

THE RELATION BETWEEN LITERARY LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS IN DIFFERENT PERIODS OF VARIOUS LANGUAGES

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Strictly speaking, we know in advance that it is impossible to set up a limited number of types that would do full justice to the peculiarities of thousands of languages and dialects spoken on the surface of the earth.

The question is often asked: what is the difference between a language and a dialect? different answers may be given. One might answer that languages are officially accepted as national means of expression, while dialects are not. From the literary viewpoint, one might say that a language is a form of speech that has given rise to a literature, a dialect, one that has not. Another possible reply would be that there is no difference between languages and dialects, languages being dialects, which for some special reason (such as being the speech-form of the area in which the seat of government is situated) have gained pre-eminence over the other dialects of the country.¹ The varieties of the language are conditioned by language communities ranging from small groups to nation. According to Shweitzer's conception, national language is a historical category evolving from conditions of economic and political concentration which characterizes the formation of a nation. In other words, national language is the language of a nation, the standard of its form, the language of a nation's literature.²

A national language has two material forms: 1) written, i.e. the literary

¹ Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p. 35.

² М. А. Соколова и другие, Теоритическая фонетика английского языка, Владос, Москва 2004, с. 248.

language, and 2) spoken, the speech of the nation. but spoken language is not so uniform, it may vary from locality to locality. Such distinct forms of a language are called dialects. These dialects may differ from one another in the following respects: 1) in grammar, 2) in vocabulary, and 3) in pronunciation. The era of the appearance of the first slaveholding states of the ancient East prepared the way for new languages to develop. A great part in the history of language was played by written language that was as a means of state control (to estimate the taxes and duties of conquered peoples, issue laws, record the names of members of the government, carry out diplomatic correspondence, etc). With the appearance of written language, the first literary languages came into being. The formation of a literary language is usually marked by certain standards such as the establishment of schools where they teach correct speech. The most ancient literary languages are Shumerian (beginning in the 4th millennium B.C.), Assyro-Babylonian (3rd -4th millennium B.C.). The literary language was available only to a small section of the population and did not exercise a very profound influence on the development of a popular language. That gave rise to fundamental divergences between the literary and the spoken language. At a certain point the literary language reached its apex and stopped developing, while the spoken language was irresistibly pushing forward. Soon there was a real gulf between these two forms of language, and it was then that a new literary language came on to the arena on the basis of the spoken language. In the history of Ancient Egypt, for example, there were at least four literary languages in succession: Old Egyptian (30th-23rd centuries B.C.), Middle Egyptian (22nd- 16th centuries B.C.), New Egyptian (15th-12th centuries B.C.) and Demothian (from the 7th B.C. until the 5th century A.D.). Either the new literary language replaced the old one completely, or a distinction was made between the use of language in different fields: the Old literary language could prolong its existence as a language of religion and science. Some traces of this simultaneous application of two literary languages can be seen, for example, in the Bible, the oldest part of which is written in ancient Hebrew, and the second part in Aramic. The situation in Ancient Greece was quite different. There were

several Greek dialects divided by linguists into four groups: Aeolian, Doric and Ionian-Attic. Some of these dialects had literary traditions – Lesbian (the Aeolian group) from the 7th century B.C. onwards, Monian from the 7th B.C., and Attic (the city of Athens) from the 5th century B.C. The political and cultural role of Athens in Greece led to predominance of the Attic dialect.¹

It should be noted that the notions of literary language do not coincide. Literary language is opposed to colloquial, spoken language, while common language is opposed to dialect. The spread of a common language normally implies the existence of a literary language, though the latter may exist without the first. Several dialects can exist of one language with a corresponding literary language for each one; at the same time, there may be no common language. It goes without saying that a common language can only arise when the actual prerequisites for a geographical division of labour exist and when, therefore, the need appears for a common medium of communication used not by a narrow circle of civilized people but by broad masses of population. These conditions arose in the East Mediterranean in the 3rd century B.C.; but the subsequent development of the Eastern Roman Empire(Byzantine), the return to the natural economy, and the Arab and Turkish conquests contributed to the disappearance of this common language, which disintegrated into various dialects. Latin had a similar fate. The conquest of Italy by Rome brought Latin and the related Italian languages and dialects together. Latin won and became the common language in Italy, and later in other areas conquered by Rome. Since the 3rd century B.C. the Latin literary language developed, reaching its zenith in the 1st century B.C., having absorbed numerous Greek borrowings. Side by side with this classical Latin, vulgar Latin went on developing, as the common spoken language in Italy, Gallia, Iberia, North Africa and some other parts of the Balkan peninsula. Brought to new countries and interacting with local languages, provincial vulgar Latin naturally began to diffuse, but as long as the Roman Empire existed, the literary language hindered this process. There

