Ireland.

Foreigners and immigrants consider spoken Irish English unintelligible as they find Irish people speaking ‘so fast’ and it is also difficult for them to understand the rural Irish accents (“Irish English explained”; 2012).

¹ RP abbreviation stands for Received Pronunciation and it refers to the English speech of educated and cultivated people across Britain which is also taught in the great public schools. (Baugh, Cable:2002:315)

7.3 Scouse

Scouse is one of the accents closely connected to Ireland and spoken mainly in the city of Liverpool. It became world-famous because of a phenomenal music group – the Beatles. The word ‘*scouse*’ derives from the name of Scandinavian dish ‘*Labskaus*’ popular among sailors which was a favourite dish in Liverpool at the end of the nineteenth century (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

Liverpool was a significant trade centre including the trade with slaves in the eighteenth century. In addition, it became the second biggest city and the most important port of British Empire in the early nineteenth century which led to the numerous visits of the city by passengers and crew ships during their voyages(Honeybone; 2007: 106–140). Because of frequent population movements connected with its favourable geographical position and important function during eighteenth and nineteenth centuries Liverpool is being called ‘*the melting pot of dialects*’ (“Liverpool: Local dialect”; 2008). During the years various forms of languages such as forms of Irish English, Irish Gaelic, Welsh a Scottish were brought to the city. Together with maritime words and Lancashire tones they had created a special form of accent used in Liverpool called *Scouse*. Those who speak in typical Liverpool English are called Scousers or Liverpudlians (“Liverpool: Local dialect”; 2008).

However, by the mid nineteenth century Liverpool English sounded more or less the same as the speech of its neighbour’s city – Lancashire. Nevertheless, the history of the language spoken in Liverpool was hugely affected by the Great Famine during 1845-1850 in Ireland when a large number of native Irish immigrants came to Liverpool (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

There were not many other places for Irish to go instead of going to Liverpool as it was important port from which boats sailed out to the whole world (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140).

There are not many differences between Scouse and Standard English in grammar and vocabulary, as the trade between London and Liverpool had been constantly developing in the past. The differences are mainly phonological (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

An interesting fact about Scouse is that Liverpudlians use adenoidal nasal quality in their speech. It could be caused by respiratory troubles which many people had because of colds and other similar diseases in the nineteenth century. This strange pronunciation related to the poor health of inhabitants of Liverpool started to be considered the norm of the Scousers language and copied by others (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

The typical feature of Liverpool English is so-called *TH stopping*. It means that there is no contrast of alveolar stops with dental fricatives in Scouse dialect (see example 2) unlike in other varieties of English (example 1). Although *TH stopping* can be recognized in Cockney dialect, it is more obvious that this feature comes mainly from the form of Irish English spoken in Southern Ireland (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140).

Example 1

[tɪn] tin : [θɪn] thin [dɛn] den : [ðɛn] then

Example 2

[tɪn] tin : [tɪn] thin [dɛn] den : [dɛn] then

(Honeybone; 2007: 106–140)

Liverpool dialect is also *non rhotic* which means that [r] occurs in pronunciation of Scousers only in case when it is directly followed by a vowel (‘car’, ‘floor’, ‘fur’). All varieties of Irish English and also US and Scottish Standard English are rhotic languages but none of variety of Liverpool dialect is rhotic so there is a possibility that Liverpool accent never became rhotic during the period when it was being formed (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140).

Lenition is one of the typical features of Modern Scouse expressed by underlying plosives are realized in a characteristic as affricates and fricatives which mean that they are more hearted in the words (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140).

expect [ɛkspɛxt] (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140)

The alternation of lenition was brought to Liverpool by Irish migrants who spoke Irish English. There is evidence that this feature used in Irish English originate from Irish Gaelic (Honeybone; 2007: 106–140).

There is no doubt that relatively new variety of dialect – Scouse was introduced to the whole world around the 1963 when the ‘*Beatlemania*’ started and Liverpool sound, originally the middle class accent, which occupied the British media became the symbol of young people in England (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

As other various dialects around the world even in Liverpool there were developed a many own sayings such as ‘*hobby*’ for hospital the ‘*bizzies*’ for police. Scouse is not predominant language across all of Merseyside but, on the other hand, is also spoken in Cheshire and North Wales. Liverpool dialect was affected mainly by Irish English, Welsh and Irish Gaelic and it is still developing. In addition, it is related to famous Liverpool Football Club and its loyal football fans who support their native *Scousers* such as Steven Gerrard or Jamie Carragher on the stadium of Anfield Road (“Liverpool: Local dialect”; 2008). “In the 2007 at the European Cup semi-final football match in which Liverpool defeated Chelsea, a banner at the Kop end of Liverpool's ground proudly proclaimed “We're not English, we are Scouse” (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007). This was a good illustration of the way how much “the Liverpudlians” are proud of their club and particular accent (“Scouse: the accent that defined an era”; 2007).

