МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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ОСНОВЫ АНГЛИЙСКОЙ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИИ

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Курс лекций по английской лексикологии посвящен слову как основной единице языка. Здесь нашли свое отражение базовые разделы этой отрасли лингвистики: этимология, структура слова, словообразование, лексикография. Английская лексика рассматривается как непрерывно развивающаяся система. «Основы английской лексикологии» предназначены для студентов лингвистических вузов и факультетов иностранных языков.

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LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

For the purpose pf communication every language has special units ready for usage – **words** with the help of which any speaker can nominate the objects of the extralinguistic world and their qualities, his own mental and psychical phenomena, and **word combinations** which also function as complex names, and **morphemes**, the smallest meaningful units of the language system with the help of which we can build (derive) any unit of nomination. Taken together these units form the system of lexical units of the language, or its **vocabulary**.

Lexical units are bilateral units: they possess definite forms defined by combinations of sounds and meanings. The English word *cat* means «кошка» and names a corresponding class of animals; word-combinations *green hand* and *Adam's ale* mean «неопытный человек» и «вода»; the morpheme -er helps to build the agent of a verbal action – *worker, teacher*. Being bilateral linguistic units, lexical units differ from phonemes, for instance, which have a distinctive function but are devoid of meaning.

At the same time lexical units represent material for further word-formation. We reproduce them automatically in speech – syntactical units (phrases, sentences) are formed in the process of communication; they are not ready-made. No doubt, in the process of communication speakers can create new words which never existed in the vocabulary of the language but they will become the constituent elements of the vocabulary only when they pass the process of social approbation and will be accepted by the society.

The science which studies the vocabulary of the language as a complex of its constituent elements is called **lexicology** (from Greek *lexis* «слово, речь», "*lexicos*" – concerning words" and *logos* – «учение»).

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics is closely connected with its other branches. Phonetics, for example is interested in lexical units from the point of view of their sound structure, grammar studies grammatical aspects of lexical

units abstracting from their individual and other properties. But, certainly, lexicology sets itself a lot of linguistic problems of its own.

Lexicology reveals the most essentual characteristics of lexical units, gives a systematic description of the vocabulary of the language, laws of its formation in the course of many centuries, functioning and further development.

One of the most important problems of lexicology is the study of word-meaning, semantic characteristics of lexical units, the connection of all the components of word meaning, polysemantic nature of the majority of English words, various changes of word-meaning in the process of communication.

Morphemes which constitute any word are studied from the point of view of their derivational potential – their activity in the process of word-building, their combinability with the basic units, and functions they fulfil in the language.

Combinability of linguistic units, the laws of their collocation, formation of stable word-collocations, their specific features are also studied by lexicology.

Systematic relations in the vocabulary, different types of semantic groupings (thematic groups, semantic fields, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms) have always been of special interest for lexicologists.

Lexicology does not limit itself to static description of the vocabulary. Great importance is attached to the dynamic side of the lexical system: the origin of lexical units, their etymology, the process of assimilation of borrowings, territorial and social peculiarities of lexical units.

It is worthy of note that lexicology as a branch of linguistics appeared due to the efforts of a great number of outstanding scholars in this country. Even the word “lexicology” is not found in European and American linguistics. It should also be mentioned that the approach used by the linguists in this country to the study of the vocabulary is lexicocentrical (лексикоцентрический).

The vocabulary of the language represents a system. We may study it synchronically, at a given stage of the language’s development or diachronically, in the context of the processes through which it grows and develops.

The vocabulary of any language is the result of a long historical process in the course of which many words came into disuse, became obsolete and a number of new words appears with any coming day, taking as a building material words and morphemes already existing in the language, combining them in every possible way or borrowing them from other languages and slowly adapting them to its own laws.

Lexicology today presents a vast area of linguistic knowledge. Thus, **historical lexicology** deals with historic development of the vocabulary against its socio-cultural background. **Comparative lexicology** studies closely related languages aiming at their typological identity or differentiation; **contrastive lexicology** establishes facts of similarities and differences of related and non-related languages; **applied lexicology** includes terminology and lexicography, translation, linguodidactics and pragmatics of speech.

The role and the power of a WORD in our life is really great, even mystical. There is a special, "intimate" relationship between us and the word, for a name calls up an entity in the world around us and vice versa. A word names only a given referent and this connection is based on the systemic character of our language, provides mutual understanding in the process of communication.

Beside giving us the key to the surrounding world words stimulate our emotional reaction to what has being said: words can hurt, excite, depress, gladden and exhilarate, help achieve the desired effect, set problems, conflicts and wars.

What is the relationship between words and things? From the point of view of formal approach words are just **arbitrary signs** which have no importance when compared with things, concepts or phenomena of the outer world. But those things and concepts form the necessary basis for words when they appear in the language. Of course, things and concepts come first, but they are dead till they are named by **words**.

In works of fiction the dominance of words (their specific choice) becomes evident; words are to help us to comprehend the author's message.

LEXICOGRAPHY

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

Lexicography is traditionally defined as the art and science of dictionary – making (compiling). Lexicographers aim at a systematic description of the word's semantic structure, its different meanings. It is no easy matter to bring together contexts within a dictionary matter which have existed there for a long time and contexts which appeared quite recently and which reflect numerous changes taking place in extralinguistic reality.

It goes without saying that to keep dictionaries up-to-date is extremely difficult because there is a considerable time-lag between the process of collecting data and dictionary-compiling and the process of the publication of a dictionary.

English lexicography has very rich traditions and a long history. The forerunners of modern dictionaries appeared long ago in medieval England as the work of nameless scholars who wrote in the margins of Latin manuscripts English equivalents for some difficult Latin words. These were collected into lists called **glosses**. Then several glosses were combined into a book called a **glossarium** which may be called a short Latin-English or English-Latin dictionary of selected words. The first English-Latin dictionary was printed in England in 1440. It had a Latin title "Promptorium Parvolorum" which means "A Storehouse for Young Boys". At that time Latin was the international language of scholars, of church and the most important institutions of the Middle Ages.

As international connections of England grew stronger and foreign trades became important to the country, Latin began to lose ground and in the XVIth century appeared English-Italian, English-French and other dictionaries.

The first "real" English dictionaries appeared in the XVII th century. They defined English words in terms of other English words. The authors of such

dictionaries concentrated on the so-called “hard words” which people were not likely to know and which were coming into the language at that time in large quantities.

The definitions in such dictionaries were too short to be of any value and sometimes the information given about many words was wrong. Among the first English dictionaries published at that time were Robert Cawdrey’s “Table Alphabetical of Hard Words” (1604), John Bullockkar’s “An English Expositor” (1616), Henry Cockeram’s “The English Dictionary” (1623). Cockeram’s book was the first in English to use the word “dictionary” in the title. In one of such early dictionaries, Elisha Coles’s “An English Dictionary” (1676) you can find even a special section of jargon words of the criminal underworld. But upon the whole the English society was uncomfortably aware of the backwardness in the study of their own tongue. The air was full of schemes for improving the English language and giving it greater prestige.

Great English writers: Daniel Defoe, Jonathan Swift, Edward Pope and others made proposals for establishing authorative standards which could stop language change and fix it in its present “pure” form forever. The time was ripe for a great literary figure to undertake the task of compiling a dictionary comparable to the best European academic dictionaries.

It was Dr. Samuel Johnson, a critic and essayist considered by most of the artists and writers of his time to be the best judge and authority in matters of taste. He undertook the task and his “plan of a Dictionary of the English language” was published in 1747.

When he first conceived the idea of making a standard dictionary, Johnson estimated that he could complete the task within three years. In 1755, eight years after he had signed the contract with his book-sellers, Johnson’s dictionary was published in two volumes. It contained about 40.000 entries. As a starting point he used Bailey’s dictionary because all dictionaries are built upon other dictionaries.

For nearly one hundred years after its publication Johnson's dictionary was **the** dictionary in England and in America. Although it was not the dictionary in the world both as well as in France and Italy published by academies of scholars, this was the best dictionary created by a single man. Its numerous merits may be described as follows: it was the most comprehensive dictionary of English with extensive etymologies, complete and clear definitions, followed by quotations from reputable authors illustrating the use of a word, adding important dimensions to definitions. Various senses of meanings of the same word were numbered and distinguished.

Of course, Johnson's dictionary was by no means perfect; some of the definitions were difficult to understand and he allowed personal remarks to creep into supplementary notes:

job (a low word now much in use of which I cannot tell the etymology) …petty, piddling work; a piece of chance work.

spick and **span** (This word I should not have expected to have found authotized by a polite writer … a low word). Quite new. Now first used.

Johnson's dictionary contained a number of words inherited from early dictionaries. Thus he described the act of taking off shoes as "discalceation". The XVIII th century wanted more than definition; it wanted a standard and Johnson tried to supply it. He wanted to stop the degradation of the language from a state of excellence which it had reached in earlier times. Johnson hoped that with the authority of the standard dictionary as a guide the language might be stabilized, as he said: "the dictionary might fix our language and put a stop to those alterations which spoilt it".

But by the time he had finished writing his two volumes he was already convinced that the natural course of language change cannot be stopped.

The reception of Johnson's DICTIONARY by his contemporaries was mixed. It was said to have too many quotations, sometimes from writers "of no

authority", its etymologies were attacked and even ridiculed; Johnson was criticized for not including more specialized terms of art and commerce and for including too many artificial or purely literary words.

But upon the whole the DICTIONARY was praised and his definitions were admired, his choice of illustrative quotations was accepted as major advances in the practice of lexicography. In fact, Johnson grandly fulfilled the expectations of the literary English establishment. For well over a century it remained the most authoritative dictionary of English.

Time seems to have challenged Johnson's view of linguistic change. Language continues to go its merry way: words die, new ones are born, "barbarities" flourish, usage changes.

The Oxford English Dictionary and Other Historical Dictionaries

In November 1857, Richard Chenevix Trench, Dean of Westminster, presented two papers before the Philological Society under the title "On Some Deficiencies in Our English Dictionaries". Dr Trench lists seven ways in which past dictionaries had been defective: their failure to include obsolete words, inconsistency in presenting families of words, shortcomings in describing historical development of words, neglecting synonymic differentiation, discrepancies in quoting illustrative material, a mixture of irrelevant and redundant information – mythological characters, encyclopedia articles.

The Philological Society decided that a new dictionary was needed and suggested an original title: "A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles". The real beginning of the dictionary can be placed at 1879, when James A.H. Murray, a Scottish schoolmaster and an active member of the Philological Society, was persuaded to take over the editorship. At that time the dictionary was supposed to take ten years to complete; in fact, it would take fifty: the scope of the project was simply enormous. By the time of its completion the dictionary, published in fascicles from 1882 to 1928, numbered 15,487 pages, each of which contained three columns of type. Based on a file of 5 million

citations, it printed 1,8 million. It includes more than 240.000 headwords and, counting subordinate words and combinations, contains about 450.000 entries.

Soon editorial board was expanded by adding Henry Bradley (1888), William Alexander Craigie and Charles Talbut Onions (1914).

The Oxford English dictionary is a monumental achievement, without parallel in the English language and in few others. We can't imagine any contemporary lexicographer be without the OED which provides a solid base for any serious linguistic investigation, for the English tradition in lexicography, as opposed to the American, depended upon the educated generalist, the Oxford- or Cambridge-educated scholar, the ideal of the educated gentleman or woman of broad knowledge and exquisite taste. The volumes of the OED were published over a period of forty years, from 1888 to 1928; by the time the last volumes appeared the earliest needed revision, and a supplement was therefore issued in 1933 to record changes in the earlier volumes. But even the supplement was soon outdated.

In 1957 a New Zealand-born Oxonian scholar Robert W. Burchfield, was asked to edit a multivolume supplement. His task was to correct records, to add substandard words and vulgarisms and terminology of science, technology, etc.

Special attention was paid to variants of the language – American, Australian, Canadian, New Zealand. Four Supplementary volumes are of a quality commensurating with OED itself.

A "Dictionary of American English" in four volumes by William A. Craigie and James R. Hulbert including words revealing the cultural life of the American people, numerous etnorealia appeared as an effort to fill in the gaps in the OED coverage of Americanisms.

English traditional lexicography goes back to *A Dictionary of the English Language* by Dr. Samuel Johnson published in 1755 when the idea of a general national dictionary was in the air. The author tried to cover the maximum

possible number of words' meanings and lexical items supplying them with commentaries of stylistic and evaluatory character.

The Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles (1859-1933) became a great linguistic event as it aimed at including every word occurring in the literature of English by that time. Learner's dictionaries occupy a specific place among other linguistic dictionaries for general use. For a detailed description they select that part of the vocabulary which is judged to be of value to its users. There dictionaries may be defined as general, synchronic and monolingual and their pedagogical orientation in illustrated by the *Advanced Learner's dictionary of Current English* by A.S. Hornby which had an enormous impact on the English language teaching with its didactic effectiveness.

All contemporary learner's dictionaries are characterized by simplicity of definitions, information on the grammar of words, their collocational characteristics and strategies of correct usage. In fact, they provide a key to language reality.

A reliable start for learners in dealing with the vocabulary at large is provided by a careful vocabulary selection which helped to single out a limited variety of items (based on their frequency and prominence in communication).

C.K. Ogden and IA. Richard's *Basic English* contained 859 words, *The General Service List* of M. West – 2000 and the last edition of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* – 3500 words. Definitional value of words is the basic principle of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*.

