

Language and land – minority and indigenous languages and dialects from different parts of the world

Written and published by Linden Alexander Pentecost on August 15th 2022. This book is published on my website: www.bookofdunbarra.co.uk I am a UK resident and was born in the UK. All photos were taken by me, unless otherwise stated, i.e. with regards to the Ruhnu and Luleå photos in the Lule Bondska article (the second section in this book about Luleå). The photos in the first section about Luleå were taken by me. Note that Jakob Stenberg and Simon Browne are both pseudonyms which I used in the past, the reason being partially due to paranoia, and partially due to that I liked the idea of discussing Nordic languages without being obviously from the UK. I realised that this was not the correct way to go about things, and so have included these articles in this book. Some of the articles in this book are also unique publications, and the already published articles have been updated. This book contains 28 Pages, this is page one and the main title and contents page. *This contents only includes some of the information about what is on each page. The first Lule language article, the Meänkieli article, the Breton article and the languages in the American Southwest Article have not been published anywhere previously.* This book is copyright Linden Alexander Pentecost

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The Lule language, **leoLmaLe**

Article and photo by Linden Alexander Pentecost, August 2022



Photo above: the train station of Luleå

The Lule language, known as **leoLmaLe** or in Swedish as *Lulemålet*, is a form of the Westrobothnian or Bondska language in Norrland. The **leoLmaL** language is spoken around the city of Luleå in the lower Lule Valley. This spelling is mostly similar to that of Swedish, except that **sch** is used for the Lule 'sh' sound, and **L** donates the thick L sound of certain Nordic dialects.

'Welcome' in leoLmaL is **veLkumin**, Swedish *välkommen*, if you ask what someone is called then one would say **bo heit do?** Swedish: *vad heter du?* And one would reply saying **jö heit**, e.g. **jö heit Linden, o jö er fra Stöörbritanien**, I am called Linden and I am from Britain. In Swedish this would be: *jag heter Linden, och jag kommer från Storbritannien*.

The Swedish soft *g* is often equivalent to **dj** in leoLmaL, for example **djöno** – 'through', Swedish: *genom*, leoLmaL **djera** – 'to do', Swedish: *göra*. Another interesting difference is the sound difference in for example **läk** – 'long', Swedish: *lång*, in examples such as **in läk bat** – 'a long boat', and in Swedish: *en lång båt*, and leoLmaL **i gääk**, Swedish: *en gång*.

Swedish long *i* is often represented by **öy** or **uy** in leoLmaL. For example, **öys** or **uys** – 'ice', Swedish: *is*, **skröyv** or **skruyv** – 'write', Swedish: *skriva*, **bLöy** or **bLuy** – 'become', Swedish: *bli*. The past tense forms of **skröyv** are somewhat more similar to the Swedish, for example **jö skreiv** – 'I wrote', **jö hä skrivi** – 'I have written', Swedish: *jag skrev, jar har skrivet*.

The Swedish long o is often a diphthong. For example **beok** or **böök** – 'book', Swedish: *bok*, **eot** or **öot** – 'out', Swedish: *ut*, **seoLa** or **söoLa** – 'the sun', Swedish: *solen*, **steor** or **stöör** – 'big', Swedish: *stor*, **eoL** or **ööL** – 'word', Swedish: *ord*, and thus one can also say: **öoLböök** or **eoLbeok** – 'dictionary', Swedish: *ordbok*. For some speakers this diphthong is **åo**, for example **båok**, **åot**, **såoLa**, **ståor**, **åoL**, **åoLbåok**.

Old Norse *ei* is frequently represented as **ei** in leoLmaLe, for example **heim** – 'home', **meir** – 'more', Swedish: *hem*, *mer*.

Below are some sample sentences in leoLmaLe:

jö djikk dill höose – I went to the house

jö djikk – I went, **dill** – to, **höose** – the house

jö hä viri ati höose idä – I have been at the house today

jö hä – I have, **jö hä viri** – I have been, **ati** – at, **höose** – the house, **idä** – today

jö hä ånt tåLa pa Swäänsk idä – I have not spoken in Swedish today

jö hä – I have, **ånt** – not, **tåLa** – spoken, or speak, **pa** – on, **Swäänsk** – Swedish, **idä** – today

jö veit att böoka er pa böoLe – I know that the book is on the table

jö veit – I know, **att** – that, **böoka** – the book, **er** – is, **pa** – on, **bööLe** – the table

huri mitji koost batn? - how much does the boat cost?

huri – how, **mitji** – much, **koost** – costs, **batn** – the boat

A little more information on Lulemål, unique from that in this book, can be read in my short print book: *Europe's minority languages and related topics – some essays* by Linden Alexander Pentecost, pages two and three.

And also in my ebook: *Languages and dialects of Northwestern Europe, and their heritage* by Linden Alexander Pentecost, pages 279 and 280

The Meänkieli language

Photo and article by Linden Alexander Pentecost



Photo above: a part of Sápmi near Giron, from the mountain Luossivárri, this area is also a part of the Meänmaa landscape, the mountain in Meänkieli is known as Luossavarra.

Meänkieli is a Finnic language spoken in the north of Sweden, on the Swedish side of the Torniolaakson valley, and in some other inland areas leading from this valley in northern Sweden, such as around Gällivare. The Meänkieli language is very similar to the Finnish dialects spoken on the Finnish side of the Torniolaakson, in Finnish linguistics, most dialects of Finnish in Northern Finland, as well as the Meänkieli and Kväänin kieli languages are referred to as *peräpohjolaiset murteet*, northern dialects. However, many Meänkieli speakers from my experience would not consider their language to be what we know as the Finnish language, *suomen kieli*.

Meänkieli spelling is similar to that of Finnish. There are differences between Meänkieli and Finnish in writing, especially as Finnish has a written form called kirjakieli or book language, whereas Meänkieli is written according to how the language is pronounced in Meänmaa. Below are some examples of Meänkieli words:

vaara – mountain	joki – river	järvi – lake
mettä – forest	tunturi – mountain	mäki – hill
puu – tree	suo – bog	maa – land, earth
ilma – air	vesi – water	tuuli – wind
tuli – fire	jää – ice	lumi – snow

minun häätyy lukea kirjaa – I must read the book

minun häätyy – I must, **minun** – my, **lukea** – read, **kirja** – book, **kirjaa** in the partitive case

käärme puhuu Meänkieltä joka päivä – the dragon speaks Meänkieli every day

käärme – dragon, **puhuu** – speaks, **Meänkieltä** – from **Meänkieli**, **joka** – each, **päivä** - day

punanen piili menee Suomheen – the red car goes to Finland

punanen – red, **piili** – car, **menee** – goes, **Suomheen** – to Finland

The Meänkieli language contains a number of Swedish loanwords, such as **piili** – car, which in Finnish is *auto*. Some of the Swedish cognate words in Meänkieli may be much more ancient though, I think, and be words which have gone into North-Germanic and into Finnic from an ancient substrate or language.