Figure 6 Proud fans of LFC (SCOUSE, Liverpool site online)



7.4 Cockney

As Terence Dolan quotes, few people know that Cockney language was probably partly affected by Irish immigration to Britain, as the Irish did not want the English to know what they were talking about (“Irish-English explained”; 2012) .

The term Cockney originally stands for “...someone who was born within sound of the Bow Bells of St. Mary-le-Bow Church in Cheapside, London” (Wherrett, 2009: 3). According to Oxford dictionaries the term also refers to “the dialect or accent typical of cockneys” (Oxford dictionaries online; 2013).

According to Vorel (2006: 96) Cockney, also called rhyming slang, is a variety of language between slang and argot used by low social classes in the East End of London. At the turn of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries most of people in this part of London were known to make a living unlawfully which led to the necessity to create a new distinctive and for policemen and grass incomprehensible language (Vorel; 2006: 96).

There are three possible theories about the development of Cockney described by Duncan Wherrett in the book *A dictionary of Cockney rhyming slang* (2009):

1. It was developed as a good- humoured joking by Cockneys so that outside, such as the gangs navvies working on canal and railway construction could not understand them.
2. It was started by thieves and criminals to communicate in public without being understood by outsiders.
3. An oppressed minority developing a secret language as a defence measure to give them a bit more inner strength.

(Wherrett; 2009: 4)

The characteristic features of Cockney are its pronunciation and non-traditional grammar. The widely different pronunciation is considered by native speakers as an inferior and under-estimated. Nevertheless, the most special feature of this dialect is the creation of

the new words which refer to the different things than those to which they are supposed to refer to. This makes this dialect unintelligible even to the native speakers (Vorel; 2006: 96).

According to Wherret Cockney dialect usually is usually created by two words or a short phrase. The word situated on the last place of phrase rhymes with the target word. When considering the meanings there is practically no relationship between the phrase and target word except the fact that they rhyme together. However, in the speech only the first word of collocation, which is not the rhymed one, is used (Wherrett; 2009: 3).

The origin of the rhyming collocations and phrase come from everyday words but also from, for example, world-wide London characters (Harry Nash, Jack the Ripper), places (Albert Hall) or Music hall performers (Kate Karney, Gertie Lee). There is also one extra phrase '*Barnaby Rudge*' (in Cockney dialect- judge) which probably originates from one of Charles Dickens characters who used this slang in his novels just as Irish writer G.B. Shaw in his play *Pygmalion* did. But there were other sources which created new words of Cockney dialect as well, especially in Ireland, Glasgow, Australia or America (Wherrett; 2009: 4).

Cockney words which originate from Ireland are following:

Rory O`More – door

cowhide- wide, i. e. aware of

Glasgow boat- coat

chocolate trifle- rifle

(Wherrett; 2009: 4)

Wherrett also states that not many people know about the words of Cockney origin used in everyday English (3). One can mentioned an examples such as words '*raspberry*' or '*Berk*' or the phrase '*Use your loaf*' which is defined by Cambridge online dictionary as "used to tell someone in a slightly angry way that they should think more carefully about what they are doing"(Cambridge dictionaries online: 2013).

Wherret (2009) gives an examples of Proper names used in Cockney:

People

Conan Doyle	–	boil (51)
Harry Nash	–	cash (54)
Irish Mike	–	bike (51)
Jack and Jill	–	hill (62), till (<i>cash</i>) (77)
Moly Malone	–	phone (68)
Oliver Twist	–	fist (59)
Robin Hood	–	good (38)
Rory O'More	–	floor, door (38)
Sweeny Todd	–	flying squad (41)
Tom Thumb	–	rum (42)
Duchess of Fife	–	wife (80)
Duke of Kent	–	rent (71)
Duke of York	–	chalk, cork, fork, talk, walk (19)
Pope of Rome	–	home (62)