THE TYPOLOGY OF DICTIONARIES

Dictionaries may be classified according to various items:

I. According to the object of description

- Encyclopaedic
- Linguistic

II. According to the number of words (volume)

- Big academic dictionaries
- Medial-sized dictionaries
- Small dictionaries (in one volume)

III. According to the language of description

- Monolingual
- Bilingual
- Polyglot

IV. According to the functional variant of the language

- General literary vocabulary bookish words
- Technical vocabulary
- Territorial variant
- Social variant Slang

V. According to the main unit of description

- Dictionaries of foreign words
- Phraseological dictionaries
- Dictionaries of collocations
- Dictionaries of quatations

VI. According to what part of lexical units is described

- orthoepic
- orthographical
- D. of frequency
- D. of word formation
- Rhyming dictionmary

VII. According to the order of units in it

- alphabetical
- non-alphabetical (thematic)

CLASSIFICATION OF DICTIONARIES ACCORDING TO THEIR CONTENTS

1. **General language dictionaries** are called so because they deal with the words of the language as a whole.
2. **Encyclopaedic dictionaries** have special entries for individual people and for places, they include supplementary features giving a wide range of general information like the names of the highest mountains and the famous lakes. The encyclopaedic dictionary is perhaps most popular with readers.
3. **Translating (or international) dictionaries**. This dictionary gives equivalent words in two or more languages, as opposed to the monolingual dictionary. Translating dictionaries do not define the words they list.
4. **Monolingual linguistic dictionaries**. Explanatory dictionaries.
5. **Dialect and regional dictionaries** are presented by:
   - S. Wright, The English Dialect Dictionary, 6 vols. Oxford 1898-1905;
   - N. Wentworth American Dialect dictionary. N Y, Crowell, 1944;
   - M. A. Mathews, Dictionary of Americanisms on Historical Principles. Chicago Univ. 1951;
   - W. S. Avis, Toronto, Gage, 1967, A Dictionary of Canadianism on Historical Principles;
   - S. B. Foreman, The New Zealand Contemporary Dictionary. Christchurch, Whitcombe, 1968.
6. **Dictionaries of Slang**:
   - E. Partridge, Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English. 2 vols. Lnd., Rout ledge;
   - H. Wentworth and S.B. Flexner, Dictionary of American Slang. N. Y. Crowell, 1975.
7. **Dictionaries of Writers' Language**
   - A. Schmidt. Shakespeare Lexicon, 2 vols., Lnd., 1886;
   - E. Abbot, Concordance to the Works of Alexander Pope. N. Y., 1965.

8. Historical Dictionaries:

- J. Bosworth, An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, Lnd. 1882-98;
- H. Kurath, A. M. Kuhn, J. Reidy. Middle English Dictionary. Michigan Univ.

9. Dictionaries of Neologism:

- 6000 Words. A Supplement to Webster's Third New International Dictionary Mass. Merriam, 1976;
- Berg P.S. A Dictionary of New Words in English. 2nd ed. Lnd., 1953;
- Reifer M. Dictionary of New Words. N.Y. 1955;
- Barnhart C.I. The Second Barnhart Dictionary of New English. Lnd., 1980.

10. Synonymic Dictionaries:

Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms. Mass., Merriam, 1968. It is a dictionary of an explanatory type. Much attention is paid to the depth of distinctions between synonyms. The best dictionary-inventory is Laird Ch. Webster's New World Thesaurus. N.Y., New American Library, 1971. 30000 entries, each of which represents an exhaustive list of synonyms, Practically the dictionary reflects all the active vocabulary of modern English speakers.

Close to inventories we may put Roget's International Thesaurus N. Y., Cromwell.

Very popular in Britain and USA is Soule R. A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions / Ed. by A.D. Sheffield. N.Y. Bantam Books.

We may also mention Allen F.S. Allen's Synonyms and Antonyms. N.Y. Harper and Crabb Y. Crabb's English Synonyms. N.Y. Crosset and Dunlop.

Hogan H. Dictionary of American Synonyms. N.Y.

Among the Russian editions the best is Апресян Ю.Д. Англо-русский словарь синонимов – М., 1979

11. Antonymic Dictionaries

register words of the same part of speech but different in meaning. Synonymic dictionaries give antonyms together with synonyms and special

antonymic dictionaries are very few. Among them – Коммисаров В.И. Словарь антонимов современного английского языка. – М., 1964.

12. Phraseological Dictionaries:

- Cowie A.P., Maskin R. Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English. Vol. I Verbs with Prepositions and Particles. Oxford, 1975. Next volumes are planned.

One of the best dictionaries published in Japan is: Ichikawa S. The Kenkyusha Dictionary of Current English Idioms. Tokio, 1980.

The best American dictionary of this Kind is Boatner M. T., Gates J. E. A Dictionary of American Idioms / Ed. By A. Makkai. N. Y., 1975).

We must also mention Collins V.H. A Book of English Idioms. Lnd. Longmans, 1956). It was published (перепечатан в СССР) in 1960; A Second Book of English Idioms. Lnd., 1958; A Third Book of English, Idioms. Ind. Each of the books includes about 1.000 phraseologisms.

The best bilingual phraseological dictionary is «Англо-русский фразеологический словарь». А.В. Кунина. It is a real masterpiece, a monument to its compiler. The dictionary describes English phraseologisms from Ch. Dickens (1812-1870) up to Modern English. It was first published in 1955 and now we deal already with the IV th edition containing about 30.000 phraseological units, the material for illustration includes the novels of our contemporaries (!).

13. Dictionaries of Collocations:

They teach the student of English the rules of collocation. Their number is not great.

- Crowell T.L. A Glossary of Phrases with Prepositions. With Exercises: Lnd., 1957; The Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Collocations, Tokyo, 1900;
- Берлизон С.Б. Сочетания типа make up, make for в современном английском языке. – М., 1964;

- Гинзбург Р. и др. Глагольные словосочетания в современном английском языке. – М., 1975.

14. Dictionaries of Foreign Words

- Mawson C.O. Dictionary of Foreign Terms. N.Y., Bantam Books;
- Newmar K. M. Dictionary of Foreign Words & Phrases. Lnd. Thames and Hudson, 1950;
- Bliss A.J. Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases in Current English. Lnd., Routledge, 1966;
- Carrol D. The Dictionary of Foreign Terms in the English Language. N.Y., Hawthron, 1973.

15. Dictionaries of Abbreviations and Signs

- Patridge E.A. Dictionary of Abbreviations. Lnd. Constable;
- Allen E. Dictionary of Abbreviations and Symbols. Lnd., 1944;
- Buttress F.A. World List of Abbreviations. 3rd ed. Lnd., Leonard Hill, 1966.

16. Dictionaries of Quotations, Cliches, Proverbs and Sayings

- Stevenson B. Book of Quotations, Classical and Modern. Lnd., Cassel (70.000); The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations. 3rd ed. Oxford, 1979 (70.000)
- Bartlett J. Familiar Quotations. Lnd. Macmillan.
- Cohen J. M. and M. J. Penguin Dictionary of Quotations;
- Concise Oxford Dictionary of Quotations;
- Tripp R.T. The International Thesaurus of Quotations. N.Y.

17. Orthoepic Dictionaries

- Jones D. An English Pronouncing Dictionary / Revised by A.C. Gimson. Lnd., Dent.);

The first edition of the dictionary appeared in 1917, we deal now with the 14th edition (Prof. Gimson A.).

For the American variant of English the most popular is Kenyon J.S. and Knoot T.A. Dictionaries.

18. Orthographic Dictionaries

Strictly speaking these are not dictionaries but lists of words with correct spelling and division into syllables.

- Lewis N. Dictionary of Correct spelling. N.Y., 1962;
- Maxwell C.H. The Pergamon Oxford.

THEORETICAL PROBLEMS OF LEXICOGRAPHY

1. The definition of the volume of the semantic structure of words, semantic components of meaning.

If “sharp” has 21 meanings, shall we speak about meaning or usage? Compare “a heavy purse” and “heavy with food”.

2. Distinction between meanings which are closely connected.
3. Distinction between meaning and extralinguistic correlation.
4. The problem of definitions.
5. Glosses (everything but definitions and headlines).

It is easier to define the meaning of words if the illustrations are rich. The “Part of Speech” problem is very acute and for the English language it is connected with loss of inflexions and conversion of one part of speech into another. One and the same orthographic and phonetic complex concentrates in itself different parts of speech: **in, for, by**. In COD (Concise Oxford Dictionary) there are 5 homonyms of “**over**”. Is it one word with many functions? In Müller’s dictionary “**over**” is treated as an adjective, an adverb and a preposition. It is connected with a global problem of the distinction of language and speech. In English the attribute is used before nouns (the attributive usage of nouns).

European languages are heterogeneous with respect to qualitative and deictic adverbs (“red” and “slowly”). Such verbs as “make up” and “look after” are phrasal verbs.

There are many words with a diffuse (vague) virtual meaning. Their actual meaning is felt only in speech. In normative grammars adjectives and adverbs are differentiated but they are not always differentiated in dictionaries: Er ist gut. Er spricht gut.

A special group of words in English beginning with “a” - *ablage, asleep, aloof, akimbo* are treated as words with a non-differentiated meaning (800) and are presented in dictionaries with different notes (пометами). V. Yartseva and B.Ilyish, consider them to be *statives* (representing the category of *State*). R. Quirk, finds 14 adjectives among them – *alone, aloof, asleep*, etc. It happens so that adjectives may be used in a grammatical meaning of adverbs and vice versa.

English adverbs are important in pedagogical practice as there is a great number of motivated and non-motivated word – combinations: at first sight, at every step, arm-in-arm, to the right.

Proudly⟶ with pride, arm-in-arm ⟶ ?

The following word-combinations may serve as illustrations in the entry (словарной статье) with a **Key word**

To pull smb’s leg – refers to “leg”

To shake smb’s leg – refers to “shake”

These stable adverbial groups are not singled out as separate vocabulary units. Units of language and speech are combined. Dictionaries give very poor information about the connection of words.

The Problem of Definitions

is connected with the problem of semasiology. The meaning of words is revealed through definitions.

Lobster – a shell fish with 8 legs and 2 claws and scarlet after it is boiled.

Shiver is defined through *tremble*.

Tremble is defined through *shake*

In a monolingual dictionary such definitions are insufficient, there are no indications as to the denotatum which is chosen.

It is still more difficult to reveal the meaning of words in a bilingual dictionary. Here a decisive factor is a distinction of the notion which is expressed by a word through **hyperonymy**

Сотрясаться от → shiver
(Ожегов) → shake
→ tremble

In the learner's dictionary indications contain a hidden component of meaning. *Petty* may be referred to «домик», but not «небоскреб». *Petty* is usually combined with feminite gender, children, small size.

We must take into consideration the so-called national peculiarities in the structure of meaning.

Thus, *philander* (волочиться) may be referred only to MEN.

Combinability of words is connected with NORM. Norm is revealed in speech but is fixed in the language. Language norm ⇄ speech usage.

When do we break the norm? How to prevent it? Norm is a historical category, which is socially conditioned. In different historical periods different words are tabooed. There is a tendency to raise colloquial forms to the norm:

договор – договоры (разг. «договорá»)

учитель – учителя (школы), учители (в жизни, творчестве)

For colloquial speech such plural forms constitute the norm. We'll never say in scientific register: «Ужасно красивый материал». In this register «значимость» replaces «значение». Sometimes violation of the norm is connected with age and profession: *дóбыча, компáс, чемпионат стартовал в Москве, прекрасный волнительный момент, кубок получил прописку в Москве.*

Violation of the norm in speech may be exemplified by the agreement in gender: *That's what you says.* The following items are essential in dictionary-compiling:

1. The selection of head-words.
2. The arrangement and contents of the *entry.*
3. The problem of definition of meaning.
4. Semantic and functional classification of words
5. The problem of notations.

English dictionaries are being now printed by the computer. To make a new unabridged dictionary today is impossible without predecessor to serve as a starting place. At least three Webster dictionaries have been computerized. The Seventh Collegiate Dictionary has been completely programmed.

A computer can be connected with a universal scanner (to scan – разлагать, просматривать изображения) – one that can read type faces of all sizes and kinds – to store citations.

English lexicography is the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the dictionaries published. Every educated person is supposed to consult a dictionary regularly, to develop the so-called "dictionary habit".

A great variety of unilingual dictionaries is regularly published for children of any age. Various kinds of people constantly need dictionaries: those who study foreign languages, translators, tourists and, of course, *linguists*. A good dictionary must provide an adequate translation of every word, it must provide the reader with the information on spelling and pronunciation, inflectional, derivational, semantic and syntactic information and also notes on its stylistic characteristics, whether the word is slangy, poetical, dialectical, professional or rare, archaic, a historism. Of considerable importance are the following remarks of evaluatory character: "disrespectfully," "an abusive term", "usually hostile", "as a "nickname", "applied opprobriously", "a contemptuous term", "ironically", "jocular".

A Survey of Current Works on English and American Lexicography in This Country

The lexicographic school in this country whose acknowledged founder is Academician L. V. Sčerba (1880-1944) proceeds from the assumption that lexicography is a science but not an art or technique of making dictionaries, as many foreign linguists think it to be.

Lexicography has two aspects: scientific (theoretical) and practical (applied). General theoretical problems are inseparable from compiling dictionaries of different types, because it is impossible to bury oneself in empiric work being completely ignorant of lexicography as a science. In 1939 L. V. Sčerba wrote: "… I consider this contemptuous attitude of our skilled linguists towards lexicography to be absolutely wrong …, our linguists have overlooked the fact that this kind of work should be essentially scientific."

The foundation stone of the general theory of lexicography belongs to L.V. Sčerba (1940). He tries to discuss the main types of dictionaries the nature of a word, the structure of the vocabulary entry, the semantic, grammatical and stylistic characteristics of words in a dictionary, etc..

It should be noted that the most debatable problems of English and American lexicography have been reviewed for a long time in this country; one of the first books in this field belongs to V.D. Arakin (1936). In 1954 O.A. Melnik analysed the principles of compilation of twenty English and American dictionaries of synonyms, including their historical development.

L.P. Stupin in his candidate dissertation (1961) described one of the most outstanding dictionaries – Webster's Third Dictionary (the choice of words and lexicographic characteristics of main entry words).

A.V. Kunin in his doctoral thesis (1964) alongside with many disputable questions of phraseology discusses the principles of presenting set-phrases.

Z.V. Malakhovsky (1954) gives a detailed analysis of the English Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles.

N.N. Amosova (1968) investigates different types of phraseological dictionaries, principles of selection of idioms and their presentation.

Yu.D. Apresyan in his paper on synonyms briefly reviews principles of compilation of the “Dictionary of Synonyms” and gives some valuable remarks concerning general questions of synonymy in lexicography.

Frequency dictionaries, British and American, are being treated in books and papers by P.M. Alekseyev.

L.P. Stupin in his doctoral thesis and numerous books treats the problem of norm in the history of English lexicography (XV-XX c.c.). The author draws the conclusion of inevitable evolution of a big explanatory dictionary from a prescriptive to a registrating type.

Following the principles of Russian School of lexicographers (D.N. Ushakov, L. V. Sčerba, V.V. Vinogradov) A.I. Smirnitsky gave much time and attention to the elaboration of scientific methods in lexicography, particularly bilingual Russian-English lexicography.

ETYMOLOGY

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

The vast Indo-European family of languages, to which most of the languages spoken in Europe belong, consists of several branches, of which the Germanic languages are one.

Nowadays Germanic languages are spoken in many countries: German (in Germany, Austria, and partly in Switzerland), Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and Icelandic, English (spoken, besides England, in the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and partly elsewhere). In India English is considered as a second official language.

