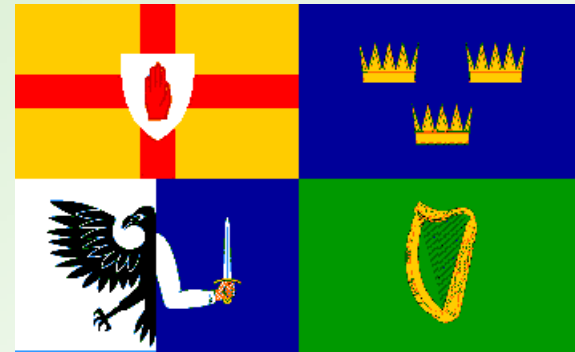
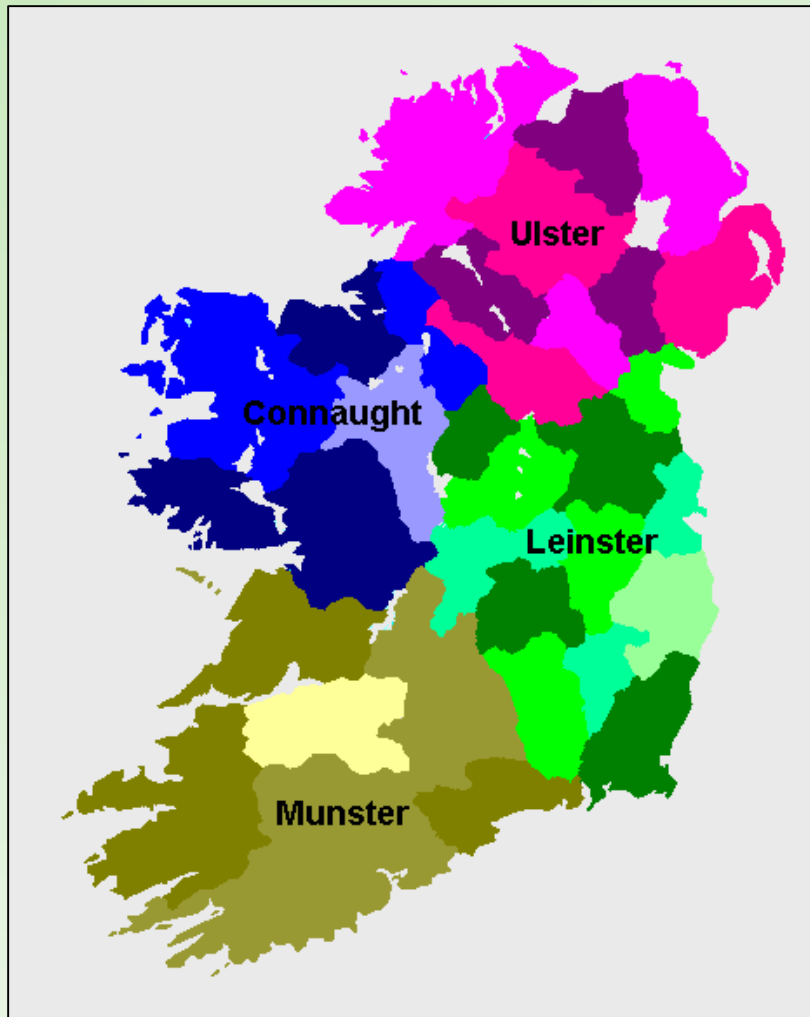
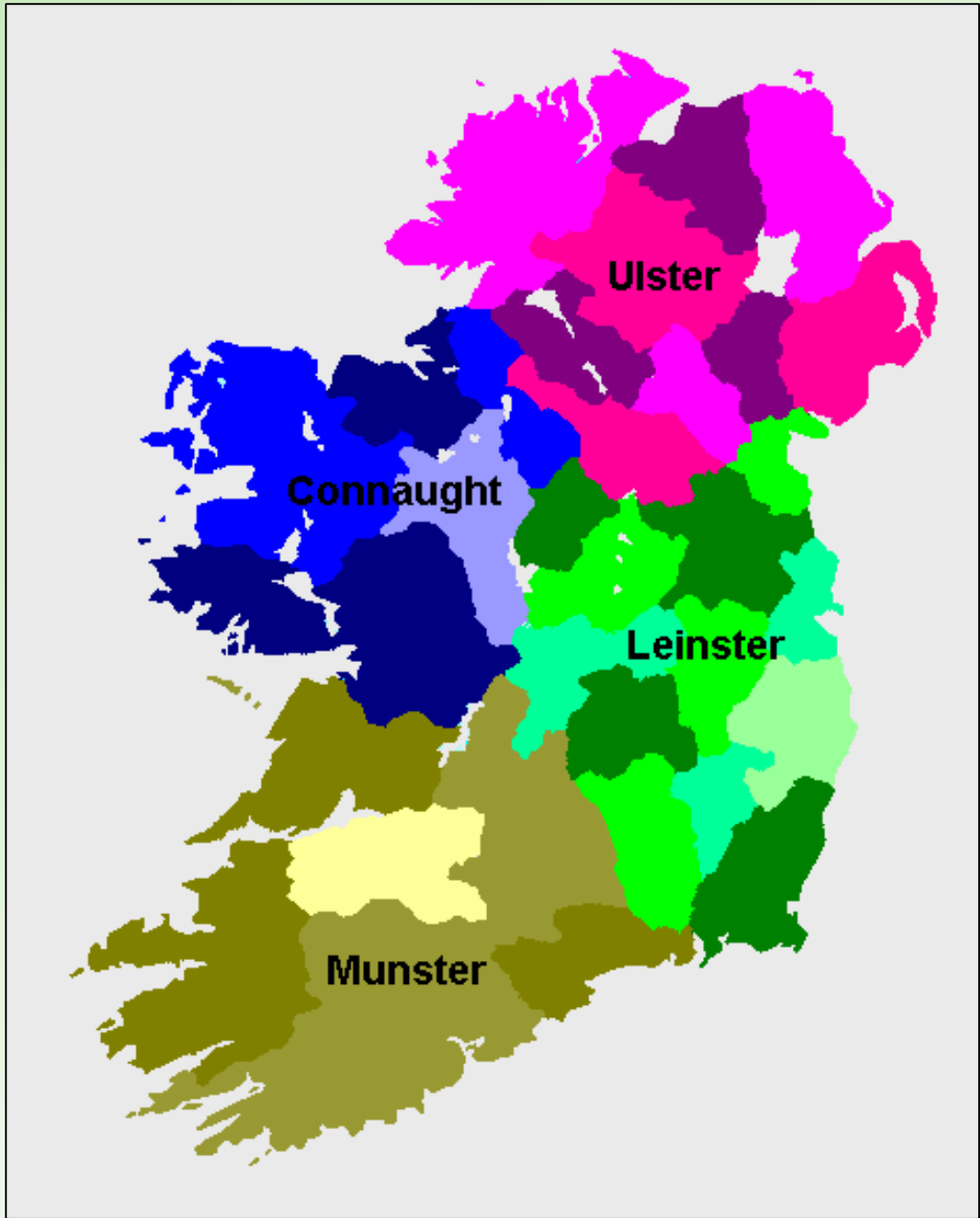


The English Language in Ireland







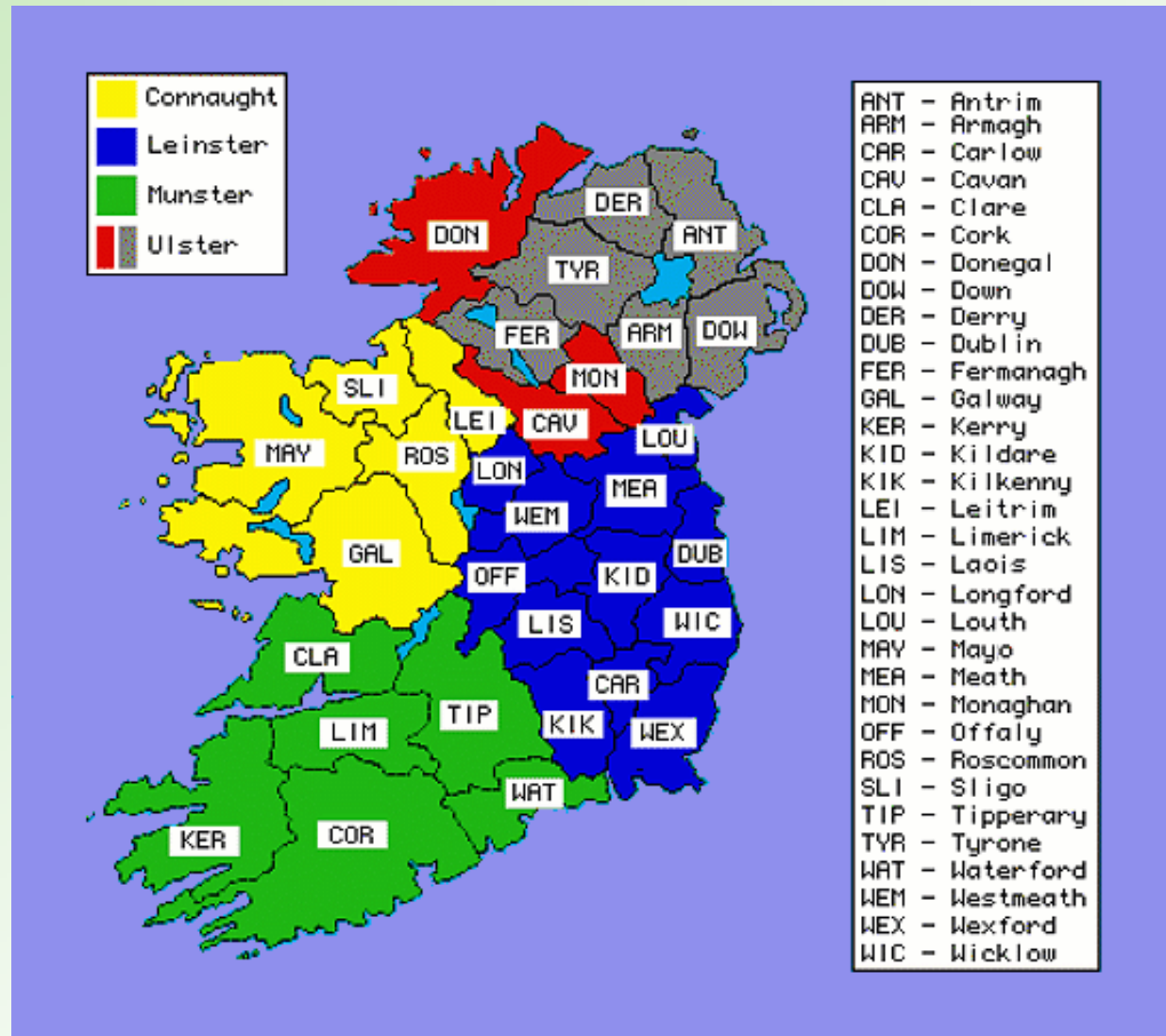
The Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland (UK)

Northern Ireland
(grey counties, most
in Ulster) is part of
the United Kingdom.
Population: c. 1.5m.

Majority: Protestant
(nominally)

The remainder of the
country is the
Republic of Ireland,
population 4 m.

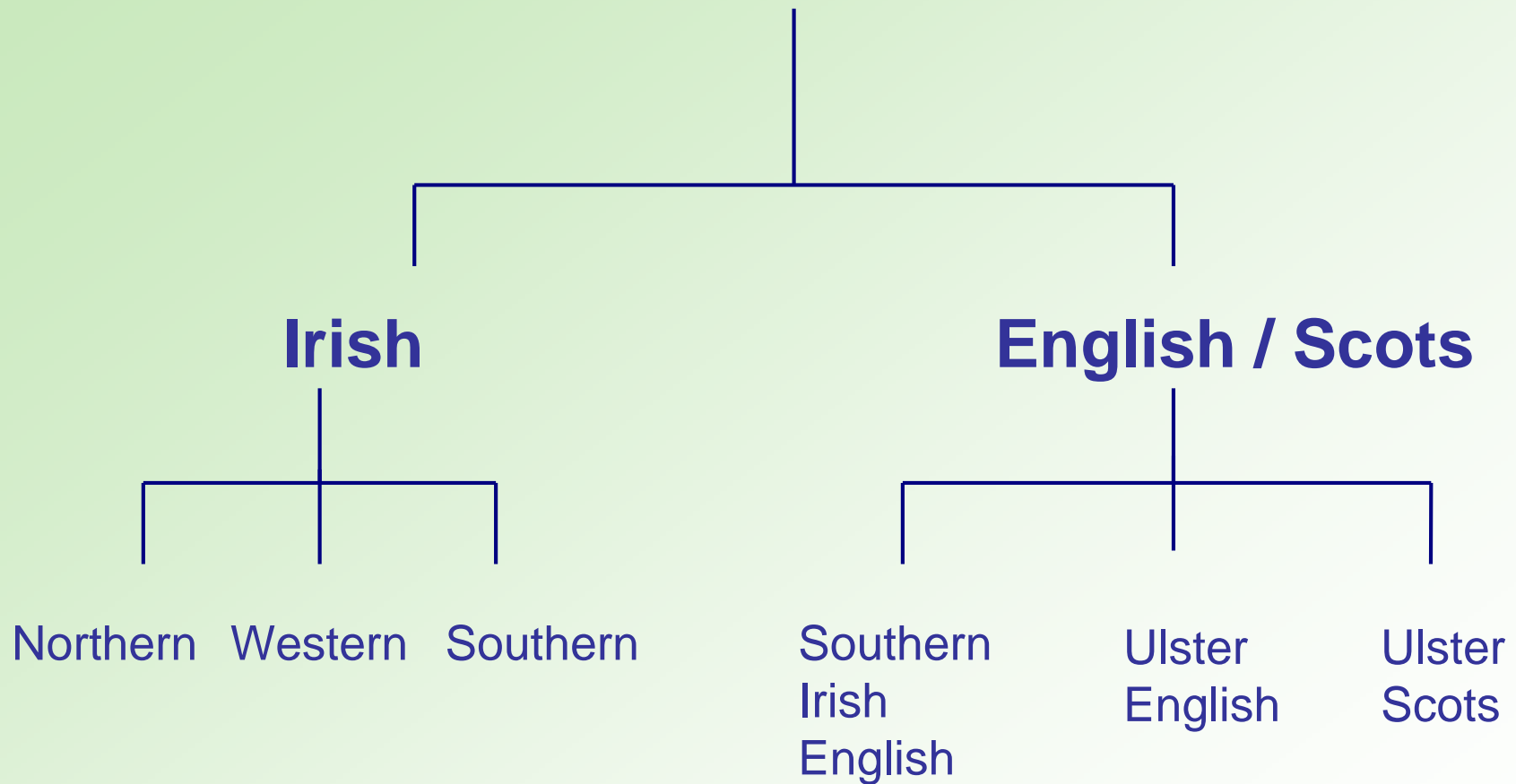
Majority: Catholic
(nominally)