Geographical names

Dublin tricks	–	bricks (53)
France and Spain	–	rain (71)
Scottish real	–	peel (39)
Glasgow boat	–	coat (55)
Irish rose	–	nose (<i>mainly drunk's red nose</i>) (67)
Irish jig	–	wig (25)

Other Vocabulary

beer	–	pig's ear, far and near, oh my dear, premier(50)
engineer	–	Ginger beer (57)
flowers	–	happy hours, yours and ours, April showers (59)
grasshopper	–	copper (<i>police informer</i>) (22)
money	–	bees and honey, pot of honey, sugar and honey(66)

In conclusion, this amusing and distinctive form of speech which is obscure even to native speakers is constantly being developed and used by many English-speaking countries. Although many inhabitants of East End of London moved to a new places in Britain (Basildon and Harlow) they took their slang with them (“Cockney Rhyming Slang”). Nowadays modern names could be also found in Cockney dialect which could be illustrated by the name of a famous American female singer, *Britney Spears*, which in Cockney slang refers to the words ‘ears’ or ‘beers’ (Wherrett; 2009: 13).

According to recent research a mix of Cockney dialect and Bangladeshi is still involving nowadays (“Cockney Rhyming Slang”). Cockney is known to have affected Australian English, as it was the language of criminals imported there from Britain, and in some measure also Black English in South Africa (Vorel; 2006: 96).

8. Irish English lexicon

When talking about lexicon of Irish English Britain (2007) says that some words which survived from Irish Gaelic sound archaic or they are used only in particular region. But although not many people know native Irish language, it is highly used by Irish Englishes in order to flavour the speech (Britain: 149). This flavouring is called '*c'upla focal*' (Irish '*couple of words*') and it originated especially from Irish schools. The words such as '*ci'unas*' (silence), '*piseog*' (superstition), '*sl'ainte*' (health), '*pl'am'as*' (flattery) or archaic '*mad*' (keen on) and '*bold*' (misbehaved) are used in Irish English speech. In addition many of these these loanwords from Irish are highly used in idioms, for example, '*gift of the gab*' ('ability to speak eloquently') (Hickey; 2007: 362, 364).

Words which also serve to make the speech of Irish English more attractive are the words typical of Irish folklore: '*colleen*' (Irish girl), '*leprechaun*' (garden gnome), '*banshee*' (fairy woman) (Hickey; 2007: 364).

Some Irish words used in Irish English have no alternatives in English language but Irish people have a general knowledge of their meaning. One can mention words such as '*Currach*' which is a boat with a wooden frame covered with tarred canvas, '*crannog*' ('lake dwelling', Irish – '*crann'og*') and '*carrageen*' ('edible seaweed', Irish – '*carrraig'in*'). The '*shamrock*', a national symbol of Ireland, which originates from Irish word '*seamr'og*' is probably another example of non-alternative Irish word (Hickey; 2007: 365, 366).

It is usual to find the words with suffix – *een* in Irish English. It is a consequence of Gaelicism used for creation of diminutive forms so one could notice words such as '*children*' or '*girleen*' in Irish English (Crystal; 1995: 338).

“Names for political positions are often referred to by their Irish equivalents, for instance, there is no prime minister or deputy prime minister in Ireland but a '*taoiseach*' and a '*t'anaiste*' ”(Hickey; 2007: 365). Both of these words are, like many other Irish English words, pronounced by using English phonetics (Hickey; 2007: 365).

There are not many Irish borrowings in English. But a good illustration of borrowing is the word ‘*tory*’. It comes from Irish ‘*t’oraidhe*’ ‘a pursued person’ and it started to be used for members of the British Conservative Party in the 1830s but in American English it refers to a colonialist who is loyal to Britain. ‘*Bother*’ and ‘*gob*’ are other loanwords from Irish in English. Because of migration to the USA there are also some Irish borrowings in American English: ‘*so long*’ (Irish *sl’an* ‘goodbye’) or ‘*phoney*’ (Irish *f’ainne* – ‘ring’) (Hickey; 2007: 366, 368).