In ancient times the territory of Germanic languages was much more limited. Thus, in the 1st century A.D. Germanic languages were only spoken in Germany and in territories adjacent to it, and also in Scandinavia.

Germanic languages are classified into three groups: East Germanic, North Germanic, West Germanic.

East Germanic languages have been dead for many centuries. Of the old East Germanic languages only one is well known, viz. Gothic: a vast written document has come down to us in this language, namely, a translation of the Bible made in the 4th century A.D. by the Gothic bishop Ulfilas from the Greek.

All North Germanic and West Germanic languages have survived until our own times.

Germanic languages are stated to be a separate branch within the Indo-European family on the ground of several characteristic features distinguishing them from other Indo-European languages.

English as well as German belongs to West Germanic group of Germanic languages.

The name “Britain” derives from Greek and Latin names probably stemming from a Celtic original. Although in the prehistoric period the Celts were relatively late arrivals in the British Isles, only with them does Britain

emerge into recorded history. The term “Celtic” is often used rather generally to distinguish the early inhabitants of the British Isles from the later Anglo-Saxon invaders.

After two expeditions by Julius Caesar in 55 and 54 BC, contact between Britain and the Roman world grew, culminating in the Roman invasion of AD 43. Roman rule was gradually extended from south-east England to include Wales and, for a time, the low-lands of Scotland. The final Roman withdrawal in 409 followed a period of increasing disorder during which the island began to be raided by Angles, Saxons and Jutes from Northern Europe. It is from the Angles that the name “England” derives. The raids turned into settlement and a number of small English kingdoms were established. The Britons maintained an independent existence in the areas now known as Wales and Cornwall. Among these Kingdoms more powerful ones emerged, claiming overlordship over the whole country, first in the north (Northumbria), then in the midlands (Mercia) and finally in the south (Wessex). However, further raids and settlement by the Vikings from Scandinavia occurred, although in the 10th century the Wessex dynasty defeated the invading Danes and established a wide-ranging authority in England.

In 1066 the last successful invasion of England took place. Duke William of Normandy defeated the English at the Battle of Hastings. The Normans and others from France came to settle. French became the language of the nobility from the next three centuries, and the legal and social structures were influenced by those or prevailing.

NATIVE WORDS IN ENGLISH, THEIR ROLE AND CLASSIFICATION

From the point view of their etymology all the words of the English language are subdivided into native words (исконно английские) and loan words or borrowed (заимствованные).

Among native we can distinguish those of the Common Indo-European stock and those of the Common Germanic origin. Words having cognates in various Indo-European languages present the oldest layer. They were inherited from the Indo-European parent languages (праязык).

Father (OE fæder, Gothic fadar, Icel. faÞir, Swedish fader, Dutch wader, German Vater, Greek patér, Latin páter, Persian pedær, Sanscrit pitr).

Son (OE sunu, Gothic sūnus, Russian сын, Ice. Sunr, Danish søn, Swedish son, German Sohn, Lithuanian sūnus, Sanscript sunu).

Indo-European words fall into several semantic groups:

–*Terms of kinship:*

Father, mother, daughter, sister, son.

–*Names of natural phenomena:*

Fire, moon, hill, night, day, star, snow, sun, summer, stone, water, tree, wind, wood.

–*Names of animals and birds:*

Bull, crow, cat, fish, cow, mouse, goose, wolf.

–*Basic verbs:*

Come, know, eat, sleep, sit, stand, bear.

–*Basic physical properties and colours:*

Red, hard, light, quick, thin, white, slow, cold.

–*Parts of human body:*

Heart, eye, foot, nose, mouth, ear, arm, knee, tongue.

–*Numerals:*

One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, ten, hundred.

Words belonging to Germanic word-stock are more numerous. We can find among them:

–*Nouns:*

Bone, chicken, cheek, cloth, hand, hope, life, meal, ship, sea, storm, winter, house, room, rain;

–*Verbs:*

Drink, forget, hear, follow, live, make, send, sing, shake, burn, bake, keep, learn, meet, rise, see;

–*Adjectives:*

Dead, dear, deep, heavy, sharp, soft, broad, deaf;

–*Pronouns:*

All, each, he.

Hand (OE hand, hond, Gothic handus, Swedish hand, German Hand, Icelandic hond, Danish hånd).

To have (OE habban, Gothic haban, Icelandic hafa, Dutch hebben, Swedish hava, German haben).

Together with the words of the common IE stock common Germanic words form the bulk of the most frequent elements used in every style of speech. They constitute no less than 80% of the 500 most frequent words in English.

These words are mostly simple in their structure, show great word-building power and form a number of phraseological units. They are known from the earliest available manuscripts of the OE period and have lived a very long life in the language.

The importance of native words in the English vocabulary is often overlooked because of a multitude of foreign words in Modern English.

But the examination of actual usage as opposed to the dictionary shows how important native words are. The native words stock include auxiliary and modal verbs, most verbs of the strong conjugation, pronouns and most numerals, prepositions, articles, conjunctions. Ordinary English and the vocabulary of colloquial speech contain fewer foreign words, than, for example, the language of technical literature.

Native words in the English vocabulary are very often simple in their structure, but serve as a basis for word- formation.

Hand – handy, handle, handwork, handicraft, handful, handbook, handcuff, handbag.

They enter a number of set- expressions and proverbs:

Hand in hand, hands off, at hand, in hand, with a heavy hand, with a high hand.

The peculiar feature of native words in the language is their stability. They live for centuries. But in the course of time a certain number of old English words have fallen out of the vocabulary.

The OE verb *niman* (брать) - German *nehmen* is replaced by the Scandinavian verb *taka* (Modern English "*take*").

The OE noun Beorg (гора) - German Berg is replaced by the French "mountain" (Latin "mouns").]

BORROWED WORDS, THEIR ASSIMILATION

The English language is unique in its etymology: it has always welcomed borrowings, and their source, their scope and etymology depend on the specific conditions of the language's development, such as the Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, the British colonial expansion, technical revolution, the Ist and IInd World Wars which caused numerous changes in its vocabulary.

It is necessary to distinguish between the "source of borrowing" and "origin of borrowing", the language from which, the word is taken and the language to which it may be traced. (*tabula* ⟶ *la table* ⟶ *a table*).

Translation and semantic loans (кальки) are words and word-combinations formed from the native elements according to foreign patterns: Übermensch (superman), *Heimweh* (homesickness), *Meisterstück* (masterpiece).

We cannot deny the mixed character of the English vocabulary and the great importance of borrowed elements in the language's development but we must not ignore its power to build new words and various semantic changes.

Words immediately change their manners as soon as they leave their mother tongue. Partial and total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system is called its **assimilation**. The following factors govern the degree of assimilation of loan words: 1) oral or written character of a borrowed word; 2) importance of a borrowed word for communication; 3) length of the period of its usage.

According to the degree of assimilation we distinguish: 1) completely assimilated loan words; 2) partially assimilated loan words; 3) unassimilated loan words or **barbarisms**.

Completely assimilated words following all the standards of English belong to the earliest Latin borrowings: *wall, wine, cup, mile, pen*; Scandinavian loan words: *give, take, get, gift, fellow, call*; French loan words: *face, table, chair*. Their phonetic characteristics do not reveal their borrowed elements and they build native grammatical paradigm:

Sc. *Laws, eggs, gates*, L. *acted, corrected*.

Partially assimilated words, may be not assimilated semantically, such as: *Domino, minaret, shah, toreador, valenki, pelmeni.*

Words not assimilated grammatically retain their original grammatical forms: *bacillus – bacilli, phenomenon-phenomena, crisis-crises.*

Words not completely assimilated phonetically were borrowed after the XVII century: *machine, bourgeois, protégé, beige, boulevard, fiancé.*

Graphically unassimilated words are mainly of the French origin: *restaurant, corps, bouquet, cliché, ballet*. Sometimes the spelling is not stable.

Barbarisms are not assimilated in any way and do not possess the corresponding English equivalents. Mostly they are of Romanic origin: *ciao* (It.), *coup d'Etat* (Fr.), *vita brevis est (L.), Wehrmacht* (German), *führer* (German), *hors d'oevre, bons vivant, au revoir (Fr.).* Unassimilated French words are called Gallicisms: in a "Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases in

Current English" (1977) there are about 2239 Gallicisms. Their French peculiarities are preserved, they are singled out either graphically or through italics. Gallicisms do not form any new thematic groups, they are widely used in the language of press and fiction and everyday speech by educated Englishmen who study French at schools and universities.

Etymological Doublets

They are two or more words of the same language derived from the same basic word by different routs and usage. One and the same word may be borrowed twice at different times or its different grammatical forms may be borrowed. Thus "mint" and "money" go back to "moneta", "disk" and "dish" go back to "discus" (L.), "castle" and "château" are derived from OF "castel". Other examples are "captain" and "chieftain", "senior", and "sir", "pauper" and poor", "skirt" – "shirt", "ward" – "guard", "hospital" and "hotel".

International Words

New words of the same origin may come into different languages as a result of borrowing from one source and become **international**. Numerous contacts between nations and vocabularies lead to the formation of international vocabulary. International words are especially important in terminology of politics, arts, industry, science. Examples of comparatively new words may illustrate it: *microfilm, computer, genetic code, bionics, antenna, algorhythm*. We must also not forget international words, firmly long ago established in the languages: *second, minute, time, professor, opera, jazz, club, sport, bar, cow-boy,* etc.; some of our Russian words became international as well: *csar, intelligentsia, Kremlin, lunochod, dacha, vodka, steppe, sambo, Soviet, rouble, perestroika*, etc.

When studying the role of borrowed words in the enrichment of the vocabulary we must always bear in mind what changes these new words may cause in the language, how it may influence the lexical system; it is a matter of special study.

A SURVEY OF BORROWINGS IN ENGLISH AGAINST HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

A Contribution of Borrowed Elements into English

English in the course of centuries of development has been periodically enriched and invigorated by elements of many languages. As Dr. Johnson observed, “Languages are the pedigrees of nations”. Whatever the original accents of the British Isles may have been, as laid down by the earliest Celts, they were altered and revised by repeated waves of invaders that crossed the Channel and the North Sea – the Romans, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Vikings and finally the Normans. Today English is classified as a member of the Germanic linguistic family, which also includes German, Dutch, and the Scandinavian languages. Yet more than half of its vocabulary is of Latin origin, implanted either directly during the four centuries or indirectly by eclectic borrowings in later epochs from modern French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. Through the centuries it has borrowed so profusely from all other languages on earth and has assimilated words so successfully that today only professional scholars are aware of the national origins of many words in daily use. Here are some examples:

From Arabic: alcohol, alcove, algebra, alkali, cipher, cork, magazine, zenith, zero; and the slang phrase “so long” (from the Arabic “salaam” – and Hebrew shalom – “peace”).

From Dutch: brandy, gin, golf, uproar, wagon.

From Italian: balcony, brigade, colonel, piano, umbrella.

From Persian: check, chess, divan, lemon, lilac, shawl.

From Greek: acrobat, Bible, catastrophe, idiot, tactics.

From Spanish: alligator, canyon, ranch, sherry, rodeo.

From American: chocolate, potato, wigwam, mooassin.

Indian

70% of the English vocabulary consists of borrowings due to specific conditions of the English language development. The role played by borrowings is conditioned by direct and indirect linguistic contacts, The English language system absorbed and remodelled the majority of borrowings to its own standards but in spite of the changes they have undergone we can recognize them and trace their origin.

Celtic Elements in English

In the course of the first 700 years of its existence the English language was brought into contact with 3 other languages; the languages of the Celts, the Romans, and the Scandinavians.

It would seem reasonable to expect that the conquest of the Celtic population of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons and the subsequent mixture of the two peoples should have resulted in a corresponding mixture of their languages; consequently we should find in the Old English vocabulary numerous instances of words which the Anglo-Saxons heard in the speech of the native population and adopted. In most places of England large numbers of the Celts were gradually adsorbed by the new inhabitants.

When we come to seek the evidence for the contact in the English language, investigation yields very meager results. Such evidence as there survives chiefly in place-names. The kingdom of Kent, for example, owes its name to the Celtic word *canti* or *cantion*. Devonshire contains in the first element the tribal name *dumnonii*, Cornwall means the "*Cornubian Welsh*", and Cumberland is the "land or the Cymry or Britons". Moreover, a number of important centers in the Roman period have names in which Celtic elements are embodied. The first syllable of Winchester, Salisbury, Exeter, Gloucester, Worcester, Lichfield is traceable to a Celtic source. It is in the names of rivers and hills and place in proximity to these natural features that the greatest number of Celtic names had radiated progressively northward and westward through France, Germany, the Low Countries, and finally to England.

The other was the growth of national pride, which began to flower in mid-century with the Reformation and reached its culmination amid the triumphs and glories of the brilliant Elizabethan Age.

The extraordinary surge of interest in the classics opened the gates of the English language to a new verbal invasion – this time of Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek words. Latin was not read and written in England since the legions of the Emperor Claudius invaded and subjugated the island in A.D. 43, the linguistic legacy of the Romans to the English vocabulary despite 400 years of occupation was surprisingly small. Following the conversion of England to Christianity a great number of Latin words found their way into English. Yet virtually all of these pertained to religion and the physical symbols of the church. And even though Latin was employed constantly in religious rituals, academic activities, and state ceremonies, its individual components did not seep into English. Now abruptly the new passion for the antique past, the zeal for reading the classic works of Homer and Virgil, of Horace, Catullus, Marcus Aurelius in original texts and, moreover, for employing the ancient languages in written and spoken forms lead to a great diffusion of Latin and Greek words.

Why did Latin suddenly penetrate the English language at this relatively late date when it had failed to do so earlier, despite 400 years of Roman occupation and a thousand years of Christian worship conducted in Latin?

Many Latin and Greek terms, mostly of an abstract philosophical or scientific character, were taken over intact by scholars and entered the language through the medium or writing – not talk, as was the case with the Scandinavian and French borrowings. Many of these classical words, though originally of a narrow or specialized application, later acquired general connotations and eventually became familiar and commonplace elements of everyday speech.

One more factor should be taken into consideration. According to Otto Jespersen: “The reason seems to be that the natural power of resistance

possessed by a Germanic tongue against these alien intruders had been already broken in the case of the English language by the wholesale importation of French words. They paved the way for the Latin words which resembled them in so many respects…"

"If French words were more d i s t i n g u ê s than English ones, Latin words were still more so for did not the French themselves go to Latin to enrich their own vocabulary?" In the XVI-XVII th centuries English writers dipped into Greek and Latin to express new concepts in the realms of art, philosophy, literature, and, above all, science. To this day the terminology of such scientific disciplines as biology, botany, chemistry, physics, and medicine is overwhelmingly Latin and Greek. It is not without significance that the words arithmetic, grammar, logic, rhetoric, geometry, astronomy, music, are all of Greek origin.

