Lexical peculiarities of Irish English

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to illustrate the distinction of Irish English from the Standard English, especially in lexicon. The first part covers the history, geography and demography of the development of Ireland itself stating the historical facts that have had an impact on the language development. Later on in the paper, phonological, morphological and syntactical differences in usage are stated. The comparison and the varieties of Irish English dialects are depicted. Every part of the paper is supported with examples. The most important part of the paper is on lexicographical peculiarities that are specific to Irish English. How the lexical development started, the borrowings from Irish, the Celtic impact, new words and derivatives are topics dealt with in that chapter.

Key words: Irish English, phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicography

INTRODUCTION

To examine the lexical peculiarities of Irish English one has to start with the history, the development of Ireland itself. Many waves of migration, especially the Norman Conquest, Catholic and Protestant power, and the diversity of colonial languages, have created the Irish English varieties with their distinctive aspect of grammar and pronunciation. The influence of postcolonial varieties and the second language acquisition made some changes in Standard English. The most important factors that have had impact on the language evolution are geography, demography and socio-economic status. In many fields of phonetics and phonology we can state that Irish English has its own model of vowels, suprasegmentals, consonants usage, and that model is the most distinguishing feature. When we talk about verbs in Irish English we can confirm that morphologically and syntactically they deviate in usage from Standard English. The lexical peculiarities, as the title of the papers implies, some history of the lexicon of Northern Irish English. Many research papers, articles and dictionaries have been written after the word collecting and researching the development of Ireland. Many transfers, archaic and regional words have made the unique lexical items that do not have Standard English counterparts. But on the other hand the usage of English in Ireland over centuries has enriched the Irish lexicon with its phrases and words.

1. History

From the beginning of English, Irish people were considered as uncivilized and generally inferior. ''Somewhat later Giraldus Cambrensis,'Gerald of Wales', wrote two famous works, *Topographia Hiberniae*, a historical and geographical description of Ireland, and *Expugnatio Hibernica*, an account of the Norman conquest''(Hickey 41). In *Topographia Hiberniae* and *Expugnatio Hibernica*, Giraldus Cambrensis explained the difference between the uncivilized Irish and the enlightened conquerors and that remained true for the Irish people. With the bigger assimilation of the Normans to the Ireland, especially with the rise of the House of Tudor left the original settlers in Ireland in trouble and led to a two-dimensional view of barbarous Gaels and the civilized English. The Irish historian Richard Stanihurst wrote *The Description of Ireland* and he wrote:

> . . . this canker took such deep root, as the body that before was whole and sound was by little and little festered and in a manner wholly putrified . . . it is not expedient that the Irish tongue shall be so universally gaggled in the English Pale: because that by proof and experience we see, that the Pale was never in more flourishing estate than when it was wholly English, and never in worse plight than since it hath enfranchised the Irish. (Hickey 42).

The violent seventeenth century with the Catholic English Monarch, James II continued until **1960** when the Protestant power arrived and it lasted until the nineteenth century. The reversal was seen in romantic literature which led to a change in Irish language among the native Irish but the Catholic leader, Daniel O'Connell, was against the Irish language:

> I am sufficiently utilitarian not to regret its gradual abandonment. A diversity of tongues is no benefit; it was first imposed upon mankind as a curse, at the building of Babel. It would be of great advantage to mankind if all the inhabitants of the Earth spoke the same language. Therefore though the Irish language is connected with many recollections that twine around the hearts of Irishmen, yet the superior utility of the English tongue, as the medium of all modern communication, is so great that I can witness without a sigh the gradual disuse of Irish. (Hickey 43).

All of this led to the varieties of English in Ireland, especially in grammar and pronunciation.

1.1 Geography

From the creation of the state of Northern Ireland by the Government of Ireland Act in 1920 firstly created on the territory of Great Britain and the Republic of Ireland which became independent, Ireland consisted of six of the historical nine counties of Ulster. '' The Ulster dialects spoken in the remaining counties, Donegal (in the extreme west), Monaghan (south of Tyrone and Armagh), Cavan (south of both Fermanagh and Monaghan) and Leitrim (south of Fermanagh)..'' (Corrigan 16). Northern Ireland consists of a number of different geographic and socio- economic areas which is very important for every interpretation of the linguistics of the region. The most important factors that have impact on the language evolution are geography, demography and socio-economic status. '' it is well known that varieties spoken by 'tight knit' groups concentrated in remote areas survive more readily than those with low status used by a small number of 'loose-networked' individuals in a metropolis that already has a prestigious standard'' (Corrigan 17).

Picture number 1: The Counties of Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland has a more of a mixed geology which includes chalk and volcanic rocks, granite, limestone, dalradian, ordovician, new red sandstone, silurian and tertiary clays in the whole of the island. The last Ice Age played a key role in raising sea levels which lead to the disconnection of British Isles and the continent. Oceanic climate is characteristic of the Northern Ireland, a characteristic of the climate is high rainfall and minor ranges in temperature which

maintains its 'all-encompassing wetness' (Corrigan 20). Coastal areas are filled with seawater loughs which are historically and strategically important since they form the mobility of people and goods out of the region. The Strabane canal is important textile center, which is recently used as a tourist destination. ''…NI already had a system of turnpike roads (where users paid a toll). These linked Dublin with much of the east coast of NI as well as Armagh, the ecclesiastical capital, though Dublin was 'the dominant node on the Irish road network while Belfast had a regional role only'' (Corrigan 25). Nowadays Belfast is set in the middle of the road network.

1.2 Demography

The 2008 statistics estimate the resident population to 1.759 million. The ethnic minority groups mainly consisted of 'white' people with Chinese people. Therefore, Indian migrants settled in the western Northern Ireland while Chinese in the eastern regions. ''Although this native minority is small in number (1710 'Traveller' versus 12,569 'Other Ethnic Minority' according to the 2001 census), their culture, distribution, language and status have traditionally received considerably more attention'' (Corrigan 39). The impact of the migrants on the language is seen through these statistics:

> Nevertheless, there are various sources of other evidence for the extent of A8 immigration including the Department of Education, number of pupils who have English as an additional language and also provides a breakdown of their first languages (L1).Northern Ireland's (DENI) annual school census, which records the for example: in the 2006 return, of the 2,400 primary schoolchildren who had an L1 which was not English, 45 per cent of them spoke an A8 language; with Polish being the most common (see NISRA 2007). Similarly, the 2006–7. Annual Report from the NI Council for Ethnic Minorities (NICEM) provides an analysis of requests it received for translating and interpreting services. (Corrigan 40).

On the other hand ethnic majorities are categorized as the Catholic and Protestant communities. Catholics usually hold Nationalist objectives while Protestants choose the separation of Northern Ireland from the Republic of Ireland. Key components of the ethnic division are political aspirations, cultural identities and socio- economic inequality. ''Of the total population 86.1 per cent declared themselves to 'belong to a particular religion', the figures being 40.3 per cent 'Catholic', 20.7 per cent 'Presbyterian', '15.3 per cent Church of Ireland', 3.5 per cent 'Methodist', 6.1 per cent 'Other Christian' and 0.3 per cent 'Other Religions'' (Corrigan 41). The two ethnic majority groups, Catholic and Protestant, are the most significant culturally and socio- politically, their linguistic implications are seen through their concomitant traits; social disadvantages and the ethno- sectarian geography of Northern Ireland.

2. Phonetics and Phonology

Vowels and suprasegmentals are used to distinguish between varieties of English, as the most distinguishing features. ''Since describing the detailed vocalic differences across English vernaculars requires making difficult decisions about phonetic/phonemic status, vowel quality and which precise IPA set of symbols/diacritics best represent these, we are fortunate to be able to rely on the more clear-cut lexical set system originally devised for the publication of Wells'' (Corrigan 45). These established patterns of regional variation shown in the quotation above in the phonologies of English dialects and it is now considered as a standard model.