¹ Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p.p. 25-36.

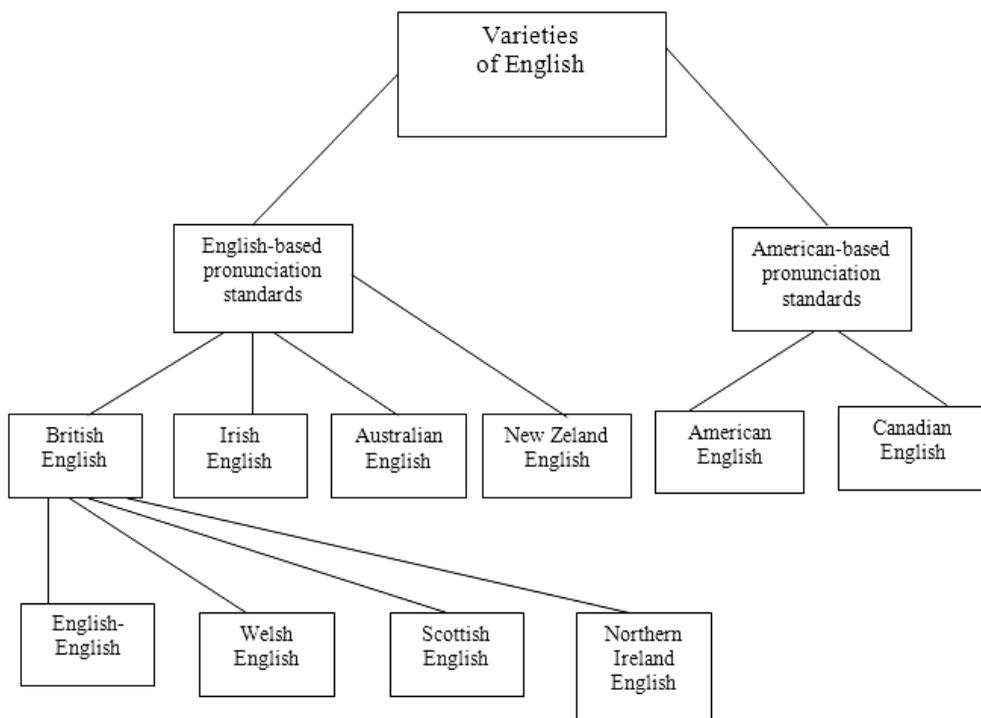
was a radical change in this situation in the 5th century. The German invasion and the entrenchment of barbarian rule over the territory of the Empire led to a decline in education which limited the use of classical Latin; even in the monasteries, the literary Latin that predominated was based on Vulgar Latin.¹

English is more widespread and scattered territorially than any other single language in the world. From the viewpoint of the number of people whose mother tongue it is, English is second only to Chinese. The number of native speakers of English in the whole world is estimated at about 300 million people, and all the English-speaking nations have their own standard variants of English pronunciation, which, in their turn, may have educated regional and uneducated local types of pronunciation. English is the national language of GB, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and part of Canada. English was originally spoken in England and south-eastern Scotland. Then it was introduced into greater part of Scotland and Southern Ireland. In the 7th century and 18th centuries, it was brought to North America. Later in the 18th and 19th centuries, English was exported to Australia, New Zealand and south Africa owing to the colonial expansion. English became widespread in Wales at about the same time. Welsh English is very similar to Southern English, although the influence of Welsh has played a role in its formation. Then in the 20th century American English began to spread in Canada, Latin America, on the Bermudas, and in other parts of the world. Thus, nowadays, two main types of English are spoken in English-speaking world: English–English and American English.