So are most words connected with the theatre such as: drama (first recorded in 1515), comedy, tragedy, prologue, dialogue, epilogue, scene, climax, critic, and the word theatre itself. And in every domain of knowledge, educated men relied more and more on Greek and Latin terms in reference to the resources of their native language.

Upon entering the English language many of these borrowed words underwent slight adaptations (such as the dropping of case and verb endings). But others we lifted straight from the Greek and Latin in their original form still circulate today, unaltered in meaning or spelling from the days of ancient Greece and Rome. From the pure Latin we have arbitrator, executor, explicit, finis, gratis, index, item, major, minor, memento, memorandum, neuter, pauper, persecutor, prosecutor, proviso, simile.

Thus the Thames is a Celtic river name, and various Celtic words for river and water are preserved in the names Avon, Exe, Usk, Dover, Wye. Certain Celtic elements occur more or less frequently, such as Cumb (a deep valley) in names like Duncombe, Holcombe, Winchcomes; Torr (high rock, peak) in

Torr, Torcrock, Torrill; Pill (a tidal creek) in Pylie Huntspill and Brocc (badger) in Brockholes, Brockhall. Besides these purely Celtic elements a few Latin words such as Castra, Fontana, Fossa, Portus, Vicus, were used in naming places during the Roman occupation of the island and were passed on by the Celts to the English. Outside of place-names, the influence of Celtic upon the English language is small. Within this small number it is possible to distinguish 2 groups: 1) those which the Anglo-Saxons learned through everyday contacts with the natives and 2) those which were introduced by the Irish missionaries in the north. The former were transmitted orally and were of popular character; the latter were connected with religious activities and were more of less learned. The popular words include binn (basket, crib), bratt (cloack), and brocc (brock or badger); a group of words for geographical features which had not played part in the experience of the Anglo-Saxon in their continental home –grag, luh (lake), cumb (valley), and torr (outcropping or projecting rock, peak), dun (dark coloured), and ass (ultimately from Latin asinus).

Some of the Celtic words died out and others acquired only local currency. The relation of the two people was not such as to bring about any considerable influence on English life or on English speech. The influence of the Celts, had they, like the Romans, possessed a superior culture, something valuable to give the Anglo-Saxons, might have been greater. But the Anglo-Saxons found little occasion to adopt Celtic modes of expression and the Celtic influence remains the least of the early influences which affected the English language.

Latin Borrowings in English

In the course of many centuries words of Latin derivation, either in their original Latin form, or recast in French form, came to be more and more familiarly used in English. The result was an immense enrichment of the language. The familiarity with Latin words promoted by the intensive cultivation of Latin lead not only to the adoption of new words from Latin, but the

remodelling of words long established in English. Under the influence of Latin such words as sauacion, auance, auenture, soudeour, saume, auter, vertu were changed into salvation, advance, adventure, soldier, psalm, altar, virtue. Later Latin models were respelled: inscribe, describe, circumscribe (Mid. Engl., inscriur, descryue, circumscuriue): receipt, conceipt (Chaucer, receit, counceite): debt, doubt (Chaucer, dette, doute): perfect, subject (Chaucer, perfit, subgit): equal (Chaucer, egal). In some cases earlier modes of pronunciation established in popular use did not yield as readily as did the spelling to the Latin influence. In debt and doubt, subtle and receipt the older pronunciation has persisted in spite of a Latinized spelling.

The assimilation of foreign elements into English offered difficulty of other kind. Latin words and Latinized forms of words were readily assimilated into the language of those trained in the Latin schools of the period. With the speech of the unschooled the situation was different. The popular assimilation of the borrowed terms was a slow and laborious process. To people entirely unacquainted with Latin, at an earlier period words in –osity and –ation and –ize and –ism were “hard words”.

During the XVI th century – the first century of modern English – two new forces began to exercise a powerful influence on the national language. One was the impact of the Renaissance, the revival of classical learning.

From the Greek, virtually unchanged, save in the transliteration of alphabets, we still use: acme, anonymous, criterion, ephemeral, idiosyncrasy, lexicon, ostracize, polemic, tantalize, thermometer, tonic.

Language scholars have been able to fix the precise years at which certain words entered the English vocabulary. Among these the Oxford English dictionary lists: genius (1513), area (1538), vacuum (1550), virus (1599), series (1611), apparatus (1628), complex (1652), maximum and minimum (1663), nucleus (1704), propaganda (1718), auditorium (1727), ultimatum (1731), insomnia (1758), prospectus (1771) and so on.

Latin was the language of a higher civilization, a civilization from which the Anglo-Saxons had much to learn. Contact with that civilization, at first commercial and military, later religious and intellectual, extended over many centuries and was constantly renewed. It began long before the Anglo-Saxons came to England and continued through the Old English Period. For several hundred years, while the Germanic tribes who later became the English were still occupying their continental homes, they had various relations with the Romans through which they acquired a considerable number of Latin words. Later when they came to England they saw the evidences of the long Roman rule in the island and learned from the Celts a few additional Latin words which had been acquired by them. And a century and a half later still, when Roman missionaries reintroduced Christianity into the island, this new cultural influence resulted in a really extensive adoption or Latin elements into the language. There were thus distinct occasions on which borrowing form Latin occurred before the end of the Old English period.

The change in OE known as I-umlant occurred in the course of the VII th century, and when we find it indicates that the Latin word had been taken into English by that time. Thus Latin monēta (which became munit >mynet (a coin, Mod. E. mint) is an early borrowing. Another change that helps us to date a borrowed word is known as palatal diphthongization. OE ciese (L. cāseus, cheese) shows both 1-umlaut and palatal diphthongization (caseus > cæsi> ceasi > ciese).

The first Latin words to find their way into the English language owe their adaptation to the early contact between the Romans and the Germanic tribes on the continent. Several hundreds of Latin words found in the various Germanic dialects testify to the extensive intercourse between the two peoples. After the conquest of Gauls by Caesar, Roman merchants quickly found their way into all parts of the Germanic territory. The adopted words naturally indicate the new conceptions which the Teutons acquired from this contact with a higher

civilization. Next to agriculture the chief occupation of the Germans in the empire was war, and this experience is reflected in words like camp (battle) weall (wall), pytt (pit), stræt (road, street), and so on. More numerous are the words connected with trade. The Germans traded amber, furs, slaves, and probably certain raw materials for the products of Roman handicrafts, articles of utility, luxury, and adornment. The words ceap (of Eng., cheap, chapman) and mangtan (to trade) with its derivative mangere (monger), pund (pound), mynet (coin) are terms to be employed.

A number of the new words relate to domestic life and designate household articles, clothing, etc.: cytel (kettles; L. catillus, catinus), pyle (L. bulvinus, pillow), cycene (kitchen; L. coquina), cuppe (L. cuppa, cup), disc (dish, L. discus), linen (L. linum, flax); line (rope, line; L. linea). Roman words for certain foods were adopted: ciese (L. caseus, Cheese), pipor (pepper), popig (poppy), butere (butter; L. butyrum), plume (plum), pise (L. pisum, pea), minte (L. mentha, mint).

Roman contributions to the building arts are evidenced by such words as cealc (chalk), copor (copper), pic (pitch), tigele (tile).

Miscellaneous words are presented by mul (mule), draca (dragon), pipe (pipe, musical instrument), cirice (church), biscop (bishop).

The influence of the Norman Conquest is generally known as the Latin Influence of the Third Period in recognition of the ultimate source of the new French words. But it is right to include also under this designation the large number of words borrowed directly from Latin in Middle English. The number of Latin words coming from the spoken language is small in comparison with those that we can observe entering by way of literature. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries were especially prolific in Latin borrowings. A miscellaneous list of examples includes: abject, adjacent, allegory, conspiracy, contempt, custody, distract, frustrate, genius, gesture, history, homicide, incarnate, include, incredible, incubus, incumbent, index, individual, infancy,

inferior, infinite, innate, innumerable, intellect, interrupt, lapidary, legal, limbo, lunatic, magnify, mechanical, minor, moderate, necessary, nervous, notary, ornate, picture, polite, popular, prevent, private, project, promote, prosecute, prosody, pulpit, quiet, rational, reject, remit, reprehend, rosary, script, scripture, scrutiny, secular, solar, solitary, spacious, stupor, subdivide, subjugate, submit, subordinate, subscribe, substitute, summary, superabundance, supplicate, suppress, temperate, temporal, testify, testimony, tincture, tract, tributary, ulcer, zenith, zephyr.

Here we have terms relating to law, medicine, theology, science, and literature, words often justified in the beginning, by technical or professional use and later acquiring a wider application. Among them may be noticed several with endings like –able, -ible, -ent, -al, -ous, -ive, and others which thus became familiar in English and, reinforced often by French now form common elements in English derivatives.

All the examples listed above are accepted by the Oxford English Dictionary as direct borrowings from Latin.

The greatest influences of Latin upon Old English was occasioned by the introduction of Christianity into Britain in 597. The introduction of Christianity meant the building of churches and the establishment of monasteries. Latin, the language of the services and of ecclesiastical learning, was once more heard in England. Schools were established in most of the monasteries and larger churches. In the VIII th century England held the intellectual leadership of Europe, and it owed this leadership to the church. The church as the carrier of Roman civilization influenced the course of English life in many directions and numerous traces of that influence are to be seen in the vocabulary of Old English.

It is obvious that the most typical as well as the most numerous class of words introduced by the new religion would have to do with that religion and the details of external organization. A few words relating to Christianity such as

church and bishop were borrowed earlier. Most of the words borrowed at that time have survived in only slightly altered form in Modern English: abbot, alms, altar, angel, anthem, Arian, ark, candle, canon, cleric, deacon, disciple, epistle, hymn, manna, martyr, mass, Minster, noon, nun, offer, organ, palm, pope, priest, psalm, relic, rule, shrine, stole, synod, temple, tunic. Some of these were reintroduced later. But the church also exercised a profound influence on the domestic life of the people. This is seen in the adoption of many words, such as the names of articles of clothing and household use – cap, sock, silk, purple, chest, mat, sack; words denoting foods, such as beet, caul (cabbage), pear, radish, oyster, lobster to which we may add the noun cook; names of trees, plants, and herbs (often cultivated for their medicinal properties), such as box, pine, aloes, balsam, lily, mallow, myrrh, rue, savory. A certain number of words having to do with education and learning reflect another aspect of the church's influence. Such are school, master, Latin (possibly an earlier borrowing), grammatical, verse, meter, gloss, notary (a scribe). A number of words are too miscellaneous to admit of profitable classification; like anchor, fan, fever, place, sponge, elephant, phoenix and some more or less learned or literary words, such as calend, circle, legion, giant, consul, talent. Old English borrowed also a number of verbs and adjectives, such as aspendan (to spend; L. expendere), bemutian (to exchange; L. mutare), dihtan (to compose; L. dictare), tyrnan (to turn; L. tornare) and crisp (L. crispus, "curly").

The influence of Latin upon the English language rose and fell with the fortunes of the church and the state of learning. A new series of Latin importations contains words of scientific and learned character: antichrist, apostle, cantor, cell, cloister, collect, creed, demon, idol, nocturn, prime, prophet, sabbath, synagogue, troper. Though literary and learned words predominate: accent, brief, decline, history, paper, terminus, title. A great number of plant names are recorded in this period: coriander, cucumber,

ginger, verbena. A few names of trees might be added such as cedar, cypress, fig, laurel, magdala (almond). Medical terms like cancer, paralysis, plaster, and words relating to the animal kingdom, like camel, scorpion, tiger belong to the same category of learned and literary borrowings.

As a result of the Christianizing of Britain some 450 Latin words appear in English writings before the close of the Old English period. A large number of them were fully accepted and thoroughly incorporated into the language.

The real test of a foreign influence is the degree to which the words were assimilated. This is not merely a question of the power to survive; it is a question of how completely the words were digested and became indistinguishable from the native word-stock, so that they could enter into compounds and be made into other parts of speech just like native words. When, for example, the Latin noun planta comes into English as the noun plant and later is made into a verb by the addition of the infinitive ending –ian (plantian) and other inflectional elements, we may feel sure that the word has been assimilated. Assimilation may be indicated by the use of native formative suffixes, such as –dom, -had, -ung to make a concrete noun into an abstract (martyrdom, martyrhad).The word church enters into more than forty compounds and derivatives (church-bell, church-book, church-door, etc.). The Latin influence of the Second Period was not only extensive but thorough and marks the real beginning of the English habit of freely incorporating foreign elements into its vocabulary.

The large classical element already in the English vocabulary makes such formations seem quite congenial to the language, and this method has long been a favourite source of scientific terms. Thus eugenics is formed from two Greek roots, εύ – meaning well, and γευ – meaning to be born. The word therefore means well-born and is applied to the efforts to bring about well-born offspring by the selection of healthy parents. The same root enters into genetics, the experimental study of heredity and allied topics. In the roots stethoscope,

bronchoscope, fluoroscope, and the like we have – scope which appears in telescope. It is a *Greek* word δκοπόζ meaning a watcher. Just as τήλε in Greek means far (television, etc.); so we have stethoscope with the first element from Greek δτήθοζ (breast or chest), bronchoscope from Greek βρόγχοζ (wind-pipe), and fluoroscope with the same first element as in fluorine (from Latin fluere, to flow). Panchromatic comes from the Greek words παυ (all) and χρωματίκόζ (relatin to colour), and is thus used in photography to describe a plate or film that is sensitive to all colours. An automobile is something that moves of itself (Greek αύτόζ "self" + Latin mobilis "morble"). Orthodontia is from Greek ορθοζ + όδοί the branch of dentistry that endeavors to straighten irregular teeth.

The Development of Latin English

There must have been a common ancestor of the modern Germanic languages, although we have little trace of it, which stood in much the same relationship to them as Latin did to the present Romance languages. These two ancestors were themselves cousins of some degree and had a far-off common ancestor in what is now known as Indo-European. We can therefore expect to find a certain number of words which are common to both these groups, even though their form may have greatly changed.

Our word "cost" illustrates this point well. It is "côte" in French, "costa" in Italian, Spanish and Portuguese, "Kuste' in German, "kust" in Dutch and Swedish, and "kyst" in Danish.

