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Content List of Numbers and Table Notes to Editors Notes on Contributors Foreword Confessions 1 Historical Dialectology and Angus Mackintosh Legacy by Ron Alcorn, Joanna Kopaczyk, Bettlu Los and Benjamin Molineaux Part 1 Creation and Digital Resource Mining 2 Parsed Linguistic Atlas of Early Middle English Robert Truswell, Rona Alcorn, James Donaldson and Joel Wall Approach Scots Dunfermline Corpus, 1573-1723 Klaus Hofmann 4 Early Spelling Evidence for Scots L-Vocalization: Corps-based Benjamin Moline Warren Maguire, Rona Alcorn, Vasilis Karaiskos and Bettlu Los Part 2 Segmental Stories 5 Old and Medium English Spelling for OE hw-, with a special reference to e) LALME, LAOS and CoNE Margaret Lang and Roger Lass 6 Development of Old English æ: Average English Spelling Evidence Gtrud Fjer. Stenbrenden 7 Development of the old English eo/o and systematicity of the average English spelling of Merya Stenroos 8 Study of evidence for phonemic affricates: Average English /tʃ, /dʒ/ or t-ʃ, d-ʒ? Donka Minkova Part 3 Placement Features in context 9 Predictability S Abbreviation in Old Scottish Manuscripts according to Stem-Final Littera Daisy Smith 10 East Anglia Poem in London Manuscript? The date and dialect of the Court of Love at Cambridge, Trinity College, MS R.3.19 Ad Putter 11 It was a good hammer, was it: Gender as a marker for South Western English dialects. A corps-based study from the Diachronic Perspective Of the Trinidad Guzm'n-Gonzalez Index Dialectology (from Greek διάλεκτος, dialektos, talking, dialect; and -λογία, -logia) scientific study of linguistic dialect, sub-field sociolinguistics. It studies differences in language based mainly on geographical distribution and related characteristics. Dialectology examines topics such as the divergence between two local dialects and synchronous variations. Dialectologists are ultimately concerned about grammatical, lexical and phonological features that correspond to regional areas. Thus, they usually deal not only with populations that have lived in certain areas for generations, but also with groups of migrants who bring their languages to new areas (see language contact). Common concepts of dialectology include the problem of mutual intelligibility in the definition of languages and dialects; situation of diglossia, where two dialects are used for different functions; a continuum dialect comprising a number of partially mutually intelligent dialects; and pluricentrism, where what is essentially a single genetic language exists as two or more standard varieties. Hans Kurat and William Labov are some of the most outstanding researchers in this field. Dialects of English history in London, there were comments on various dialects recorded in 12th century sources, and a large number of dialectic glossaries (with a focus on vocabulary) were published in the 19th century. Philologists also study dialects, preserving earlier forms of words. In the UK, philologist Alexander John Ellis described the pronunciation of English dialects in an early phonetic system in volume 5 of his series On Early English Pronunciation. The English Dialect Society was later created by Joseph Wright to record dialectic words in the British Isles. This culminated in the creation of a six-volume English dialect dictionary in 1905. The English dialect society was then disbanded, as its work was considered completely, although some regions regional branches (e.g. Yorkshire Dialect Society) still operate today. Traditional studies in Dialectology generally were aimed at producing dialect maps, whereby imaginary lines were drawn over the map to show different areas of the dialect. However, the shift away from traditional methods of language learning has led linguists to become more concerned about social factors. Dialectologists have thus begun to study social as well as regional differences. The Linguistic Atlas of the United States (1930s) was one of the first dialect studies taking into account social factors. Under the direction of Harold Orton, the University of Leeds became a centre for the study of English dialect and established the Institute of Dialects and Folk Life Studies. In the 1950s, the university conducted a survey of English dialects that covered all of England, some bordering areas of Wales and the Isle of Man. In addition, before the death of Harold Orton in 1975, the university conducted more than 100 dialect monographs. The institute closed in September 1983 to accommodate budget cuts for the university, but its dialectological studies are now part of a special collection, the Leeds Archive of Popular Culture, at the University's Bratton Library. Thus, as a result of this change of interest, sociolinguistics, which is a mixture of dialectology and social sciences, were born. However, Graham Shorrocks argues that there has always been a sociological element of dialectology and that many of the conclusions of sociolinguists (e.g. relationships with gender, class and age) can be found in earlier works by traditional dialectologists. In the United States, most of the dialectological works were on a regional basis before the advent of sociolinguistics. Hans Kurat published the New England Linguistic Geography Handbook in 1939. Similar works were later published for the States of the Mid-Atlantic and the South Atlantic, for the northern central states, for the Upper Midwest, for the Rocky Mountain States, for the Pacific Coast and for the Gulf States. French Dialects by Jules Gillieron linguistic atlas of 25 French-speaking places Switzerland in 1880. In 1888, Gillieron responded to Gaston Paris's call