Some Irish words are used as international terms. Words such as ‘*to boycott*’, ‘*hooligan*’, or ‘*Limerick*’ are used not only in English. The verb ‘*to boycott*’, which refers to refusing to buy particular thing as a protest or refusing to cooperate or participate in particular event, originates from the surname of English land agent Captain Charles Boycott who refused to do reforms required by Irish Land League (1879–81) so he was given a black eye by Irish workmen. ‘*Hooligan*’ as a person who behaves violently and aggressively comes from the personal name of fierce-tempted family described in a song while ‘*Limerick*’ refers to the type of doggerel verse with special rhyme pattern AABBA (Hickey; 2007: 367).

Origins of some words are not certain because it is quite difficult to recognize the source of them. Very often it is ambiguous whether the words originate from Scottish Gaelic or Irish Gaelic as these two languages are more or less similar (Crystal; 1995: 338). However, words of Gaelic influence are mentioned by Crystal (1995) below.

<u>Irish English</u>		<u>Standard English</u>	
backy	-	lame	
bosthoon	-	clown	
cleeve	-	basket	
keerogue	-	cockroach	
kyoch	-	diseased	
sleeveen	-	sly one	
spalpeen	-	rascal	(Crystal; 1995: 338)

Many Scottish English items such as ‘*aye*’, ‘*pinkie*’, or ‘*wee*’ are found in Northern Irish English. One can find words which are known in some parts of Scotland but they are not included in Standard English (Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 91).

<u>NIrEng</u>	<u>Standard English</u>	
to boke	to vomit	
to gunder	to shout	
to wither	to hesitate	
throughother	untidy, messy	(Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 91)

On the other hand words used mainly in Southern Irish English include following:

<u>SIrEng</u>	<u>Standard English</u>	
bold	naughty	
delph	crockery	
fostering	fuss	
yoke	gadget, thing	(Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 91)

8.1 Idioms

	Meaning	
<i>He'd put the day astray on you.</i>	He would waste your day.	
<i>You will knock a while out of it.</i>	It will last for a while.	
<i>He's the rest of yourself.</i>	He is related for you.	(Crystal; 1995:338)

When considering the Scottish-influenced idioms used mainly in NIrEng, the examples below could be mentioned.

ScotEng+ NIrEng

<i>I've got the cold.</i>	I've got a cold
<i>That's me away.</i>	I'm going now
<i>I'll get you home.</i>	I'll take (accompany) you home

(Trudgill, Hannah; 1985: 91)

9. Present-day Irish English and its future

When considering changes in modern Irish English, Dolan quotes the disappearance of expressions connected with the religion (mass, confession or communion). This could be exemplified by the phrase '*he'd say mass for you*' which referred to someone who told lies, but nowadays hardly anybody would have an understanding of this phrase. Some collocations related to rural areas (horses and heifers or milking sheep) are disappearing as well (Amador-Moreno; 2007).

Terence Dolan who had been interviewing people around the whole Ireland says that older people were apologizing to him many times during the interviews that their English is not as good as London accent used by him. In contrast, young people in Ireland are proud of their variety of English. This could be supported by the economic development of the country which means that Ireland became less independent on going to England than it used to be in the past (Amador-Moreno; 2007).

Present-day Irish English is influenced mainly by immigration. It is estimated that over a half a million (approximately one tenth of all population) of non- Irish inhabitants who came predominantly from Eastern Europe live in Ireland. The biggest group of immigrants is created by Poles (100 000- 150 000). What is interesting is the fact that the number of Poles exceeds the number of native Irish speakers so in this relatively small country Poles create a considerable language group (Hickey; 2007: 29). Many Polish immigrants started to use Irish English which could not avoid some distinctive changes but as Dolan states "...it is a normal thing for languages to absorb languages from other countries" (Amador-Moreno; 2007). One can only guess whether Polish will affect the language in Ireland or not (Amador-Moreno; 2007).

There might be also some changes in the future caused by the influence of American English because young people start to use words such as '*like*', '*so*' , '*whatever*' from soap operas as they want to sound trendy (Amador-Moreno; 2007). Britain claims the possible changes of Irish English in the future caused by urban dialects and varieties used by immigrants (Britain: 151).

10. Conclusion

The language spoken in Ireland was undoubtedly affected by numerous waves of migration over the centuries predominantly from Britain. The north was influenced by people who came from Scottish Lowlands which led to the formation of community with characteristic type of language – Ulster Scots, while the East was influenced mainly by English settlers (Crystal; 1995: 336). The first settlers who came to Ireland adapted themselves to the Irish language and habits of native inhabitants and this process continued even after the Normans entered the country in the twelfth century (Alladina, Edwards: 68, 69).