In the same way because there is an intimate relationship between "p" and "f" "piscis" and "fish" are really the same word and so are "pes" and "foot" ("fuss" in German) and we can truthfully say that there were Latin words in English before English was a language in its own right.

Curious as it may appear at first sight very few Latin words entered the English language directly as a result of the Roman occupation. The struggle for supremacy between the various dialects of what is now English, had hardly

begun, and the literary – West Saxon, into which they mostly entered, went to pieces later.

But the flow had started and Christianity continued where the Romans had left off. Words like Bishop, Cowl, Noon, Verse came in as ecclesiastical terms.

Latin from this time onwards was the language of scholars and the learned professions, though the Anglo-Saxon of the East Midlands and Norman French both had their place and all three tongues existed side by side.

Thus fresh Latin words continued to enter the country and gradually some of them became popular and replaced native words. In this way cleave was ousted by divide although the word truthful retained its place alongside veracious. Sometimes the Latin word came in twice or three times and remained as a learned word in one form and as a popular word in another as, surely and security or status and estate. Sometimes the two words became popular but with different meanings, as – feat and fact, dainty and dignity, satiate and satisfy.

The Book of Common Prayer has many examples, too, as the services had to be intelligible to the masses:

so we are prayed and beseeched when we aemble and meet together not to dissemble nor cloke our sins and wickedness into which we have erred and atrayed.

Another wave of Latin words came in at the Renaissance and the influx never ceased and continues today – Latin words still compete with Greek to provide names for new inventions and technicalities.

Not all Latin words entered directly. After the Norman conquest the majority came through French and it is now almost impossible to distinguish whether they entered directly or indirectly since they generally took the French form in either case. The word texture, for instance, would have taken that form even if it had come from the Latin textura. Flexure, on the other hand, is known to have come direct from flexura because no such word as “lexure”

exists in French. While the Romance languages were developing each along its own path and were choosing the Latin word that suited them best for a particular purpose English was making an indiscriminate collection of them without any real need.

No fewer than 8 alternatives are found in the English dictionary for the word foresee, all of them of Latin origin: anticipate, expect, preconceive, predict, prognosticate, prophesy, visualise, envisage. Now we are unlikely to find all these in all the Romance languages, but we are sure to find at least one to suit each and can recognize them.

Greek Element in English

The Greek influence in English is far smaller and much less important than the Latin. A knowledge of the Greek heritage helps us greatly to a full and accurate understanding of any language, enables us to understand technicalities that are almost universal.

As Greek civilization was older than the Roman, many Greek words came to us through Latin. There are examples of Greek words passing into Arabic or Persian and returning to Europe in another form (the word "**apricot**" came in this way).

Most of the first Greek words to enter the English vocabulary arrived after the Renaissance and were religious terms, terms of anatomy, natural history, mechanics, and they are still coming in to express new technicalities.

Along with the Latin element in English must in all propriety be considered the Greek, especially since with few exceptions the earliest Greek words as well as many at later periods, came through the medium of Latin, and Greek derivatives in English are more or less latinized in form.

Thus, devil, came from Greek and was latinized. The other word is church, which came through Latin, but which like most of the early Christian terms in Latin, is of Greek origin (kuriakon, "Lord's house").

Of the Latin Christian terms, brought to England by the early Roman missionaries, a great many were of Greek origin. Such words as abbot, monk, clerk, school bear testimony to the early organization of the Christian church among Greek-speaking people. The early indebtedness to the Greeks in the science of medicine is indicated by such words as dropsy, palsy, quinsy, tansy and treacle. But the importation of Greek words on a large scale did not begin until the time of the Revival of Learning. Since that time the influx of Greek words has been a continuous one. Modern science stimulated by a knowledge of earlier Greek science began by borrowing Greek names for Greek conceptions. In this way there became established a form of association between the Greek language and science, and the practice has become established of giving Greek names to conceptions arrived at by modern science. Great is the English debt to Greek in its technical nomenclature. The terms of literature and rhetoric may illustrate the point.

Of Greek origin are the following words: poetry, epic, lyric, drama, tragedy, comedy, bucolic, elegy, epigram, idyl, theatre, scene, melodrama, prologue, episode, epilogue, rhythm, ode, strophe, antistrophe, dactyl, anapest, etc. To Greek, rhetoric owes the terms: rhetoric, theme, thesis, topic, epitome, apthegm, emphasis, climax, apostrophe, metaphor, trope, phrase, paraphrase, paragraph, parenthesis, period, graphic, laconic, idiom, dialogue, apology, comma, colon, hyphen, synonym, anonymous, pseudonym, sarcam, etc.

Among the natural sciences for the sake of illustration we may take botany: botany, ecology, taxonomy, protoplasm, cytoplasm, stigma, anther, petal, cryptogram, spore, endogen, exogen, chlorophyll, parasite, epiphyte, geotropism, heliotropism, etc.

In the field of sports Greek has yielded such words as gymnastics, athlete, acrobat, trophy, stadium.

In physiology and medicine the number of Greek words is almost countless. From the earliest times any attempt to count such words as osteopath, and pyorrhea would be vain, since the immediate future is likely to bring into use a constant succession of new Greek words keeping pace with the progress in science.

A particularly interesting and valuable contribution of Greek to English is the series of personal names. Of Greek origin are such indispensable names as Alexander, Bernice, Catharine, Christopher, Cora, Dorothea, Eugene, Eunice, George, Helen, Homer, Ida, Irene, Leon, Margaret, Myron, Nicholas, Peter, Philip, Phyllis, Sophia, Stephen and Theodore.

The Greek alphabet (alpha – a, beta – b) had several double consonants. Many of these are familiar to us already if we can spell correctly: theme, thesis, rhythm, psychic, diarrhea, catarrh, architea, pheumonis, haemorrhage, emphasis, hyphen, pseudonym. Certain diphthongs – a typical Greek form – will also be noticed: oe, ae, eu.

The double consonant gives little difficulty as two English consonants represent it. The hard CH was a single letter in Greek and although no soft C existed we generally employ it to represent the Greek K. “Cycle”, for instance, came from “Kuklos”, and “cinema” from “kinema”, as it is still sometimes correctly spelt. Thus we recognise the conventional transcription of Greek words. Their origin is immediately recognized by their spelling: diphtheria, hydraulic, morphia, oligarch, bronchitis.

It became a general European convention that when a new word was adopted from Greek into English or any other modern language, it must be treated as if it had passed through a Latin channel. The Greek k, ai, ei, oi, u were transliterated, after Latin example, by c, æ, i, oe, u, y, and the aspirated initial r by rh. In the main, these rules are still adhered to, though there are some exceptions among modern scientific words. Greek adjectives are usually

anglicized, like Latin adjectives, by the addition of the suffix -ous, -an, or –al: thus autonomus, diaphanes, are represented by autonomous, diaphanous.

Greek possesses an unlimited power of forming compound words and it has also a singularly complete and regular system of suffixes, by means of which a whole group of derivatives of obvious and precise meaning can be produced from any verb or noun. The capacities of the language for the expression of accurate distinctions had been cultivated to the highest point.

The structure of the Greek language is so well adapted for the formation of scientific terms that when a word is wanted to denote some conception peculiar to modern science, the most convenient way of obtaining it usually is to frame a new Greek compound or derivative.

It is to be noted that the modern scientific and technical words from this source are mostly of international currency. The custom of forming compounds from Greek elements prevails in all civilized countries.

The number of Greek prefixes in English is considerable though not great:

amphi – (both or around) – amphitheater
a, an – (not, un) – amorphous
ana – (back, again) – anachronism
anti – (against) – antiseptic
apo – (away) – apoplexy
auto – (self) – auotomatic
dia – (through) – diachronic
dys – (bad) – dyspepsia
ec, ex – (from, out of) – exodus
endo – (within) – endocentric
epi – (upon) – epigram
eu – (well, good) – euphemism
hemi – (half) – hemisphere
hyper – (above) – hyperbole
hypo – (below) – hypothesis
iso – (equal) – isoglossa
kata – (down) – catastrophe
meta – (after) – metaphysics
neo – (new, young) – neologism
palaeo – (old) – palaeolithic
pan – (all) pantheism
para – (besides) – paralinguistic
peri – (around) – peripheral
poly – (many) – polysemy
pro – (before) – prologue
proto – (first) – protoplasm

hetero – (different) –heterogenous
homo – (same) – homogenous
pseudo – (false) – pseudonym
sym, syn – (together) – synchronise

Numerical prefixes are:

mono – monopoly
di – diphthong
tri – tripod
tetra – tetrahedron
penta – pentagon
hexa – hexameter
octo – octopus
deka – dekalogue
hecata – hecatomb
kilo - kilogram

There are few suffixes:

-ic didactic
-ical ethical
-ism theism
-ta poeta
-ista artista
-amma telegramma
-ema tema

There are a few nouns which will be found as prefixes:

hydro – (water)
aero – (air)
pyro – (fire)
bio – (life)
geo – (earth)

Scandinavian Element

In the Scandinavian attacks upon England we can distinguish 3 stages:

1. The period of early raids, beginning according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in 787 and continuing with some intermissions until about 850. The raids of this period were simply plundering attacks.

2. The second stage is the work of large armies and is marked by wide-spread plundering in all parts of the country and by extensive settlements.

3. The third stage of the Scandinavian incursions covers the period of political adjustment and assimilation from 878 to 1042.

The Danish settlements were, in the early years of the occupation, little more than armed camps. But, gradually as conditions stabilized the Northmen

began to transplant their families. The differences between the invaders and the resident population were not deep: for they had much in common in their Germanic heritage, social customs and languages. The Old Norse was spoken by the Danes. During the two centuries that elapsed between the advent of the Viking Great Army in 865 and the arrival of William the Conqueror in 1066, the Danes intermarried with the English and sank quietly into the society around them.

The impact of the Viking onslaught on literature and learning was disastrous. As a consequence of three centuries of Viking aggressions a great part of England absorbed lasting traces of Scandinavian culture.

The Viking left their imprint on the island in many ways – in government, legal procedures, language and even arithmetic. They transmitted to the English with whom they dwelt, among other things their duodecimal system. They did their counting in twelves instead of tens, thus establishing to this day the marketing unit of a dozen, the measuring formula of 12 inches to a foot, the monetary equation of 12 pence to a shilling, and the legal entity of a jury of 12 good men and true.

The heritage of the Scandinavian conquest survives today in many words of the English language and most specially in place names. More than 1.400 villages and towns in England bear names of Scandinavian origin. In Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, Cumberland, Northumberland, Westmorland, and parts of Norfolk up to 75 per cent of the place names are Danish or Norwegian.

The Scandinavians who had been in Britain for at least a couple of hundred years before the Normans were the speakers of a language that resembled that of the Angles and Saxons in so many ways that there was no question of the slightest violation of the structure or the sound system of English.

What was the Scandinavian influence on the syntactical structure of English? Though, as O. Jespersen puts it, there was no direct influence on English syntax, the Scandinavian presence may have accelerated the rapid

disintegration of the elaborate inflectional apparatus of Old English. Although a large proportion of the basic lexicon was common to English and Scandinavian, the grammatical processes of the two languages were in many respect divergent. In those areas where the population was bilingual words lost their affixes and other morphological formants and were used in their root forms.

In addition to that the Northmen also reduced ambiguities. In Old English a good deal of confusion prevailed with respect to the third-person pronoun. It was difficult phonetically, to distinguish between he (he) and hi (they); between hire (her) and hira (their); and between him (him) and heom (them). To clear up matters, the Scandinavians clung to their own plural pronouns, **þa** (they), **þara** (their), and **þoem** (them), and those plurals were adopted by the English.

It is impossible to pinpoint with any precision the moment when Scandinavian words first began to be adopted by the English. Few, if any, can have been borrowed during the pre-settlement phases of the Danish invasion. It was probably not until the latter part of the ninth and the beginning of the tenth centuries that the invaders and the natives were on terms permanent and intimate enough to allow the reciprocal exchange of lexical items to take place.

The adoption of large quantities of Scandinavian terms by English - as reflected in eastern and northern Middle English texts from the XII th century onwards - is an unambiguous indication of the extremely close relationship. Of the handful of Norse terms recorded in English texts prior to 1016 only the following have survived to our own time: husband, fellow, thrall, hustings, wrong, call, egg.

During the late eleventh and the first half of the XII th century about 30 Scandinavian words appear for the first time in the manuscripts, and of these, about half the total have survived to our own times: knife, root, rag, score, snare, skin, haven, die, hit, take, crooked, they, them, their.

In due course some of these borrowings elbowed their native equivalents out of the English vocabulary; die replacing swelt, skin replacing fell, root replacing wyrt and take replacing nim.

From the middle of the XII century onwards, most of the texts contain substantial numbers of Scandinavian words: anger, awe, aye, bait, band, bloom, bull, fro, gain, guest, hail, ill, kid, loft, low, meek, raise, root, scare, skill, sleuth, thrive, till, wing, etc.

From the XIII th century onwards, dozens of fresh Scandinavian words begin to sprinkle the English texts often at the expense of their native counterparts. Thus the Scandinavian cast triumphed over the English werp, neck over halse, window over eyethirl, sister over swester, anger over ire and cut over snith. Sometimes, the native and Scandinavian forms have survived side by side in such doublets as craft/skill, sick/ill, rear/raise, whilst, at an earlier period, it was possible to witness two synonymous terms with one or the other passing out of use. This happened to the English ba, which, after a protracted struggle, was finally jostled out of the vocabulary by its Scandinavian equivalent both.

Occasionally, a native term, while retained intact, acquired a new meaning through the influence of its Scandinavian counterpart. Such words as bread, bloom, dream, dwell, gift, plough no longer mean the same as they did before. In Old English, they signified a fragment, a mass of metal, joy, to make a mistake, dowry and a measure of land respectively.

The transition from the English to the form of a word common to the two languages must often have caused confusion. The Scandinavian noun egg was used side by side with the native ey – some speakers favouring one form, some the other.

In the XVI th century batten, scrag, wad, slag, skit, snag, scuffle, simper, snug were admitted to literary English, where they were joined in the XVII century by oaf, keg, squall, skewer, smut, in the XVIII th by cosy and

muggy and in the XIX th by vole, nag, ski. bawl, clip, slouch, bungle, gawk, sud, niggle, mawkish, dowdy, gawmless, wizen, scawny; they are all comparative newcomers to the standard vocabulary – although they have been used for generations in the North. Scandinavian, words fit so snugly and unobtrusively into our everyday language that it is difficult to think of them as borrowings. As Otto Jespersen remarks, "An Englishman cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words, they are to the language what bread and eggs are to the daily fare".