for a survey of French dialects, which is likely to be closed by standard French in the near future by proposing Atlas Linguistique de la France. Atlas's chief field worker, Edmond Edmont, surveyed 639 rural areas in French-speaking areas of France, Belgium, Switzerland and Italy. Initially, the questionnaire included 1,400 items, but it was later increased to more than 1,900 points. The Atlas was published in 13 volumes between 1902 and 1910. German dialects The first comparative dialect study in Germany was the Dialects of Bavaria in 1821 by Johann Andreas Schmeller, which included a linguistic atlas. In 1873, a parish named L. Libic surveyed the German-speaking areas of Alsace using a postal questionnaire covered by phonology and grammar. He never published any of his findings. In 1876, Eduard Sievers published Elements of Phonetics, and a group of scientists formed a non-grammatical school. This work in linguistics influenced dialectology in German-speaking countries. In the same year, Jost Winteler published a monograph on the Kerentzen dialect in the canton of Glarus in Switzerland, which became a model for monographs in specific dialects. In addition, in 1876, Georg Wenker, a young schoolteacher from Dusseldorf, sent out postal questionnaires on Northern Germany. These postal questionnaires contained a list of sentences written in standard German. These sentences were then transcribed into a local dialect, reflecting dialect differences. He later expanded his work to cover the entire German Empire, including dialects in the east, which had been extinct since the territory was lost to Germany. Wenker later became Deutscher Sprachatlas at the University of Marburg. After Wenker's death in 1911, the work continued under the direction of Ferdinand Rde, and later questionnaires covered Austria as well as Germany. Dialects of Italian and Corsican languages The first treatment of Italian dialects is provided by Dante Alighieri in his treatise De vulgari eloquentia in the early fourteenth century. The founder of scientific dialectology in Italy was Graziadio Isaiah Ascoli, who in 1873 founded the magazine Archivio glottologico italiano, still active with L'Italia dialettale, which was founded by Clemente Merlot in 1924. After completing his work in France, Edmond Edmont surveyed 44 locations in Corsica for atlas Linguistics de la Cors. Two students from the French Atlas named Karl Jaberg and Jakob Jude surveyed Italian dialects in Italy and southern Switzerland in Sprach- und Sachatlas Italiens und der S'dschweiz. This survey influenced Hans Kurat's work in the United States. The Scots Dialects and the Gaelic Linguistic Survey of Scotland began in 1949 at the University of Edinburgh. The first part of the study Scots in the Scottish lowlands, Shetland, Orkney, Northern Ireland and two of England's northernmost counties: Cumberland (since then united in Cumbria) and Northumberland. Three volumes of results were published between 1975 and 1985. The second part studied Gaelic dialects, including mixed use of Gaelic and English, in the Scottish Highlands and the Western Isles. The results were published under the guidance of Cathair and Dochartaigh in five volumes between 1994 and 1997. Dialect data collection techniques researchers typically use predominantly interview questionnaires to collect data on the dialect they have researched. They should not be confused with so-called written questionnaires, which also had some applications in dialectology and which have recently returned to linguistics more generally. There are two main types of questionnaires; direct and indirect. Researchers using their face-to-face interviews direct method will present questions with a set of questions that require a specific answer and are designed to collect either lexical or phonological information. For example, a linguist might ask the subject for a name for different subjects, or ask him or her to repeat certain words. Indirect questionnaires tend to be more open and require more time to complete than direct questionnaires. The researcher using this method will sit down with the topic and start a conversation on a specific topic. For example, he might ask a question about farm work, food and cooking, or some other topic, and collect lexical and phonological information from the information provided by the subject. The researcher may also start the sentence, but allow the subject to finish it for him, or ask a question that does not require a specific answer, such as What are the most common plants and trees here? The main article on mutual intelligibility: Mutual intelligibility Some have tried to distinguish dialects from languages, saying that dialects of the same language are clear to each other. The following case of Italian and Spanish demonstrates the insolvency of this criterion. While speakers of the two languages can enjoy mutual understanding ranging from limited to significant, depending on the topic of discussion and experience of speakers with linguistic diversity, few would like to classify Italian and Spanish as dialects of the same language in any sense other than historical. Spanish and Italian are similar and to varying degrees mutually understandable, but phonology, syntax, morphology and lexicon are quite different that these two languages cannot be considered dialects of the same language (but a common ancestor of Latin). Diglossia Home article: Diglossia Another problem arises in the case of diglozia, used to describe in which, in this given given there are two closely related languages, one of high prestige, which is commonly used by the government and in official texts, and one of