The Irish language resisted various attempts of implementations of the English language to be used as the first language from the thirteenth to the late sixteenth centuries. However, ‘*Penal Laws*’, ‘*transportation*’ and ‘*transplantation*’ introduced by the English government caused that the dominance of Irish became weaker and soon it became the language of lower social class while the knowledge of English meant a better social position. The decline of Irish was also supported by the Great Famine (1845-1850) when a significant number of native Irish speakers left the country and migrated to Britain and the United States.

As a consequence of the long-lasting influence of Irish there were recognized many grammatical, phonological and lexical features of Irish origin in Irish English. In addition, the input of English has to be admitted as well.

Irish and English were established the official languages of Ireland with Irish as the first language. Although English is primarily spoken there, it is necessary to mention that the number of Irish speakers is claimed to be growing nowadays.

Regarding the phonology, among Southern and Northern Irish dialects there are recognized two distinctive accents highly influenced by Irish English – Scouse (spoken in Liverpool) and partly Cockney which is considered to be a rhyming slang.

Irish English is, more or less, changing. This could be exemplified by many phrases or collocations from rural area used in the past which are incomprehensible for contemporary speakers. On the other hand, the young generation start to use several American words in their speech as they want to sound trendy. One can only guess whether the languages of

immigrants in Ireland are going to influence Irish English. There might be some changes in future caused by the language of Poles, because they create a large community in Ireland. But this cannot be predicted.

Although older population underestimate the Irish variety of English, young Irish Englishes are proud of their language. This can be caused by lower dependency of Ireland on England connected with its economic development.

11. Abstract

The bachelor thesis offers an account of the general development of English in Britain and its spread to Ireland – a place where Irish Gaelic had a strong historical background. The thesis deals with grammatical, phonological and lexical areas of Irish English which developed in Ireland as one of varieties of English language.

The paper is supported by pictures and maps to strengthen the main ideas described in the thesis.

12. Resumé

Tato bakalářská práce nabízí pohled do obecného vývoje angličtiny v Británii a její rozšíření do Irska - místa, kde měla Irská gaelština své silné historické zázemí. Práce pojednává o gramatické, fonologické a lexikální rovině Irské angličtiny, která vznikla v Irsku jako jedna z variant Anglického jazyka.

Práce obsahuje obrázky a mapy, které slouží k podpoření hlavních myšlenek zmíněných v textu práce.

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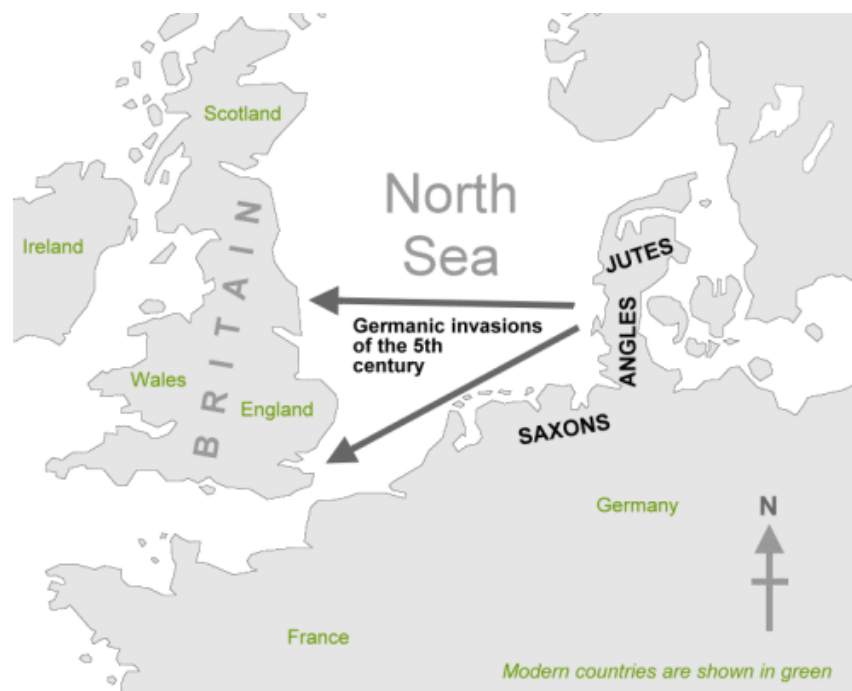
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14. Appendices