Table 2.1 Vocalic keywords in Wells (1982)

Kit	Dress	Trap	Lot	Strut	Foot	Bath
Cloth	Nurse	Fleece	Face	Palm	Thought	Goat
Goose	Price	Choice	Mouth	Near	Square	Start
North	Force	Cure	happY	LettER	HorsES	commA

Not every variety of English has a full set, each dialect differs. For example some have certain lexical sets members which disappear or conflict with one another, which are known as 'merger'. Some speakers of Northern Irish English have identical pronunciations for the word nurse <Norse> and <nurse> .

Table 2.2 Consonantal keywords adapted from Wells (1982)

THink	breatTHE	louGH	waTer	TRap	geT	feeL	soRE	WHich	Cab

Rhoticity or <r> that is pronounced or not pronounced post-vocalically is most commonly used in English. Irish English can differ from other non- Celtic languages. English was learned as a second language so it is the substrate or 'underlying donor' and has a role of superstrate or 'receiving target' language.

2.1 Northern Irish English vowels

The basic difference in vowel use is whether they use Scottish Vowel Length Rule processes, retain the historical phonemic vowel length of West Germanic or incorporate a mixed system of a modified SVLR pattern. The length of a vowel is decided by phonetic context e.g. <brew> [brʉ:] in the sentence task is long for such speakers, while it is short in <brood> [brʉd]. Vowels followed by /r, v, ð, z, ʒ/ and when they occur before an inflectional suffix are also long, although [brʉ:z] for <bruise> is more likely in the sentence task for these speakers as is [brʉ:d] for <brewed>. These processes thus permit the minimal pairs [brʉd] <brood> [brʉ:d] <brewed> in Ulster Scots, it also creates mergers of South Ulster English <caught> [kɔ:t]/<cot> [kɒt], both of which are realized with the short vowel [ɒ] in Ulster Scots.

Table 2.3 Vowel quantity in Northern Irish English/Ulster Scots

Long			Short
US	/i/	*Sea, breeze, fear, Fiat*	*Keen,seed,grass,geese,feet feel*
	/e/	*Day, daze, rain, fade,face,fate*	
	/ɛ/	*Des,pen,dead,mess,pet*	
MUE	/i/	*Sea,breeze,fear,Fiat*	*Keen,seed,grass,geese,feet feel*
	/e/	*Day,daze,rain,fade*	*Face, fate*
	/ɛ/	*Des, pen,dead,mess*	*pet*
SUE	/i/	*Sea,breeze,keen,seed,geese,feet,fear, Fiat*	
	/e/	*Day, daze, rain, fade, face, fate*	
	/ɛ/		*Des,pen,dead,mess,pet*

The impact of SVLR processes is seen in all three dialects, e.g. /ɛ, e, i/ vowels of the keywords dress, face and fleece used by Wells, /ɛ, e/ are always long, /i/ is long only in SVLR contexts, /ɛ/ is short in South Ulster English while /e, i/ are long irrespective of environment. Mid Ulster English, being a mixed version of these two, is slightly more complicated so that /i/ vowels undergo SVLR processes and while face vowels are partially impacted by these, /e/ is always long before sonorants (like /n/) and voiced stops (/d/). [ɛ] follows the same pattern as face, but it

is also always long in the context of voiceless fricatives /s/. Due to language contact phenomena aspects of vowel quality of Northern Irish English, deal with 'the trail of short u'. "In addition to the diphthongs /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/ described for Larne and Glenoe by Gregg (1975), as well as /au/ which does not occur in these conservative US varieties, what Wells terms 'the most typical system' includes those on the cardinal vowel diagram" (Corrigan 48).

Table 2.4 a list of the monophthongs and diphthongs in Northern Irish English /Ulster Scots

KIT	/ɪ/	FLEECE	/i/	NEAR	/ir/
DRESS	/ɛ/	FACE	/e/	SQUARE	/ɛr/
TRAP	/a/	PALM	/a/	START	/ar/
LOT	/ɒ, ɔ/	THOUGHT	/ɔ/	NORTH	/ɔr/
STRUT	/ʌ/	GOAT	/o/	FORCE	/or/
FOOT	/u/	GOOSE	/u/	CURE	/ur/
BATH	/a/	PRICE	/aɪ/	happY	/e, ɪ/
CLOTH	/ɔ/	CHOICE	/ɔɪ/	lettER	/ər/
NURSE	/ʌr/	MOUTH	/au/	commA	/ə/

Table 2.5 Vowel quality of RP /ɪ, u, o, au/ in Ulster Scots/Mid Ulster English/South Ulster English

	US	MUE	SUE
KIT	[æ̈]	[ɛ̈]	[ɪ̈]
FOOT	[ɪ̈]	[ʌ - ʉ]	[ʉ]
GOAT	[oː] (e.g.) *foal*	[o]	[oː]
	[eː] (e.g.) *home*		
	[ɔː] (e.g.) *snow*		
MOUTH	[ʉ]	[əʉ]	[əʉ]

For the FACE vowels, [e] is general in Northern Irish English in formal situations; Catholics in Derry prefer [ɪ] realizations, while Protestants lean towards Belfast vernacular [iə]. FACE is nowadays known as 'wide allophonic variation':

between [iə] and realisations such as: (i) the DRESS vowel; (ii) a glide which starts at DRESS and goes to schwa; and (iii) a glide from FACE to schwa. Thus, realisations from the transcripts include the latter very typical Belfast vernacular pronunciation [feəs] in FACE items (§§7.2.4, 7.2.5). [fes] is found amongst the remaining speakers in urban Belfast/(London)Derry and other MUE dialect regions as well as the six SUE/US informants. (Corrigan 49).

A lot of young Belfast speakers pronounce [fiəl] for <fail>, [kiət] for <Kate> and [pliəs] for <place>. The FLEECE vowel is generally invariant in Derry through NEAR words; it is known as 'MEAT/MATE merger'. None of speakers pronounced other vowel than [i]. For FOOT and GOOSE vowels the most widespread is [ʉ] realization. FOOT in Derry also has [ɔ̈] realizations, while '' [ɪ̈] is a prototypical traditional US pronunciation of /u/ and MUE shows variability between [ʉ] and the STRUT vowel ([ʌ]), though Harris (1996a) and McCafferty (2007) report the spreading of the former to the point where the more prestigious regional standard [ʉ] variant has become near-categorical amongst MC Belfast speakers.'' (Corrigan 50). The KIT vowel /ɪ/ has wider lip opening and it is pronounced centrally, so speakers vary among [ɪ]–[ɪ̈]–[ë]–[æ̈]. Most of the speakers use [ɪ] and [ɪ̈], while more traditional speakers use [æ̈] and [ë], e.g. [sʌmθën] <something> and [θæ̈n] <thing> in the same utterance. In STRUT vowel [ʌ] is often merged with FOOT and varies socially and regionally. The DRESS vowel pronounced as [ɛ] is represented in all regions. ''In US there is also a tendency for it to have a closing schwa glide in open syllables and an [i] glide before velars and palatals as in [dɹɛig] for <dreg>'' (Corrigan 51). THOUGHT and CLOTH vowel can be distinguished thorough [a, ä] pronunciation:

> WC speakers in Belfast, as well as raising /a/ to [ɛ(ː)], are also reported to produce backed and raised variants which sound like the LOT-THOUGHT-CLOTH keywords. /a-æ, ɒ-ɔ/ in Belfast can also be lengthened and diphthongised in the same manner as [ɛ], though the diphthongal realizations are also generally avoided by MC groups. (Corrigan 52).