According to British dialectologists (P.Trudgill, J.Hannah, A.Hughes and others), the following variants of English are referred to the English-based group: English–English, Welsh English, Australian English, New Zealand English; to the American-based group: United States English, Canadian English. Scottish and Irish English fall somewhere between the two, being somewhat to themselves.²

¹ Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p.p. 26-27.

² М. А. Соколова и другие, Теоритическая фонетика английского языка, Владос, Москва, 2004, с. 252.



Dialects of Britain are numerous and varied. There are 9 principal dialects in Scotland, 3 in Ireland, and 30 in England and Wales. Among the chief English dialects are Cornwall, Devon, Somerset, Dorset, Gloucestershire, Oxfordshire, Shropshire, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Northumberland, Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Cockney, and Sussex. Some of the English dialects still use *thou* and *thee* instead of *you*. *Thik* is Wexfordshire dialect for *this*; Gloucestershire uses *thak* for *that*; *hoo* is Yorkshire dialect for *she*. In Sussex they use *scrump* for *apple*; *butterfly day* for *bright day*, and *drythe* for *drought*. Ulster, in Ireland, uses *dayligone* for *twilight*.¹

The English-English type of pronunciation is variously known also as Standard English Pronunciation, Received Pronunciation (RP), and Public

¹ Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p. 36.

School Pronunciation. For reasons of politics, commerce and the presence of the court the pronunciation of the south-east of England, and more particularly that of the London region began to acquire in the 16th century an exceptional social prestige in England. In time, it lost some of the local characteristics of London speech. In present-day England, great prestige is still attached to the implicitly accepted social standard of pronunciation. It has become still more widely known and accepted through the advent of radio and television.¹ Roughly speaking the non-RP accents of England may be grouped like this:

1) Southern accents:

a) Southern accents (Greater London, Cockney, Surrey, Kent, Essex, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire);

b) East Anglia accents: (Lincolnshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Bedfordshire, Northamptonshire, Leicestershire);

c) South-West accents: (Gloucestershire, Avon, Somerset, Wiltshire);

2) Northern and Midland accents:

a) Northern accents (Northumberland, Durham, Cleveland);

b) Yorkshire accents;

c) North-West accents;

d) West Midland: (Birmingham, Wolverhampton).²

RP is a genuinely regionless accent within Britain, i.e. if speakers have it, it is not possible to tell which area of Britain they come from; which is not the case for any other type of British accents. Anyway, considerable changes are observed in the sound system of the present-day English, which are most remarkable since the Great Vowel Shift in the Middle English period. Educated Southern speech is very much near-RP accent, whereas non standard accents are much near Cockney. Cockney accent is a social accent – the speech of working class areas of the Greater London. It has various pronunciation

¹ V. A. Vassilyev, English Phonetics(A Theoretical Course),Higher School Publishing House,Moscow 1970, p. 38.

² М. А. Соколова и другие,Теоритическая фонетика английского языка, Владос, Москва 2004, с. 254.

peculiarities, for example, the diphthong [ei] is realized as [æi] or [ai]: *lady*- [ˈleɪdi]- [ˈlæɪdi]- [ˈlaɪdi]; [ʌ] is realized as [æi]: *blood* – [blʌd] – [blæɪd]; the contrast between [θ] and [f] is completely lost: *thin* – [θɪn] – [fɪn], *booth* – [bu.θ]- [bu:f]; [ŋ] is replaced by [n] in word-final position: *dancing*-[ˈda:nsɪ ŋ]- [ˈda:nsɪn] or it may be pronounced as [ɪŋk] in *something*, *anything*, *nothing*: [ˈnʌfɪŋk].¹ The London Cockney drops its *h*'s at the beginning of words, saying *'ouse* instead of *house*, *eat* instead of *heat*, and so on.

The counties of northern England are not far from the Scottish border, so the influence of Scotch accent is noticeable, though there are, of course, many features of pronunciation characteristic only of northern English regions. The most typical representative of the speech of this area is Newcastle accent. In Wales, English dominates over Welsh in urban areas, in west and north-west of the country the balance being in favour of Welsh, where English is learnt at schools as a second language. However, Welsh English at the level of educated speech and writing is not much different from that of English-English. Most differences are found at the level of more localized dialects.