Appendix 1

Figure 1 The Germanic invasion in the fifth century



“History of the English Language.” *English Club* [online]. 1997-2013 [cit. 2013-04-25]. Available from: <http://www.englishclub.com/english-language-history.htm>

Appendix 2

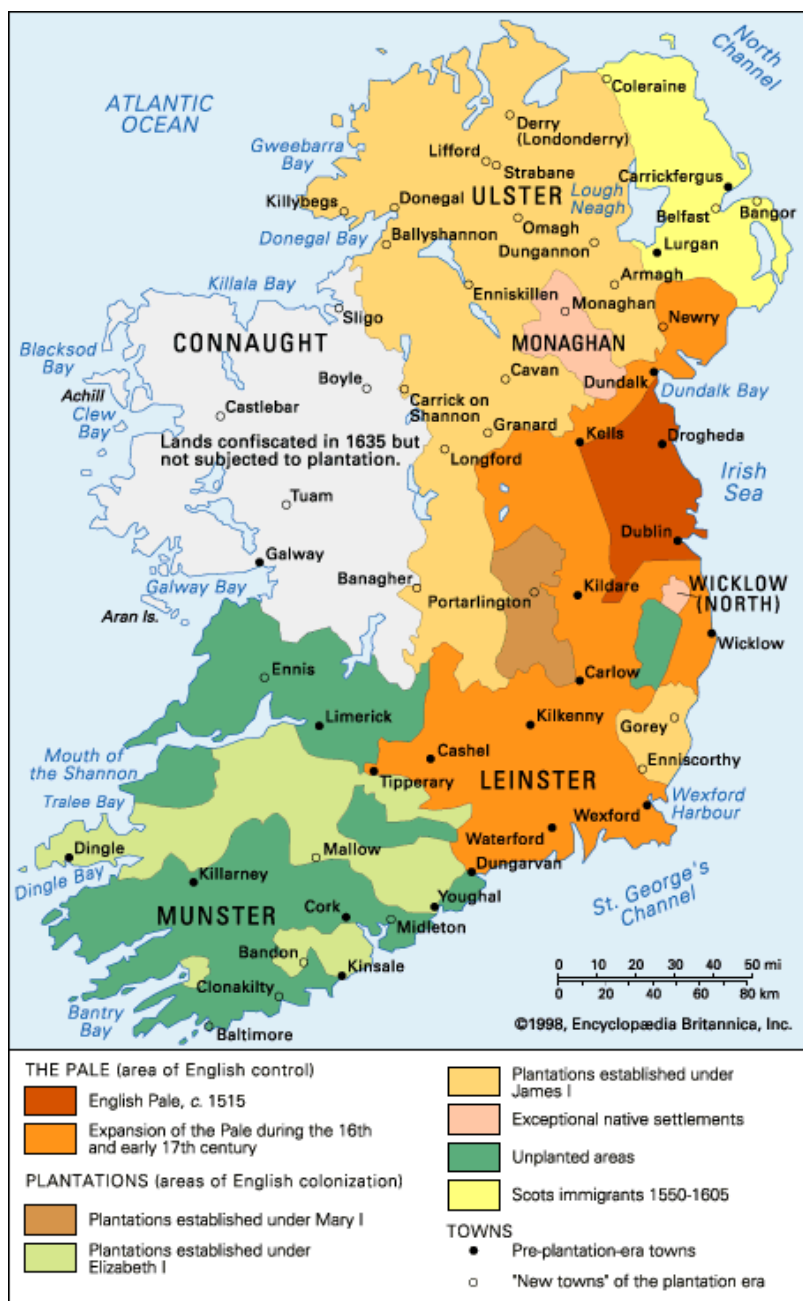
Figure 2 The area of Pale



HICKEY, Raymond. "The area of Pale- Ireland." *Irish English Resource Centre. Universität Duisburg – Essen* [online]. 19 March 2013. Available from: < http://www.uni-due.de/ELE/Ireland_Pale-map.jpg >

Appendix 3

Figure 3 Plantations in Ireland



“Plantations in Ireland”. *University of Florida online* [online]. 17 Octob. 2012 [2013-04-27]. Available from: http://www.clas.ufl.edu/users/harlandj/maps/ireland/ire_plantations.gif