For LOT, THOUGHT and CLOTH, [ɔ] is more typical of Ulster Scots while [ɒ] is more frequent in Mid Ulster English and South Ulster English. The LOT vowel is merged with the THOUGHT vowel in Ulster Scots, <stock> ([ɒ]) and <stalk> are more used in Mid Ulster English and South Ulster English. Generally more speakers pronounce [o] or [oː] and that is the most distinctive feature. The most distinguishing feature among diphthong usage is the realization of the MOUTH diphthong which is generally [əʉ, aʉ, ɑʉ]. In Derry [ɔ̈y] realization is most often used,

while in Belfast depends on the class; '' WC speakers prefer a more fronted [ë] segment while their MC peers favour [a-ɑ-ɔ] realizations especially before /r/'' (Corrigan 52). Through the interview about the consciousness of the usage, Millar reported:

MW: Yeah. I don't say . . . . . . 'bovine animal in the fi eld' ever.

MW: Em, I never refer to the bird that, that, em, hoots [laughs]. Em, I try not to say, em, 'this moment in time', as a word.

MW: Em, [laughs] I don't. And if I'm asking a question about 'in what way did something occur', I don't use that word either.

MW: So I never say 'how' 'now' . . .

KPC: 'Brown' . . . 'cow!' [laughs] (Corrigan 53).

In certain dialects the PRICE words can based on phonetic environment, [əi(:)] is used with voiceless consonants, [a(:)e] is used pre-vocalically. Both occur only in minimal pairs, e.g. <lie> 'fib' /ləi:/ and <lie> 'recline' /laːe/. The single PRICE phoneme that is pronounced the same is [æ.ɪ] → [eɪ]. The NEAR vowel spreads across North Ireland in usage the only variations are:

NIE/ US merge the NURSE/NORTH keywords (as do certain other English vernaculars) and there are also interesting features of pre-/r/ vowels not necessarily found elsewhere that are worthy of comment. Wells (1982:444) reports the NURSE/NORTH merger as characteristic of dialects outside the US zone and its presence here is captured in Macafee (1996, §6.6.1), which gives the following variant spellings of NURSE words in those NIE/US Englishes in which the merger has taken place: 'bird' – <bord>/'turf' <torf>. (Corrigan 54).

In rural parts the distinction is preserved [ə.ɪ] being assigned to words with <er> spellings and some with <ear, ir> and [ʌɪ] to <ur> as well as some <ir> spellings while NURSE and NORTH are more used in Belfast and Derry. The quality of [ɛ] is shown through the SQUARE vowel. Mostly the merger of SQUARE and NURSE [ɔ̈] can mostly be seen in Derry among Protestants. The merger of NORTH and FORCE [oːɪ] vowels is seen westwards in both Belfast and Derry. The happy, commA, horsES unstressed vowels are much more restricted in Northern Irish English and Ulster Scots. ''In general, these varieties and the samples that represent them here do not have the so-called 'happyY' tensing (fi nal [i] pronunciations in unstressed vowels) of dialects in the ROI and tend instead to realise these as [e]-like'' (Corrigan 55). In Northern Irish English, the speakers tend to insert [ə]- vowel epenthesis in cluster of two sonorants and the inserton of consonantal segments- the speakers pronounce [filəm] for <film> .

2.2 Northern Irish English consonants

The studies related to the fricatives show that the phenomenon of initial [h]-deletion in Northern Irish English is not used in any dialect, therefore [h] is used in place of /θ/ in initial and medial positions in words like <think>, <nothing>, while /ð/ is subject to intervocalic and initial deletion. ''While there are no occurrences of [ð]/[l] variation in the interviews either, there are instances of [h] for /θ/ and TH-dropping, suggesting that these variables may be stylistically as well as socially differentiated in contemporary NIE/US.'' (Corrigan 56). The pronunciation of dental fricatives /θ, ð/ distinguishes the Northern Irish English dialects. Most of the speakers from Derry continuously use [t̪, d̪] when pronouncing the words like <path>. In TH- fronting [f, v] are used instead of /θ, ð/ , e.g. : [wivəut] = <without>; [bɹiv] =<breathe>; [nɔfi n] = <nothing>; [klovs] = <clothes>; [baf] = <bath>; [mauf] = <mouth>; [nɔɹf] = <north> and [wɪv] = <with>. In latest research in a primary school in Belfast, the researcher found that more children that are homeschooled use this variation shown above while children attending regular primary school use the TH-fronting in casual conversation. Consonants /t, d, n, l/ are dental in Mid Ulster English and South Ulster English and it is called 'a rural stereotype in Belfast'. These consonants are more used within the 'NORM' type of speakers and it has a resemblance with Scottish English. This kind of usage is connected to the 'low-level phonetic process': "before /r/ in words from the sentence task like <track> and is also known to occur when an unstressed rhoticised [ə] vowel follows in words like <water>. Thus, the speaker whose sample is at §7.2.21 produced [əfɛn̪d̪əɹz] <offenders> and [bæn̪t̪əɹ] <banter>. " (Corrigan 57). The most distinguishing feature among dialects is the pronunciation of dental fricatives /θ, ð/. The other pronunciation of /t/, it is sometimes pronounced as a voiceless alveolar 'slit' fricative. There is a possibility that the alveolars used as a consonantal set can be deleted in both Belfast and other Northern Irish English. /r/ is pronounced as an alveolar approximant in initial position in words like [ɹʉm] <room>, post vocalically [kjʉɹ] <cure> or as the retroflex continuant [ɻ]. The [ʍ] consonant is more used within younger generations. Northern Irish English speakers use /ŋ/, as [n] in <-ing> suffixes. Palatalization occurs when in the context of low front vowels, inital /k, g/ becomes palatalized [kj, gj].

2.3 Northern Irish suprasegmentals

Northern Irish English is stress-timed. For example there is a difference in disyllabic words in pronunciation of a word advertisement adver'tisement and a more Standard British English ad'vertisement . "...rising intonation in NIE/US doesn't just indicate that an utterance should be interpreted as an interrogative as in many English varieties, but allows for the possibility that it could equally be a statement or command." (Corrigan 62). The rising tone in Northern Irish English is normally neutral while falling tone are reserved for echo questions and exclamations. In the research conducted by Gabe we can see that English speakers use rising intonation during the accented syllable, which represents politeness. Current research shows that the intonation patterns could be inherited from Celtics. "This is because new evidence has emerged suggesting that the relevant northern Irish dialects are characterized by so-called 'peak delay', which may play a role in the phenomenon in NIE/US" (Corrigan 63). With words that have initial stress, the pitch peak is stretched through both syllables and it is called the post-stress syllable. Through the years intonation was ignored by the researches but now with the invention of Ivie corpus they can gather linguistic information like age, class, gender and style. Lowry provides evidence: "speakers fluctuate their usage of the unmarked rise-plateau intonation in tasks designed to elicit a range of speech styles from casual to careful. A preponderance of falling nuclei appear in the latter, while the pattern originally thought to be most typical of NIE/US is either variably or categorically used in more spontaneous speaking styles." (Corrigan 64). Also through research they have seen that native speakers from Belfast perceive others who use predominantly falling nuclear pattern more polite, more emotionally engaged, enthusiastic and to have better interaction with others.

3. Morphosyntax

Nowadays, there are discussions about the varieties of English vernaculars, whether they are global or local.

> Indeed, there is research which suggests that postcolonial varieties as well as other language contact types like English-based pidgins/creoles also share a set of 'vernacular universals' (phonological/morphosyntactic features) with child language and other English dialects that have no recent history of colonisation (Chambers 2003: 242–50). As such, Milroy and Milroy (1993: xiv) remark that 'a clear distinction cannot always be drawn between localised non-standard constructions and those that have a wide regional distribution." (Corrigan 66).