Further information on the Meänkieli language, separate from that in this book, and some different sample sentences can be found in my printed book: *Europe's minority languages and related topics – some essays*, by Linden Alexander Pentecost, published August 2022, the Meänkieli parts are on pages 4 and 5, except for some comments elsewhere in the book. This book also contains more comments on the wider context of Meänkieli and the ancient Finnish or Kainu language in Sweden and in Norway.

Proto-Norse and early written language in Britain

Simon Browne, New Orleans historical linguist

Contact between Scotland and Scandinavia doesn't necessarily have to be as recent as the Vikings and the Kingdom of the Isles. In the Landnámabók, the region was already settled by Scandinavians. Even though the language of Northern Scotland was said to be 'Pictish' at this time, we have no way of telling what exactly was meant by the term 'Pictish'. Perhaps rather than a Norse takeover of the Pictish Broch culture, what actually happened is continuity from one to the other, only during the 'Viking' period, Scotland acquired an extra layer of culture onto its Norse culture, as well as changes in the language. From what I can tell, it appears that the Shetland Norn language was indeed 'Proto-Norn', which then became influenced in different ways by various medieval Norse dialects.

During the Viking era, large areas of Britain and Ireland came to use Old Norse as one of the common languages. Along the southern and eastern coasts of England there was a lot of old Danish or Old East Norse in use, much of Northern England became the Danelaw with Old East Norse spoken alongside Old English. Parts of Wales, but particularly the Isle of Man, Northwest England and the islands of Scotland used Old West Norse as one of the languages of the Norse-Gaelic kingdom.

Although the introduction of Old Norse is attributed to Viking invasion and settlement, in this paper I aim to question the validity of this and suggest that Norse or a related Germanic language was spoken in Britain before the Vikings. The story of the Vikings in Britain has been overshadowed by medieval, mainly Christian views of the Vikings in the middle ages. I have come to question whether or not the Vikings were truly invaders at all.

England's links to Denmark go further back than the medieval period. The Danish and Modern English languages underwent similar vowel shifts, after the Old English period, English became grammatically more similar to the modern Scandinavian languages. Parts of the Anglo-Saxon grammar like the ge- prefix on the past tense of verbs, and several pronouns, were either replaced or simply never existed in spoken English. This builds up a picture of a scenario where Old English was limited to certain classes and groups of people, but was not the direct ancestor of Modern English. The Old Norse language may not have been replaced by English but may have become Modern English. The Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon languages may have undergone creolization, or they could represent two 'registers' concentrated in certain movements of Germanic culture, whilst the normal language of farmers and villagers was between North Germanic and West Germanic.

Many of the Norse sites in Britain are older than the Norse. In Orkney and Shetland, many 'Pictish' sites later became Norse sites, as though the people themselves continued into the Vikings. Some of the place-names in Britain describing Norse deities like Ullr and Thor seem to refer to religious sites that pre-date the Norse by thousands of years.

Longhouses, commonly attributed to the Vikings, were also found in Bronze Age Britain, with some prototypes in the Mesolithic period. DNA haplogroups common in Mesolithic remains are sometimes found at higher frequency in Scandinavians. It's also notable that Scandinavian speaking areas tended to have a slower transition to the Bronze Age and Neolithic than other areas of Europe. We might be able to distinguish Celtic and Germanic Bronze Age cultures by whether they were living in roundhouses or longhouses.

The Mesolithic - Neolithic and the Sea Peoples

The Vikings were a medieval people, but their traditions and lifestyle was arguably more like that of the Mesolithic Europeans than any other groups. Their shipbuilding tradition, rather than appearing out of no-where, was the result of thousand of years of technical perfection, from boat designs associated with similar art and symbols, found in the Mesolithic.

The Vanir Gods of Norse mythology, chiefly linked to the introduction of agriculture, seem only linked strongly with certain parts of Scandinavia, and with Britain surprisingly. In Britain, the Vanir god Ullr seems to have been very important, indicative of a Neolithic connection between Scandinavia and Britain.

The Neolithic art motifs and designs found with the Neolithic megalithic tomb culture are surprisingly similar in Scandinavia, Ireland and in Britain. These art motifs became the chief designs that were later found in Celtic and Scandinavian art right through the ages up until the medieval period. Quite possibly, Scandinavia and Britain shared a similar sea-orientated culture, which slowly diverged in different directions with the introduction of Indo-European languages. This is assuming of course, that Indo-European replaced other, unknown languages. The Palaeolithic-Continuity theory indicates that Indo-European languages can be traced back to the Upper-Palaeolithic and the first humans to settle in Britain after the Ice Age. Although undoubtedly this early Indo-European seems to contain an admixture of Basque or other unknown influences which, along the train of the Palaeolithic Continuity Theory, would have disappeared as distinct languages as soon as cultural unification with Europe took place, leading to many distinct languages that carried on earlier traits in different ways.

Proto-Norse and not Old Norse

Anglo-Norse nouns seem not to have undergone the Old Norse vowel breaking.
Proto-Germanic - Old Norse - Anglo-Norse - Anglo-Saxon

- *birkijō - björk - birk - beorc, bierce
- *ferþuz - fjörðr - ferþ - ford
- *greutą - grjót - grēt - grēot, grete, grit
- *helmaz - hjálmr - helm- helm
- *herutaz - hjǫrtr - hert/hart - heorut
- *blēwaz - blár - blē - blāw
- *deupaz - djúp - dēp (later 'deep') - dēop
- *kelaz - kjǫlr - kel - not in Anglo-Saxon but found in Dutch and German
- *laguz - lǫgr - lag - Modern English law
- *slihtaz - slétt - sleht - slizt, slegt
- *stangō - stǫng - stang - in other Germanic languages outside of Anglo-Saxon with "a".
- *ternō - tjǫrn - tarn - no equivalent outside Norse

The element lees in place-names, Old Norse ljóss doesn't have direct cognates in non Norse Germanic languages, it shows that even though the Anglo-Norse phonology was closer to Proto-Germanic it was still more Norse than Anglo-Saxon in a lot of respects.

Proto-Germanic *tēkaną gives taka in Old Norse, but the modern Danish and English forms have a sound closer to /e/, with both the English and Danish forms taking some kind of vowel harmony

brought on by apocope. Apocope of the final vowel as well as a tendency towards /e/ occurred in the English and modern Danish vowel shifts. Even though the word *take* exists in English, it replaced Middle English *nimen* and is assumed to be a Norse word. Proto-Germanic **rēsō* becomes *rás* but giving *rēs* in Anglo-Norse and *ræs* in Anglo-Saxon, with different meaning, modern English 'race'.

Looking closely at the phonology of Anglo-Norse and Norn it becomes difficult to try and explain the sound changes as coming directly from Old Norse.