The status of Scottish English is still debated. Some linguists say that it is a national variant, others say that it is a dialect. English has been spoken in Scotland for as long as it has been spoken in England. In the Highlands and Islands of northern and western Scotland, however, Gaelic is still the native language of thousands of speakers from these regions. A standardized form of this language, known as Scots, was used at the court and in literature until the Reformation. Then it was gradually replaced by English. Nowadays educated Scottish people speak a form of Scottish Standard English which grammatically and lexically is not different from English used elsewhere, although with an obvious Scottish accent.²

As for American English, 3 main types of cultivated speech are

¹ М. А. Соколова и другие, Теоритическая фонетика английского языка, Владос, Москва 2004, с. 266.

² М. А. Соколова и другие, Теоритическая фонетика английского языка, Владос, Москва 2004, с. 270-272.

distinguished: Eastern, Southern, and Mid-western or General American with about 30, 40, and 110 million speakers respectively. The formation of the American standard underwent the influence of minorities' languages but its starting point was the English language of the early 17th century. However, time has passed, American English has drifted considerably from English-English though as yet not enough to give ground to speak of two different languages. Thus, we speak of the national variant of English in America. American English shows a lesser degree of dialect than British, due to some historical factors: the existence of Standard English when the first English settlers came to America, the high mobility of population, internal migrations of different communities and so on. As regard pronunciation, however, it is not at all homogeneous.¹ The most widespread type of educated American Speech is General American (GA), also known as Northern American or Western American Spoken in central Atlantic States: New York, New Jersey, Wisconsin and others. GA is known to be the pronunciation standard of the USA. It is the form of speech used by radio and television. GA is mostly used in scientific, cultural and business intercourse.² Deeper examination, like that being carried on for the Linguistic Atlas of the United states, reveals the presence of at least twenty-four clearly-defined regional dialects, most of which are located east of the Mississippi. A few words pronounced by an American are enough to place him. *Greazy*, for example, would place the speaker south of Philadelphia, while *greassy* would place him north of Trenton. The pronunciation of *r* after vowels (*father* as against *fatheh*) distinguishes the Philadelphian from the New Yorker. According to some authorities, the southern drawl and the New England twang are in danger of disappearing, while Midwestern speech, or General American, is spreading. This is due to the migration of large numbers of Midwesterners to other parts of the country, imposing their type of speech.³

¹ V. A. Vassilyev, *English Phonetics (A Theoretical Course)*, Higher School Publishing House, Moscow 1970, p. 41.

² М. А. Соколова и другие, *Теоритическая фонетика английского языка*, Владос, Москва 2004, с. 277.

³ Berezin F., *Lectures on Linguistics*, Moscow 1969, p. 36.

The Eastern type is spoken along the east coast of New England and largely in New York city. It bears a close resemblance to the Southern English type, which is explained by the fact that the New England states were in closer contact with Britain during the colonization of America and reflected the changes which had taken place in the pronunciation of London English by the end of the 18th century. The Southern type is used in the south and south-east of the United States. Its most striking distinctive feature is the so-called Southern drawl, which is a specific way of pronouncing vowels, consisting in the diphthongization and even triphthongization of some simple vowels and monophthongization of some diphthongs at the expense of prolonging (“drawling”) their nuclei and dropping the glides. Thus, *that* may be pronounced [ðæiət], *this* [ðijəs], *cute* [kjuət], *yes* [jeiəs], *fine* [fa:n], *high* [ha:], etc The Southern type has some features in common with RP: the dropping of [r] after [ɜ:] and [ə], the use of the clear [l] before a vowel and some others.¹

Sometimes certain accents, words and expressions are used by people mixing with the higher strata of society, reflecting social differences. In the USA, for example, [ve'z] and [tə'me'toʊ] are the more common pronunciation, and [va:z] and [tə'ma:toʊ] are generally regarded as somewhat affected.