Language varieties in Ireland



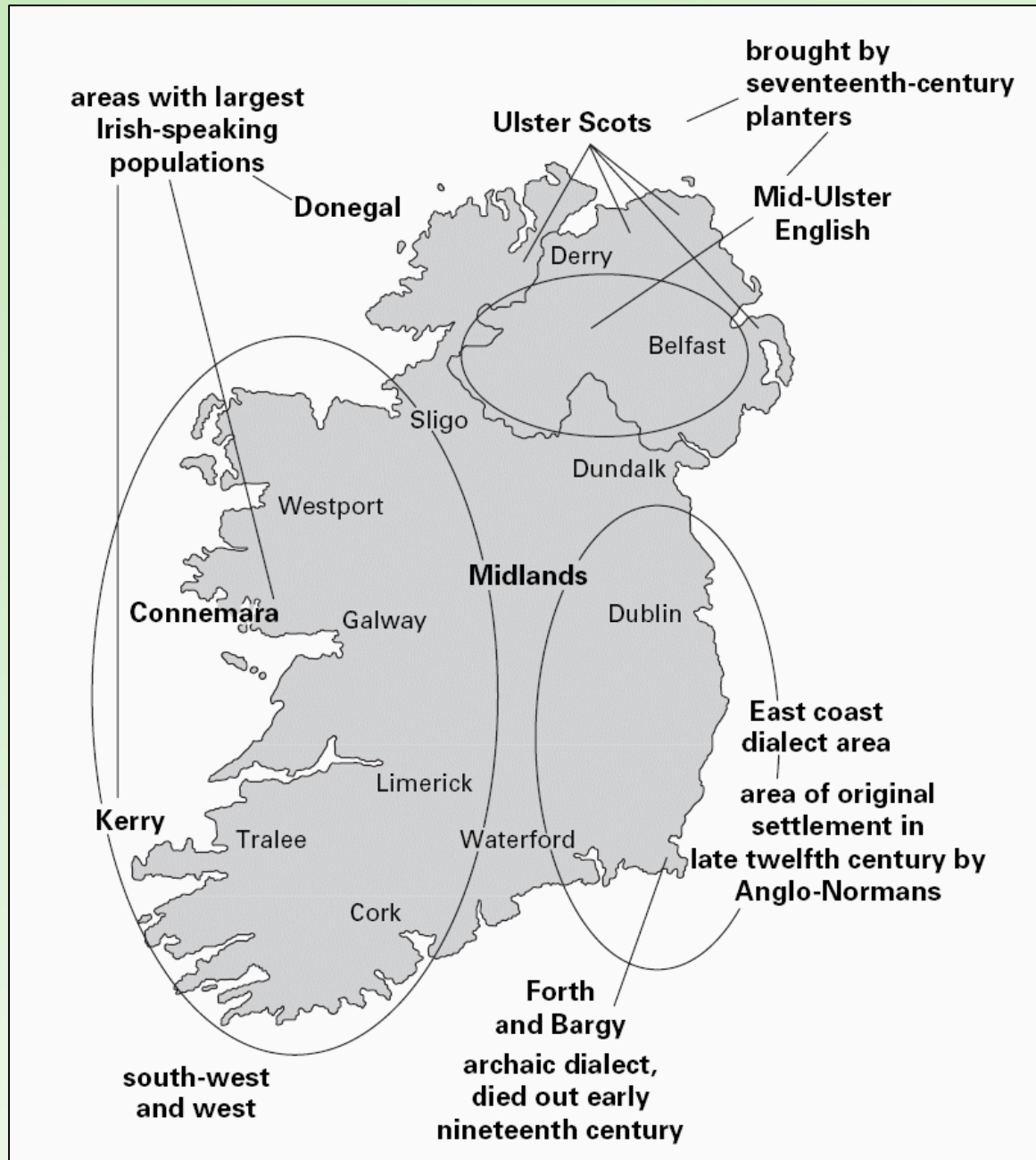


Historical overview of the English language in Ireland



The coming of the Normans and the English







- 1169 Anglo-Norman invasion in the south-east of the country (Wexford and Waterford) by Normans from Pembrokeshire, south-west Wales.
- 1172 Charter of Dublin issued; Anglo-Normans strengthen their presence in the city.
- c 1200 Beginning of Early Modern Irish period (until c 1600).
- 1235 Anglo-Norman invasion of Connaught (Western province).
- 1315-8 Bruce invasion from Scotland with resistance to Anglo-Norman rule.
- 1366 Statutes of Kilkenny, proscribing the Irish language and Irish customs, attempt to curb the rapid Gaelicisation of the Anglo-Norman settlers.
- 15c Gaelic revival continues.
- 1509 Henry VIII King of England.
- 1541 Henry VIII accepted by Irish parliament as King of Ireland.
- 1549-57 Plantation of Laois and Offaly (centre of country).
- 1558 Elizabeth I, last of the Tudors, ascends the throne.
- 1586-93 Plantation of Munster.
- 1592 Foundation of Trinity College, Dublin.
- 1595-1603 Rebellion of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone.

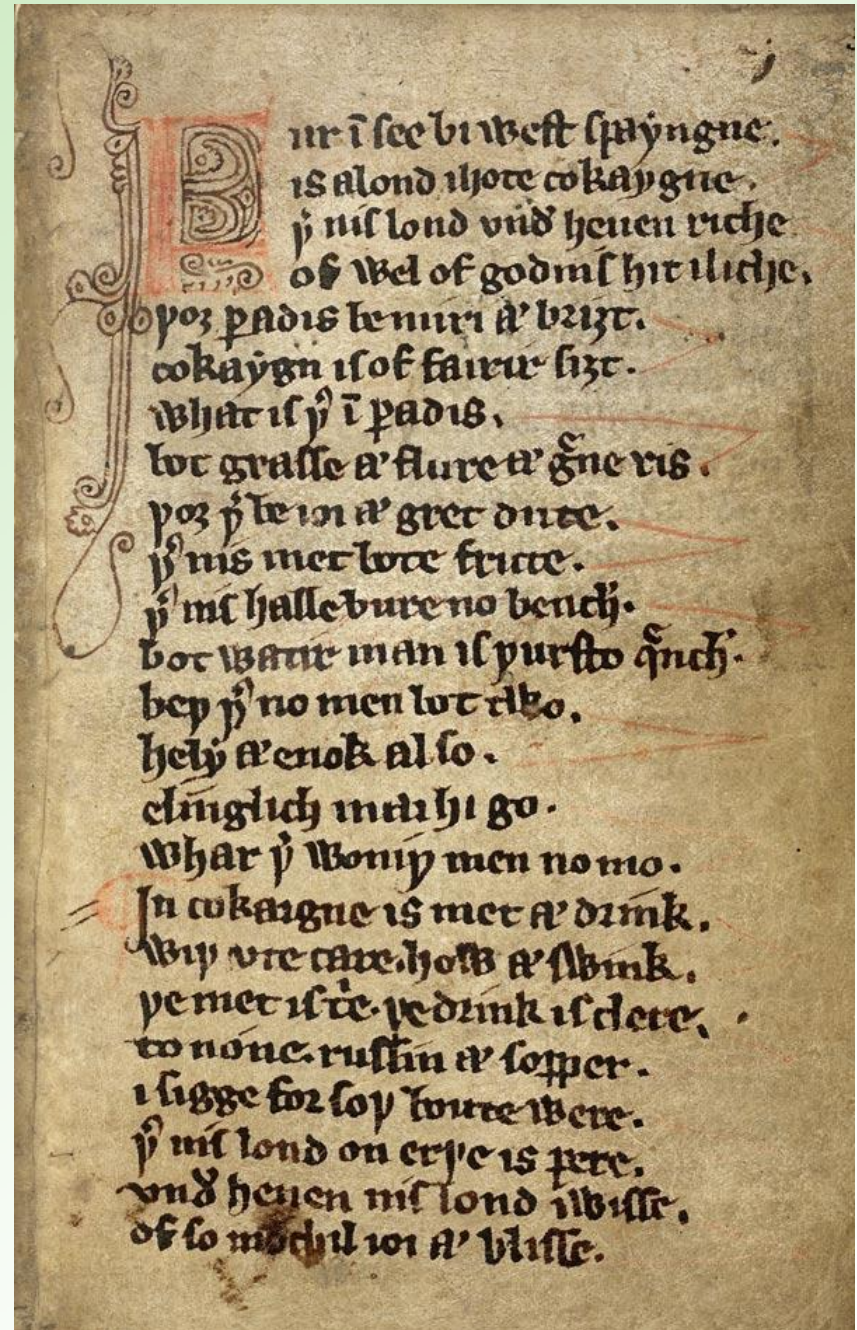


The *Kildare Poems*

16 pieces of verse
of Irish origin in the
Harley 913

manuscript in the
British Library

Early 14th century





— 1600 —

The Gaelic revival which started in the 14th century continued into the 16th century with English in a fairly weak position (its strongholds were the towns on the east coast).

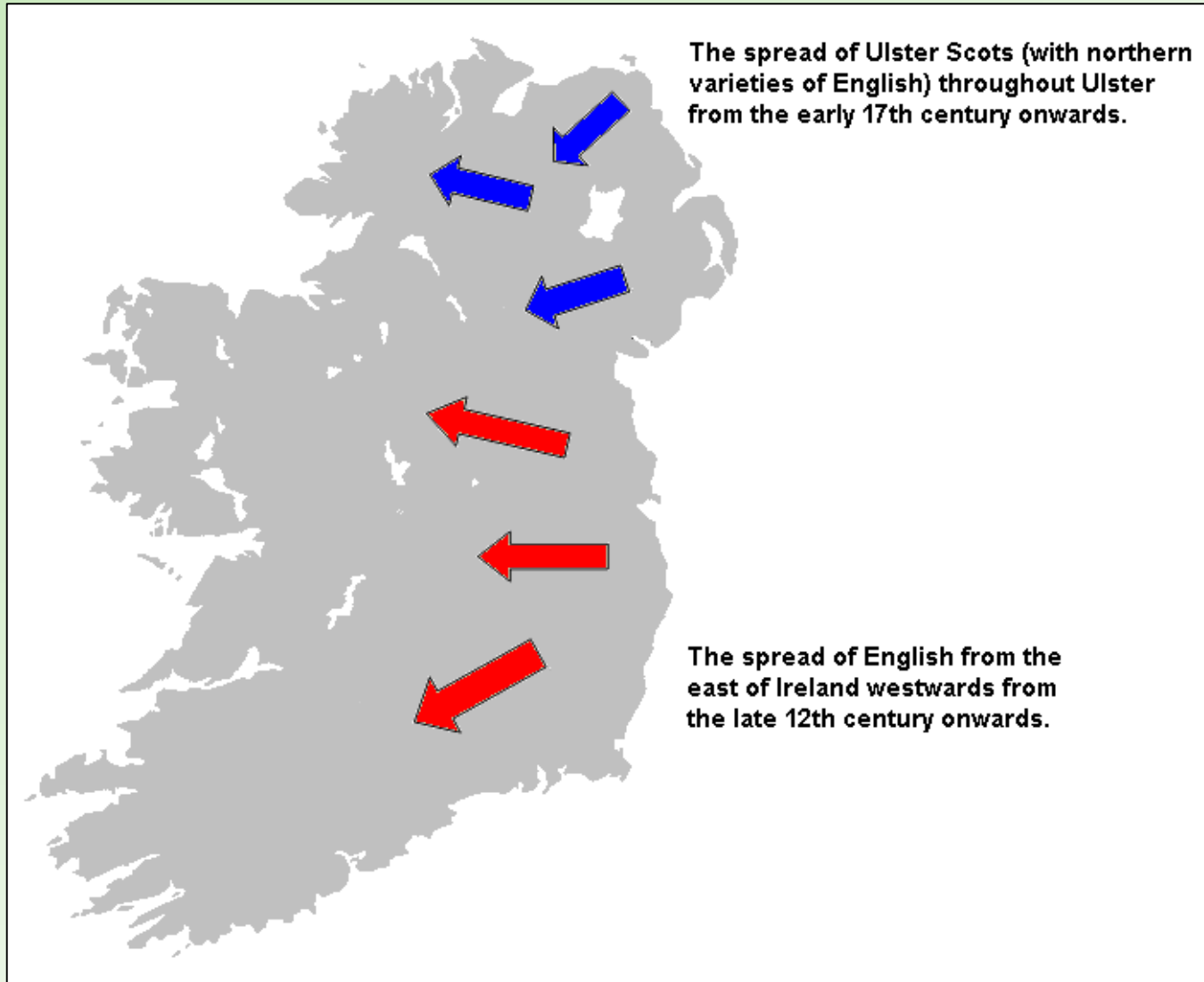
The fortunes of English were to change with the Irish defeat at the battle of Kinsale and the aggressive plantations of the 17th century, first in Ulster and later in other parts of the country.



- c 1600 Beginning of Modern Irish period.
- 1601 Irish and Spanish forces defeated by the English at Kinsale, Co. Cork.
- 1603 Death of Elizabeth I. Accession of James I (James VI of Scotland).
- 1607 On 14 September many Ulster leaders leave for the continent ('Flight of the Earls') depriving Ulster of native leadership.
- 1641 Beginning of the Ulster rising against Protestant settlers.
- 1642 Outbreak of civil war in England.
- 1649-50 Oliver Cromwell's campaigns in Ireland.
- 1652-3 Cromwellian confiscation of lands. Act of Settlement regulates this.
- 1660 Restoration of the monarchy (with Charles II as king). The Cromwellian conquest is maintained.
- 1685 Death of Charles II and accession of James II (Catholic).
- 1690 Arrival of William of Orange in Ireland. Battle of the Boyne (1 July).
- 1691-1703 Land confiscation follows.
- 1695 Beginning of a series of legislative measures against the Irish Catholics known as the 'Penal Laws' which were to last up to the beginning of the 19th century.