Appendix 4

Figure 4 Areas of Gaeltacht

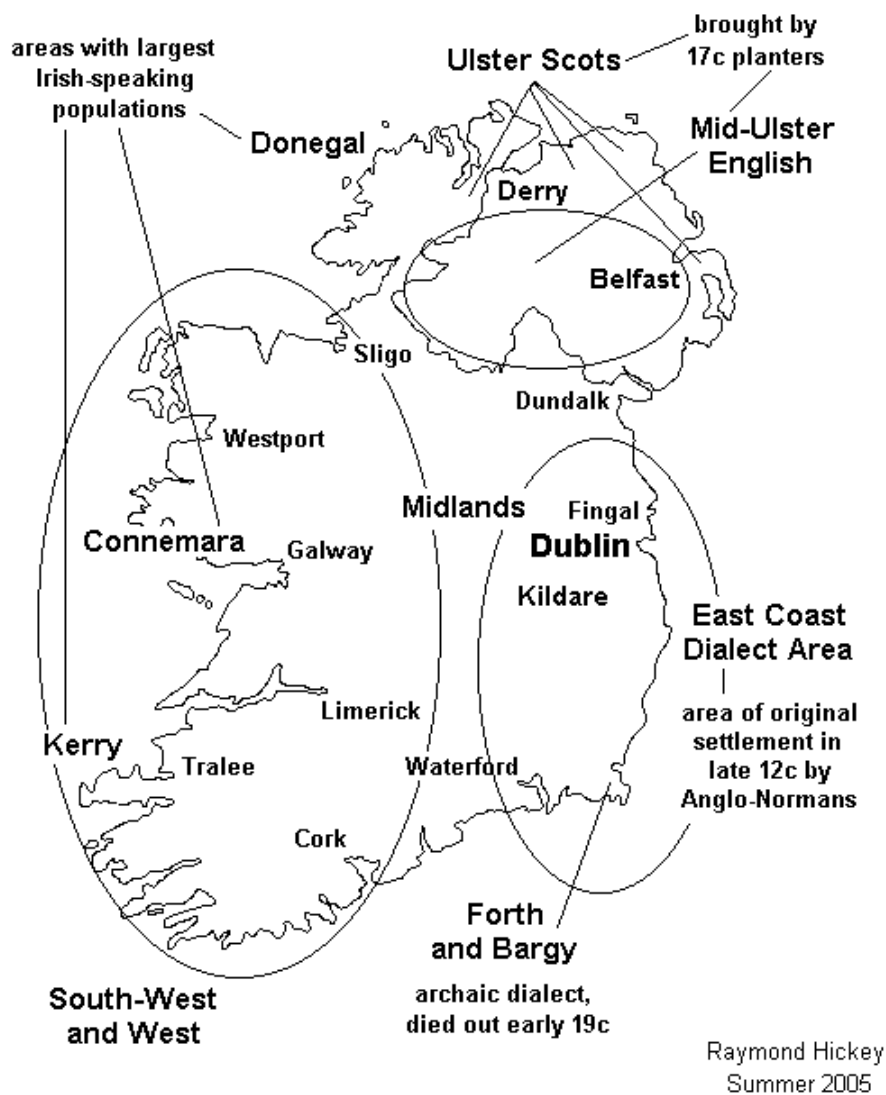


The areas in Ireland today in which native speakers are found in historically continuous communities. Some areas are in a stronger position than others, e.g. North-West Donegal and West Galway have the most vibrant communities whereas North-West & South Mayo, West Kerry, Cape Clear and West Waterford are in a much weaker position. Rathcairn is an entirely transported community (from Galway in the early 20th century).

HICKEY, Raymond. "Irish Dialects." *Irish English Resource Centre. Universität Duisburg – Essen* [online]. 19 March 2013. Available from: <<http://www.uni-due.de/DI/Irish%20Dialects%20Today.GIF>>

Appendix 5

Figure 5 Dialects in Ireland



HICKEY, Raymond. "Dialects in Ireland – Irish dialects today." *Irish English Resource Centre. Universität Duisburg – Essen* [online]. 19 March 2013. Available from: <<http://www.uni-due.de/DI/Irish%20Dialects%20Today.GIF>>

Appendix 6

Figure 6 Proud fans of LFC



“Proud fans of LFC, Scouse”. *Liverpoolsite* [online]. [2013-04-27]. Available from:
<http://www.liverpoolsite.com/wiki/Scouse>