On the American continent, there is one more national type of English pronunciation, the Canadian type used by more than 14 million English-speaking Canadians. Canadian English exhibits features common with GA, on the one hand, and with RP, on the other. It is said that an Anglo-Canadian is taken for an American in England and an Englishman in the United States. Like GA speakers, most Canadian use the retroflex [r] and dark [ɫ] in all positions and pronounce [æ] in place of [a:] in words like: *glass*, *dance*, etc The most characteristic feature of the Australian and New Zealand types of English pronunciation is the use of the diphthong [ʌi] in place of the RP diphthong [ei], as in *nation* – [ˈnʌiʃən], *Australia* – [o:s'trʌɪljə], etc²

¹ V. A. Vassilyev, *English Phonetics (A Theoretical Course)*, Higher School Publishing House, Moscow 1970, p. 41.

² V. A. Vassilyev, *English Phonetics (A Theoretical Course)*, Higher School Publishing House, Moscow 1970, p.p. 54-55.

The analysis of the interrelation of literary languages and dialects includes two problems: the problem of dialectal bases of literary languages, and the problem of the degree of purity of dialects. In the first case, the literary languages are examined according to their relation to a dialect, while in the second case, the dialects are examined according to their relation to literary languages. Up to now, in Armenian dialectology the purity of dialects was defined according to their relation to the standard variant. As a standard variant usually was taken Old Armenian (Grabar) (especially in the field of phonetics), sometimes the Eastern or Western Armenian literary languages (especially in the field of morphology). The history of the Armenian language comprises the following three periods: Old Armenian (Grabar) (5th-12th centuries), Middle Armenian (12th-16th centuries), and New Armenian (17th-21st centuries). The literary language of Old Armenian period is grabar, and naturally, while speaking about that period, the factor of the dialectal basis is Grabar and the degree of purity of dialects of that period compared with grabar is of primary importance. The problem comes in during the Middle Armenian period, as together with literary Middle Armenian Grabar also functioned and Middle Armenian did not possess a stable standard norm and had different literary variants. The same problematic situation is observed in the period of New Armenian, as we deal with two literary languages, and consequently, with two literary norms.¹

The first records about Armenian dialects are observed in works of M.Khorentsi, Koryoun and Armenian grammarians. Later on, Dutch Armenologist Shroder in his "Thesaurus Linguae Armeniacae", mentioned about the dialects of Agouli, Jugha, Tbilisi, Gharabagh, and Van. Armenian dialects have all the sounds that are observed in the literary language and have a great number of sounds which are marked by adding conventional signs to letters, for example, h' as a voiced sound, η° as a plosive sound, ϕ^f diphthongal sound as a cluster of ϕ and ξ, etc²

According to G.Jahoukyan, the similar characteristic traits in common for all dialects are the basic word stock and the bases of the grammatical structure.

¹ Գ. Ջահուկյան, Հայ բարբառագիտության ներածություն, Երևան, 1972, էջ 192-193:

² Ա. Ղարիբյան, Հայ բարբառագիտություն, Երևան 1953, էջ 37-41:

Words and roots included in the word stock are universal for all dialects as well as for Old Armenian, Middle Armenian, and New Armenian.¹

The fate of the French language was quite different. Though the first works in this language appeared even in the 8th century, the prime of the French literature dated from the end of the 11th century (at that period the national epic “The Song of Roland” was composed). The dialects of France then had only slightest differences and poets writing in their native dialects were easily understood by listeners in every corner of the country. By the 12th century the first signs of a particular ascendancy of the Île-de-France dialect (with Paris as its centre) became noticeable. Non-Parisian pronunciation was already laughed at in the Royal Court and poets who had been born outside Paris tried to get rid of their regional expressions and accents. By the 14th century, the Paris dialect had completely conquered all the others in literature and was beginning to replace Latin in official documents. The rise of French literature caused the French language to become enormously popular throughout the country and beyond its borders: in Germany, Italy, and Spain, where a great many writers used the French language. The growing political influence of Paris and the establishment of royal authority over the landlords helped the French literary language, based on Île-de-France dialect to become the common language of the emergent French nation – the national French language. Side by side with standardization of the written language, purism made its first appearance, a trend aimed at “cleansing” the language both of foreign words (in case of the French language it was a question of ousting Italian and Latin words) and of “low” words, popular and dialect words. French has several dialects, including Picard, Norman, Lorrain and, Walloon.