low prestige, which is usually spoken in the native language. An example of this is Sanskrit, which was considered the right way to speak in northern India, but was only available to the upper class, and Prakrit, which was a common (and informal or folk) speech at the time. Different degrees of diglozia are still prevalent in many societies around the world. Dialect Continuum Main article: Dialect continuum Basic continuum dialects in Europe in the mid-20th century ( ) Dialect continuum is a network of dialects in which geographically related dialects are mutually understood, but with comprehension steadily decreases as the distance between dialects increases. An example would be the Dutch-German continuum dialect, an extensive network of dialects with two recognized literary standards. Although the mutual intelligibility between standard Dutch and standard German is very limited, the chain of dialects connects them. Due to several centuries of influence of standard languages (especially in Northern Germany, where even today the original dialects are struggling for survival) there are now many gaps in legibility between geographically adjacent dialects along the continuum, but in the past these breaks were virtually non-existent. Romanesque languages - Galician/Portuguese, Spanish, Sicilian, Catalan, Okchitan/Provençal, French, Sardinian, Romanian, Romanesque, Friulian, other Italian, French and Iboro-Roman dialects and others - form another famous continuum with varying degrees of mutual intelligibility. In both areas - the German linguistic continuum, the Romanesque linguistic continuum - the relational concept of the term dialect is often deeply misunderstood and today creates significant difficulties in implementing European Union directives to support minority languages. Perhaps this is no more obvious than in Italy, where some of the population still use their local language (dialetto dialect) as the primary means of communication at home and, to varying degrees, in the workplace. Difficulties arise from terminological confusion. Languages, conventionally referred to as Italian dialects, are romantic fraternal languages of The Italian language, not variants of Italian, which are usually and correctly referred to as italiano regionale (regional Italian). The brand of The Italian dialect, as is commonly used, is more geopolitical in accuracy than linguistic: bolognese and Neapolitans, for example, are called Italian dialects, but are less similar to each other than Italian and Spanish. A misunderstanding ensues if the Italian dialect is considered an Italian dialect rather than a minority language spoken in Italian i.e. part of the network of the Romanesque linguistic continuum. Teh Teh The romantic language of Venice, for example, is impregnated with Italian, but completely different from the national language in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon, and in no way derivative or diverse national language. The Venetian dialect can be said to be both geographically and typologically, but it is not an Italian dialect. Pluricentrism Home article: Pluricentric language pluricentric language is a single genetic language that has two or more standard forms. An example would be Hindi, which includes two standard varieties, Urdu and Hindi. Another example is Norwegian, with Bokmul working closely with Danish and Swedish, and Nino as a partially reconstructed language based on old dialects. Both are recognized as official languages of Norway. In a sense, a set of dialects can be understood as part of a single diastem, abstraction, part of each dialect. In generative phonology, differences can be acquired through rules. An example can be taken with Occitan (the cover term for a set of related varieties of southern France) where 'caval' (from late Latin caballus, horse) is a diastem form for the following realizations of the Languedocien dialect: caval casing (L'gt'l, sometimes velar, used simultaneously with French borrowed forms of chival or chivau); Limousine Dialect: Chavau (ʃjavau cha and -L qgt; -u); Provençal dialect: kavau (-L-qgt; -u, used concurrently with French borrowed forms of knight or chivau); Gascon dialect: cavat (final -L-gt, sometimes non-flatisim, and used simultaneously with French borrowed forms of chibau) Auvergnat and Vivaro-Alpine dialects: chaval (ʃjavav) (same treatment of ka cluster, as in the limousine dialect) This conceptual approach can be used in practical situations. For example, when such a diastem is identified, it can be used to construct diaphonic atography that emphasizes the commonalities between varieties. Such a goal may or may not correspond to social and political preferences. Abstand and ausbau Languages Framework Main article: abstand and ausbau Languages One analytical paradigm developed by linguists known as abstand and ausbau framework languages. It has proved popular among linguists in continental Europe, but is not as well known in English-speaking countries, especially among people who are not trained linguists. While this is just one of many possible paradigms, it has the advantage of being built by trained linguists for the specific purpose of analyzing and classifying speech varieties, and has the added merit of replacing such loaded words as language and dialect with German terms ausbau language and language, words that are not (yet) loaded with political, cultural, or emotional connotations. See also Abstandsprache Language Dialectometry Language Review Links Links p.37 - Free, Craig (1991). Historiography of Dialectology (PDF). Knowledge and language. 10 (2): 67–74. 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