Some 400 words whose origins are Scandinavian are still in daily use in standard literary English making up a mere fraction of the 20000 – 30000 that comprise the vocabulary of the educated English speaker. It must be realised that most of these Scandinavian terms are part of the very bedrock of our lexicon among the most frequently occurring words in colloquial English. If we add to these the hundreds of others that continue to flourish in the rural dialects, we quickly arrive at a total far in excess of 2000 items, sufficient to allow us, if we so desired, to carry on an elementary conversation using almost entirely Scandinavian forms. Among the most recent of the Scandinavian loans in English are those terms that refer to specifically northern concepts, such as Norse antiquity and mythology (saga, troll, skald, berserk, valkyrie, valhalla), natural and topographical features (fiord, fjell, skerry, iceberg, maelstrom, geyser); and fauna (lemming, narwhal, elk). Norwegian skiing terms, such as slalom, telemark, Christiania have also found a place in the English vocabulary.

A minority of the Scandinavian loanwords in English were introduced into Britain through Norman French: flounder (the fish), faggot, frown, equip, blemish, target, tryst, scotch, jolly, elope, brawl, waive are a few that survive from the large number brought across by the followers of William the Conqueror.

A Selection of Scandinavian Loanwords in English

akimbo	brindled	drown	happen	root	snag
aloft	brink	dump	happy	rotten	snug
anger	bulk	egg	harbour	row	snub
aslant	bunch	elk	harsh	rub	spike
auk	bungle	fast	hit	ruck	spray
awe	bunk	fellow	hoot	rug	squeak
aye	burr	fidget	hug	sag	stag
baffle	bustle	filly	husband	sale	steak
bag	butt	fir	ill	scab	stren
bait	by-law	fit	hug	scalp	stilt
balderdash	cake	fizz	jolly	scant	stump
band	calf	flag	kid	scare	stunt
bang	cast	flake	kilt	scold	sway
bank	cleft	flat	kindle	score	swirl
bark	clip	flaw	knife	scout	swivel
bask	clown	fleet	lag	scowl	tag
baste	club	fog	law	scrap	take
bat	clumsy	freckle	leak	scrape	tat
bawl	cock	fro	leg	scream	their
big	cog	gain	lift	screech	them
billow	cosy	gait	link	scrub	they
blather	cow	gang	loft	scull	though
bleak	cower	gape	loose	sheer	thrall
bloat	crawl	gasp	low	shrill	thrift
blunder	craze	gaunt	marrow	skate	thrive
blunt	crook	gaze	meek	ski	thrust
blur	cub	get	mistake	skill	tight
bole	cut	gift	nag	skimp	till
bond	dairy	gig	nasty	skin	tit
boon	dash	gill	nay	skirt	toss
booth	dawn	girth	nick	skit	ugly
bore	daze	glitter	nudge	sky	waive

both	die	gloss	odd	slam	want
boulder	dirt	grovel	rack	slang	weak
bound	doze	guess	rag	slave	whim
bow	drag	gun	raise	sleek	want
brad	dregs	gust	reef	slug	wicker
brae	droop	hail	rid	slush	window
					wing

The Relation of Borrowed and Native Words

In many cases the new words could have supplied no real need in the English vocabulary. They made their way into English simply as the result of the mixture of the two peoples. The Scandinavian and the English words were being used side by side, and the survival of one or the other must often have been a matter of chance. Under such circumstances a number of things might happen.

1. Where words in the two languages coincided more or less in form and meaning, the modern word stands at the same time for both its English and its Scandinavian ancestors. Examples of such words are burn, Cole, fast, gang, murk(y), scrape, thick.
2. Where there were differences of form, the English word often survived. Beside such English words as bench, coat, heathen, yarn, few, grey, loath, leap, flay corresponding Scandinavian forms are found quite often in Middle English literature and in some cases still exist in dialectal use. We find screde, skelle, skere with the hard pronunciation of the initial consonant group beside the standard English shred, shell, sher.
3. In other cases the Scandinavian word replaced the native word, often after the two had long remained in use concurrently: egg, sister, take, cast, anger superseded OE ey, sweastor, niman, weorphan, irre.
4. Occasionally both the English and the Scandinavian words were retained with a difference of meaning or use: no-nay, whole-hale, rear-raise, from-fro, craft-skill, hide-skin, sick-ill.

5. In certain cases a native word which was apparently not in common use was reinforced, if not reintroduced, from the Scandinavian. In this way we must account for such words as till, dale, rim, blend, run and the Scotch brain.
6. Finally the English word might be modified, taking on some of the character of the corresponding Scandinavian word; give and get with their hard "G" are examples, as are scatter beside shatter, and Thursday instead of the OE Thunresd.

Some confusion must have existed in the Danish area between the Scandinavian and the English form of many words, a confusion that is clearly betrayed in the survival of such hybrid forms as shriek and screech. All this merely goes to show that in the Scandinavian influence on the English language we have to do with the intimate mingling of two tongues.

It is hardly possible to estimate the extent of the Scandinavian influence by the number of borrowed words that exist in standard English (their number is about 900). These are almost always words designating common everyday things and fundamental concepts. Furthermore there are thousands of Scandinavian words which are still a part of the everyday speech of people in the north and east of England. The English Dialect Dictionary contains 1054 simple words beginning with s- (sk). Locally, at least the Scandinavian influence was tremendous. The period during which the large Danish element making its way into the English vocabulary was doubtless is the X th and XI th centuries. This was the periods during which the merging of the two peoples was taking place. The occurrence of many of the borrowed words in written records is generally somewhat later. A considerable number first made their appearance at the beginning of the XIII century.

If we examine the bulk of Scandinavian loan words with a view to dividing them into classes and thus discovering in what domains of thought or experience the Danes contributed especially to English culture and therefore to the English

language, we shall not arrive at any significant result. The Danish invasions were not like the introduction of Christianity, bringing the English into contact with a different civilization and introducing them to many things, physical as well as spiritual, that they had not known before. The Scandinavian elements made their way into English through the give and take of everyday life.

French Element

Unlike their Viking predecessors, the Normans did not assimilate with the local population and had nothing but scorn for local customs and language. They entered England as a ruling class and they brought with them not only Norman soldiers to garrison their castles but Norman merchants and craftsmen to provide them with goods and services.

For two centuries after the Norman Conquest the language of the governing class was French and for more than three centuries all the kings of England spoke French. It was not until Henry IV, who came to the throne in 1399 (one year before the death of Chaucer) that England had a king whose mother tongue was English.

Since the government, the military, the church – and therefore education – were all dominated by French-speaking Normans who regarded the English as boors and louts and their language as a barbarian tongue, it is not surprising that the written language fell into a decline during the XII century. What literature was produced in England – poetry, history, romances, prose works – was all set down in French. Only the monks at Peterborough continued to record the events of English history in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle begun by King Alfred two and a half centuries earlier.

Yet inevitably the mere fact of proximity on a small island produced in time a fusion of the two peoples. Men who came into contact with both the ruling classes and the ruled – local officials such as stewards, and bailiffs and parish priests – eventually became bilingual. Meanwhile many of the more in trade or military service began learning French.

Save for the court itself and the upper strata of the nobility, the fusion of the population progressed so rapidly that by the end of the twelfth century the two nations have become so mixed that it was scarcely possible to tell who is English, who of Norman race.

During the initial 150 years of the Norman occupation, the infiltration of French words into the English language progressed slowly. Prior to the XII th century only about 1000 French loan words entered the English language. Of these, the largest number (and the first to be introduced) were of ecclesiastical character. They included such words as: preach, pray, prayer, relic, friar, clergy, parish, baptism, sacrifice, orison, homily, honour, glory, chaplain, procession, nativity, cell, miracle, charity, archangel, religion, sermon, virtue, vice, crace, evangelist, passion, paradise, sacrament, saint, chaste, covet, desire, pity, discipline and many more, all bearing witness to the Norman devotion to the church.

Other major categories of loan words from this period include those pertaining to:

Government: court, crown, council, counsel, empress, legate, govern, reign, realm, sovereign, country, power, minister, chancellor, authority, parliament, exchequer, people, nation, feudal, vassal, liege, peer, baron, viscount, marquis, duke, prince (but not king, queen and knight, English words which the Normans did not supplant).

Law: just, justice, judge, jury, suit, sue, plaintiff, defendant, plea, plead, summon, cause, assize, session, attorney, accuse, crime, felony, traitor, damage, dower, heritage, property, real estate, tenure, penalty, injury, case, marry, marriage, oust, prove, false, heir, defend, prison, robber, rich, poor, poverty, money, interest, kent.

Art and Architecture: art, beauty, colour, image, design, figure, ornament, paint, arch, tower, pillar, vault, parch, column, aisle, choir, transept, abbey, cloister, palace, castle, manor, mansion.

Pleasures: pleasure, joy, delight, ease, comfort, flower, fruit, falcon, quarry, scent, chase, leisure, sport, cards, dice, ace, deuce, trey, partner, suit, trump.

Cooking: sauce, boil, fry, roast, pastry, soup, sausage, jelly, feast, cuisine.

In this category it is interesting to observe that words connoting such items of meat as beaf, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, venison are all French words, while the living animals from which they are derived (ox, cow, calf, sheep, pig, swine, boar, deer) retain their English names. Equally provocative is the fact that dinner and supper are French words, while breakfast is English.

In the period between 1250 and 1400, the year of Chaucer's death, an estimated 10000 French words slid unobtrusively into English speech; of these 75 % are still in common use today. Of the poetic vocabulary of Chaucer of approximately 8000 words slightly more than 4000 are of Romance origin.

In his description of the Prioress in the Prologue to The Cantebury Tales Chaucer revealed not only his recognition of the decline of Norman French as a national tongue, but his amused awareness of the difference between the authentic speech of continental France and the kind of French heard in England:

… And French she spak ful faire and fetisty,
After the scole of Stratford ate Bowe
For French of Paris was to hir unknowe

When hundreds of French words were circulating in common use, the English language has employed its special power for creating compounds. As a result, a vast number of hybrid words combining elements of both languages came into being.

One of the earliest examples of the process is found in the French word gentil, which was adopted by the English and was widely used by 1225. Before many decades had passed the English wordmakers had combined gentil with the Anglo-Saxon man and woman to form gentleman and gentlewoman; not

long afterwards they added the suffixes –ly and -ness to create gently and gentleness. Such familiar Anglo-Saxon suffixes as –ly, -ness, -less, -ship, -ful, -dom were attached to French words to produce countless bilingual compounds: e.g. nobly, princely, courtly, faintly, easily, naively, richness, poorness, faintness, closeness, simpleness, faithless, artless, colourless, fruitless, courtship, companionship, scholarship, clerkship; artful, beautiful, dutiful, powerful, dukedom, martyrdom.

More rarely, the word-minters combined Anglo-Saxon stems with French endings. The French suffix –age gave rise to acreage, leakage, breakage, cleavage, roughage, shortage. From the French –ess (the feminine –esse), we have goddess, shepherdess, seeres; from –ment, we get endearment, enlightenment, fulfillment; and from –ance we derive hindrance, forbearance, furtherance. But incomparably the most versatile French suffix now added to Anglo-Saxon stems is the adjectival ending –able. It flourishes today in the modern English lexicon in thousands of hybrid words such as: bearable, liveable, likeable, kissable, readable, eatable, drinkable, suitable, answerable, unmistakable, understandable, unutterable.

Another small building-block of French which has been fitted into the edifice of English is the verbal participial ending “E” (as in aime, trouve, and the like). In English this has become the suffix –ee, attached to nouns defining a person on the receiving end of some transaction. Originally entering the language through legal terminology (as in legatee, appelee, trustee), its use been extrapolated beyond the vocabulary of Law, so that today we also have such words as nominee, referee, presentee.

English owes many of its words dealing with government and administration to the language of those who for more than 200 years made public affairs their chief concern. The words Government, govern, administrater introduce a list of such words. It would include such fundamental terms as crown, state, empire, realm, reign, royal, prerogative, authority,

sovereign, majesty, tyrant, usurp, oppress, court, council, parliament, assembly, statute, treaty, alliance, record, repeal, adjourn, tax, subsidy, revenue, tally, exchequer. Intimately associated with the idea of government are also words like subject, allegiance, rebel, traitor, treason, exile, public, liberty. The word office and the titles of many offices are likewise French: chancellor, treasure, chamberlain, marshal, governor, councilor, minister, viscount, warden, castellan, mayor, constable, coroner. Except for the words king and queen, lord, lady, and earl, most designations of rank are French: noble, nobility, peer, prince, princess, duke, duchess, count, countess, marquis, baron, squire, pace as well as such words as courtier, retinue, and titles of respect like sir, madam, mistress. Words like manor, bailiff, vassal, homage, peasant, bondman, slave, servant also have a political or administrative aspect.

Army and Navy

The large part which war played in English affairs in the Middle Age, the fact that the control of the army and navy was in the hands of those who spoke French, and the circumstance that much of English fighting was done in France all resulted in the introduction into English of a number of French military terms.

Many of them were acquired by the French in the course of their wars in Italy during the XVI th century. Nevertheless we still use medieval French words when we speak of the army and the navy, of peace, enemy, arms, battle, combat, skirmish, siege, defense, ambush, stratagem, retreat, soldier, garrison, guard, spy, and we hare kept the names of officers such as captain, lieutenant, sergeant. We recognize at once having had greater significance words like dart, lance, banner, mail, buckler, archer, chieftain. Verbs like to arm, array, harness, brandish, besiege, defend, among many, suffice to remind us of this important French elements in our vocabulary.

Fashions, Meals, and Social Life

That the upper classes should have set the standard in fashion and dress is obvious. The words fashion and dress are themselves French, as are apparel, habit, gown, robe, garment, attire, cape, cloak, coat, frock, collar, veil, train, chemise, petticoat. So too are lace, embroidery, pleat, buckle, button, plume, and the names of such articles as kerchief, mitten, garter, galoshes, and boots. The colours blue, brown, vermilion, scarlet, saffron, russet, and tawny are French borrowings of this period. Jewel, ornament, brooch, chaplet, ivory, and enamel point to the luxuries of the wealthy, and it is significant that the names of all the more -familiar precious stones are French: turquoise, amethyst, topaz, garnet, ruby, emerald, sapphire, pearl, diamond, crystal, coral, beryl.