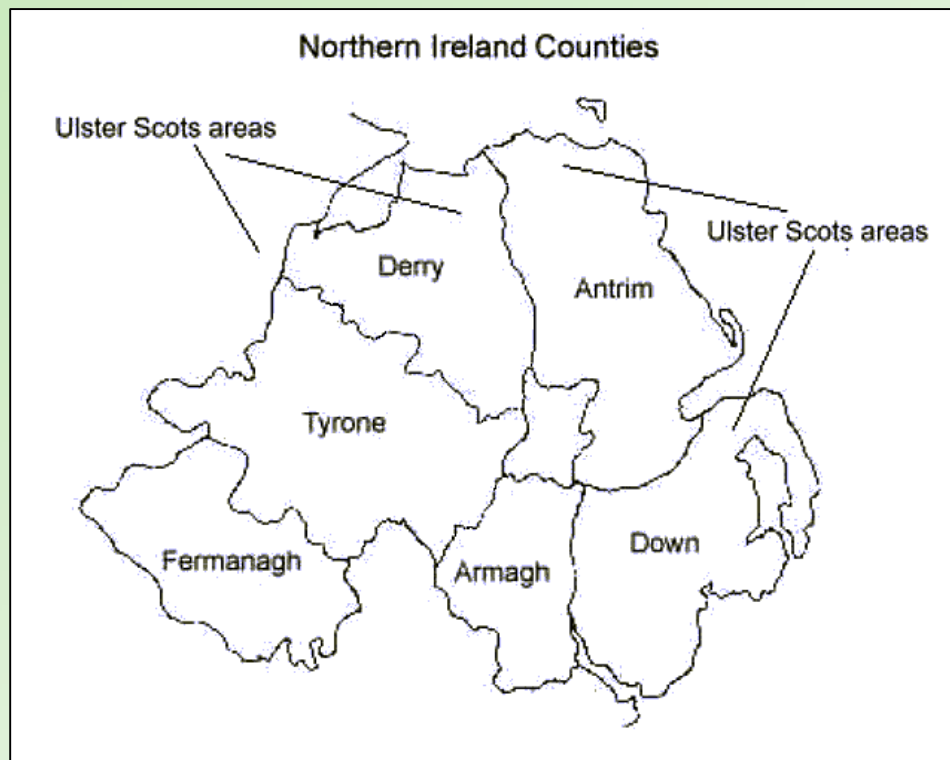


Spread of English in Ireland





The Ulster Scots areas in Northern Ireland



Map of Ulster by the 17th century English cartographer John Speed





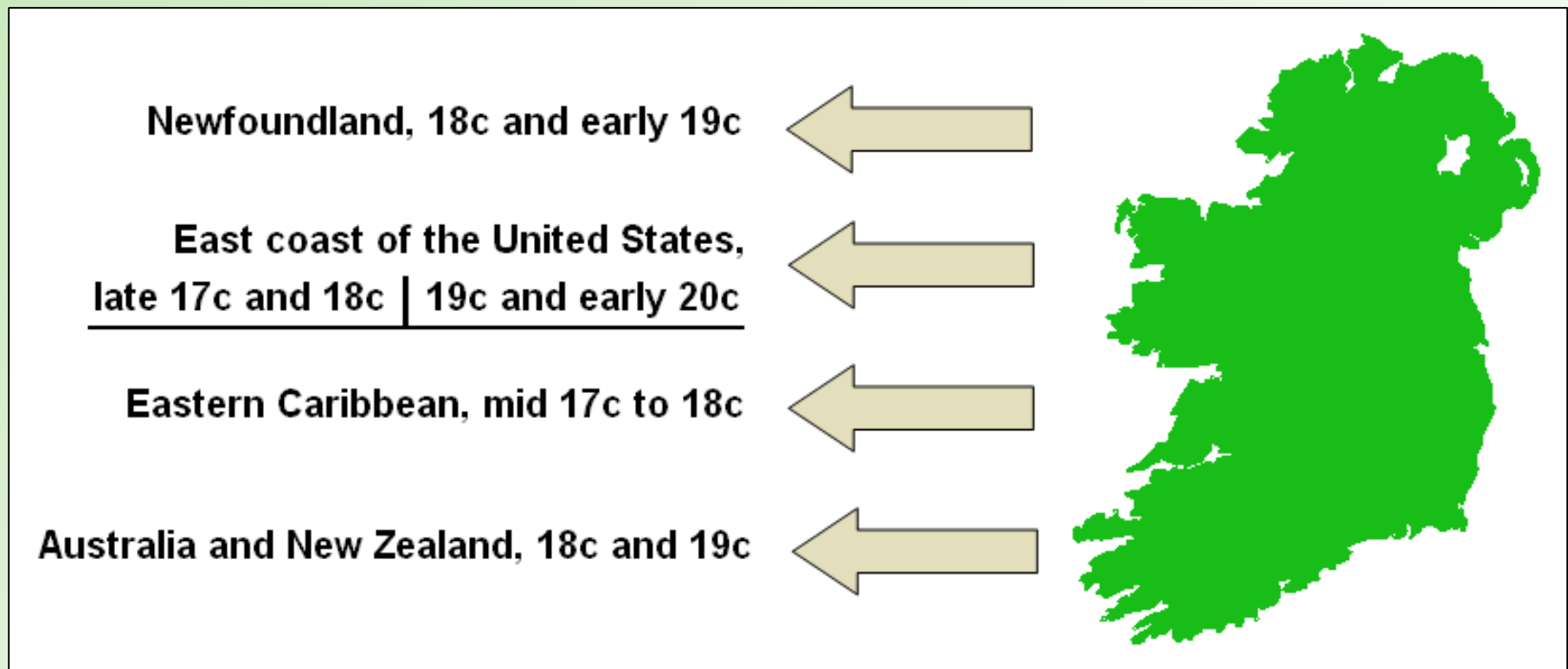
— 1700 —

The turbulent 17th century saw the end of Irish hopes for independence with Catholic help from Scotland under James II (1633-1701).

The Irish defeat at the Battle of the Boyne (1690) led to a strengthening of English in public life (administration, government and the military) in Ireland. After this, the position of English was unassailable.

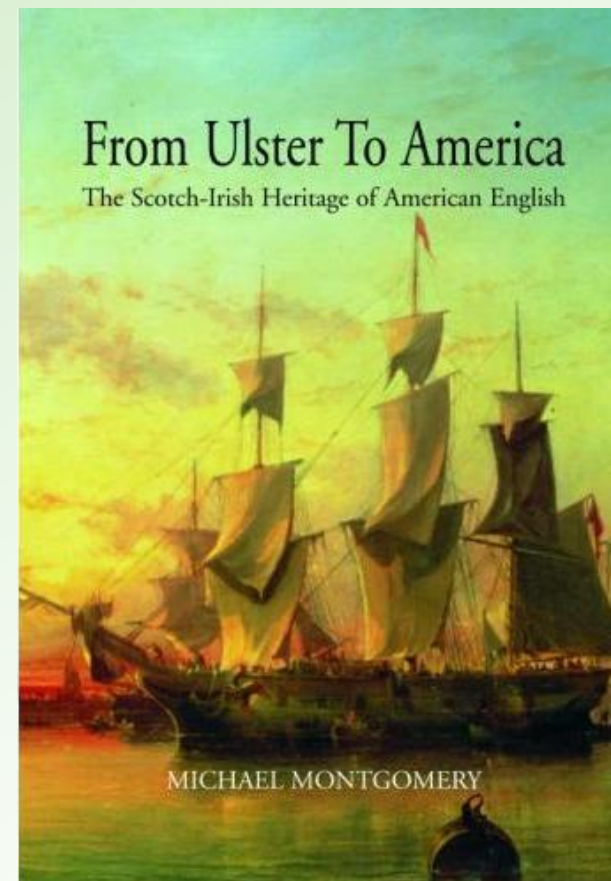
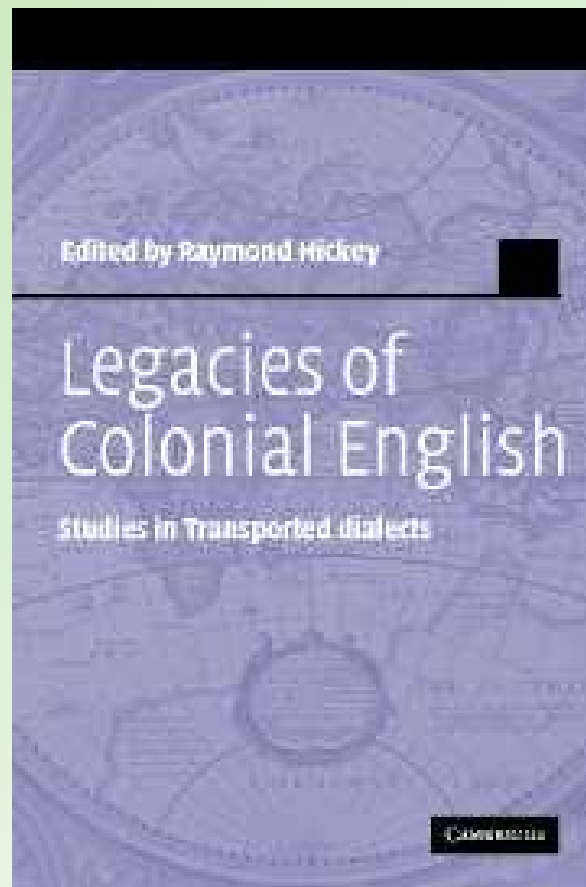


The transportation of English overseas during the colonial period



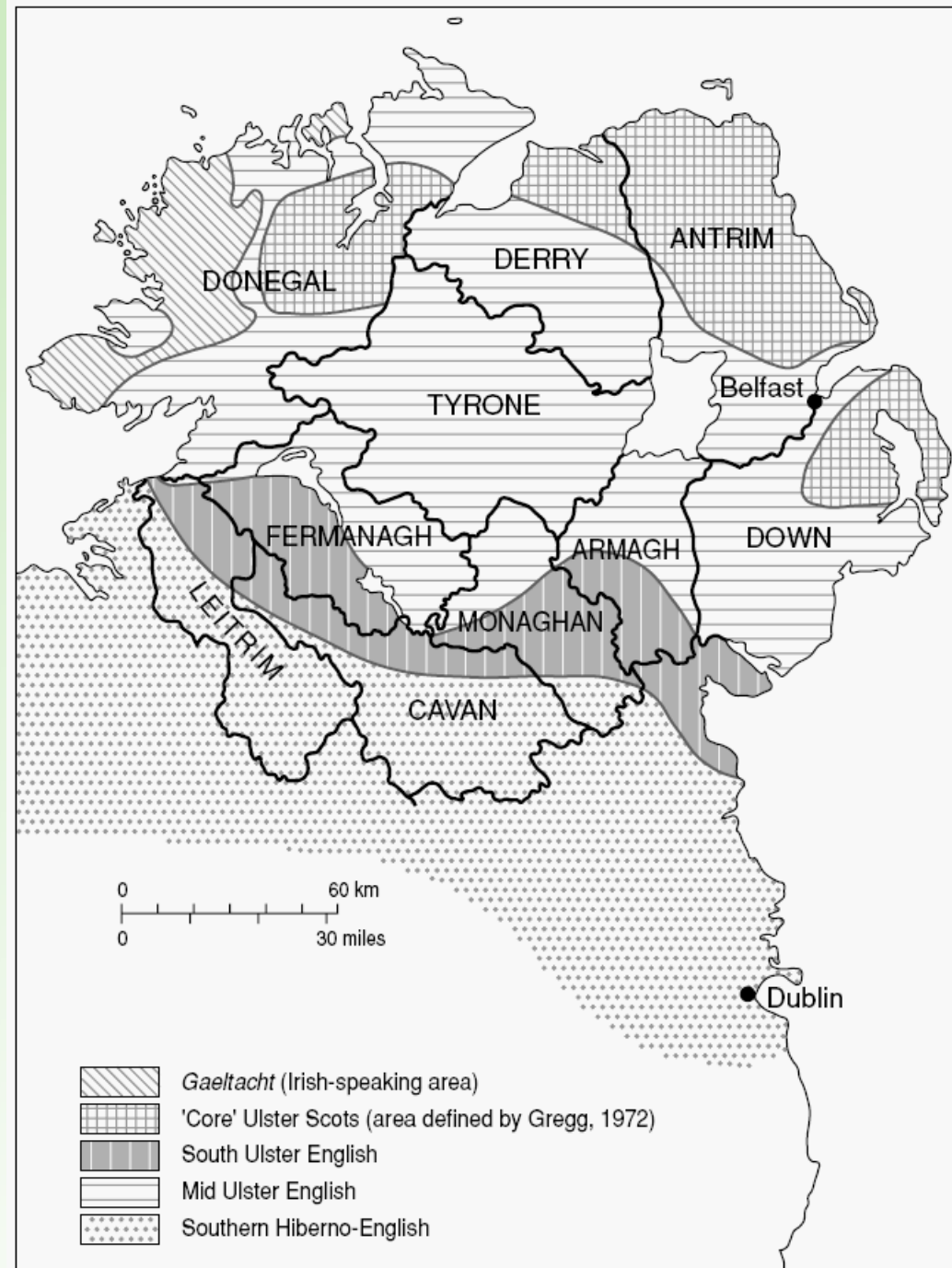
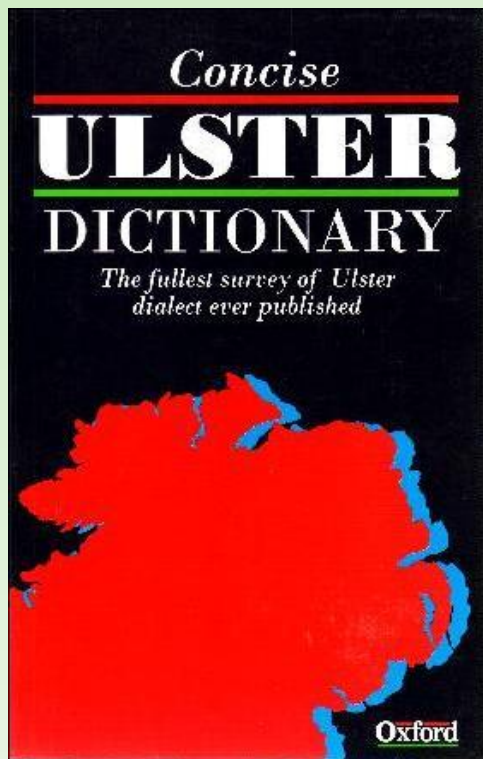