There is less space in Northern Irish English and Ulster Scots in the leveling of verb forms and default singulars.

3.1 Northern Irish English usage of articles, pronouns, prepositions and adverbs

We can start with the definite article; an/na 'the' and sa/ san/sna 'forms. These forms in Northern Irish English in context are those which are triggered in abstract, generic, impersonal, ailments and familial relations. In Northern Irish English they premodify nouns that should not be modified or that should have an indefinite article or should have a possessive pronoun in Standard English. "<The> can also be substituted for <to/this> as a premodifier of nouns relating to time like <the day/night/morra/year> 'today', 'tonight', 'tomorrow' and 'this year'. Both types are reported to have high acceptance rates in a survey of the feature in NI" (Corrigan 67).

Table 3.1 <The> premodification

Semantic field	IRISH	NIE/US	STANDARD ENGLISH
Place names	*Contae na Gailimbe*	*The County Galway*	*County Galway*
Personal names	*An Dochartach*	*The Doherty*	*Mr Doherty*
Weekdays	*an Luan*	*The Monday*	*Monday*
Season names	*An Sambradb*	*The Summer*	*Summer*
Month/ feast names	*An Nollaig*	*The Christmas*	*Christmas*
Language names	*an Béarla*	*the English*	*English*
Abstract nouns	*an radharc*	*The eyesight*	*Zero/Possesive eyesight*
Illnesses	*an triuch*	*The whooping- cough*	*whooping- cough*
Prices/rates	*sa bhlian*	*In the year*	*A year*
Branches of learning	*an teangeolaíocht*	*The linguistics*	*linguistics*

Usage of pronouns in Northern Irish English is innovative in the second and third person plural: <yous yins/thaim,yins>. There is also a <yiz> variation, but all these variations differ in usage. Some are used by younger generations, some by older, some by females and some by males. Both Beal and Corrigan, and Dolan and Hickey agree upon on this: "In Irish there is both a singular and a plural second person pronoun, as there used to be in English', namely, tú ('you' sg.) versus sibh ('you' pl.)" (Corrigan 69). It may be a second language acquisition that caused this, the speakers transferred it from their first language and that makes the Northern Irish English different form Standard English. Another thing that is characteristic for Northern Irish

English are 'unbound reflexives', e.g. <-sel/-sels> and <-self/-selves>, <hissel> for 'himself', <worsels> for 'ourselves' and <thairsels> for 'themselves', they have no antecedent.

Table 3.2 'unbound reflexives' example

An raibh		í	féin	amuigh	aréir?
Interrogative	*was*	*she*	*self*	*out*	*lastnight?*
NIE/US	'Was	her	self	out	lastnight?

The usage of prepositions in Northern Irish English is unusual, e.g. <a-gin> 'by the time', <ben> 'outside', <intil> 'into' and <ower>, 'too', e.g. ''I says, 'Fornenst.' She says to me, 'What do you mean by that?' ('opposite', Macafee 1996: 132)'' (Corrigan 71). These variations can be seen in all Irish English varieties, especially in conservative ones.

Table 3.3 The Irish preposition *ar*

Tá	*dath*	*domn*	***air***	
Is	*colour*	*brown*	***on+it***	
Tá	*eagla*	***air***		
Is	*fear*	***on+bim***		
Chuaigh	*an*	*time*	*as*	***orm***
Went	*the*	*fire*	*out*	***on+me***

In this table we can see that the Irish preposition *ar* is multidimensional, which means that it is used as a substitute for the verb *have* which does not exist in Irish English. Preposition *ar* is used to express inalienable possession, physical or mental state and disadvantage like it is shown in the table 3.3. In this next table, number 3.4 we can see the usage of Irish adverb *ann* which indicates a specific physical location, like <there> in Standard English but can also be used metaphorically to mean <in existence> or <present> :

Table 3.4 The usage of adverb ***ann***

Is	***ann***	*a*	*chaonic*	*mé*	*é*
It-is	*there*	*that*	*saw*	*me*	*bim*
Tá	*Dia*	***ann***			
Is	*God*	*in existance*			
Níl	*sé*	*uilig*	***ann***		

Not+is	be	all	present		

Le is used to express the same meaning as 'with' in Standard English, but as we can see in the table 3.5 *Le* can express the same meaning as 'by', 'during the course of' and 'due to' :

Table 3.5 The usage of *Le*

Trí	aon	pheachadh	**le**	hÁdhamh
Beacause- of	one	sin	**with**	Adam
Tá	sé	anseo	**le**	Fada
Is	he	here	**with**	long while
Le	teann	díomais		
With	sheer	arrogance		

There are of course new varieties in usage through regions. The sentence 'The fire went out on him' is highly acceptable in all regions. They also use *on*, e.g. I've just ruined the movie **on you**, which also expresses inalienable possession and metal states. The usage of <in> instead of <with>, and it is more characteristic for native speakers while nowadays it is more likely to use <on> instead of <with>.

3.2 Northern Irish English usage of verbs

When we talk about verbs in Irish English we can confirm that the singular form of *be* verbs is vernacular universal, but as you can see in the table below there are some varieties when expressing aspect and mood:

Table 3.6 The usage of verb *be*

They **are gone** now.
gum the children **bees** drawi**ng** out…
you **be to** do without yourself…
I'll can do that the morra.

The usage of the so called Northern Subject Rule can be seen in this sentence: If there's terrorists on the plane, I'll talk them down. ''….in which the verbal –s ending is (i) favoured with third-person subject plurals (apart from <they>) and (ii) when the verb and subject are not adjacent.. '' (Corrigan 74). In the research about the usage of existential were in contexts they have found that the most of communities use plural existential 'was'. Nowadays the use of plural existential 'was' has spread through all communities but the most used is in Cullybackey. While the usage of existential were in singular subject is not that popular in other communities in Northern Ireland, only in Ballymoney we can say that the usage of the verb *be* in dialect differentiate among the same zone of Northern Ireland. The aspect of verbs, in this case perfective, e.g. I ***never heard*** any name on it, he ***had*** the bargain made, is different from the Standard English usage. The constructions different from the base form have+ past participle express: a) extended now: They're gone now, b) indefinite anterior: I never heard any name on it, c) resultative: he had the bargain made, d) hot news: one of the farls was after breaking. The 'hot news' forms …'' are relic features of earlier stages of English/Scots that have been preserved in NIE/US because they converge with forms that have similar functions in Irish. The 'hot news' type, by contrast, appears not to be paralleled in any English/Scots vernacular that does not emanate from Ireland.'' (Corrigan 76).The Ulster Irish perfective also expresses 'recency', e.g. he is after doing. The usage of Construction after + V-ing conveys ''the range of semantic functions for the perfect as described in languages generally" (Corrigan 77). This feature dates back to the Early English period.

Table 3.7 The range of semantic functions for the perfect

….'she's after hitting our A.'
They were after buying the basement flat.
I'm after giving her some custard.
One of the directions here is only after ringing.

According to Harris the medial object construction conveying perfective aspect is most favored with dynamic verbs of activity, e.g. I have my assessment **written**, and the least favored with stative relational verbs, e.g. They have zombies **resembled**.''…the most Gaelicised phonological features of varieties within NI are associated with certain regional and social groups…'' (Corrigan 78).