The French-speaking classes brought about not only such words as dinner and supper but also the words feast, repast, collation, mess, appetite, taste, sustenance. The menue consisted of mackerel, sole, perch, bream, sturgeon, salmon, sardine, oyster - fish; venison, beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, sausage, tripe - meat, with a choice of loin, chine, haunch, brawn, and with gravy included; among fowl, poultry, pullet, pigeon. One could have pottage, gruel, toast, biscuit, cream, sugar, olives, salad, lettuce, and for dessert almonds, and many fruits, including raisin, fig, grape, orange, lemon, cherry, peach, or a confection, pasty, tart, jelly, treacle. Among seasoning we find spice, clove, thyme, herb, mustard, vinegar, marjoran, cinnamon, nutmeg. The verbs roast, boil, stew, fry, blanch, grate, and mince describe various culinary processes and goblet, saucer, cruet, plate, plattes suggest French refinements in the serving of meals. Would the English table have been like that if it had not been for the Norman Conquest?

While the loss of inflections and the consequent simplification of English grammar were only indirectly due to the use of French in England, French influence is much more direct and observable upon the vocabulary.

Although the influx of French words was brought about by the victory of the Conqueror and by the political and social consequences of that victory, it was neither sudden nor immediately apparent. Rather it began slowly and continued with varying tempo for a long time. The large number of French words borrowed during the Middle Ages has made it easy for us to go on borrowing and the close cultural relations between France and England in all subsequent periods have furnished a constant opportunity for the transfer of words. But there was a time in the centuries following the Conquest when this movement had its start and a stream of French words poured into English with a momentum that continued until toward the end of the Middle English period.

In this movement two stages can be observed, an earlier and a later, with the year 1250 as the approximate dividing line. When we study the French words appearing in English before 1250, roughly 900 in number, we find that many of them were such as the lower classes would become familiar with through contact with a French-speaking nobility (baron, noble, dame, servant, messenger, feast, minstrel, juggler). Others owed their introduction into English to literary channels.

The upper classes carried over into English an astonishing number of common French words. In changing from French to English they transferred much of their governmental and administrative vocabulary, their ecclesiastical, legal and military terms, their familiar words of fashion, food, and social life, the vocabulary of art, learning, and medicine.

Anglo-Norman and Central French

The French words introduced into English as a result of the Norman Conquest often present an appearance quite different from that which they have in Modern French. This is due first of all to subsequent developments which have taken place in the two languages. Thus the OE feste passed into Middle English as feste, whence it has become feast in Modern English, while in French the "S" disappeared before other consonants at the end of the twelfth

century and we have in Modern French the form fête. The same difference appears in forest - forêt, hostel - hôtel, beast - bête, and many other words. The difference is not always fully revealed by the spelling but is apparent in the pronunciation. Thus the English words judge and chant preserve the early French pronunciation of "J" and "CH", which was softened in French in the XIII th century to [ʒ] end [ʃ] as in the modern French juge and chant. Therefore we may recognize charge, chance, chamber, chase, chair, chimney, just, jewel, journey, majesty, gentle, and many other words as early borrowings, while such words as chamois, chaperon, chiffon, chevron, jabot, rouge and the like show by their pronunciation that they have come into the language at a later date. The word chivalry is an early word and should be pronounced [C] but it has been influenced by such words as chevalier and by Modern French. A similar case is that of words like police and ravine, where we pronounce the "I" in the French manner. If these words had been borrowed early, we should pronounce them as we do nice, and vine. A second cause of difference between English words and their French counterparts is the fact that the Anglo-Norman or Anglo-French dialect spoken in England differed from the language of Paris (Central French) in numerous respects. In Anglo-Norman initial CA - was often retained, whereas it became CHA -, CHI - in Central French: carry, carriage, case have corresponding words in the dialect of Paris with CH.

Central French showed an early avoidance of the [w] - sound, both separately and in combination with other consonants; English wicket representing the old Norman French wiket became in the Paris dialect guichet. In the same way waste (A.N. waster) was in Central French guaster or gaster (Mod. F. gater). Other examples are wasp (F. guepe), warrant (F. garantier), reward (F. regarder), wardrobe, wait, warden (cf. guardian, from Central French) wage, warren, wince. In the combination que - Central French likewise dropped the labial element while it was retained for a time in *Anglo-Norman*. For this reason we say quit, quarter, ouality, question, require, etc.,

all with the sound of [kw], where French has a simple [k] (quitter, quartier, qualite, etc.).

The vowels also at times developed differently. In OF. the diphthong “UI” was originally accented on the first element (Vl). This accentuation was retained in Anglo-Norman and the I disappeared, leaving a simple U [y]. In Middle English this [y] became [V] or [lV] written u, ui, ew, etc. Hence the English fruit which has in Modern French a quite different pronunciation. English salary, victory correspond to French salaire, victoire.

Non-assimilated French Borrowings in English

In A.J. Bliss's Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases lo Current English (L., 1977) there are about 2239 gallicisms (unassimilated French borrowings). They function in the English language under the influence of 2 contradictory tendencies: the systematic character of the vocabulary which causes phonetic, graphical and grammatic changes and the tendency to preserve their original character. Their French pronunciation is either preserved or is rendered by means of the English phonological system.

Gallicisms may retain their final and initial [Z] (bocage, cortege, jabot) as well as final [j] (basse-taille). A combination of “bw” (boite), “pw” (embonpoint), combinations with the first sonorant -"lw", "mw", "nw" (armoire, ennui, peignoir) are not altogether typical of the English language. As for the accentual assimilation, the greater part of gallicisms retain the initial stress (adieu, ballade, conge, coiffure). At the same time the functioning of gallicisms in the system of the English language is accompanied by regular changes of their phonetical shape which adjust them to the English norms of pronunciation. Thus French sounds which are rendered in writing through "e" are presented in English through the diphthong [el] - cortege, crepe, decolletes; closed or rendered in writing through “-eau” or “o” turns into the diphthong [oV] - rôle, bureau, table d ' h ^ ote and so on. The majority of gallicisms

have different variants of pronunciation testifying to the tendency of retaining the initial form and at the same time adjusting it to the phonetic laws of English.

Graphical peculiarities of gallicisms are characterized mainly by diacritical marks which do not exist in English. We easily distinguish unassimilated French borrowings as they have no English homographs. They may be singled out graphically also through italics.

As far as their grammatical assimilation is concerned gallicisms are partially assimilated. On the one hand, they lose the French category of gender, acquire new forms of singular and plural (thus, “hors d’oeuvre” is used in the plural and a “char-à-bano” in the singular) and form the Possessive Case in accordance with the norms of the English language. At the same time some peculiarities of the original language may be retained (some articles and indicators of feminine gender in French - “distrait – distraite”, “premier danseur” – “première danseuse”, the plural ending "x" and other morphological formants like in "bons vivants" where both elements have the ending "s" which is not pronounced in English as in French).

The semantic structure of Gallicisms is considerably modified under the influence of the English language system. Discrimination of meaning of a borrowed word and its native synonym takes place. Thus gallicism “chauffeur”, f. “chauffeuse” (which mean "driver" in French) functions in English in the meaning of "servant driver". "Beside it, holding the rear door, stood a chauffeuse dressed in a uniform of lime green” (A. Maclean). “Au revoir” presupposes not as long parting as in case of English "good-bye". "I don't think I'll come to the pier", he said. I'll say good-bye now. No - not good-bye. Au revoir. We'll come to England next summer". (M. MacDonald). The sentimental attachment denoted by affair de coeur and jeune amour is stronger than English love affair and calf love.

Emotive connotations of unassimilated prestige (reputation, influence, status) and deuceur (tip, bribe) are somewhat milder.

As for their sphere of usage unassimilated French borrowings are subdivided into II groups where social and political relations, arts, the articles of clothing and culinary terms are presented most fully. It is worthy to note that Gallicisms do not form any new thematic groups, thus “art autre”, "art brut" “art engagé", "art moderne", "art nouveau" are referred to the fully assimilated art.

Now that gallicisms in English are mostly of terminological character and their etymology is not transparent we may use them euphemistically. The fact that their reference to French realia is undoubtful contributes to the retainment of their French form.

Gallicisms are widely used in modern English: in the language of press and fiction, everyday speech, in advertising. French is studied at schools end universities and this fact accounts for their recogizability by average English speakers.

Today the debt to France for borrowed words is as great as ever, and English influence on French is even greater. Cultural and linguistic interchange has operated continuously for the greater part of millenium. Since 1002 the French influence has continued without intermission throughout the centuries, though operating with greatly varying degrees of intensity. It was exceptionally potent immediately after the Norman Conquest of 1066 and it remained strong throughout the Age of the Crusades (1095-1270) when French was the first language of Christendom. It is now most evident in technical terms relating to dress and fashion, cuisine and viniculture, politics and diplomacy, drama and literature, art and ballet. Not everybody is fully aware of the precise nuances conveyed by all the French expressions. For example the word aplomb (from the builder's term a plomb) signifies according to the plummet or plumb-line). aplomb is a human quality meaning "self-possession". A coup is extensively used in modern English in coup d’état or "violent change of government", although other sorts of coup may enliven our conversation: coup de arâce -

"finishing stroke", coup d'oeil - "rapid glance", coup de theater - "dramatic turn of events".

In spite of efforts to revive "questionary" as an acceptable Anglicization of "questionnaire" the latter persists stubbornly in use to indicate "a series of formal questions usually printed with spaces left for the answers, devised to obtain statistics opinions and information generally on some specific subject". The older word interrogatory is now quite obsolete in this sense.

French stress is persistently preserved in the pronunciation of scores of words like ama'teur, ba'nal, connoi'sseur, cri'tique, fa'cade, pres'tige, tech'nique.

The Contribution to the English Vocabulary from Italian

The contribution made by Italy to Anglo-Saxon civilization began in the days of the Romans, continued throughout the so-called Dark Ages, attained certain heights in the centuries of the Italian Renaissance, and goes on in unvaried rhythm, in our own times.

An actual word count of the English vocabulary shows that the Italian element in English is outstripped only by the native Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian, the French of the Normans, and the revivified Latin and Greek that make up so large a part of both our common and our scientific vocabularies. With these four exceptions, the Italian participation surpasses all others: German, Dutch, and modern Scandinavian, which are most closely related to Anglo-Saxon; Spanish and Portuguese whose contributions have been considerable; Slavic and Semitic; and all other Asian, as well as African, Pacific and native American Indian languages put together.

The Italian contingent extends from Renaissance borrowings that have assumed a thoroughly English form, such as "sonnet", "gasette", "balcony", and "infantry" to words in which the Italian form has remained intact: incognito, impresario, marina. It includes not merely words of Latin stock, but words originally stemming from oriental languages such as cotton, taffeta, bergamot.

From the loftiest areas of art, music, literature, and science to the most vulgar regions or colloquialism and slang, from the innermost recesses of the home and kitchen to the stately functions of the court we find the English vocabulary pervaded by the influence of Italy.

The field of art is one in which Italy has ever excelled. Here the contribution of Italian to the English vocabulary is as extensive and varied as has been Italy's contribution to the world's artistic endowment. Words denoting forms, styles, or methods of painting, such as chiaroscuro, fresco, acquarelle, miniature, profile, sketch have been generalized. There are words of general artistic connotation, such as dilettante, dilettantism, replica, model, studio and two proper adjectives that have won their place in Webster's: Raphaelite and Sistine. The vast extension of meaning these words have acquired testifies to their popular use and penetrative power. We speak today not merely of an artist's model and an artist's studio, but of a "model" son, an example on which to model our behaviour, a Hollywood motion-picture studio, and a photographic studio. It is characteristic of many Italian loan words that although originally adopted with a specific, technical meaning, they have acquired such vogue as to become current in everyday speech.

Passing from the field of art to that of music we are faced with a unique situation. The English musical vocabulary is over three-fourths Italian, and the words, for the most part, have been permitted to retain their Italian form without anglicization. Almost every known form of musical composition bears an Italian name: concert, opera, operetta, barcarolle, serenade, oratorio, sonata, scherzo, caprice (capriccio), aria, largo, intermezzo, recitative, finale. Practically the same situation exists in the field of musical instruments. The Greek orchestra, passing through Italy has given rise to its English counterpart and derivatives, orchestral, orchestrate, orchestration. The Italian spinet has given way to the equally Italian piano (or pianoforte) which is accompanied by the Italian piccolo, trombone, viola, violoncello, mandolin, violin,

concertina. As for the performers, they are all Italian: basso, contralto, soprano (colorature or otherwise), mezzosoprano, tenor. The Prima Donna who is a Diva and a virtuosa has been trained by an Italian MAESTRO and is directed by an Italian impresario. Her trills, and cadences are hailed by shouts of Bravo! and viva! I No matter in what formation the performers choose to sing, the group will receive an Italian name: solo, duo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, sextet. Musical directions are 90 per cent Italian: adagio, allegro, andante, crescendo, con brio, diminuendo, forte, fortissimo, legato, maestoso, moderato, piano, pianissimo, presto, staccato, tremolo, etc.

Among musical terms that defy classification are libretto, scenario, tempo, counterpoint and the verb improvise with its many derivatives. Many of the Italian musical terms have received an extension of meaning that makes them current words in field other than music. We speak of the concert of powers and concerted action, a crescendo of noise, the staccato rattling of a machine gun, presto self-rising flour, a tremolo quaver in a person's voice, a trio of rascals, a falsetto shrick, the scenario of a photoplay, the tempo of recovery, the cadence of a dialect, the improvising of a speech.

In the theatrical field we find in English a lot of words of the Italian Commedia dell'Arte into England: ballet, prima ballerina, burlesque, buffoon, buffoonery, mountebank, fiasco, harlequin, colombine, scaramouche, pantaloon, Punchinello (the latter gives rise to England's favourite humorous periodical "punch") are typical examples of this penetration.

Italian influence in the vocabulary of literature is considerable. From typically Italian forms, such as canto, stanza, inferno we go to thoroughly anglicized words: lampoon, novel, sonnet, madrigal.

To what extent the architectural world is indebted to Italy is shown by the most of Italian words that enter every phrase of present-day construction from

cellar to roof: portico, arcade, banister, colonnade, corridor, cornice, facade, gallery, mezzanine, balcony, casement, rotunda among the details of architectural construction; dado, niche, pedestal, pilaster among forms of decoration; camposanto, campanile, cupola in religious building; belvedere, casino, pergola, terrazzo, piazza, villa, esplanade, in rural construction; baroque, Romanesque, Moresque, arabesque, in the domain of style stucco and mosaic among the building materials, vista among the beneficial results of well-planed architecture the English language owes to Italian.