.Runic inscriptions: different versions of the runes were used throughout the Germanic speaking world, and a certain type appears specific to The Isle of Man, The Hebrides, Northern Isles, and South-Western Norway. The rune forms found in the Jæren region of Norway, show close similarity with those of the Isle of Man. It's possible that some of these runes were actually used in Britain and Ireland before they were imported to Norway.

.-A ending of weak feminine nouns: in Western dialects of Norwegian, the -a ending of feminine nouns is frequently replaced by -o -r -å. This might have been carried on from Proto-Norse. In Orkney there seems to be a confusion of the Old Norse case system, where the vowel at the end of any noun seems to become -o. This may have been a dialectal feature of Orkney Norn, but where Old Norse nouns have an -a ending it seems to have universally been -o in Orkney. This is again, more reflective of a Proto-Norse stage in the language, although prior to now it was believed to have been a later development. It is possible that this -o dialect continued over towards Norway. In South-Western Norway, the -o form is exceedingly common, and occurs in places up the west coast. But it is interesting that is most common in the region which would have had the most contact with Orkney.

.The Old West Norse diphthong *ei* appears commonly as *i* in Anglo-Norse with the *ei* and *ai* variants perhaps appearing later. Words in runic inscriptions on the Isle of Man, and across the Hebrides and Northern Isles, will often contain *risti* and *stin* rather than the more common *reisti* and *stein*. But some examples show more Old English phonology with *stan* instead of *stin*, OWN *stein* and OEN *stæin*. 'i' was used to write 'e' and 'ei' in Old Norse inscriptions, but in Britain it appears that *i* represented the actual pronunciation, which is reflected in later dialect forms. The simplification of the Older Futhark into the Younger Futhark may in part have been due to pronunciation of the Norse language in certain areas, where the distinction between voiced and unvoiced stops was less important, and where there was less distinction between *e* and *i*. Both of these traits appear to be in Proto-Norn or Anglo-Norse, the differing distinction between stops is found in Scottish Gaelic and in Icelandic.

.Preference for *u* rather than *o*. This appears quite early on Orkney, and can be found in the Orkney Norn lord's prayer, where *cuma* means 'come'. Proto-Norn area seem to show a preference for *u* where Old West Norse has *o* or *ó*. The Orkney Norn equivalent for Old West Norse *koma* is *kuma*, and in Runic inscriptions some examples include *utr* and *sunr* for *Oddr* and *sonr*.

.Old Norse *y* appears sometimes as *u* in Norn and Anglo-Norse.

.Lack of vowel breaking: a process of vowel breaking took place between the Proto-Norse and Old Norse periods. This was more prominent in Old East Norse than in Old West Norse, and it appears not to have effected Old Norn until much later. For example, 'Harter' in place names 'of the stag', Old West Norse: *hjaratar*, Anglo-Norse: *hartar*. Orkney Norn *herto*, meaning 'a heart shaped pattern on a horse', Old West Norse: *hjarta*, Proto-Germanic: *hertō*. 'Firth' is one of the few words which may have entered Scots and English from Proto-Norn. The Old West Norse equivalent is *fjqrðr*, showing vowel breaking from Proto-Germanic *ferþuz*. The Proto-Norn equivalent may have been

ferþ, .firþ, or ferþu(r). The Old Norse word stjarna 'star', also appears as starn- on Orkney, Proto-Germanic *sterniz. The change from -er to -ar was common on Orkney e.g. kverka – kwark, whilst other words with -er in Old Norse have -ir in Orkney reflecting older pronunciation. Place-names with 'Gret', can be seen as coming from a Anglo-Norse grēt meaning 'stoney, pebble river', as opposed to Old West Norse grjót. In Orkney Norn 'light' is leus or lews (On The Phonology of Orkney Norn, Darren Sinclair), similar to Proto-Germanic *leuhsaz.

.The -ar ending of masculine nouns: in Orkney Norn, the -ar ending sometimes reflects the Proto-Germanic -iz, appearing as -ir. Orkney Norn aanie - eagle, in the genitive case, Old Norse arnar Norn arnir, Proto-Germanic *arniz. The Orkney Norn form shows greater similarity to Proto-Germanic rather than to Old Norse. Old Norse er 'is' appears as ir in Orkney Norn, reflecting older Germanic ist.

.Old West Norse ǫ rarely appears throughout the whole Proto-Norn area, normally appearing as a. This is something that Proto-Norn may have shared with Old East Norse.

.Old West Norse á as in blár, comes from Proto-Germanic *blēwaz, so 'blea' in place-names can be seen as coming from something like blē, had 'blea' come directly from Old Norse one would expect a modern variant 'bla' or 'blaw'.

The Norse-Gaelic connection

Norse and Scottish Gaelic had contact during the Medieval era, Norse left several loanwords in Gaelic, and some Gaelic loanwords appear in Norn, Icelandic and Faroese. In some cases, Gaelic seems to have influenced Norse. Some place-names are constructed of Norse words but using the adjectival position found in Gaelic. In Palaeolithic Continuity parallels are drawn between the Celtic languages and the Atlantic Megalithic Cultures, which were also found in Denmark and Southern Norway and Sweden. The basis of Atlantic Megalithic and Celtic knot patterns are similar to the more geometric parts of Viking era art and embroidery. Some Old Norse words like fá and gjá have Gaelic equivalents faigh and geodha with extra consonants still in place. The Norse tradition of marking events and lives on older standing stones is something that the early Celtic also did in Ireland and Scotland.

Old Norse inscriptions in England and Scotland

An example of Old Norse from Argyle appears to show a similarity to Anglo-Saxon.

.kali:ouluis:sunr:lapi:stan:þinsi:ubir:fukul:brupur...

In Old West Norse: *Kali olvissonr lagði stein þenna yfir Fugl bróður...*

“Kali Olvi's Son, laid this stone over Fugl (his) brother...”

Replacement of [v] by [b] appears to occur across the UK, whilst stan for 'stone' is clearly closer to Old English.

The runestone in Princess Street Gardens, Edinburgh gives

ari:rasti:stain:aftir:hialm:fapur:sin:kup:hialbi:ant:hans, which is similar to the Old East Norse *Ari ræisti stæin æftir Hialm, faður sinn. Guð hialpi and hans*, except for rasti is instead rasti showing that diphthongs were not used consistently.

An inscription in Carlisle Cathedral, Cumbria, reads:

.tolfin:urait:þasi:runr:a:þisi:stain

“Dolfin wrote these runes on this stone”

This inscription shows the very 'mixed' nature of the language at this time. Stain is what we would expect as an East Norse form, runr for 'runes' is also unique.

The use of the word kirk shows loss of the weak feminine ending, -a, implying that apocope was grammatically a part of Anglo-Norse. The form urait for 'wrote' shows a connection with Anglo-Saxon not found in other Scandinavian languages.