Literature on the transportation of English



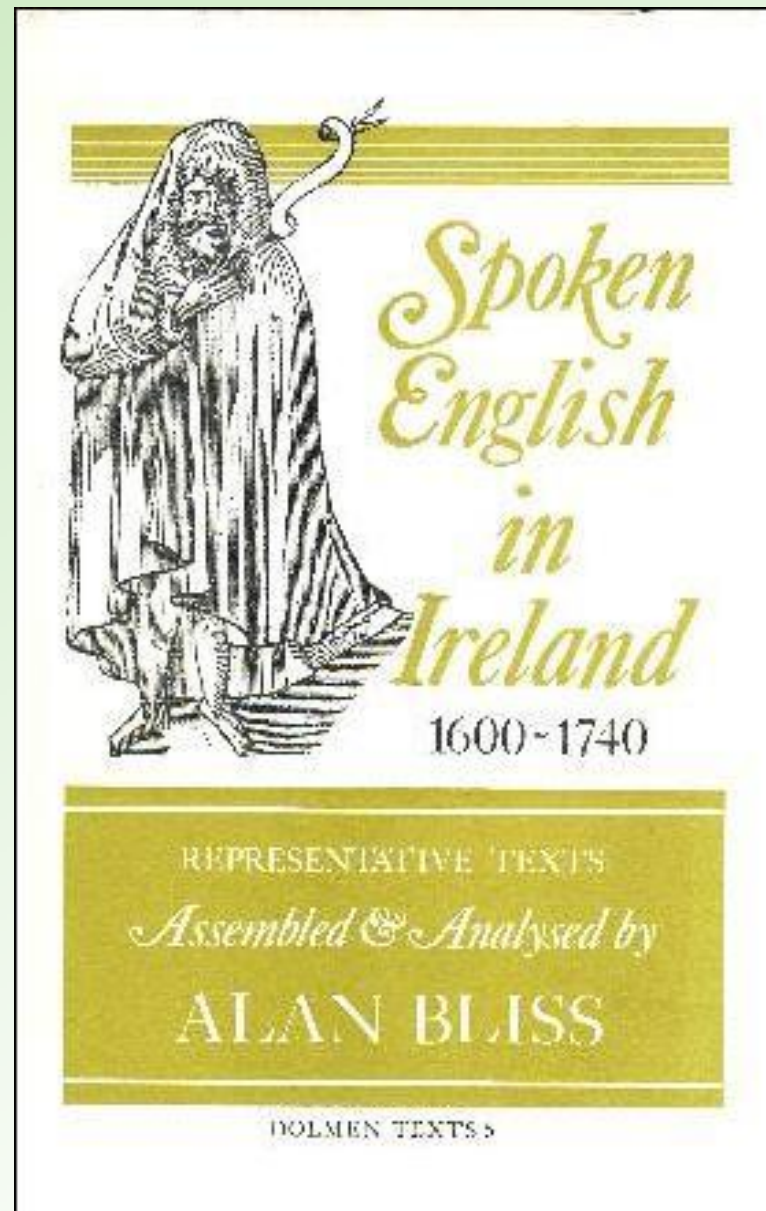


Present-day dialect divisions in Ulster





Documents in a specific form of English in Ireland begin to emerge in the 17th century. Many have been edited and published in recent decades.





The 18th century: The long peace

- 1713 Jonathan Swift becomes Dean of St Patrick's in Dublin.
- 1740-1 Famine breaks out in large parts of the country.
- 1796-8 Rebellion by the United Irishmen.
- 1700s Emigration of up to 250,000 people from Ulster to North America for economic and religious reasons.



— 1800 —

The 18th was a period of relative peace in Ireland. There were periods of famine and continued immigration, especially from Ulster, to North America.

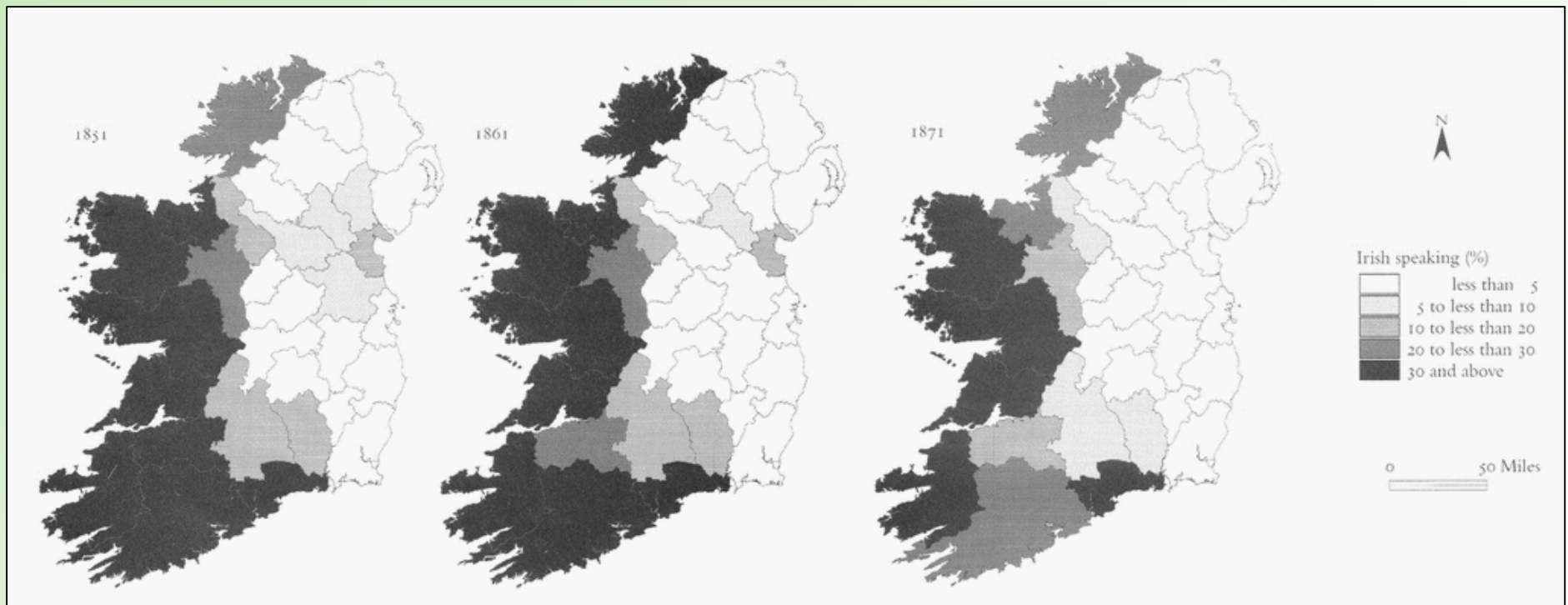
English continued to expand its position in Irish society with the rise of the Ascendancy (a Protestant propertied class with English orientation). The disenfranchisement of the native population continued unabated.



- 1801 Act of Union of Great Britain and Ireland comes into force (1 Jan).
- 1823 Catholic Association founded, led by Daniel O'Connell.
- 1829 Catholic Emancipation Act.
- 1837 Reign of Queen Victoria begins.
- 1845 Potato blight starts in some counties and begins to spread.
Beginning of the Great Famine (1845-49).
- 1850 Queen's University of Belfast founded.
- 1854 Catholic University of Ireland founded with John H. Newman first rector.
- 1867 Fenian rising takes place in five counties including Dublin.
- 1870 Home Rule movement launched by Isaac Butt. Gladstone's first Land Act recognises the rights of tenants.
- 1875 Parnell returned to parliament as member for Co. Meath.
- 1879-1882 'Land War' is waged.
- 1881 Parnell imprisoned; Gladstone's second Land Act.
- 1893 Second Home Rule Bill is introduced. The Gaelic League is founded.
- 1899- Literary revival gets well under way; Irish Literary Theatre founded.
- 1904 Abbey Theatre opened.
- 1908 Irish Universities Act establishes the National University of Ireland.

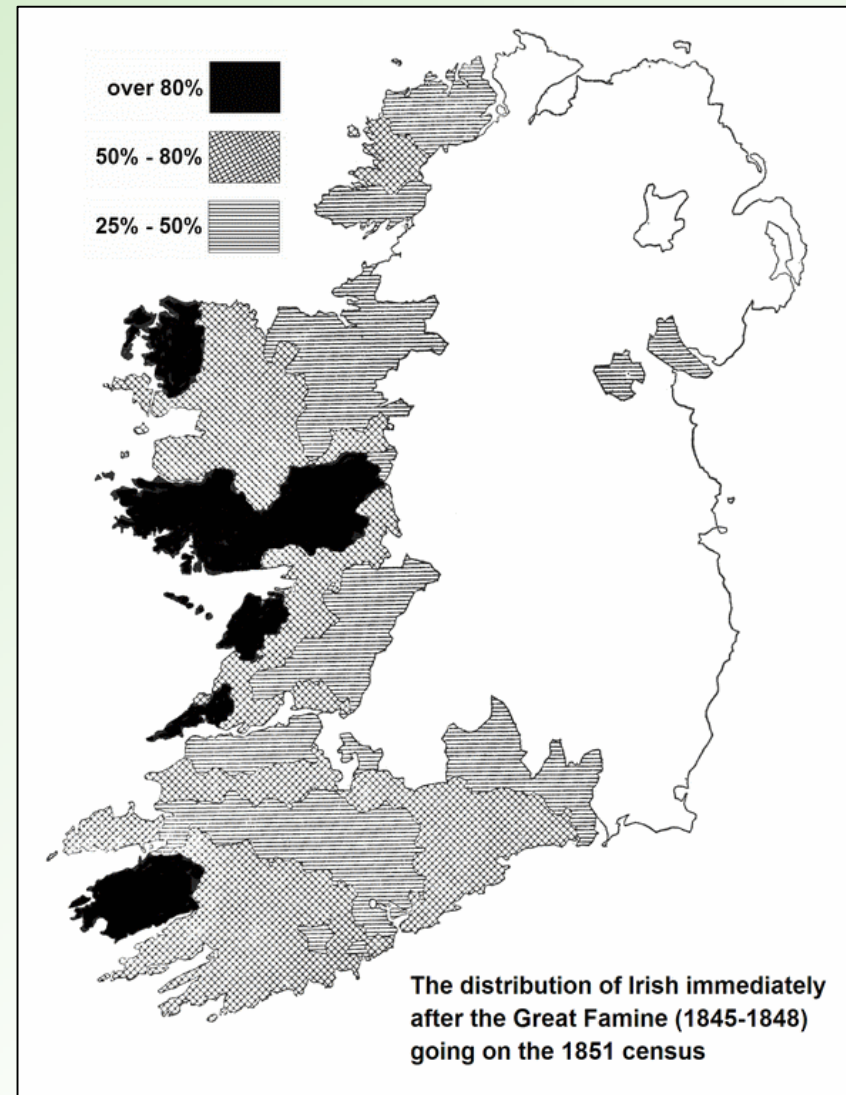


Retreat of Irish westwards





The Great Famine (1845-8)

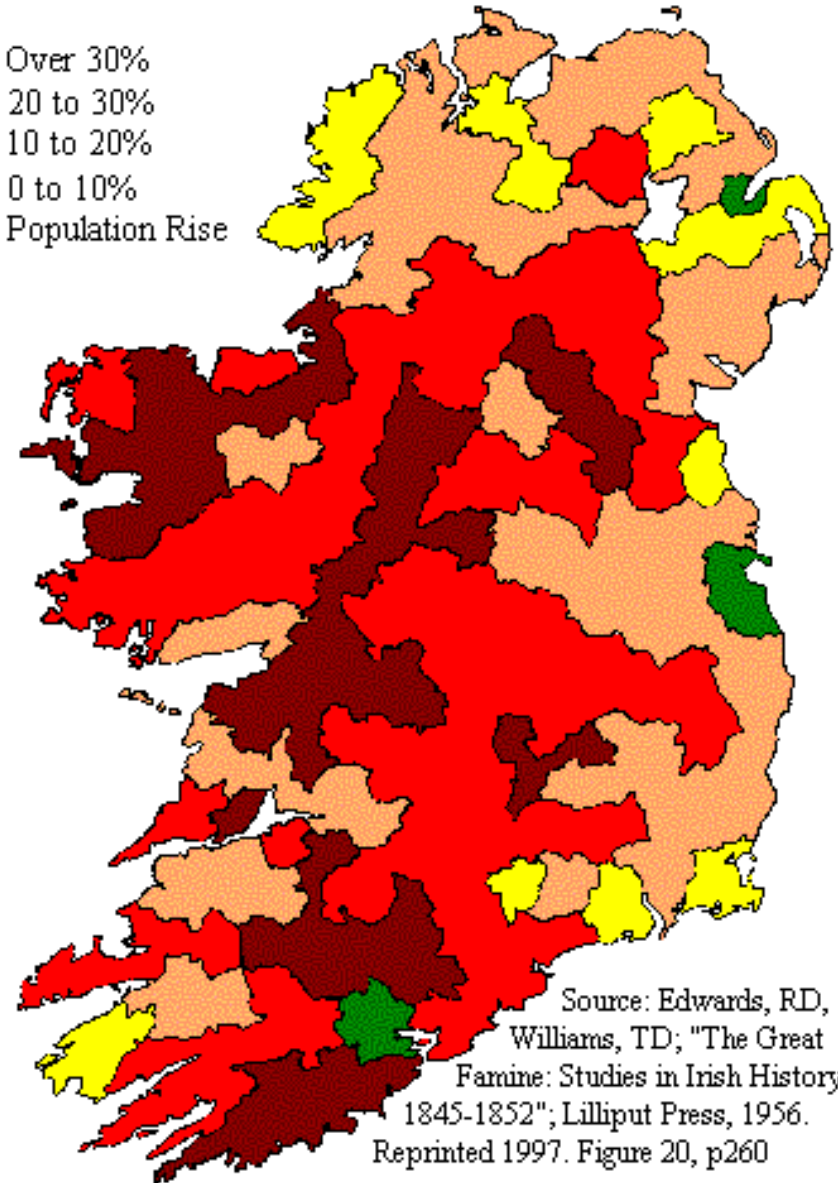




The Great Famine is a watershed in the development of English in Ireland. The roughly two million who either died of starvation or emigrated during and in the immediate aftermath of the famine were mostly native speakers of Irish (from rural areas).