''There is also confirmation for the longevity of <be(es)> as well as its regional restriction to varieties in NI in the fact that Hickey (2007a: 236) in an acceptability survey of *The kids bees up late at night* reports that: 'Acceptance in the north was always in double figures whereas acceptance in the south . . . was never anything like this'.'' (Corrigan 79). In Irish English there are two types of modality; modal <be to> and modal doubling. The most frequent modal expressions used are <have/had to> and <be to>, which express epistemic or deontic modality. Epistemic <must> in South Ulster English can be negated while ''…<be to> is always both positive and invariant regarding person and tense marking.'' (Corrigan 80). It is clearly deontic but here *he be to be an old-fashioned one: he had it all covered with dough on the bottom of the dish;* it has neither substratal nor superstratal equivalents. ''Corrigan (2000b) provides evidence to support a conclusion that epistemic be + to permits speakers to encode the senses of inferred or presumed certainty which are more prominent in Ulster Irish than they were in those superstratal varieties which formed the original target for second language acquirers of SUE.'' (Corrigan 80). This new structure is non-finite, consisting of to- infinitive marker, but it expresses epistemic modality connected with finiteness. This type of doubling *I'll can do that the morra* is of a conservative nature of Northern Irish English dialects.

3.2 Syntactic structures

The main characteristic for Northern Irish English and Ulster Scots is that they don't use imperatives with overt subjects. Firstly we can see that they use <be>+<V-ing> form:

Table 3.2.1 The usage of imperatives

TS	….if you're going to take them, **don't be wandering** about out of your head.
Ná	*bí ag caint liom*
Don't	*be talking with me* - 'Don't talk to me'
You go away!	
Go **you** away!	

As you can see in this table above, the verbs are transitive like <read>, with intransitive verbs with which you can use inversion like <leave/arrive>, imperatives are used in particular semantic and syntactic contexts.''… speakers who are most accepting of the structure in all semantic and syntactic contexts are older, while younger speakers appear to have abandoned this feature except in stock phrases like in this sentence …*it wasn't funny at the time, **believe you me**.*'' (Corrigan 83). One more structure that is used in Irish English varieties are interrogatives, e.g. *I went in . . . and asked the man **ø would he** change the coppers, they asked **where was** their ma* and *I don't know **ø is it** damage*, in these examples we can see that the subject and verbal element have been inverted from their usual embedded question order and in Standard English they use *if/whether* in these contexts. As you can see in the table below, <wh-> questions are more productive than <yes/no> questions:

Table 3.2.2 The usage of wh- questions

An raibh BE-INTERR 'Were you content?'	*tú* *you*	*sásta* *content*			
Chuir PUT-PAST	*sé* *be*	*Ceist* *question*	*ort* *on-you*	*cé acu* *which*	
An raibh BE-INTERR 'He asked whether you were content or not'	tú *you*	*Sásta* *content*	nó *or*	nach NEG	Raibh *Content*

More research in Belfast confirms that:

> … in addition to predicates like <ask, inquire, wonder>, which favour the construction elsewhere, certain varieties of NIE/US seem also to permit embedded interrogatives with other verbal elements that have quite different semantic and pragmatic properties. These include <discover, establish, find out/see, know, remember> as *. . . some time to **see ø could** you beat this fellow?,* from the project database and *The police **found out ø had** the goods been stolen,* from Henry's research. (Corrigan 85).

As can be seen in these sentences *I have half the grass now cut* and *It's looking for more land a lot of them are…* when *it is, it's, 'tis, or is it,* are in initial position we use sentence cleft*:*

> Many constructions of this kind are not unique to Irish English, yet patterns of usage show distinctively Irish features. In particular, we should note that the examples cited above do not involve emphasis or contrast as they usually do in other varieties of English. Not surprisingly, then, word order of this kind appears more frequently in Irish English than in many other varieties. (Kallen 3).

Relativisation and subordination differ from the rest because they show the importance of themes. Vernaculars have features that relate to general properties of language and other things that are particular for some language. The Belfast variety of Mid Ulster English is focused on 'zero', while the South Ulster English uses relative pronouns. In Irish English typical markers as <at, as, what> are not really common, only <at> in Ulster English. '' Instead, relative marking is principally achieved using zero (*…because of all the paedophilia ø went on in the church)*, alongside TH- forms like <that> *(… most of the working class that lived on the street was like that*) and WH- pronouns such as <who> (*there was a very domineering lady on it who called herself 'a Professor')*'' (Corrigan 86). There are also two ancillary strategies, the first is resumptive pronoun marking, e.g. *I've a cousin ø a nurse, she lives in Ederney,* where <she> is playing a role of a relative pronoun which is referring back to <cousin>, and the second is 'subordinating and', e.g. *You'll see a wee clock in the window and it goin' yet,* in which *and* has a subordinating function. Research data shows that WH-forms are least favored in all varieties of Northern Irish English. Geisler in his investigation of the Northern Ireland Transcribed Corpus of Speech states that ''…grammatical function of the relative marker was not overly critical in determining speaker choice there were some linguistic constraints operating. Of particular note was the restrictive/non-restrictive nature of the relative clause and the type of antecedent that the relative marker was correlated with'' (Corrigan 86). This phenomenon can only be used in certain discourse contexts; the matrix clause must introduce a new individual as topic and the

relative clause must comment on them in some respect which makes it ungrammatical like in this sentence *I brought some tea for the people ø don't like coffee.* In non-finite complementation they use <for-to/ tae(-til)>+infinitive from. Nowadays it is not that widely used, most of the younger generations use standard structure <to>+infinitive variant:

Table 3.2.3 non-finite complementation

I'm going on my bicycle up to the crossroads for to get some baking chocolate.
He put the punnets on the door for to weigh them . . .
. . . whenever I was at school I always thought I wanted to do . . .
They wouldn't have the brains for to put out the light.
And them paid for to do it.
For to be there would make a great atmosphere
She rang looking her for to do it

In some cases, shown in the table above, the particular infinitive can introduce a purposive clauses and some authors demonstated that <for-to/tae(-til)> is only used to show purpose, e.g. *For you to be there would make a great atmosphere.*

4. The lexicon

The new advertising poster by Coca Cola in Belfast shows the vocabulary that may not be

comprehended by all English speakers:
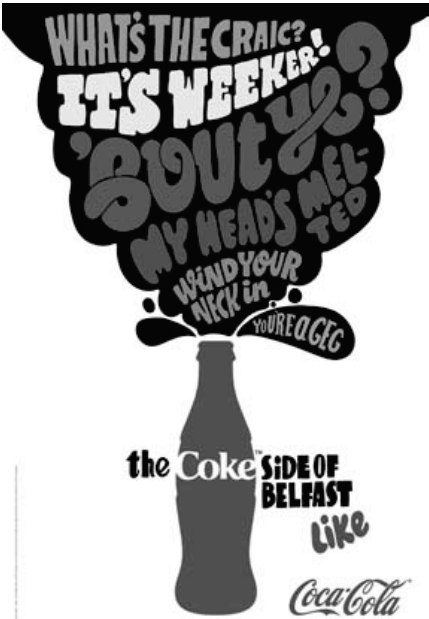
Picture number 2: Coca Cola advertising poster in Belfast

Table 4.1 Typical Irish phrases used in Coca Cola advertisement

It's weeker	'It's wicked'
'Bout ye?	'How are you?'
My head's melted	'My head is astray'
Wind your neck in	'Don't get on your high horse'
You're a geg	'You are a joker'

To start with some history of the lexical stock in Northern Irish English, most of the vocabulary

dates back to the mid-nineteenth century. The study of Irish English lexical stock starts with

Joyce and Clark in 1970s. Many of the researchers wrote about Irish language and culture

and the interest on the Irish English lexicographical development started. After that, many

researchers wrote articles and started the so called *word collecting*. ''With Dolan's dictionary

(1998) another comprehensive work appeared which covers all aspects of lexical usage, dealing

with both terms

from Irish and survivals of regional and archaic English input to Ireland. Both Share and Dolan

have gone into second editions, in 2003 and 2004 respectively'' (Corrigan 370). Firstly we have

to distinguish between the lexical items brought to Ireland and those which are borrowed from

Irish. The other important distinction is between Southern and Northern Irish. There is some of

the vocabulary that don't provide their lexical etymology, just a list of words with Standard

English equivalents which is shown here in the table below:

Table 4.1 list of vocabulary

Amadthan	A thoughtless or brainless person
Bangster	A bullying, violent person
Beagle	Wild, unmanageable fool
Calliagh	The last handful of corn at the end of the harvest
Sconce	One addicted to ridicule
Snack-drawer	Crafty, deceitful person
Tossicate	To agitate, disturb and disquiet
Whigmalkeries	Wild ideas, also useless trinkets

Some of the researchers try to preserve the words that are no longer used by younger

generations, like *alloo oot* which means ''allow to leave the house'', *at* means ''up to'' and

loass the bap means ''lose one's temper' because some of many words and phrases can be still

seen in newspapers in Belfast. Northern Irish lexicon can be divided into three categories:

  a) words incorporated from Irish,
  b) words from English and Scottish dialects or British English words that are restricted in
     Britain
  c) internal innovations.