Whereas the French literary language had a long and turbulent history, following but rather lagging behind the spoken language, the Italian literary language was created “at once” by efforts of two or three generations of great writers: Dante, Petrarch and, Boccaccio. After that, it did not change much. The dialect of Florence provided the basis for the literary language. It was later modified by the efforts of numerous Academies which were founded in the 16th

¹ Ա. Ղարիբյան, Հայ բարբառագիտություն, Երևան 1953, էջ 37-41, 71:

century in almost every large city. The dialects of Italy are, in proportion to its population and area, probably the most numerous and varied of any language, they include Sicilian, Neapolitan, Roman, Tuscan, Venetian and, the Gallo-Italian dialects of north-western Italy.

The formation of common languages in the North and East of Europe took place in complicated circumstances. After the Great Migration of the Peoples (by the end of the 5th century) the dialects of the great tribes of Franks, Saxons, Bavars, Allemannes, Turings that had existing on the territory of Modern Germany died out. The first written records of German dialects began to appear in the 8th century and their volume increased with the passing of the centuries. In the beginning, they were exclusively translations from Latin, but later original works of literature appeared, including fiction, law, history and commerce as its subjects. At the end of the 13th century, attempts were made to create a literary language dominating the dialects, but they were unsuccessful. It should be added that in the northern part of Germany in the 14th and 15th centuries, when the Hanseatic Trade League was at its peak, the common Low German language was created on the basis of the urban Lübeck dialect. It exercised a powerful influence on the development of the Scandinavian languages, but existed only for a short time, sinking later to the level of a German dialect. A common German literary had arisen by the end of the 15th century in the East of the country, in Saxony. It was only beginning to take root when a number of immigrants from all parts of Germany came there, so that there was a mixture of dialects. The transformation of this literary language into a common German language was greatly hastened by Martin Luther, the leader of the German Reformation, who translated the Bible into German, proving himself an outstanding master of style. In Germany, as in Italy, political fragmentation hindered the final triumph of the common language over the dialects. The literary language was not standardized until rather late; for example, the final set of the orthographic and pronunciation rules over the common German language was completed only at the beginning of the 20th century.¹

¹ Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p.p. 28-30

ԳՐԱԿԱՆՈՒԹՅՈՒՆ

1. Գ. Ջահուկյան, Հայ բարբառագիտության ներածություն, Երևան 1972, էջ 192-193:
2. Ա. Ղարիբյան, Հայ բարբառագիտություն, Երևան 1953, էջ 37-41, 71:
3. Berezin F., Lectures on Linguistics, Moscow 1969, p.p. 25-36.
4. V. A. Vassilyev, English Phonetics (A Theoretical Course), Higher School Publishing House, Moscow 1970, p.p. 38, 41, 54-55.
5. М. А. Соколова и другие, Теоритическая фонетика английского языка Владос, Москва 2004, с. 248, 252, 254, 266, 270-272, 277.

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Նունե ՄԱՐԻԿՅԱՆ

ԱՍՓՈՓՈՒՄ

Գրական լեզուների և բարբառների փոխհարաբերությունն ունի երկու կողմ՝ գրական լեզուների բարբառային հիմքերի հարցը և բարբառների մաքրության աստիճանի հարցը:

Հոդվածում ներկայացված է մի շարք լեզուների (Անգլերեն, Հայոց, Ֆրանսերեն, Գերմաներեն, Իտալերեն) գրական և բարբառային տարբերակների փոխհարաբերությունը այդ լեզուների լազրագցման տարբեր շրջաններում:

ВЗАИМООТНОШЕНИЕ ЛИТЕРАТУРНЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ И ДИАЛЕКТОВ В РАЗНЫЕ ПЕРИОДЫ РАЗВИТИЯ НЕКОТОРЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ

Нуне МАРИКЯН

РЕЗЮМЕ

Взаимоотношение литературных языков и диалогов имеет две стороны: вопрос диалектных основ литературных языков и проблема степени чистоты диалектов.

В статье представлено взаимоотношение литературных языков (Английский, Армянский, Французский, Немецкий, Итальянский) в разные периоды их развития.