Example (Isle of Man): sontulf:hin:suarti:raisti:krus:þona:aftir:arinbiaurk:kuinu:sina

In more standard Old Norse: *Sandulfr hinn Svarti reisti kross þenna eptir Arinbjörgu, konu sína*

This text shows a loss of the strong masculine ending -r, þenna becomes þona which is a curious change. The forms þaina and þina also appear on the Isle of Man. Kuinu is an unusual variant of konu. The name Sontulf shows apocope of the nominative ending.

Example (Isle of Man): utr:risti:krus:þono:aft:froka:fa(u)þur:sin:in:þurbiaurn. This shows þenna become þono, the -a to -o change is a frequent occurrence in Orkney Norn.

An 11th century runic inscription from Killaloe in Ireland reads þurgrim:risti:krus:ina, showing risti again instead of raisti.

In Lincoln, the inscription reading ...hitir:stin... appears, in Old West Norse this would be ...*heitir stein*...'stone is called'.

The Maeshowe inscriptions

Maeshowe is a Neolithic chambered cairn, sometimes of the variety referred to as a passage tomb. In the *Orkneyjaga saga*, reference is made to the tomb having been discovered by explorers during the Viking Age, and when the tomb was excavated, archaeologists happened across the largest collection of runes outside of Scandinavia. Despite being 'found', the language of these inscriptions does appear to show local variation. Below is a list of some of the respective inscriptions with a translation.

.þat:ir:uikinkr...a:kom:utir:hir:til

þat er vikingr.. þá kom undir hér til

“it is a viking... when/then came here underneath”

...sæhia f...r:som:otr:orkr:sonr:sahþi:a:runom:þæim:ir:han:rist

segja f...r sem Oddr Orka sonr sagði a rúnum þeim er hann reist

.þat:man:sat:er:ek:sæhe:at fe:uar:ført:a brot:þrim:notom:uar fe:brot:fört:hæltr:æn:þæir:bre:hoh:þena
þat mun satt, er ek segi, at fé var foert á brott. Þrim nóttum var fé brott foert, heldr en þeir bryti haug þenna

“it is true what I say, that wealth was brought away. Wealth was brought away three nights before they broke this hill”

The last example shows a more typically Old Norse inscription. The writer refers to the people who found 'treasure' in Maeshowe, and his or her own language appears not to be of local origin. There don't appear to be any features of the language used in this text, which can be said to come from Proto-Norn.

Pre-Viking inscriptions in Northern Scotland

As well as a large number of Viking runic inscriptions, Northern Scotland also contains inscriptions in another alphabet, Ogham. These inscriptions were thought to be used to write Pictish, identified as a P-Celtic language similar to Welsh and Breton. Many of the Ogham inscriptions in Northern Scotland however are not readable. They may have been disguised so that only initiated people were able to read them. An Ogham inscription from Shetland has the word *duhtor*, indicating that at least some of the Ogham was Norse or contained Norse elements.

The Brough of Birsay Ogham inscription was read as [B^A]QI[:]A[B^A] by Padel O. (1972) and as [M]ONNORRA[N]RR by Forsyth, K.S. (1996). The Broch of Burrian inscription was read as UORRANNUUR RACTPEVVCERROCCS by Allen, R. (1903) and as I[T!^O!][E^B]IRRANN U[.]RRACT KEVV CERROCCS by Forsyth, K.S. (1996), the second reading seems to indicate ITO perhaps 'I', IRANN 'iron'? URRACT 'made', KEVV 'this' CERROCCS 'cross'. We assume that CC indicates /x/ or a similar sound.

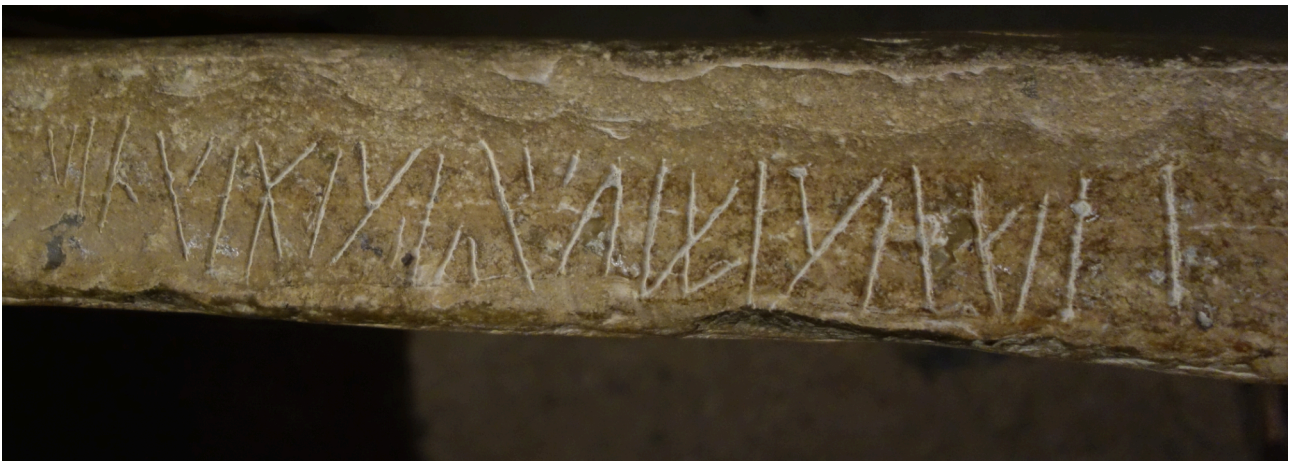
Ogham is more common in Eastern Scotland where readings can be more easily figured as early Celtic or a kind of Brythonic. There is a strong association between Ogham stones in Northern Scotland and the Iron Age broch builders. Ogham was found on a piece of whale bone in North Uist and an inscription was found on South Uist. We know that the people of the Outer Hebrides were a distinct culture that survives today in Gaelic folklore. There were Neolithic farmers here but their traditions were quite different from anywhere else in Britain, in the Bronze Age they actually practiced mummification. Many of the island names do not have a satisfactory Indo-European etymology. The Isle of Skye contains a rare genetic cluster not found commonly in Europe.

The inscription at Lunnastaig on Shetland was read by Allen, R. as TT[O^U]CUHETTS:AHEHHTTMNNN:HCCVVEVV:NEHHTONN. The language written here may have had unusual sounds which made their way into Scottish Gaelic, that were not easily written within Ogham. The language may have combined multiple parts of speech together, this has more recently been translated as HHTT 'lay' or 'put', NEHHTON a personal name 'pure'.

The Ogham inscription at Callingsburgh on Bressay was read by Allen, R. as CRROSCC:NAHHTVVDDA {DD}S:DATTRR:ANN | BE[NN^RR]ISEF:MEQQDDRROANN. I have read this as CROSCC /krosx/ 'cross' NAHHTVVDDA - the name NEHHTON plus a genitive suffix? DATTRR - daughter. The doubling of R in DATTRR may show a Proto-Norse final coming from Proto-Germanic -z. The final part is MEQQ DDROANN, MEQQ is related to Old Irish mac 'son' and in Ogham inscriptions is used to mean 'son of', the doubling of D in the following personal name may show lenition due to DDROANN being genitive. This inscription shows a curious mix of early Germanic and Celtic. This could be interpreted as an early type of Indo-European language. It may be that some of the Ogham inscriptions are in local languages which were less Indo-European, notwithstanding that they were linked to Indo-European languages but perhaps not fully incorporated.