Because of the difficulty of differentiating between the categories, Wigger used the term

'interlingual lexeme' which indicates that for bilingual speakers who were crucial for formation

of Irish English in the 19th century it was irrelevant whether the word was English or Irish.

Firstly we will discuss the transfer from the Irish lexicon. This transfer made an impact on Irish

English, especially in lexical gaps for which there is no word in other English varieties. Here are

some expressions for people and conversation:

amadán 'fool'; bodhair Uí Laoire, literally 'deafness of Laoire', used to refer to a person who hears only what they wish to hear; flahoolagh 'generous, good-hearted', sometimes to an overly-generous degree; ráiméis'nonsense', also 'talk nonsense; plámás 'smooth talk, flattery'; and discourse markers such as a mhic (literally 'son' in the Irish vocative case) and the ironic moryah (Kallen 10).

''Archaic and regional usage of words transferred from Irish has survived with words like ''the adjectives mad and bold have earlier meanings of 'keen on' and 'misbehaved'' (Cruse, Hundsnurscher, Job, Lutzeier 2)''. In some cases the words are a mixture of archaism and regionalism, these words are mainly of Irish origin, e.g. cog 'cheat', chisler 'child', mitch 'play truant', while yet others are of foreign origin but entered through English, e.g. hames (from Dutch) 'curved pieces forming horse collar' but now a very general word meaning 'complete failure, mess'. We can notice semantic extensions with the word yoke with a general meaning of 'a thing/device'. For example in this sentence *He was helping her with her homework mar dhea* a possible contrary interpretation to an assertion is expressed by the latter term. Lexical items that can create confusion because of their complementation in meaning are:

> *ditch* is used for *dyke*; *bring* and *take*, *rent* and *let*, *borrow* and *lend* are
>
> often interchanged as are *teach* and *learn* (colloquially and only the latter for
>
> the former, e.g. *And the little one's trying to learn me how to do it* (WER, F55+).
>
> There are also a few attestations of *speak* for *say*, e.g. *Didn't he speak it from the*
>
> *altar*? (MLSI, M80+, Baile na gCloch, Co. Cork).(Hickey 362).

Many times phonetic similarity for example like in this sentence *they're rising (raising) up the prices all the time* is causing problems in distinction. An example of a specific pronunciation is eejit for word *idiot* that can't be found in any other variety of English than in Irish English. Other examples of lexical peculiarities can be seen in words for food and drinks: ''boxty, a food made from grated potatoes, eggs, flour, and salt, fried or baked on a griddle; crubeen, a boiled pig's trotter, narrowed in meaning from the more general Irish word for a (little) claw or hoof; and drisheen, commonly used to refer to a boiled meat pudding, narrowed in meaning from Irish drisín 'intestine'' (Kallen 10). Lexical peculiarities can be seen also in miscellaneous words: ''bata 'stick' (especially, as used in schools before corporal punishment was abolished); bacaidí 'lame, unsteady, crooked', applied to people as well as inanimate objects, and related to Irish bacach 'lame, defective, imperfect'; mi-ádh 'bad luck'; and traneen 'a straw', and by extension 'something worthless, of no value'' (Kallen 10). When it comes to Celtic influence on Irish

English there are two sides. Some claim that the influence was minimal while others claim different. There are three issues concerning the influence: the number of items, the period of borrowing and the source language. The first period of borrowing is Old English and Celtic words from that period belong to early continental loans, words adopted from Old British and ecclesiastical and religious loan words:

Table 4.2 The borrowings from Old English

OE rice, surviving in Modern English as the second element of 'bisphoric' from Celtic *ríx*
OE brocc, surviving in dialect English *brock* 'badger' from Old Brit. *Brokkos*
OE dry 'magician, sorcerer'; from OIr. *drui* pl. *druid* 'magician druid'

From all the things above the only precise borrowing of Celtic words from the Old English are the Old British loans. On the other hand ecclesiastical Old Irish borrowings are of Latin origin like ancor- anchara- anachoreta. In old Middle English, very few words from Irish and Scottish Gaelic even though there are some words from that period. There are also borrowings from Early Modern English and Late Modern English. The English and French influence occurs in Irish texts, many words are mentioned in their texts for the first time like ''…'filth' (based on hory 'foul, filthy,' but only cited in the nominal form by the OED from a 15th century Irish English text); swagger (first cited in the OED from 1598, but appearing in an Irish English text from 1518); and voucheous, possibly meaning 'boastful' or 'arrogant''' (Kallen 11). Even though many words are no longer used, some can still be found in some regions like ''…cite chi [tSQI] 'an armload','small quantity' (JK; Wexford); backstir 'plough a patch of land for a second time'(Byrne 2002: 80), also listed by Ó Muirithe (1990: 154); and vanged 'sprained, stiff…'' (Kallen 11). With the modern period of settlement, especially by the Plantation of Ulster, there are many new linguistic and lexical items brought, e.g. boke 'vomit', ferntickles 'freckles', skelf 'splinter', and thole 'endure, tolerate, suffer'. There are three counties of historical Ulster that prove that the usage does not stop at the political border. Here are some general examples of usage of English dialects in Ireland:

    a) People and conversation: ABCs (with the fi rst letter pronounced [A], as in traditional Irish English) 'mottled red lines on the shins caused by sitting too close to a fi re'; chisler 'child'; latchico 'disagreeable, unpleasant, untrustworthy person'; mot 'girlfriend, girl'; pooley 'urine', especially used in connection with children; sca

'gossip, news', shortened from scandal; shift 'kiss' in a romantic or sexual sense; and stroke 'appetite'

b) Food and drink: coddle or Dublin coddle denotes a stew made by boiling sausages, bacon rashers, onions, and potatoes together; gur cake refers to a cake made with fruit and cake scraps baked between two layers of pastry; stirabout 'porridge'

c) Miscellaneous words: airy 'lively, fond of pleasure'; anymore, used in positive senses to mean 'from now on', 'nowadays', and 'still', discussed in Kallen (1997a: 153) with examples such as Wool is so expensive anymore (JK; Galway); cog 'cheat in school, examinations'; eccer 'homework, school exercise', cited by Partridge (1972) as Oxford slang of the late 19th and early 20th centuries but apparently not now used outside of Ireland; power 'large quantity', and powerful 'very good', formerly widely used in English, but now considered by the OED to be regional or associated with Irish English (Kallen 11,12).