Population Fall in Ireland 1841-1851

- Over 30%
- 20 to 30%
- 10 to 20%
- 0 to 10%
- Population Rise



Source: Edwards, RD, Williams, TD; "The Great Famine: Studies in Irish History 1845-1852"; Lilliput Press, 1956. Reprinted 1997. Figure 20, p260

— 1850 —

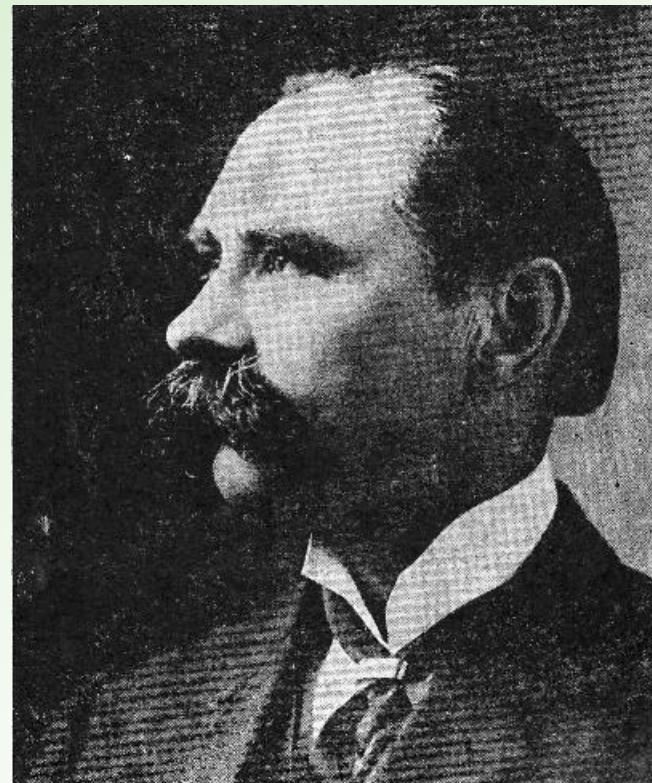
Statistics on language use in Ireland are found for the first time in the 1851 census.

Here considerable under-reporting is typical as people wanted to conceal the fact that they were native speakers of Irish.



Revival of the Irish language

*The Gaelic League /
Conradh na Gaeilge*
founded in 1893. Figures
such as Douglas Hyde /
Dubhghlas de hÍde were
instrumental in raising
consciousness about Irish
revival in late 19th century
Ireland.





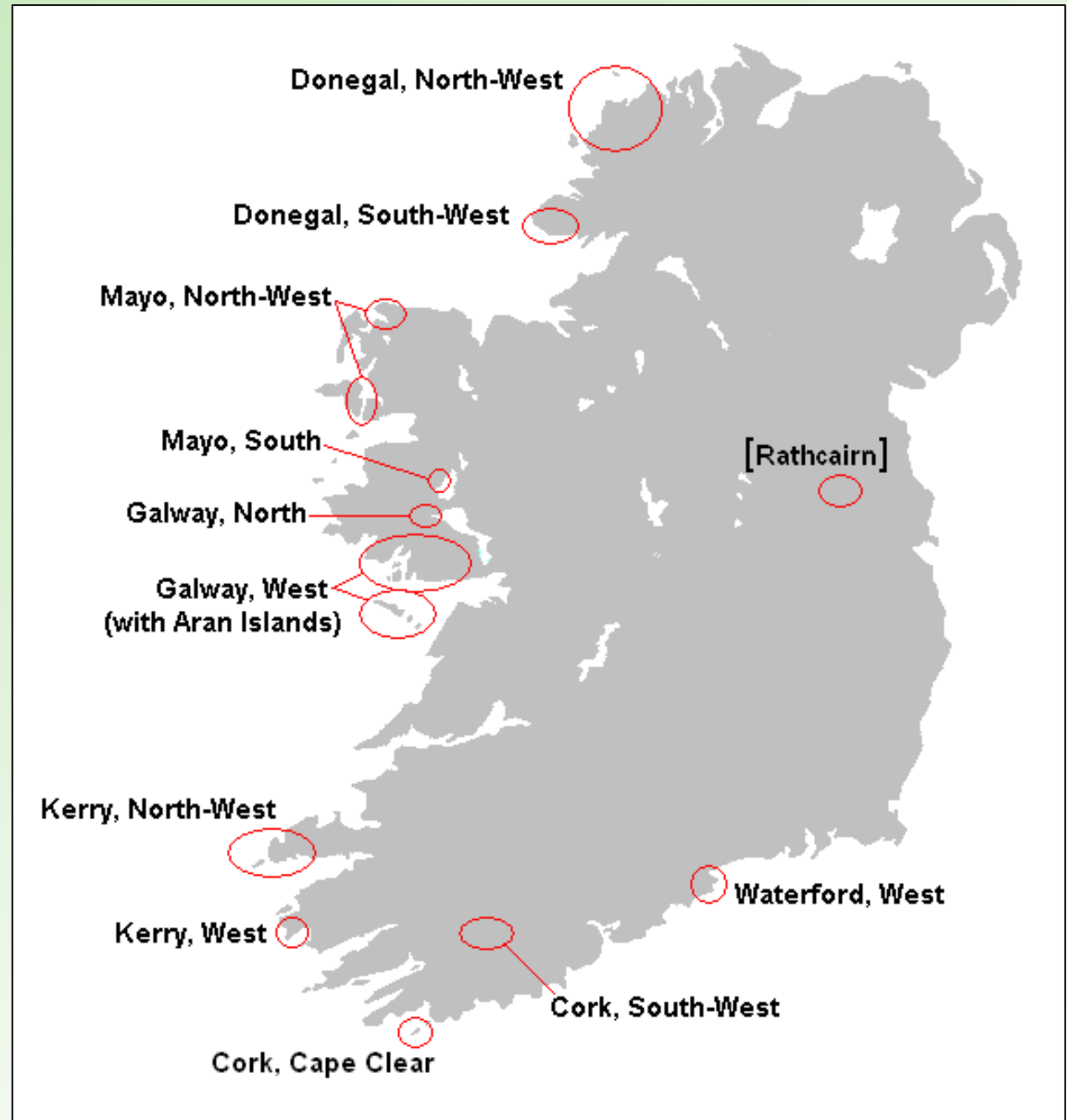
— 1900 —

By the end of the 19th century the language shift was all but completed. Numbers of native speakers were well below 10% with none left in the city and towns of Ireland.

The remaining areas were discontinuous rural communities in the west and along the south-west coast of the country.

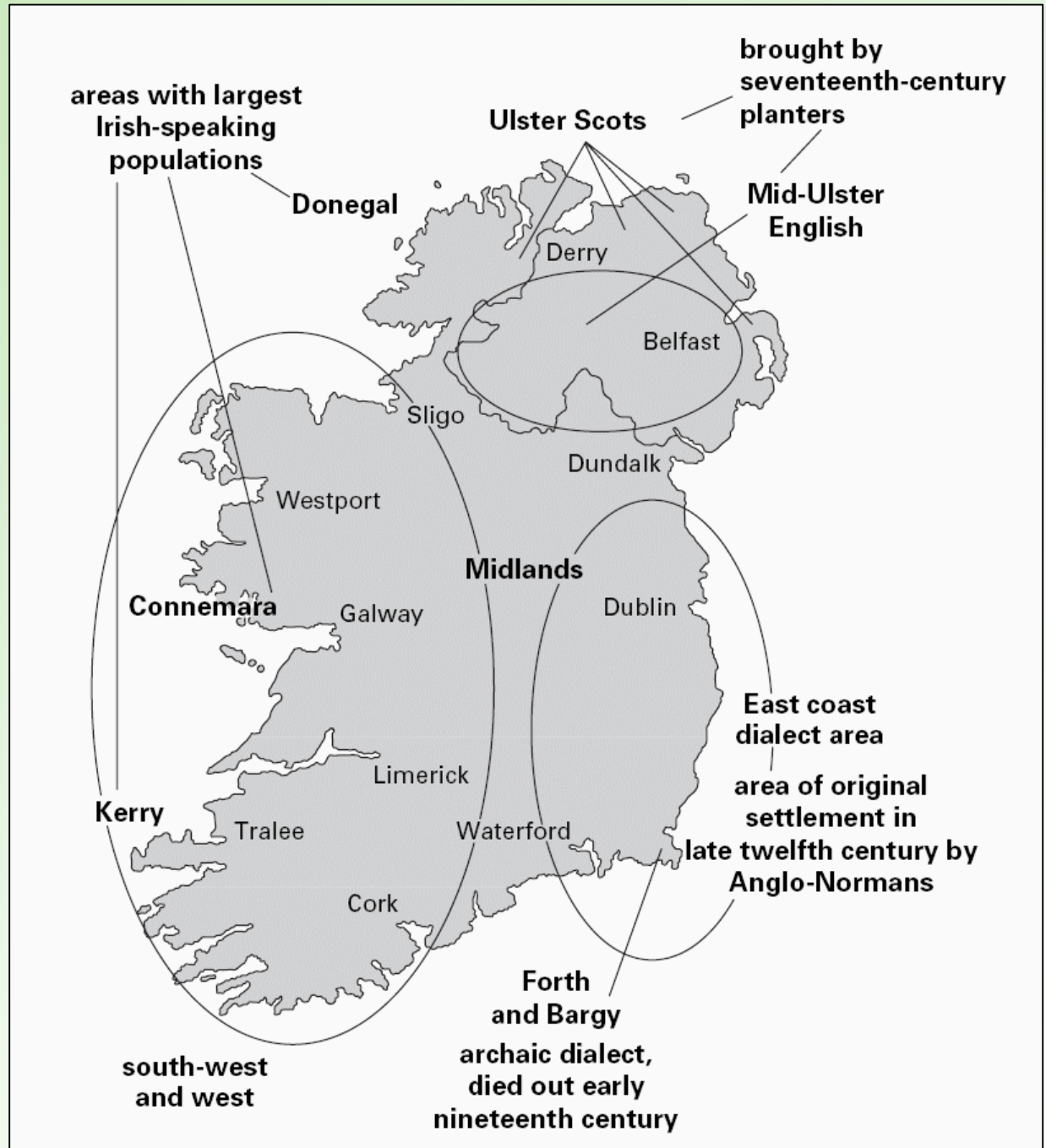


The main areas where Irish is spoken in present-day Ireland





The main dialect regions in present-day Ireland





Periods in the development of Irish English

1) **First period** *Late 12th century to 1600*

Establishment of English on the east coast in a band from Dublin down to Waterford. English is above all present in the towns; Anglo-Norman — and of course Irish — in the countryside. Increasing Gaelicisation in the centuries after the initial invasion led to the demise of English outside the major towns. The low point for English is reached in the 16th century with Irish in a correspondingly strong position.

2) **Second period** *1600 to present-day*

This begins with a decisive military defeat for the Irish. The north of the country is particularly affected with settlers from Lowland Scotland moving to Ulster and establishing a firm presence there. Later on in the 17th century there are vigorous plantations of the south of the country (under Cromwell). By the end of the 17th century, the position of English is unassailable and the general decline of Irish sets in with events like the Great Famine in the late 1840s and the ensuing mass emigration dealing a final blow to the language.



Language Shift in Ireland



How did the language shift take place?

At the onset of the early modern period (ca 1600) there were two basic groups in Ireland

- 1) There were small numbers of (i) original English settlers (from late medieval times in towns of the east coast) and (ii) later 'planters' (settlers on escheated land granted to people from Britain).
- 2) A very large majority of Irish whose first language was Irish and who gradually shifted to English in order to improve their lot in life.



How did the Irish learn English?

The vast majority of Irish people switched to English in a process of

**Unguided adult second language acquisition
in a non-prescriptive environment.**

Basically, they picked up bits of English from other Irish people who knew somewhat more than themselves and gradually knowledge of English increased in the population.



How long did the language shift last?

The shift to English gained momentum in the 17th century with the renewed plantation of Ireland by English/Scots speakers.

In the 18th century the shift continued at a steady pace (but school education for the Irish was not introduced until the 1830s).

However, in the 19th century, due to the Great Famine (1845-8) and the subsequent mass exodus of Irish through emigration (largely to North America), the language shift accelerated considerably so that by 1900 well under 10% of the population was Irish-speaking.



Shift varieties of Irish English

These go through a period of mixture and fluidity – much as in New Dialect Formation scenarios – and only gain a clear linguistic profile somewhat later.

This means that some features present in the early stages of a language shift variety are not present at later stages, that is they are not continued by later generations of speakers.

Furthermore, a particular feature may itself undergo a development in the shift variety after the latter has become independent and the original source language is not present.



A closer look at selected features of Irish English



Sources

Table 1 *Possible sources of features in Irish English*

1)		Transfer from Irish
2)	a.	Dialect forms of English
	b.	Archaic forms of English
3)		Features deriving from the context in which English was learned
4)		Features with no recognisable source (independent developments)



Features

Table 2 *Features of unguided adult language acquisition*

- 1) Omission of the definite article
 - 2) Omission of finite *be* (in equative sentences)
 - 3) Reduction and/or generalisation of verbal and nominal inflections
 - 4) Reduction of tense distinctions, e.g. use of present for present perfect
 - 5) Avoidance of subordinating conjunctions (parataxis favoured over hypotaxis)
 - 6) Various topicalisation strategies such as fronting
-
-



Transfer

Table 5 Factors favouring transfer of grammatical categories

- 1) The target language has a formal means of expressing this category
- 2) There is little variation in the expression of this category
- 3) The expression of this category is not homophonous with another one
- 4) The category marker in the outset language can be identified – is structurally transparent – and can be easily extracted from source contexts



Structures and their expression

Table 4 *Category and exponence in Irish and Irish English*

Category	Exponence in Irish English	Exponence in Irish
Habitual	1) <i>do(es) be + V-ing</i> <i>They <u>do be</u> fighting a lot.</i>	<i>bionn + non-finite verb form</i> <i>Bionn siad ag troid go minic.</i>
	2) <i>bees (northern)</i> <i>The lads <u>bees</u> out a lot.</i>	[is-HAB they at fighting often]
	3) verbal <i>-s</i> (first person) <i>I <u>gets</u> tired of waiting for things to change.</i>	



How are features transferred in a language shift situation?

Getting from individual speakers to the speech community



The prosody of transfer

The case for contact should be considered across all linguistic levels.

If one looks at structures in Irish English, which could be traced to transfer from Irish, then one finds in many cases that there is a correspondence between the prosodic structures of both languages. To be precise, structures which appear to derive from transfer show the same number of (metrical) feet and the stresses fall on the same major syntactic categories in each language.



Metrical feet

A foot is the distance between two stressed syllables. These can be separated by unstressed syllables or can be immediately adjacent to each other, consider:

'When ,to ,the 'se,ssions ,of 'sweet 'silent 'thought



The *after* perfective

She's

after breaking the glass.