There are two examples on Orkney of so-called Proto-writing from two of the Neolithic sites. The photo below shows one of them, which has been known about for decades, since the Neolithic village of Skara Brae was excavated. This may be an example of Neolithic writing, but no-body is able to translate it. One thing that weighs evidence in favor of it being a written language is the repetition of characters and vertical lines which seem to separate or add further meaning to the characters between them. *I personally think that Skara Brae was a sacred site connected to the people who came to be known as the pappae much later on. The site seems rather like a sacred*

shell midden temple site, shell middens and for example early beehive churches may be linked (added in August 2022).



The photo shows the markings on a fragment of pottery found in the Banks Chambered Tomb on South Ronaldsay appears to contain the fragment of a written inscription, which is again unreadable at this time. One of the characters appears identical to the Younger Futhark T used in Anglo-Norse inscriptions, so this may lend evidence to the theory that the runic alphabet has indigenous origins rather than being from early Latin. We visited the tomb in July 2018 to examine rumors of Proto-Writing at the site. Interestingly, DNA analysis of bones in this tomb points to a Middle Eastern origin in the Neolithic. So was this perhaps an Afro-Asiatic language that they spoke, and did the runic alphabets in Northern Europe come instead from an ancient form of the Canaanite or another Mediterranean script rather than from Latin? I am very grateful to the person who copied these out for me in the original article I wrote under this pseudonym, these are the original photos I took.



More Citations:

.The Orkney Norn by Hugh Marwick

<http://www.nordiska.uu.se/forskn/samnord.htm> - Samnordisk runtextdatabas

<http://www.bankschamberedtomb.co.uk/ancient-dna/> [HYPERLINK](#) - Banks Chambered Tomb

.The longhouse as a central element in Bronze Age daily life - H. Fokkens, Leiden Universit

Photos by Linden Alexander Pentecost



Rûn lesson one

Written by Jakob Stenberg/Linden Alexander Pentecost 2016. The photo above shows the island of Run/Ruhnu and I was allowed to include this photo thanks to someone I know on the island.

Run is a Scandinavian Language native to the Estonian Island of Ruhnu or Runö in Swedish. Run is a nearly extinct language, there are a few people living in Sweden who speak it but it is no longer spoken natively on the island of Runö. Run has been classified as Estonian Swedish. This may or may not be accurate, depending on how a person classifies a language. The Estonian and Finnish dialects of Scandinavian later became considered Swedish because of political and cultural reasons, but the Estonian dialects aren't really the same language as Swedish. Estonian Swedish had many variants within it, it was mainly spoken on the coast so that different islands had different dialects of Estonian Swedish. Here we will treat Run as a language rather than a dialect, a language which is severely endangered and which could one day gain minority language status like Elfdalian or Walloon, but since Run has been understudied and left out of a lot of literature the language will need to be noticed by more people prior to that happening.

Alphabet and pronunciation.

Phonology is not an exact science and different people have measured languages in different ways, their measurements and use of different measurements can influence the way that phonemes are described and classified. This is a measurement of Run using the international phonetic alphabet and not all phonemes may be exact, Run's phonology has also been written in texts using phonological rules which differ from the measurement of the language written in the Swedish dialect alphabe. Generally speaking languages which have been studied more have more precise measurements than minority languages, the closer that people study languag the more they seem to change and be susceptible to personalized descriptions, so long as the language can be described to an extent it stands to be valid. With more time and research languages beome better known and can be described in a way that makes sense of and includes all previous measurements. For the time being this will serve as the form of Run used in this course, language is primarily a diverse and variable science and language studies merely freeze the language as

observed by whomever is studying them, so all descriptions of a language are valid in that way. Languages aren't consistent and mistakes and variations in pronunciation are the natural behaviour of language, consistency and choosing one thing as correct over another comes from how the language has been studied and measured by whomever is studying it at any moment in time.

Vowels:

a - IPA /a/, short as in **tagha** - take.

â - IPA /ɑ:/, normally long, **tâbak** - tobacco.

e - IPA /e/, sometimes a schwa sound

é - IPA /e:/ i - IPA /i/

î - a long version of the above vowel

í - possibly similar to /i/ but uncertain, the character used in the Svenska

landsmålsalfabetet used to write Run is described as being between i and e, a sound

between the variants fisk and fesk which are Swedish dialectal forms of 'fish'. In Swedish words this sound is an e or i, it may also come from an older

/y/ or /j/ in Run and occurs from palatal consonants.

o - /o/

ô - /o:/

u - /u/ or perhaps /ʊ/

ú - /u:/

õ - /ø/, as in Swedish 'full'.

û - a long sound, /ɜ:/, like in the Scouse English pronunciation of "Liverpool".

ä - IPA /ɛ/

ää - /ɛ:/

ö - /œ/

å - the same sound as the Swedish å.

The diphthongs

oi, ou, ua or **uâ, ui, äi**

Consonants

b - /b/, **d** - /d/, **ð** - /ð/, **d** - /d/, **f** - /f/, **g** - /g/, **gh** - /ɣ/, **h** - /h/, **k** - /k/, **l** - /l/, **ɫ** - /ɫ/, **lj** or **sl** - /ʎ/

m - /m/, **n** - /n/ **ng** - /ŋ/ **ŋ** - /ŋ/, **p** - /p/, **r** - /r/, **R** - /R/ an uvular trill, **R** - /ʀ/ **s** - /s/ **S** - /ʃ/ **š** - /ʃ/

t - /t/ **ʈ** - /ʈ/, **v** - like the Swedish v, **w** - not quite the English /w/ but close

First nouns:

íuq – earth, **suʷwer** – silver, **dadd** – father, **trää** – tree, **brää** – bread, **hést** – autumn,

droum – dream, **búk** – book, **guang** - a given time or moment, **búq** – table, **buat** – boat,

iaht- hunt, **suann** – sand, **fišk** – fish, **biân** – bear, **dâ** – day, **fiäʷʷ** – mountain, **vâgh** –

wave, **frída** – friday, **kwäald** – evening, **vâgheR** – weather, **siäʷ** - själ - soul

Verbs

ita – eat, **gʷäimí** – forget, **säga** – say, **gʷamm** – speak, **feStua** – understand, **gira** – do,

berí - begin **inskí** – want, **bränn** – burn, **älskí** – love, **häit** - be called, **loup** – run, **drikk** –

drink, **bʷés** - blow **dräim** – dream, **bînd** – tie, **hér** – hear, **kuma** – come, **gua** – go, **giva** –

give, **fua** - get

Interrogatives

hakfíri? - why? **ho?** - what?