Table 4.3 Flora, fauna, landscape

Spelling in NIE	Definition in NIE	Spelling in Irish	Definition in Irish
achan	Trough shell	achan	Shell fish
barneagh	Goose barnacle	bairneach	limpet
carmeliagh	The bitter vetchling wild flower	Carra meille	The wild liquorice root
mallan rua	The red sea-bream	mallán rua	The red sea-bream
food namminy	sod	Fod neamhain	sod
nedcullion	Wood anemone wild flower	Nead choile	Wood anemone wild flower
reghery	Small sturdy horse	reachraidb	Local name of Rathlin Island
sheelag	Young of the coalfish	síol éisc	The seed of fish
shamrock	Flower with trefoil leaf	seamróg	clover' + diminutive óg
skeagh	Hawthorn bush	seach	Hawthorne bush
slagh	Muddy/dirty	sláthach	Mud/slime
togher	embankment	tóchar	causeway

The usage of English in Ireland over centuries has enriched the Irish lexicon with its phrases and words. A good example of this is the very common phrase *to give out about sth* in the sense of 'complain', 'criticise'. Another is *leave* which can be used in the sense of 'accompany, bring', as in *Can you leave me home?* Many words used in Irish English are homographs for words in Standard English with different meaning, e.g. *callow* in Irish English means 'low-lying land liable to be submerged' and is probably derived from Irish caladh 'landing place; river meadow'.Morphological and phonological manipulation is involved in words like ''…*insurrection* is clipped to *ruction* 'uproar, great trouble' (with /ɛ/ > /ʊ/ for the stressed vowel), often used in the plural: *There were ructions when she came home late from the disco''* (Hickey 363). Morpheme –*er* is added in order to create new words e.g. *nixer* 'job on the side'; *killer* 'sth. that would stress you', as in *The climb up that cliff was a right killer; sticker* 'difficult matter', as in *The price of houses in Ireland is a real sticker*; *bogger* 'country lout', as in *Your man's some bogger*, the morpheme is also used in nicknames e.g. *beamer* 'fast German car'. In cases of adverbs on this morpheme -*er* they add an *s* for adjectives e.g. *japers/ jakers*. The morpheme –*o* is also common in usage e.g. *boyo* meaning 'admirable rogue. Another example of the peculiarities in Irish English is quasi- lexicalized usage of phrases ''…*man* and *one* have particular connotations when used with possessive pronouns as in *Your man* 'The (male) person currently being referred to' or *Your one* [wan] 'disrespectful reference to a woman'' (Corrigan 363). Some words exhibit identity in both languages which makes the etymology complex like fooster 'bustle; act in a fussy, ineffectual manner', on one hand it can also be related to Irish words fústrach 'fussy, fidgety'and fústaire 'fussy, fidgety person', but on the other it can be related to Scottish words like foochter [fu:Xt@r] 'confusion, turmoil; and fooch 'disorder, confusion'. ''…an Irish English term can arise from convergence between the two possible source languages, or, via bilingual contact, can be taken into one language and then recycled back into the other language'' (Kallen 12). For example *gombeen* which means 'fool', 'a profiteer' and a 'piece of something, especially a lump of tobacco'. The words from Irish English lexicon come from other unknown sources and etymology. Irish names in English are nowadays very popular, e.g. *Patrick* which is the most common. *Paddy* is used in England as a term of disrespect for Irish people. Some of other popular names are *Kevin, Desmond, Máire* and *Seán*. 'South Munster' is an area that was controlled by a Norman family which adopted the geographical designation as its name. "This is also found in colleen 'small girl' < cailín, morphologically cail + ín, found as a firstname. Shawn < Seán (Irish) is etymologically

interesting as it derives from Anglo-Norman John, the Latin form Johannes having resulted in the earlier form Eoin in Ireland (Ian in Scotland and Owen in Wales) "(Cruse, Hundsnurscher, Job, Lutzeier 5). The Irish influence can be seen outside of Ireland. Most of the words are colloquial like ''smithereens 'broken pieces' from a diminutive of smiodar 'fragment'; blarney 'flattery, sweet talk' from a town near Cork; brogue 'thick, country accent of Irish English' from the word for 'shoe'; gob 'mouth'; omadawn 'fool' from Irish amadán. Some are now more or less obsolete in English like shillelagh 'cudgel' ''(Cruse, Hundsnurscher, Job, Lutzeier 4). The word *tory* originally meaning Irish people is mostly significant transfer from Irish English. In present day English less people are speaking Irish. There are many new words added to Irish, and that process is called *cúpla focal* meaning 'couple of words' These words from Irish always have alternatives to English terms readily available, e.g. ciúineas 'silence', piseog 'superstition', sláinte 'health' or plámás 'flattery'. Such incursions into the lexicon of Irish are brief and superficial. For instance, the common Irish word seafóid 'nonsense' is unlikely to be understood by any English speaker.

Table 4.3 connotations of *man* and *one* with possessive pronoun

Your man	'The (male) person currently being referred to'
Your one [wan]	Disrespectfully of a woman'
The bowl' Charlie	'The bold Charlie (with sneaking admiration)'
The owl' car	'The old car (said affectionately)'

This usage shown in the table above illustrates the Irish words in Irish lexicon. Their correct usage is particular only to the Irish people and incorrect usage directly shows that one is not Irish. Another example of only Irish usage is the word *crack* meaning 'fun, good time'. It is used in all tenses, definite and indefinite sense, but it cannot be used in imperative.

Table 4.4 The usage of the word *crack*

We had a great crack	'We enjoyed ourselves'
How's the crack	'Are you getting much enjoyment?' (out of life, etc.)
Have a crack this evening	*Let's have some crack*

Most Irish people use the so called 'local flavouring' when they shift into colloquial register; in other words giving their flavor to the words that are not Irish for example *bog(house)* 'toilet',

bogman 'uncultured, coarse individual'. Many Irish terms are used in political language nowadays but in fact many of the Irish people don't know the exact meaning of them, e.g. *fás* is used for the government employment and development agencies but the meaning of that word is 'growth'. A lot of Irish words used nowadays are pronounced using English phonetics like [ti:$qk] while the Irish pronounciation is [ti:$qx]. There are also words that do not have an equivalent in Standard English, like *Currach*, 'a wooden-framed boat covered with tarred canvas', *crannog* 'lake dwelling' and *carrageen*, 'edible seaweed',and these are generaly known by all Irish people. Many words are distinguished from the borrowings from Irish like *colleen* 'Irish girl', *leprechaun* 'garden gnome', *banshee* 'fairy woman'. The words for Irish manners and life *planxty* 'a joyful tune played on the harp', *tilly* 'additional bit, small extra portion' (< Irish tuilleadh), *gab/gob* 'mouth' (< Irish gob 'mouth, beak'), common in English in the compound *gob-smacked*, are parts of idioms e.g. *gift of the gab* 'ability to speak eloquently', *soft day* 'mild, misty weather' (< Irish *l´a bog* 'day soft'), *the poor mouth* (< Irish *an b´eal bocht*) 'eternal complaining'. Due to the historical and regional dimension many words of Irish English, borrowings from Irish are attested into their history, words such as "...clamper 'noise, hub-bub' (< Irish clampar, itself from English), to be found in the play Captain Thomas Stukeley (late sixteenth century). Equally, there are words which have a distinct regional distribution, for instance, *drisheen*, a type of blood sausage, is a typical Cork word" (Corrigan 365). The table below contains words from the dictionaries that are used for flavour by their authors:

Table 4.4 Words from dictionaries

cooramagh	'careful'	c´uramach
flahool	generous	flaithi´uil
keen	wail	caoineadh
kiottogue	left-handed person	ciot´og
shannachee	story- teller	seancha´ı
sleeveen	sly fellow	sl´ıbh´ın

There are also Irish words with Standard English pronunciation: e.g. *bookelawn* 'ragwort' (< Irish *buachal´an*), *prashuck* 'charlock; mess' (< Irish *praiseach* 'wild cabbage; thin porridge; mess'), *mweelawn* 'hornless cow' (< Irish *maol´ain*, itself the source of English moiley, *puckawn* 'male goat' (< Irish *puc´an*). " These and similar words can be regarded as vernacular survivals of the language shift, but which are not found in non-local forms of present-day Irish English."