[0 | 0 | 0]

Tá sí

tréis an ghloine a bhriseadh.

[0 | 0 | 0]

3 stressed syllables

He's

after his dinner.

[0 | 0]

Tá sé

tréis a dhinnéir.

[0 | 0]

2 stressed syllables



Subordinating *and*

He went out ¹ and ² it ³ raining.

‘He went out although it was raining.’

Chuaigh sé amach ¹ agus ² é ³ ag cur báisti.

[went he out and it at putting rain-GEN]



Comparative structures

Tá sé i bhfad níos fearr anois 'ná 'mar *a bhí.*
[is it further more better now than like COMP was]
'It's now much better than it was.'

It's far better than what it used to be. (TRS-D, C42-1, F)

To go to a dance that time was far better than what it is now.

(TRS-D, C42-1, F)

Life is much easier than what it was. (TRS-D, C42-1, F)

They could tell you more about this country than what we could.

(TRS-D, M7, M)



Why are such prosodic features important?

They help to explain how one gets from individual transfer to community-wide features.

During language shift, if speakers create equivalents to structures of their outset languages which are not present in the target language, then the likelihood of such equivalents being accepted by other speakers, and eventually by the entire community, is greatest *if* such structures are transparent to others, i.e. if they are easy to understand as equivalents to structures in the common outset language of the shifting community.



What does not get transferred
during contact / shift

Table 6 *Non-occurring features of Irish in A Collection of Contact English*

1) Verb-initial sentences or clauses

Tiocfaidh mé thart ar a hocht. ‘I’ll come by around eight.’, lit. ‘come-FUTURE I...’

2) Pro-drop (absence of personal pronoun in present tense)

Ní thuigim an dream óg.

‘I don’t understand the young crowd.’, lit. ‘not understand-1ST_PERS_SG ...’

3) Post-posed adjectives

an fear bocht

‘the poor man’, lit. ‘the man poor’

4) Post-posed genitives

teach Sheáin

‘John’s house’, lit. ‘house John-GEN’

5) Order prepositional object + pronominal object

Chonaic mé thuas ar an trá í. ‘I saw her up on the strand.’, lit. ‘saw I up on the strand her’

6) Split demonstratives

an gluaisteán sin

‘that car’, lit. ‘the car that’

7) Autonomous verb form

Rinneadh an obair.

‘The work was done.’, lit. ‘done-was the work’

Rugadh mac di.

‘She bore a son.’, lit. ‘born-was a son to-her’

8) Zero realisation of indefinite article

Chas sí le déagóir.

‘She met a teenager.’, lit. ‘met she with teenager’



The argument from parameter setting

Irish is a post-specifying language (VSO, N+Gen, N+Adj) and the fact that English is pre-specifying (SVO, Gen+N, Adj+N) is recognised quickly by language learners, and would have been in the historical language shift as well. This recognition then blocks (and blocked in the past) the transfer of any post-specifying strategies from Irish to English. The view that the direction of specification is a parameter of language, which needs to be recognised by only one setting and which is then fixed for all others, is supported by the data in *A Collection of Contact English* and by the history of Irish English.



The question of structural match

It would appear that only those features which have a fairly good structural match between outset and target language have a chance of transfer to the latter. Take, for instance, the autonomous in Irish. This is a finite verb form - but without a personal pronoun - where relevance is expressed via a preposition, e.g.

Rugadh mac di. ‘She gave birth to a son.’
[born-PAST son to-her]

This structure is (and was) never transferred to Irish English, probably because of the difficulty of mapping it onto English syntactically.



Some tentative conclusions

Language contact can cause considerable structural change if it involves intense speaker interaction.

Language shift is a special situation which leads to the transfer of speech habits from the source to the target language, usually during unguided adult second language acquisition.

Such features can remain in the target language and can be seen by later generations as part of the focussed variety of English they speak.



A final caveat

The golden rule of language contact studies is:

'don't overstate your case'

By no means all the features of Irish English result from contact, many have their origin in older, often dialectal forms English. Others are independent developments, perhaps resulting from the situation in which English was acquired by the Irish.



A final caveat (cont.)

Doing language contact is about convincing colleagues that your interpretation of change is a valid one. To do this one has to bear all factors in mind and have a proper balance between internal and external factors.

Only in those instances where an internal explanation is not available, or is clearly inadequate, can one postulate language contact as a source for change. But there are enough instances where this is the case to make language contact a worthwhile scholarly pursuit.



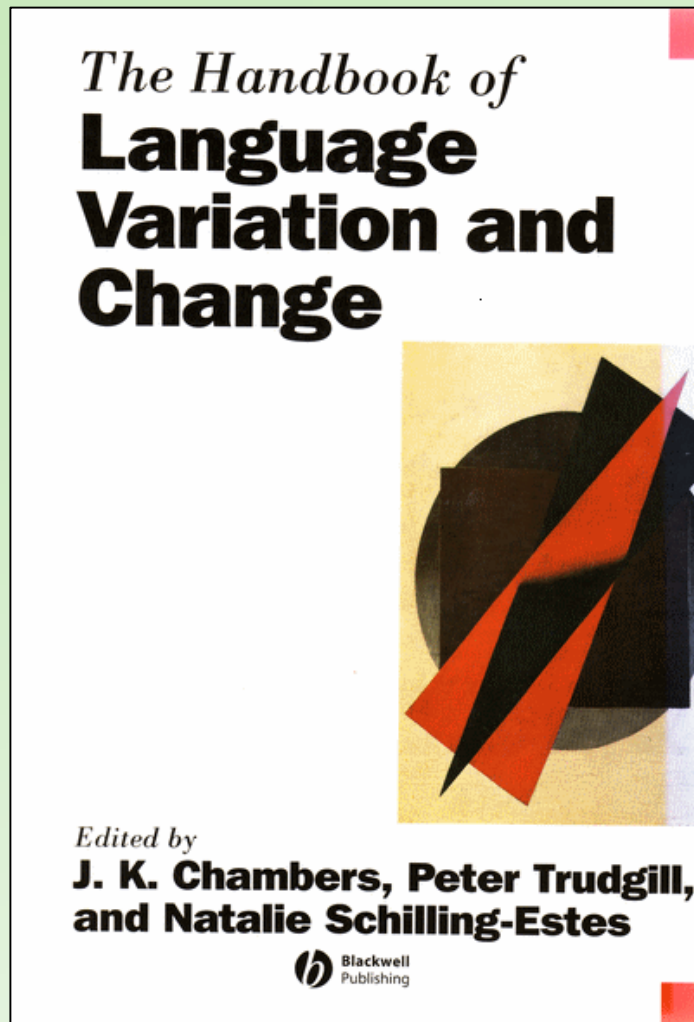
Dublin English

Evolution and Change





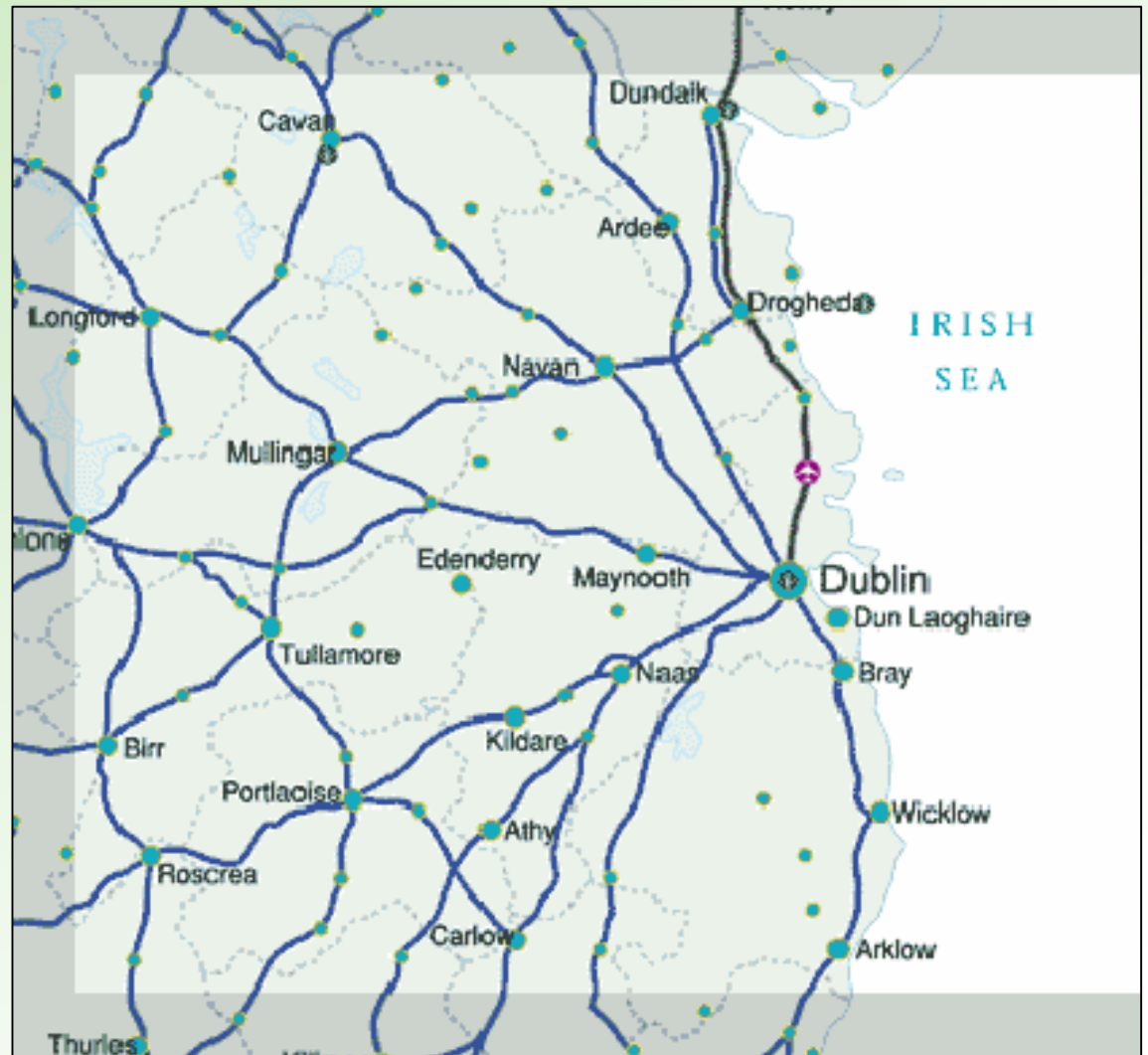
Language Variation and Change



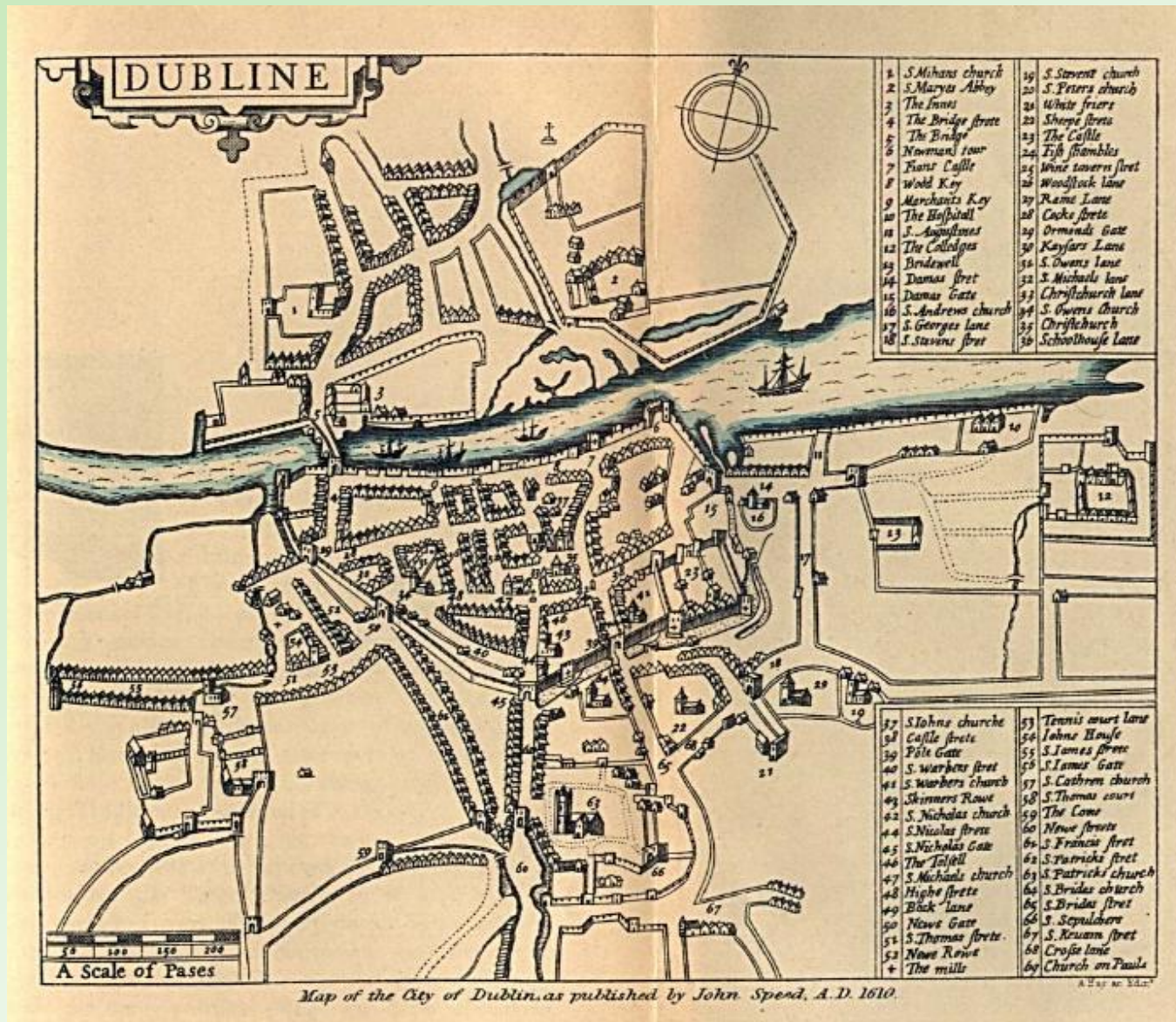
For the following consideration of Dublin English the research paradigm known as *Language Variation and Change* has been employed. This examines minute variation in language and considers how the preference for certain variants in certain groups in society can lead to language change over time.