Numbers

än – one, **tû** – two, **trî** – three, **fiûr** – four, **fämm** – five, **siäks** – six, **siû** – seven, **ottu** – eight, **nîi** – nine, **tîi** - ten

Pronouns

iâ – I, **tu** - you, one person, **han** – he, **huan** – she, **hé** – it, **vî, ví** – we, **nî, ní** - you plural, **te, täim** - they

The long vowels in pronouns can also be short.

Some examples

han ér gammʎan - he is old

han ér gâʎan - he is old (alternative word)

fiškín ér dûran - the fish is big (masculine)

fiškín ér blôwan - the fish is blue (masculine)

hé hou fiäʎí ér dûʎ - the high mountain is big

The alphabet has been designed for the Run dialect and is based on the phonology recorded in Ordbok öfver estlänsk-svenska dialekterna / Freudenthal-Vendall. [Runömålet] : ljud- ock formlära samt ordbok /Herman Vendall, Freudenthal, Axel Olof, 1836-1911.



The pictures were kindly given by a resident on the island of Ruhnu.

Aurland Norwegian - a guide for visitors by Jakob Stenberg/Linden Alexander Pentecost



Photo above: the mountains of Aurland, taken by Linden Alexander Pentecost

The Aurland dialect of Norwegian is a west Norwegian dialect and part of the Sogn dialect group, spoken around Sognefjord, Norway's longest and deepest fjord. The Aurland dialect is one local variation of Sognemål or Sognemaol, the traditional speech of Sogn. The Sognemål dialects share many things in common with other western Norwegian dialects, but the Sogn dialects are quite distinctive. It is believed that people from this part of Norway were influential in Iceland, since the Sogn dialect shares some things with Icelandic not found in other parts of Norway. The older speakers of this dialect can be difficult to understand for other Norwegians, so some Norwegians even use English here because it is easier for them to communicate with. The district of Aurland includes villages such as Flåm and Gudvangen on branches of the larger Sognefjord. Flåm and Gudvangen are visited by many travellers to Norway, this region has important old Viking history and is a part of Norway where the Viking sea culture linked to Iceland was very important. At Gudvangen it is possible to visit a reconstructed Viking village, the link is available at the bottom of this booklet.

Pronunciation

- a** - similar to the English 'a' in 'man', can be long or short
- e** - like the 'e' in the English word 'let', or like the French é. Sometimes it sounds more like the English 'i' in 'pin'.
- i** - similar to the English 'i' in 'little' or a longer vowel, but sometimes more similar to the Aurland 'e'.
- o** - similar to the English vowel in 'know', occasionally more like an 'oo' sound.
- u** - like the Liverpool or Scouse pronunciation of 'oo' in 'Liverpool' or 'oo' similar to the 'oo' in 'soon'
- ú** - a sound somewhat between u and ø
- û** - like the English 'oo' in 'poor'
- y** - like the French 'u' or Danish 'y'.
- æ** - like the 'e' in 'bet' but longer
- ø** - like the French 'eu' sound or more open when short like the French 'neuf'
- ö** - like the English 'i' in 'sir'
- å** - similar to the English 'a' in 'all' but not the same vowel as the normal Norwegian å
- ø** - like the English 'au' in 'daughter'

Diphthongs

The Aurland dialect is also famous for its diphthongs, there are full diphthongs which are different to standard Norwegian as well as half diphthongs.

- ai** - like the English 'igh' in 'sight'
- aû** - similar to the English 'ow' in 'now'
- æu** - æ followed by u
- âi** - similar to the 'oy' in 'soy'

There are also some other diphthongs depending on the speaker and village.
Half diphthongs include

- ï** - an Aurland 'i' with a slight 'e' sound before it
- ò** - an o with a short u sound after it
- ù** - an u with a short e sound before it
- ÿ** - an y with a slight ø sound before it

These may be long or short, i especially often has a long i sound.

Consonants

b - like the English b

d - like the English d

dj - like the 'dg' in 'midge'

f - like the English f

g - as in the English word 'get'

h - like the English h

j - like the German j in 'ja'

k - like the English k

kj - like the Aurland tj but with the tongue in a less dental position so unlike the tongue position to pronounce d, dj, t and tj, but sounds very similar to the English 'tch'

l - like the English l

m - like the English m

n - like the English n

nj - like the 'ny' in 'onion'

p - like the English p

r - rolled or trilled like in archaic Scottish English

s - like in the word 'see', never a 'z' sound

sj - an s followed closely by the Norwegian j skj - like the 'sh' in 'shoe'

t - like the English t

tj - like the English 'ch' in 'chess'

v - softer than the English v with the lips pressed together less

Nouns

òr – word, **bain** – bone, **hønd** – hand, **hødn** – horn, **fòlk** – people, **rabn** – raven, **fisk** – fish, **fjòr** – fjord, **baùt** – boat, **aùr** – oar, **trødl** – troll, **skøg** – forest, **dal** – valley, **bru** – bridge, **hus** – house, **aùker** – field, **hùnd** – dog, **dua** – dove, **badn** – child, **nabn** – name, **bròr** - brother

Verbs

lesa – read, **nyla** – hesitate, **høppa** – jump, **leva** – live, **blåusa** – blow, **kadla** – call, **tru** – believe

In this work I have been using the book 'Phonology of the Dialect of Aurland, Norway', by George T. Flom as a reference to the older dialect along with studying the older generations speak in Flåm and Gudvangen.

<https://www.vikingvalley.no> - Gudvangen Viking village

Photos of Aurland by the author Jakob Stenberg/Linden Alexander Pentecost

Lule Bondska by Jakob Stenberg/Linden Alexander Pentecost



Lulemål is a divergent dialect of the Bondska or Westrobothnian language, a dialect chain of North Germanic dialects spoken along the Baltic coast of Northern Sweden and into the adjacent valleys, which were settled in ancient times by Germanic speakers, as opposed to the more inland areas which were occupied by Sami and perhaps some Finnic speakers. Lulemål is a severely endangered language, the most endangered of all the Bondska dialects which also includes the Kalix, Piteå, Skellefteå and Umeå dialects among others which have far more speakers. Lulemål is not mutually intelligible with Swedish and even shares little mutual intelligibility with other dialects of Bondska.