(Corrigan 366). This can be also said for the literal translation from Irish: *You'd notice it coming on him* [Irish: ag teacht air 'coming on him'], *There was never a bit from that out* [Irish: as sin amach 'from that out' = 'after that'] , *I didn't see you with a long time* [Irish: le tamall fada 'with time long'] *He put the cattle to the mountain* [Irish: chun an tsl´eibhe 'to the mountain', *I've no name on it* [Irish: ainm agam air 'name at-me on-it']. There are many borrowings of Irish into the overseas English by emigrants which are widely used:

> ...*smithereens* 'broken pieces' from a diminutive of smiodar 'fragment'; *blarney* 'flattery, sweet talk' from a town near Cork; *brogue* 'thick, country accent of Irish English' from the word for 'shoe' or 'knot in the tongue' *omadawn* 'fool' from Irish amad´an. Some are now more or less obsolete in English like *shillelagh* 'cudgel' The word tory is from Irish t´oraidhe 'a pursued person' and came, through various stages, to mean a member of the British Conservative Party in the 1830s (the American usage refers to a colonialist loyal to Britain). Bother is from Irish bodhar 'deaf' and is attested from the early nineteenth century, e.g. I'm bothered to death this night (Corrigan 366).

But on the other hand words like *shanty* meaning 'hut, run-down house' either from Irish *sean t´ı* (genitive of sean teach 'old house', here the oblique case militates against the Irish interpretation) or from Canadian French *chantier* 'lumberjack's cabin'. The word also occurred in the nineteenth century as an attributive adjective, with reference to two ethnic groups: *shanty Irish* 'poor Irish-Americans' and shantyman 'lumberjack' in Canadian and American English. "Where the etymologies of English words are uncertain, some scholars have suggested an Irish source. Phonetic similarities between present-day forms can be deceptive and sceptism is called for before trying to construct an Irish etymology for an English word" (Corrigan 367).

4.1. Spacial uses/additional semantic features of particular lexical items

After is used a marker of the perfect tense in Irish English due to the origins;

transfer from an Irish- language substratum is an''…evidence of Celtic influence in the standard

language in Ireland'' (Kallen, Kirk 9). This kind of usage is sensitive to a semantic, discoursal

and sociolinguistic factors. The structure of pseudo- perfect is usually transitive and has the verb

have with corresponding noun phrase that is followed by a perfect- marked verb form,e.g. *I have*

half the grass now cut. When it comes to the habitual aspect, it takes forms <be(es)> and <do(es)

be>,e.g. *After Cyril, there comes Séamus*. He bes at home, too which is durative, and *And they*

be on a ship*, and the ship wrecks* which is semelfactive. ''In fact, Montgomery and Kirk (1996:

316–18) associate the form with the mid-nineteenth century and there have been suggestions that

the habitual function of the original Scots and early English invariant <be> forms may have

arisen as a result of the spread of this sense (in the form of <do(es) be>) from varieties in what is

now the ROI'' (Corrigan 79). This shows that these forms are an element of substratal influence

from Irish where habitual and punctual aspects are contrastive categories of the verb:

Table 3.8 habitual and punctual aspect

Tá	Sí
BE+punctual	She
'She is'	
Bíonn	Sí
BE+habitual	She
'She usually is'	

This type of modality can be found historically in Mid Ulster English and South Ulster English.

There is no clear difference in usage of ø and <-ly> adverbs or intensifiers but they have unusual

usage of adjectives as intensifiers, e.g. <dead>, <pure> and <wild> :

Table 3.9 The usage of adjectives as intensifiers

He works for a, a **real** fancy restaurant.
I'm **really** close to my two children.
The teachers were good ad, you know, it was **dead** on.
I had the **pure** Ballymena 'hey'.
I've a, I have a **wild** keen interest in it.

I still have it with me yet, you know. , what we would call yet, probably, up here, the Free State we can see that they use <yet> meaning 'still' in positive contexts. One more thing that is characteristic for Northern Irish English is the usage of <whenever>'' rather than its more conventional application to a situation that is recurring or conditional, this type of <whenever> conjunct, which is quite frequent in the project database, is actually used to describe a one-off event.'' (Corrigan 82). For example, *Just whenever my dad came up to Belfast*. The other variation is the usage of a quantifier <all> with particles <who/what/where> can be separated from the particle by a tensed verb just like it is shown here: *Who did you meet all?*. As you can see in the table below, the preposition *on* can act as a dative of disadvantage mark; in other words the noun phrase is a recipient of negative consequences, it can also mark possession, and referred to in the newspapers which is called ''various physical and mental sensations, states or processes'' (Kallen 7).

Table 3.2.3 Phrase level syntax usage of preposition *on*

| And what really scared her then was she went to kind of put her arm forward and the arm locked *on* her. |
| What hurry is *on* you? |
| That one has a lug *on* her like a snipe. |
| They're only *on* the paper for being famous because they're *on* the paper |

In Irish English they simply exploit the flexibility of word order more than in Standard English. Another clause-level features that are used in Irish English are ''subordinating and' to join clauses, and 'contact relative' clause constructions'' (Kallen 3), but both of these lack a complementiser to introduce a relative clause. In the sentence *You put in your nose ['appeared'] an' us churning* the conjunction *and* is used to join two clauses into different kinds of relationship. In the sentence above we can see a situation which is ongoing at the time of the event, while in this sentence *How could that madman have his senses and his brain-pan slit?* the second clause illustrates a contradiction to the state of affairs in the first clause. For example *Never eat pork Ø is not well done!* denotes the position of the relative clause. In case of phrase level syntax the difference from Standard English is seen in the usage of prepositions and in the structure of noun phrase. As you can see in the table below <and> is in Irish English use instead of <when>, <as>, <since> and <although>:

Table 3.2.4 The usage of subordinating <and>

Standing in the rain on beaches and me freezing.
God, Brendan's coming up and him crying.
'How can I lift it', says he, 'and our Paddy swinging down on it?'
my ribs and ribcage were sore for two weeks from retching and nothing on my stomach.

Some researchers argue that zero, WH- and TH- forms have superstratal origin. Subordinating <and> is used in more complex relative clauses where zero is not preferred and has certain parallels in both the substrate and superstrate:

Table 3.2.5 Subordinating <and> in relative clauses

An fear	a	Rabih	mé	ag caint	leis
The man	*REL.*	*Was*	*me*	*talking*	*with+him*
An fear	a	Bhí	mé	ag caint	le
The man	*REL.*	*Was*	*me*	*talking*	*with*

Irish people also use *argus* as an equivalent for <and>, e.g. *Bhí bean ann agus í ag coladh* meaning 'A woman who was sleeping was there'.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, the peculiar origin and development of Irish English is stated and supported, starting with the history of the geographical and demographical developments. It can be concluded that the biggest impact on the Irish English language development is the Norman conquest that changed the native Irish language. With the borrowings from Irish and mixture with Standard English Irish English is created. Many changes and differences in phonetical features along with the morphology and syntax are derived in the same way. The most significant part of the paper and thoroughly researched is lexicography. The rich lexicon of peculiar and unique words brought to Ireland is stated and exemplified. The Irish English vocabulary is different in writing, pronunciation, sintagmatic and pragmatic patterns. The difference in mening and the equivalents is also stated. Many Standard English speakers would not be able to understand the native Irish English, it would be difficult to comprehend and that is the proof that so many changes in development, specific features and usage create the unique Irish English.

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