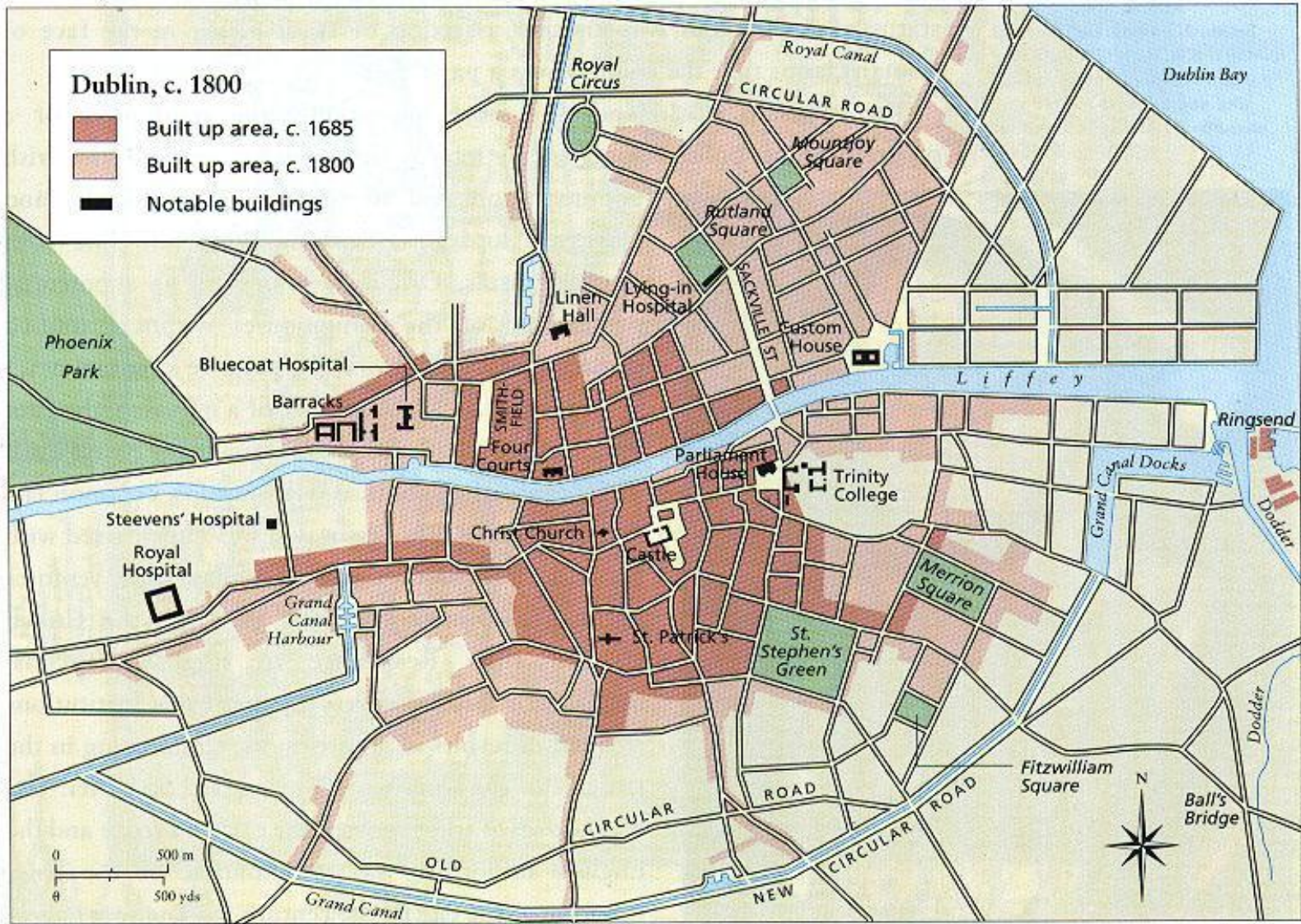


Location of Dublin with its hinterland



The English language in Dublin







The Dublin Metropolitan Area



Contemporary Dublin



The city of Dublin lies at the mouth of the river Liffey in the centre of the east coast, and spreads along the shores of the horseshoe shape of Dublin bay.

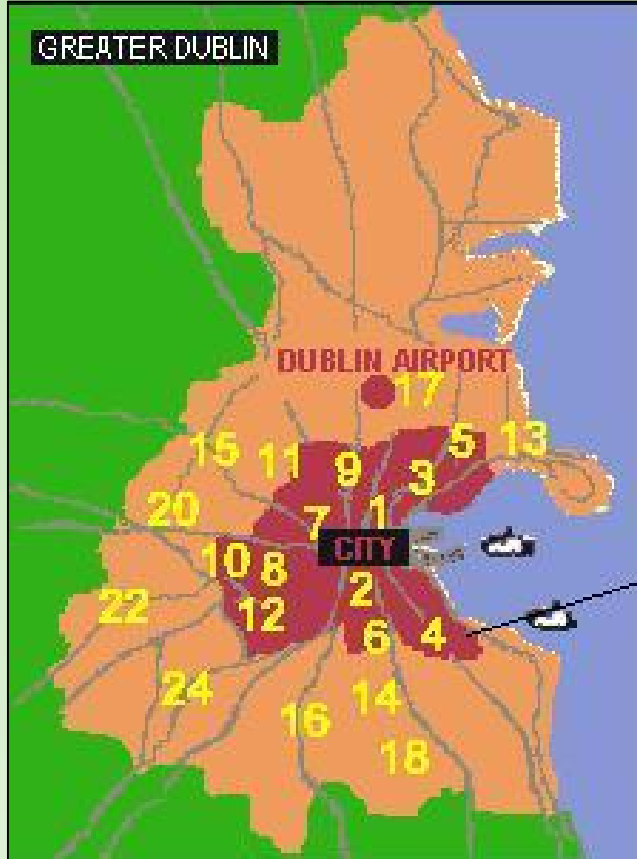
The suburbs, which have increased dramatically since the 1960's, reach down to Bray and beyond into Co. Wicklow in the south, to the West in the direction of Maynooth and to the north at least to Swords, the airport and beyond.

The Dublin conurbation now encompasses about a third of the population of the Republic of Ireland.

Contemporary Dublin



Like any other modern city Dublin shows areas of high and low social prestige. Within Dublin there is a clear divide between the north and the south side of the city. The latter is regarded as more residentially desirable (with the exception of Howth and its surroundings on the peninsula which forms the north side of Dublin bay). Within the south there is a cline in prestige with the area from Ballsbridge and Donybrook out to Foxrock enjoying highest status. This is the area of certain key complexes like the Royal Dublin Society (an important exhibition and event centre in the capital) and the national television studios (RTE) and of the national university (University College Dublin) in Belfield. This entire area is known by its postal code, Dublin 4. Indeed this number has given the name to a sub-accent within Dublin English which has been known as the 'Dublin 4 Accent', now referred to simply as 'D4 English' or as 'Dartspeak', 'Dart English'. The less prestigious parts of the city are known by their district names such as Tallaght to the west, the Liberties in the centre of the city and Ballymun in the north near the airport, the only suburb in Ireland with high-rise flats and which is associated with adverse social conditions.



The prosperous area and postal district "Dublin 4" from which an extreme form of fashionable Dublin English formerly took its name, now often in a shortened form as in "She speaks with a D4 accent". More recently the label "Dartspeak" has come to be used, referring to the parts of the city served by this suburban railway.



Varieties of Dublin English

Any discussion of English in Dublin necessitates a few basic divisions into types. For the present contribution a twofold division, with a further subdivision, is employed. The first group consists of those who use the inherited popular form of English in the capital. The term 'local' is intended to capture this and to emphasise that these speakers are those who show strongest identification with traditional conservative Dublin life of which the popular accent is very much a part. The reverse of this is 'non-local' which refers to sections of the metropolitan population who do not wish a narrow, restrictive identification with popular Dublin culture. This group then subdivides into a larger, more general section which I label 'mainstream' and a currently smaller group which vigorously rejects a confining association with low-prestige Dublin.

- 1) *local* Dublin English
- 2) *non-local* Dublin English —
 - a) *mainstream* Dublin English
 - b) *new* Dublin English



Varieties of Dublin English

A central issue in contemporary Dublin English is the set of vowel shifts which represent the most recent phonological innovation in Irish English (see below). This is not surprising as Dublin is a typical location for language change given the following features. 1) The city has expanded greatly in population in the last three or four decades. The increase in population has been due both to internal growth and migration into the city from the rest of the country. 2) It has undergone an economic boom in the last 15 years or so, reflected in its position as an important financial centre and a location for many computer firms which run their European operations from Dublin. The increase in wealth and international position has meant that many young people aspire to an urban sophistication which is divorced from strongly local Dublin life. For this reason the developments in fashionable Dublin English diverge from those in local Dublin English, indeed can be interpreted as a reaction to it. This type of linguistic behaviour can be termed *local dissociation* as it is motivated by the desire of speakers to hivy themselves off from vernacular forms of a variety spoken in their immediate surroundings.

Variable features in Dublin English



T-lenition The clearest phonetic feature of southern Irish English is the realisation of /t/ as a fricative with identical characteristics of the stop, i.e. an apico-alveolar fricative in weak positions. This cannot be indicated in English orthography of course but vacillation between *t* and *th* for /t/ is found already in the *Kildare Poems* (probably early 14th century) and would suggest that it was a feature of English in Ireland in the first period.

Extensions include the lenition of /t/ in a weak position beyond the initial stage of apico-alveolar fricative to /r/ then to /h/ with final deletion as in the following instance.

/t/	[t̪]	→	[r]	→	[h]	→	∅
<i>water</i>	[wa:t̪ə]		[wa:rə]		[wa:hə]		[wa:ə]

Variable features in Dublin English



Breaking of long vowels in closed position

clean [klijən] *fool* [fuwəl]

Central onset for /ai/ diphthong

time [təjm] *fly* [fləi]

Fronting of /au/ diphthong

down [dɛʊn] *bout* [bɛʊt]

Historically short vowels before /r/

circle [sɛ:kɫ̩]

first [fɪ:s(t)]

Early modern English short /ʊ/

Dublin [dʊblən]



Dissociation: How to avoid local features

Speakers of both mainstream and new Dublin English generally avoid the local features I have already mentioned.

But the speakers of new Dublin English have developed strategies for maximising the phonetic differences between realisations typical of their own variety and those of local Dublin English. This has been achieved by moving away — in phonological space — from the realisations found locally.

The following list gives some indication of what is involved here.

Dissociation: How to avoid local features



- a) Local Dublin English has a distinction between historic back and front short vowels before /r/, in the NURSE and GIRL lexical sets, [nʊ:(r)s] and [gɛ:(r)l] respectively. But because the open front realisation is so typical of local Dublin English, there is a migration in fashionable Dublin English of historically front *long* vowels to the central rhotic type as seen in words from the SQUARE lexical set like *carefully* [kəɹ:fəli] and *daring* [də:riŋ]. This realisation has no precedent in the history of southern Irish English.



Dissociation: How to avoid local features

- b) Connected with the previous feature is the strict avoidance of schwa retraction before /r/ in NURSE words such as *third* [t̪ə:ɹd], *purse* [pə:ɹs], not [tʊ:(ɹ)d] and [pʊ:(ɹ)s].
- c) The local back rounded vowel /ʊ/ in the STRUT lexical set is replaced by an unrounded front vowel which is almost /ɪ/, as in *Sunday* [sɪ-nde].
- d) A syllable-final retroflex /r/, [ɻ], is used which has the advantage of marking the /r/ even more clearly vis à vis the popular forms of Dublin English which, if at all, have only a weak syllable-final /r/.



The Dublin Vowel Shift



The Dublin Vowel Shift

In present-day Ireland the major instance of language change is undoubtedly the shift in pronunciation of Dublin English. To understand the workings of this shift one must realise that in the course of the 1980s and 1990s the city underwent an unprecedented expansion in population size and in relative prosperity with a great increase in international connections to and from the metropolis. The in-migrants to the city, who arrived there chiefly to avail of the job opportunities resulting from the economic boom formed a group of socially mobile, weak-tie speakers and their section of the city's population has been a key locus for language change. Speakers began to move away in their speech from their perception of popular Dublin English, a classic case of dissociation in an urban setting. This dissociation was realised phonetically by a reversal of the unrounding and lowering of vowels typical of Dublin English hitherto. The reversal was systematic in nature, with a raising and rounding of low back vowels and the retraction of the /aɪ/ diphthong and the raising of the /ɔɪ/ diphthong, representing the most salient elements of the change.