Pronunciation

a - /a/, **a:** - /ɑ:/, **e** - /ɛ/, **e:** - /e:/, **i** - /i/, **i:** - /i:/, **o** - /ʊ/, **o:** - /u:/, **u** - /ɜ/, **u:** - /ɜ:/, **å** - /ɔ/, **å:** - /o:/, **ä** - /ɛ/, **ä:** - /ɛ:/, **ö** - /ø/, **ö:** - /ø:/, **ei** - /ei/, **eo** - /eʊ/, **io** - /iu/, **oi** - /ui/, **åo** - /ou/, **öy** - /ɛy/, **b** - /b/, **d** - /d/, **dj** - /dʒ~j/, **f** - /f/, **g** - /g/, **h** - /h/, **j** - /j/, **k** - /k/, **l** - /l/, **L** - /ɾ/, **Ld** - /d/, **m** - /m/, **n** - /n/, **p** - /p/, **r** - /r/, **rd** - /d/, **s** - /s/, **sch** - /ʃ/, **t** - /t/, **tj** /tɕ~tj/, **v** - /v/, **w** - /w/

Long vowels are always written followed by a colon, two vowels in sequence are a circumflex and the vowels are pronounced separately. The circumflex tone happens with apocope, when the final vowel is lost. This happens with verbs that undergo apocope, e.g. **tjööp**, but Swedish *köpa*.

First nouns

såoL, **seoL** – sun, **båok**, **beok** – book, **heos** – house, **stein** – stone, **ståoL** – chair, **sä:t** – sand, **möyr** -marsh, **heim** – home, **skåog** – forest, **kar** – man, **båoL** – table, **åoL** – word, **däg** – day, **söyda** – page, **skåoL** – school, **maL** - speech or language, **båonmaL** – Bondska, **kåo** – cow, **vättn** - water

Verbs

våra – be, **fa** – get, **gå** - go, walk, **tå** – take, **skröyv** – write, **bLöy** – become, **djera** - do
djiva – give, **täänk** – think, **hooir** – hear, **reis** – travel, **tåLa** – speak, **fåra** - go, travel
 Some of these words may not show consistent sound changes due to personal choice of pronunciation and variation is common.

interrogatives

bo? - what?
bom? - who?
huri? - how?

Pronouns

jö - I
do - you singular
hån - he
heo – she
he - it
ve - we
i - you plural
dom - they

There is some dialect variation in Lulemål, the diphthong **eo** may be **åo** or **öö** depending on the village, so **heos** and **beok** may also be **höos** and **böök** or **båok**. There is some variation in other diphthongs, for example **skröyv** and **skuyv** which mean 'write', and in interrogatives, so **bo** and **bom** may also be **wo** and **wom**.

Examples

veLkumin – welcome

jö hä ånt/åt hoord'e - I have not heard it

bo heit do? - what are you called?

jö heit... - I am called

bors jer/er do bårti? - where are you from?

jö jer/er bårti... - I am from

dom sko tjööp pizza pa böyn - they will buy pizza in town

jö jer bårti LeoL - I am from Luleå

jö sko skröyv beoka - I will write the book

jö skreiv beoka idä - I wrote the book today

jö hä skrivi beoka - I have written the book

jö hääd skrivi beoka - I had written the book

jö sko gå ve de - I will walk with you

bors sko ve fåra? - where should we go?

bo sää do? - what did you say?

hån sko jööLp de - he shall help you

hån djer arbete ivi nåtta - he does the work overnight

veit do bom heo vär? - do you know who she was?

Photos of the traditional Luleå District by Nina Wikman Saxin, Johannes Broshaan Mörtzell also dedicated time to helping me make sure that this was all correct as possible, so many thanks to him.

Ded Borriñholmska sprog – The Bornholmsk Language

Bornholmsk has been classified in the past as a form of Scanian, but the island of Bornholm is has been quite isolated from both Sweden and Denmark in more recent history, so it isn't the same Scanian as was spoken on the mainland. Both Scania and Bornholm have an ancient history, this is the part of Scandinavia where some of the first major Norse monuments appear and some of the earliest Runic inscriptions, which might have been written in Scanian rather than an early form of Danish or Swedish.

The Bornholmsk dialect evolved in isolation from Scanian on the mainland, so despite coming from the same early Scandinavian dialect it shares some things in common with other Norse dialects and has a recent Danish influence which Modern Scanian does not have. Bornholmsk is still different enough to Riksdansk to make it hard to understand for Danes, owing some to say that Bornholmsk is its own language. It would be more accurate to say that Scanian was its own language from the earliest Scandinavian language period before Danish and Swedish existed, the original Scanian language survives today as the Bornholmsk, Scanian, Blekinge and Halland dialects, which have been influenced to different degrees by the standard languages. The Danish language was a later development, and different from Scanian but coming from the same wider dialect area.

Modern Swedish was spoken originally in a totally different area, but both modern Swedish, Danish and Norwegian Bokmaal have come together and were influenced by more formal medieval Scaninavian speech coming from a centralized formal language.

Bornholmsk has different dialects and local variation which isn't surprising with the longevity of Norse on this island. There is a kind of standard spelling system, invented by K.J. Lyngby in the 19th century and used in Espersen's dictionary of Bornholmsk.

Alphabet:

a, b, d, e, f, g, g, h, i, j, k, k, l, l, m, n, n, o, p, r, s, s, t, u, v, w, y, ø, æ, â, å, ö, z

Pronunciation:

a – [a] [a:]
 e – [e] [e:] [ə]
 i – [i] [i:]
 o – [o] [o:] [o:ʊ]
 u – [u] [u:] [u:ʊ]
 y – [y] [y:]
 å – [ɔ] [ɔ:]
 æ – [ɛ] [ɛ:]
 ø – [ø] [ø:]
 ö – [œ:]
 â – [ɑ] [ɑ:]

Consonants to note:

.í, ñ are palatalised [ʎ] [ɲ]
 .r is [ʀ] as in Danish
 .ś is [ʃ]
 .k is [tʃ]
 .g is [dʒ]
 d is sometimes [ð] medially or finally

Basic sentences:

jâ e ín mań – I am a man

jâ hadde skreved ded – I had written it

mit huz/hûz e ønte på Borrińholm – my house is not in Bornholm

ded e dajlijt å/â vara på Borrińholm – it is beautiful to be in Bornholm

gomârn me jer – good morning to you

jâ kań læze ded Borrińholmska sprog – I can read the Bornholmsk language

nu ska jâ køre te huzed – I shall drive to the house now

aíle di anra e uda på holmen – all the others are out on the isle

je e ønte/ente i skâwiń – you lot are not in the wood

vi hâ fåed ded – we have got it

vort sprâg hedder Borrińholmsk – our language is called Bornholmsk

jâ ska lewa på Borrińholm – I must live in Bornholm

ögan va go – the week was good

dæń mańńiń e ønte frá Borrińholm – that man is not from Bornholm

i/ni ska gé dom nogged å læza – you lot will give them something to read

hań tæńte a ded końe vara bæer – he thought that it could be better

vi finje ín goer bil – we got (received) a good car

hań e dæń súene mańńiń, sâm jâ hâr sedd idâ – he is the seventh man, which I have seen today

dû e kommed jimm – you have come home

jâ hâr køft maj en go bog – I have bought a good book

di behøva ed huz – they need a house

jâ hâr sâ mâjed å saja – I have so much to say

goer awtań, miń vænn – good afternoon, my friend

hon forstâr vort sprâg – she understands our language

vińteriń e kent – the winter is known

jâ ska komma jimm ætte – I will come home after

dialect variation

Bornholmsk has a number of dialects, for example, the word 'not' can appear as: ønte, ynte, ikké.