Summary of recent shifts in Dublin English

a) retraction of diphthongs with a low or back starting point

time [tʌɪm] → [tɔɪm]

toy [tɔɪ] → [tɔɪ], [tɔɪ]

b) raising of low back vowels

cot [kɒt] → [kɔt]

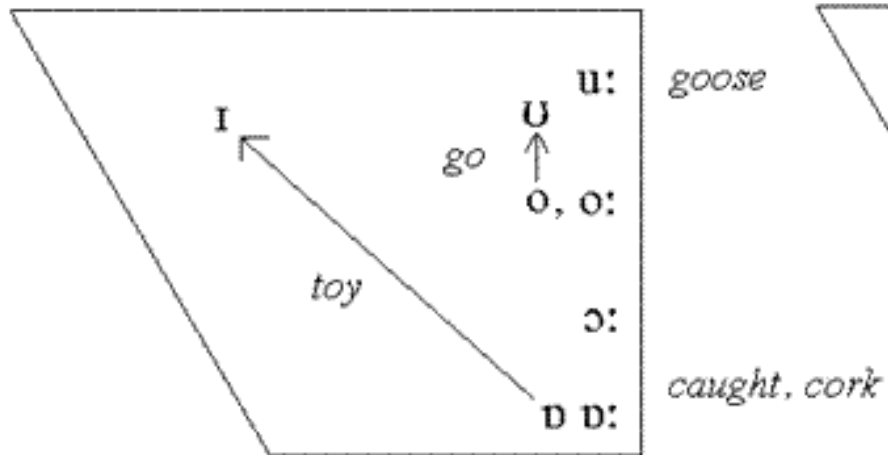
caught [kɒ:t] → [kɔ:t], [kɔ:t]

			ɔɪ		o:
			↑		↑
Raising			ɔɪ	ɔ	ɔ:
			↑	↑	↑
			ɒɪ	ɒ	ɒ:
Retraction	ai	→	ɔɪ		

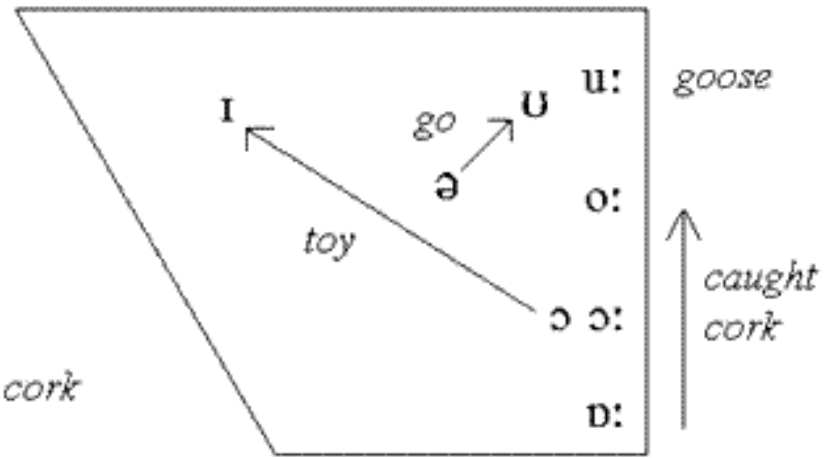


Changes in vowel constellations in Dublin English

Vowel space of older mainstream speech



Vowel space of new pronunciation





Gender and language change



1) GOAT *diphthongisation* (new feature)

[go+ut] versus [gout]

n = 40, 40	yes	no
Male	18 (45%)	22 (55%)
Female	34 (85%)	6 (15%)

Test sentence: *They had a GOAT on their farm.*

2) R-*retroflexion* (new feature)

[nɔ:ɹ̥] versus [nɔ:ɪ]

n = 40, 40	yes	no
Male	17 (43%)	23 (57%)
Female	36 (90%)	4 (10%)

Test sentence: *They're travelling up NORTH.*

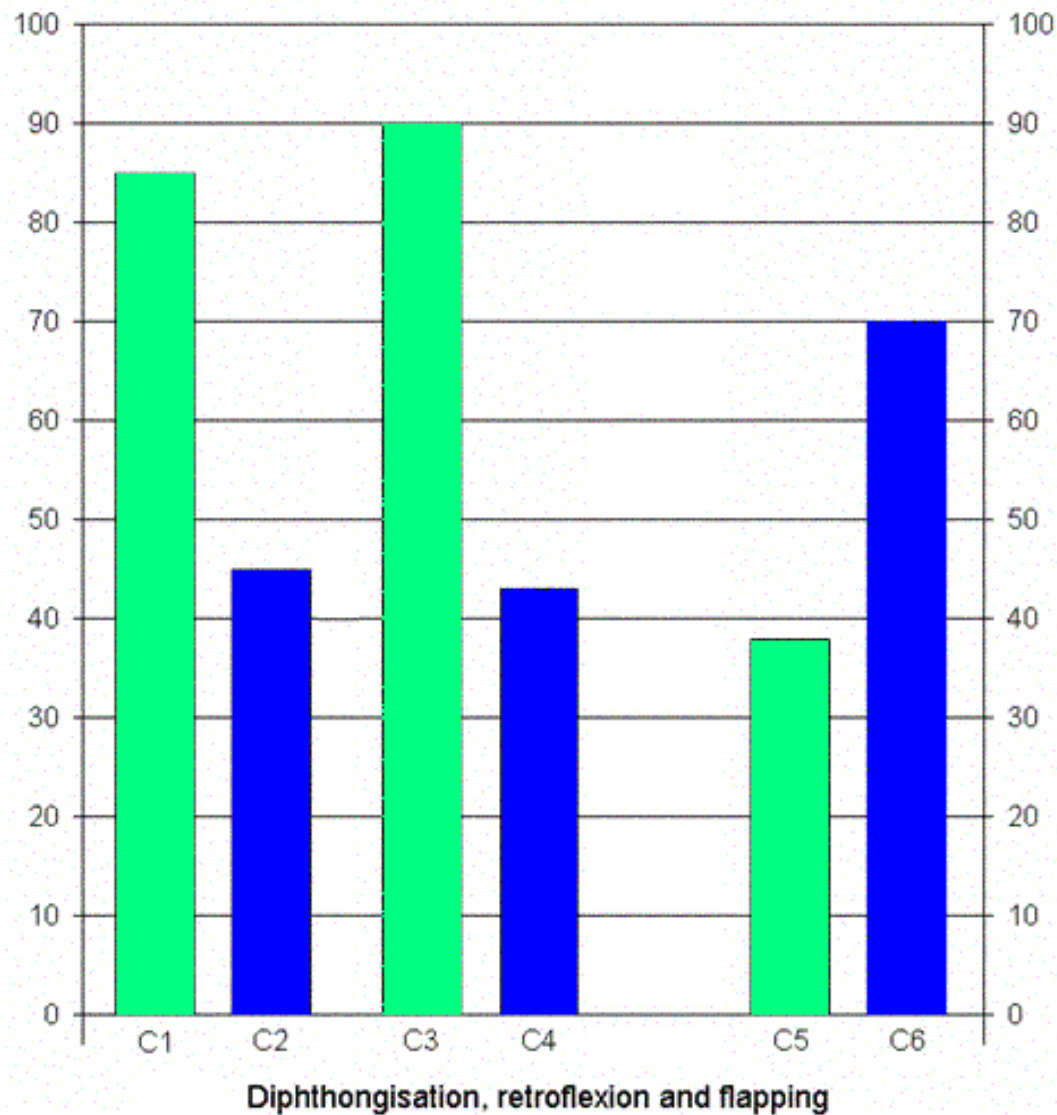
3) T-*flapping* (traditional feature)

[-r-] versus [-ɾ-]

n = 40, 40	yes	no
Male	28 (70%)	12 (30%)
Female	15 (38%)	25 (62%)

Test sentence: *There's a LETTER for you today.*

Gender-differentiated realisations



new features:

C1-GOAT_diphthong (f) (85%)

C2-GOAT_diphthong (m) (45%)

C3-NORTH_retroflex-/r/ (f) (90%)

C4-NORTH_retroflex-/r/ (m) (43%)

traditional feature:

C5-LETTER_T-flapping (f) (38%)

C6-LETTER_T-flapping (m) (70%)

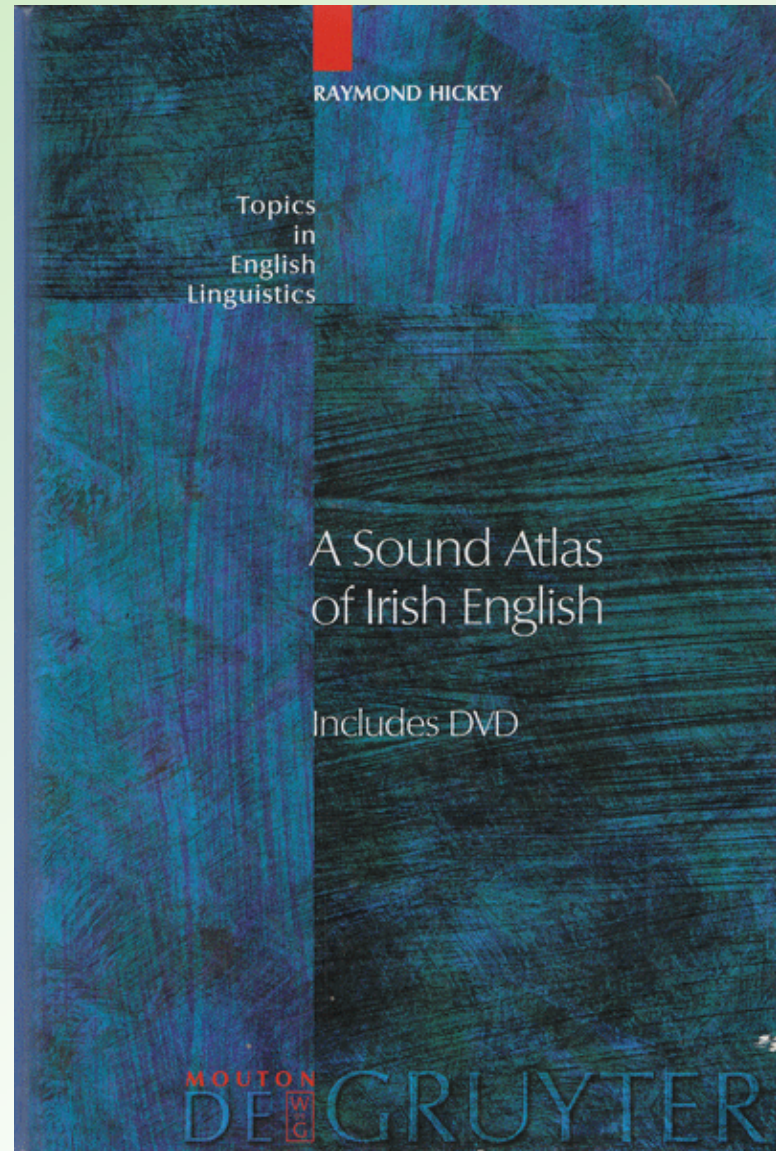
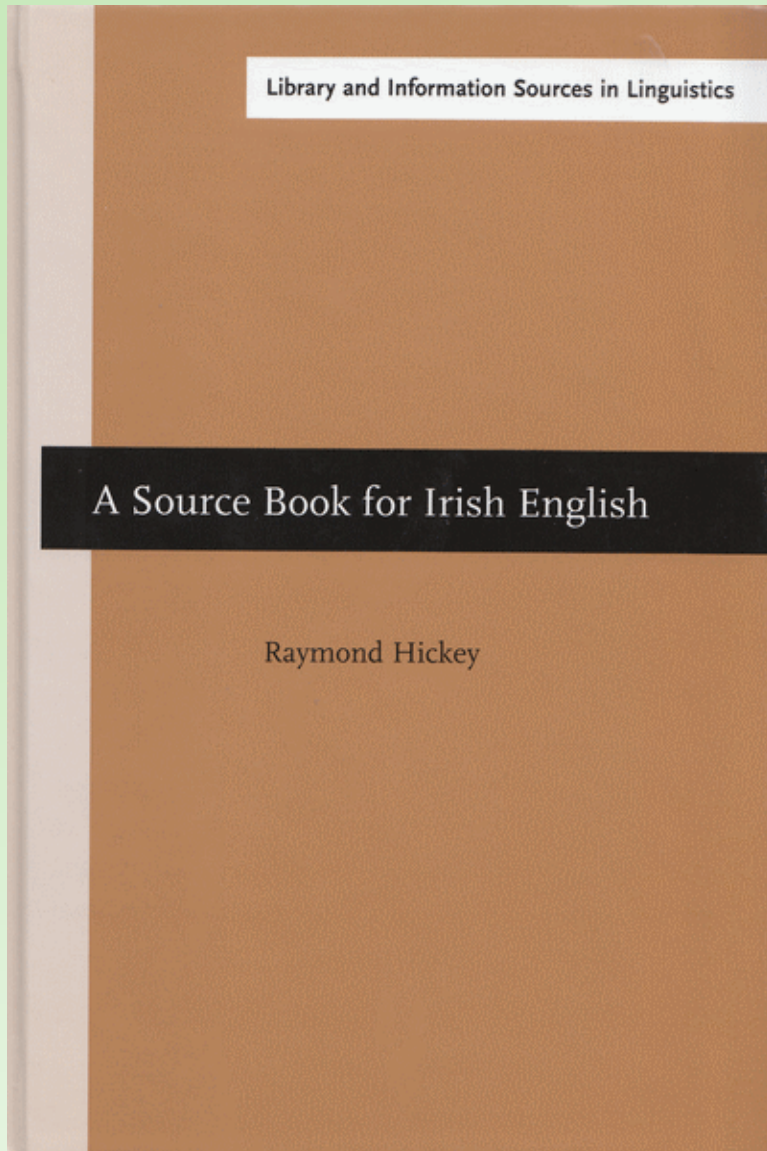
Perception of change by the general population

When language variation proceeds towards language change it becomes more and more noticed by the general population. In this situation the change is universally condemned (true for all instances). In the case of Dublin English negative references abound to the front vowel in a word like *roundabout* or the perky 'r' in a word like *Cork* or the high vowel in a word like *toy*. Sometimes a label arises for the new pronunciation. This happened in Dublin where it was called 'Dortspeak' (from 'Dartspeak') for a time.

But people can get used to anything, including a new pronunciation, and with time the excitement and the condemnation subsides and the 'new' becomes 'normal' until the next set of changes comes along.



Recent literature on Dublin English and Irish English in general





Varieties of English Around the World G35



Dublin English

Evolution and change

Raymond Hickey

John Benjamins Publishing Company

STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Raymond Hickey

Irish English

History and present-day forms

CAMBRIDGE



Recommended literature

- Corrigan, Karen 2010. *Irish English – Northern Ireland*. Edinburgh: University Press.
- Filppula, Markku 1999. *The Grammar of Irish English. Language in Hibernian style*. London: Routledge.
- Hickey, Raymond 2004. *A Sound Atlas of Irish English*. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Hickey, Raymond 2005. *Dublin English. Evolution and Change*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hickey, Raymond 2007. *Irish English. History and Present-Day Forms*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Hickey, Raymond (ed.) 2004. *Legacies of Colonial English*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Kirk, John M. and Dónall Ó Baoill (eds) 2001. *Language Links: the Languages of Scotland and Ireland*. Belfast Studies in Language, Culture and Politics, 2. Belfast: Queen's University.
- McCafferty, Kevin 2001. *Ethnicity and Language Change. English in (London)Derry, Northern Ireland*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Milroy, James 1981. *Regional Accents of English: Belfast*. Belfast: Blackstaff.
- Milroy, Lesley 1987 [1980]. *Language and Social Networks*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Blackwell.

Website for Irish English: www.uni-due.de/IERC

Irish English Resource Centre, (c) Raymond Hickey - Windows Internet Explorer

D:\Drive_E\WebSites\IrishEnglishResourceCentre\index.html

Irish English Resource Centre, (c) Raymo...

Sound Atlas of Irish English

Language in Ireland website

Irish English Resource Centre

- > Themes <
- > Site Map <
- > Menus as tree <

Move the mouse pointer to a menu above and choose a sub-menu to view contents

[about this website] [help]

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Thankyou for your attention.

Any questions?

Raymond Hickey
English Linguistics
University of Duisburg and Essen
Campus Essen

Email: raymond.hickey@uni-due.de