.a can become æ for some speakers of the modern dialect. For example æle for ale.

.å can sometimes be â.

Numbers in Bornholmsk:

iń – 1

to – 2

tre – 3

fira – 4

fæm – 5

sajs – 6

śu – 7

âta – 8

ni – 9

ti – 10

A little grammar

Bornholmsk has three genders, as do most dialects of Norwegian, Icelandic and Faroese. Adjectives are also different depending on the gender, something which is quite unique for a Danish dialect. For example

iń goer mań – a good man (masculine noun)

en go sol – a good sun (feminine noun)

ed got huz – a good house (neuter noun)

In the definite:

dæń goa mańńiń – the good man

dæn goa solen – the good sun

dedh/ded goa huzed/hûzed – the good house

Verbs:

In older Bornholmsk, distinctions were made between singular and plural verbs in the present tense, for example:

jâ lewer – I live

vi lewa – we live

or:

jâ behøver – I need

vi behøva – we need

jâ fiķķ – I got

jâ ġiķķ – I went

vi fińe – we got

di ġińe – they went

The Breton language, part two:

This article is a continuation from *Basic Breton, part one*, which is located on page 136 of my free online book: *Languages and dialects of Northwestern Europe, and their heritage*, by Linden Alexander Pentecost.

The Breton and Welsh teacher Rhisiart Hincs helped me with some corrections in this article, including giving the correct form **e gamaladed** which I made a mistake with, a mistake in that I did not mutate **koad** after the definite article, and also several spelling mistakes. Rhisiart is an expert on the Breton language and I am grateful for his help and knowledge.

Breton consonants:

ch – as in French *château*

c'h – like the Welsh *ch*, similar to the German *ch* but further back in the throat. This can be a voiced sound as in the word **alc'hwez** - key

j – as in French *jardin*

k – as in English

l – as in English

lh – like the 'll' in 'million'

m – as in English

n – as in English

ñ – silent, but causes the preceding vowel to be nasal, like the nasal vowel in Portuguese, written *ã*

p – as in English

r – uvular as in French

s – as in English 'see'

t – as in English

v – like the English *v*, but sounding like 'oo' in 'moose' in final position in words like **anv** 'name'

w – as in English 'water'

y – as in English 'yeah'

z – as in English 'z', but word finally sounds like the 's' in 'sail' or is silent, e.g.

zh – like the English 'z' in 'zoo', usually the same as **z** in modern standard Breton

komprenan – I understand

ne gomprenan ket – I do not understand

komz a rez Brezhoneg? - do you speak Breton (singular, informal)

komz a rit Brezhoneg? - do you speak Breton (plural, polite)

komz a ran Brezhoneg – I (do) speak Breton

ne gomzan ket Brezhoneg – I do not speak Breton

From these examples we can see that negation is rather like French in a way, involving two parts, for example the French *je comprends* – I understand, *je ne comprends pas* – I do not understand. In the sentences about speaking Breton, this is constructed with an auxiliary verb, namely the verb 'to do', although this only happens when the verb-noun is first in the sentence. This is used commonly in Breton in instances, just as 'do' is used as an auxiliary verb in English, not in the same way necessarily though. Thus:

ran – I do
rez – you (singular, informal) do
rit – you (plural, formal) do

These forms are used together with the verb-noun **komz** – to speak.

petra eo da anv? – what is your name? (singular, informal)
petra eo hoc'h anv? – what is your name? (plural, polite)

... **eo ma anv** – my name is...

The word **petra** means 'what', **eo** means 'is', **anv** is 'name'. There are also some possessive pronouns in here.

ma – my
da – your (singular, informal)
hoc'h – your (plural, polite)

As in Irish there is also consonant mutation, such as

koad – forest (m) **komz** – speech, language (f)

ar c'hoad – the forest (m) **ar gomz** – the speech, language

ar c'hoad kaer – the beautiful forest
ar gomz kaer – the beautiful speech, language

The definite article in Breton changes depending on the sound of the following word

an – before vowels, d, h, n and t
al – before l
ar – before other sounds

Such as:

an askre – the river (f)
an aod – the coast or shore (f)
an alc'hwez – the key (m)

al laezh – the milk (m)
al luc'hed – the lightning

an dour – the water (m)
an draezhenn – the beach, sands (f)
ar mor – the sea (m)

Basic Breton sentences

petra eo anv an draezhenn? - what is the name of the beach?

Petra – what, **eo** – is, **anv** – name, **an draezhenn** – (of) the beach

pelec'h emañ an draezhenn vras? - where is the big beach?

pelec'h – where, **emañ** – is/are, there is/there are, **an draezhenn** – the beach, **vras** – big, from **bras**

emañ an den o vont d'an draezhenn vras gant e gamaladed – he is going to the beach with his friends

emañ – is/are, there is/there are (present continuous), **an den** – the man, **o** – in the process of, **mont** – to go, **o vont** – in the process of going, **d'an draezhenn** – to the beach, **gant** – with, **e gamaladed** – his friends

n'emañ ket an den o vont d'ar menez – the man is not going to the mountain

n'emañ ket – is/are not, there is/are not (present continuous), **menez** - mountain

emaon o vont d'ar c'hoad hiziv – I am going to the forest today

emaon – I am (first person singular form of **emañ**), **d'ar c'hoad** – to the forest, **hiziv** - today

pelec'h emaout o chom? - where do you live (singular, informal)

emaout – second person singular form of **emañ**, **o chom** – living, in the process of living

pelec'h emaoc'h o chom? - where do you live (plural, polite)

pelec'h emañ ar pesked bras o chom? - where does the big fish live?

ar pesked bras – the big fish

an aod zo kaer – the coastline is beautiful

an aod – the coastline, **zo** – is, **kaer** – beautiful, pretty, fine, nice, charming

Languages in Arizona

Linden Alexander Pentecost

This article is only a very short introduction to this topic. I am grateful to the hospitality and help of those who I visited in the states. The photos were taken by me (Linden Alexander Pentecost), and show parts of the state of Arizona. The photo below shows the landscapes close to Globe, perhaps showing something of the mighty ancestral power that I felt was present in these mountains.



There is an incredible variety of languages in the Americas, and Arizona itself has many indigenous languages, including the Hopi language, O'odham, Numi, Yaqui, Quechan, Maricopa, Cocopah Mojave, Yavapai, Havasupai, Halchidhoma, Western Apache and Navajo. I am not sure what the indigenous language is/are of the landscape visible in this photo, but a Hopi man has told me that this part of Arizona between the Mogollon Rim and Globe had ancestral cultures which are connected to the Hopi.

The Mogollon Rim itself is connected to some of the Apache speaking peoples, and is a very different and more wooded type of landscape to that which is shown here.