In the field of military construction and fortification we have barrack, barricade, camp, canteen, citadel, parapet, post, redoubt, stockade and the originally Arabic arsenal. Among styles of combat, we find ambush and ambuscade, attack and campaign, espionage and reprisal. The cannon and its byproducts, cannonade and salvo, the carbine, the musket are of Italian origin. So are battalion, regiment, brigade, cavalry, infantry, escadrille, squad, squadron, sentinel, carbineer, musketeer; even the Hungarian Hussar may be an outgrowth of Italian corsaro. Army ranks from corporal through captain and colonel to brigadier and generalissimo are Italian. The originally military alert has been extended far beyond its primary meaning, and we have only to refer to televised speeches of prospective candidates to realize how far campaign and attack have strayed from their once straight and narrow path; commando is perhaps the most recent of this type, passing from Italian to Dutch at the time of the Boer War in South Africa, then gaining big vogue in the Second World War.

The country life of Renaissance Italy has given rise to festive terms that today form part of our common linguistic heritage: confetti, costume, rocket, gala, motto, compliment, vogue, salon, saloon, tarantella, masquerade, carrousel, carnival, travesty, cortege, cavalier, majordomo, paladin, page, marquis, escort, all come directly or indirectly from Italy.

Many of our games and gaming terms: come from Italy, from the gambit of chess to the card game called casino, from the innocent dominoes and lotto to the lottery until recently illegal. To select three widely different fields we have the racket of the tennis player the duel of the swordsman, and the regatta of the boating club.

It is only natural that Italy, home and center of the Christian religion, should have given us many of our religious terms: limbo, Madonna, catacomb, cassock come from Italy as well as various ranks of the church hierarchy, from frater to monsignor and from nuncio to cardinal.

The art of printing did not originate in Italy, but many of our most current press terms did. In the printer's shop we have agate and PARAGON type, italics and italicize. Among the finished products of the printing industry we have gazette, bulletin, magazine, cartoon, caricature.

A large number of terms pertain to politics and statesmanship. Ambassador and embassy are of world-wide application, as is league. Manifesto and portfolio retain in whole or in part their Italian form, but ballot, partisan, revolt have been anglicized almost beyond recognition.

In the field of crime, the vocabulary contribution is considerable; linguistically, practically every field of crime shows traces of Italian influence: vagabond, charlatan, ruffian, brigand, bandit, corsair, assassin (originally Arabic), contraband, vendetta; from the exclusively Italian camorra, and mafia to the American mano nera, cosa nostra, and racket; from the stiletto that serves to penetrate a crime to the bagnio that punishes it.

It is not surprising that many of the current words of the banking world are of Italian origin since modern system of banking, credit and finance is rooted in the great medieval merchant centers of Florence, Genoa, Venice, Milan. Many of the current words of the banking world have a similar origin: cash, cashier, debit, credit, deposit, bank, banker, bankrupt. In the related words of

business we have accredit, firm, mercantile, mercantilism and the originally Arabic tariff.

International trade is heavily endowed with Italian terms: bark, brig, brigantine, frigate, galley, skiff, pilot. Navigation and commerce go hand in hand with industry. Italy, land of textiles, has given not only the imported Persian taffeta and Arabic cotton but also plush and poplin, satin, shagreen, velvet, floss along with a colour beige that is peculiar to woven goods. Among the finer, semiartistic products we find terra cotta, majolica, porcelain, filigrain, filigree. The carton in which our cigarettes come, the laundry to which we send our wash, the cafeteria where we eat lunch, along with its manager and management are also Italian as is the artisan who works at skilled trades, and the milliner.

The food industry is the one in which Italian has made the vastest and most durable impact, particularly in America: ravioli, spaghetti, vermicelli, macaroni, pizza, pizzeria, chianti (the best known of Italian wines), moscato (muscatel), bologna sausage has really penetrated the American vocabulary, to the extent of giving rise to boloney even in a slangy sense.

Italy's contribution to the world of science is often neglected. Yet a mere glance at the dictionary shows us its extent and range. In minerology (agate, granite, lava, tufa, soda, sodium, manganese), geography (cape, volcano, grotto, lagoon), zoology (buffalo, parrot, tarantula, jackanapes), physical sciences (torricellian, marconigram, galvanic, galvanize, volt, voltmeter, voltage) words bear witness of their Italian origin.

Italian influence does not stop at mere words. There are two productive Italian suffixes: -ade , -esque.

Spanish Element in the English Vocabulary

In dealing with Spanish borrowings we must consider not merely words of originally Spanish and Portuguese stock, but also those which the Hispanic tongues themselves borrowed first from Arabic, later from the American Indian

languages with which the Portuguese navigators and the Spanish conquistadors were the first to come in contact, and which they later transmitted to English, either directly, or indirectly, through French or Italian. The Spanish contribution to the English vocabulary is one of the most varied, abundant, and important.

In contrast with the Scandinavian, French, Latin and Greek loan words, which begin very early in history, the Hispanic contribution is a relative latecomer. Very few words of assured Hispanic origin appear during the Middle English period, and even the fifteenth century, which saw the discovery of America, has little to offer. The Hispanic tide really begins with the sixteenth century, continues through the seventeenth, diminishes in the eighteenth, then, in the nineteenth and twentieth, shifting its course from the homeland of English to the North American continent. The contact born of rivalry in the voyages of discovery and exploration permitted words of Hispanic origin to flood the English-speaking world. Since this period extended through the XVI-XVII centuries, the majority of Spanish words is concentrated here. A new peak is achieved in the XIX century due to the American settling of the West and the extensive contacts between speakers of American English and speakers of Mexican Spanish.

As for the nature of the borrowings, it would be extremely difficult to assign them as a whole to any specific category. It cannot be said that they favor one sphere of human activity over another. It is possible to classify some of them.

Bullfighting, for instance, is peculiarly a Hispanic activity, and its vocabulary has been heavily drawn upon in direct rather than translated form. Hence, English dictionaries contain such words as corrida, torero (or “toreador”), picador, matador, espada, banderilla.

There are certain forms of entertainment, particularly music and the dance which retain their Spanish form in English; fiesta is a term known to all English

speakers. parade (Spanish “parada”); bolero, flamenco style of dancing, saraband owe their origin to Spanish.

In all English dictionaries we may find certain titles and forms of address which are thoroughly Spanish; senor, senora, senorita, caballero, don, dona (duena), hidalgo.

Some of the terms refer to articles of attire; certain words are used in English, but only with reference to articles worn in Spain or in Spanish-speaking countries (mantilla, sombrero, serape). Coins like seal, doubloon, peso, peseta are obviously Hispanic, but we also find a metal like platinum, which few English speakers will connect with its true origin, the Spanish plata (silver).

Most political, military, and historical terms that have come to English from Spanish reveal themselves by their form or use (armada, caudillo, infanta, junta, camarilla, Cortes, incommunicado, presidio, Guardia civil, carabineros, guerrilla). Others have acquired an English or French form which effectively disguises them: squad, squadron, escadrille, filibuster.

One of the most productive sources of borrowings from Spanish is the food field. Here we have on the one hand a series of originally Spanish dishes and items with which English speakers have become acquainted (tortilla, vanilla, etc.) on the other hand, there is a whole array of foods originating with the American Indians, brought by the Spanish explorers to Europe, then passed on to English: potato, maize, barbecue, tobacco, chocolate, tomato, cocoa, tapioca, banana, papaya.

There are words current in the American Southern states, though they are not nearly so numerous as those of the West; “quadroon”, for example, represents a Spanish cuarteron. “Creole”, first appearing in 1604, is the Spanish criollo. “Pickanini” is variously ascribed to Spanish (pequeno nino) or to Portuguese (pequenino). There is the “cannibal” which represents Columbus’ caribal, a Carib Indian an American in some Spanish-speaking

countries came from the opening line of a song sung by American troops during the war with Mexico, “Green Grows of Grass”. Together with the word NEGRO which first appeared in English in 1555 came Spanish borrowings which to some extent retained their spelling and pronunciation: embargo, siesta, plaza, padre, casa, peon, hacienda, rodeo, corral, machete, pinto, lasso (lazo), mustang (mesteno).

There seems to be no doubt about the Spanish origin of “cask” (Casco), “cigar”, “risk” (a word that Spanish took from Greek), capstan, caravel, contraband, emery, paragon, romance, savanna.

Spanish passes on to English many words from American Indian languages and from Arabic: canoe, hurricane, hammock, coyote, jaguar, poncho, quinine, alpaca, llama.

Arabic, that great source of additions to the peninsular vocabularies, presents the difficulty of determining whether its words were passed on to English by Spanish or by other Mediterranean languages, such as French or Italian. Among the doubtful words are: jar, alcohol, algebra, alkali, caliber, magazine. Among words of Arabic stock concerning Spanish transmission we have carafe, alcove, tariff, almanae, bizarre.

The borrowing process does not limit itself to mere words. There are suffixes which are occasionally taken over from one language into another, and a few of them become productive of new words in the borrowing language. Such is the case for instance with the ending -eria, which originally came into English through cafeteria. This suffix became so popular in English as an indication of the fact that the customer serves himself that it was attached to words having no connection with Spanish, such as booketeria and valeteria. Other suffixes are perhaps not productive in the new language, but appear in a sufficient number of borrowed words. This is the case with the -illa of “guerrilla”, camarilla, mantilla, vanilla, etc., along with its French modification -ille of escadrille,

quadrille, and the masculine form that appears in negrillo. Sometimes the extension of a Spanish suffix is limited to personal and place names (the - ito, - ita of "mosquito, bonito, negrito, manzanita, for example, goes on to such names as Juanito, Juanita, Anita, Bonita).

Personal names include family names of a historical variety that have become household words in the English-speaking world; names of painters, explorers, statesmen, leaders, chess players: Velazquez, el Greco, Bolivar, Marti, Villa, Castro, Capablanca. They also include widely used personal names of Spanish origin (Inez, Dolores, Ferdinand, Elvir, Elvira, Alonso, Mercedes, Carmen, Consuelo, Mona, Linda) along with Spanish forms of names that have an English equivalent but are occasionally used in the English-speaking world (Carlos, Joan, Diego or Jaime, Fransisco, Juse, Pablo, Pedro, Miguel).

Some Spanish place names from outside English-speaking areas are so familiar to English speakers that even their meanings are known: Tierra Del Fuego, Valparaisa, Vera Cruz, Venezuela ("Little Venice"). Far more widespread is the use of Spanish names in those areas of the United States that were long subject to Spanish influence: New Mexico, Arizona, Alamo, Loz Alamos, Alamogordo. We have names of states, like Florida, California, Nevada, Montana; rivers, like the Per dido of Florida, the Cimarron of Oklahoma, the Brazos of Texas; mountain ranges like the Sierra Nevada, Sierra Madre; cities, like Las Vegas, Sacramento, Santa Fe, Las Gruces, Los Angeles, San Diego, Santa Barbara, San Francisco.

Among English borrowings from Portuguese we may point out such words as albino, apricot, bayadere, fetish, mandarin, caste, mango, junk.

The introduction of Spanish words into English by direct contact hardly begins until the XVI century. After that period Spanish words begin to be borrowed with some freedom, though they are never adopted in such numbers as Italian words.

From the end of the XV century Spanish merchant-vessels were exploring the ocean westwards from Europe.

When the naval power of England began to grow and Englishmen came into contact (though hostile) with Spaniards upon the high seas, in the West Indies and on the coasts of Mexico and South America, they adopted from them the names they used for the inhabitants, animals, plants, etc.

The XVII century shows the largest number of Spanish borrowings of which some relate to Spanish life, trade, politics, etc.: duenna, toreador, junta, cortes, embargo, etc..

XVI century - 1) Spanish trade and products;

2) Words denoting persons and titles of rank;

3) Games and dancing;

4) Naval and Military;

5) Miscellaneous;

6) Words from America.

1) *Peso, Cask, Real, Rusk, Sherry;*
2) *Don, Infante, Infanta, Senora, Renegade, Hidalgo, Santon, Grandee, Booby;*
3) *Primero, Corants, Spade;*
4) *Galleon, Grenade, Armada, Casque, Comrade, Escalade;*
5) *Tornado, Corral, Sombrero, Peccadillo, Bravado;*
6) *Cannibal, Negro, Mulatto, Alligator, Batata, Mosquito, Potato, Banana, Bonity, Manilla, Machete, El Dorado.*

XVII century –

1) *Doubloon, Cargo, Creole, Toreador, Dona, Picaroon (Pirate), Duenna, Matador;*
2) *Dorado, Granadilla, Lime;*
3) *Embargo, Junta, Cortes;*
4) *Corvette, Parade;*

5) *Saraband, Guitar, Castanet, Ombre;*
6) *Sierra, Cavacole, Escapade, Esplanade, Plaza*

American. *Peon, Piccaninny, Chinchilla, Ananas, Cockroach, Manchineel, Turtle, Vanilla.*

XVIII century

Guadroon, Albino, Stevedore, Picador, Merino, Domino, Quadrille, Bolero, Marinade, Caramel, Elotilla, Carmine, Mantilla, Auto-Da-Fe, Jade, Cigar.

Jerk, Alpaca, Mate, Hacienda, Mesa, Ratoon.

XIX century (most of them are from the American side of the Atlantic)

Cigarette, Esparts, Camisole, Guerilla, Camarilla, Pelota, Lasso, Gaucho, Rodeo, Bronco, Nutria, Pueblo, Patio, Serape, Canyon, Dayo, Cafeteria (XX c.), *Tango* (1913).

Arabic Words in English

There are about a thousand words of Arabic origin in English, and many thousand derivatives from those words. Of the main words, two-thirds are either obsolete or rare; and of the remaining third one-third are technical; so that about 260 of the thousand are in everyday use.

The form, which Arabic words take in English are varied and confusing. The Arabic words which got into English before the Restoration period have by the time taken a thoroughly English form, accent, and pronunciation - as have nearly all foreign loan-words borrowed before that time. For the most part they are not consciously regarded as Arabic words: admiral, alcohol, apricot, candy, carat, check, chess, coffee, cotton, crimson, lemon, sofa, sugar, talc, zero, etc.

There are also rarer words derived from or through Arabic which have taken a stable form and pronunciation in English. Some of them are now obsolete, and are known only to the scholar and historian. Others are technical, and are familiar to the modern doctor, scientist, or geographer. To most of us they are all strange and exotic.

The Arabic loan-words belong to various fields, though they are all to a certain extent technical - the names of things strange to Europe. When Arabic words were first translated into Latin in the twelfth century men were seeking from the Arabs knowledge of alchemy, medicine, mathematics, and astrology. Since that time travellers and merchants have borrowed a large variety of words.

Animals, Birds, and Fishes - albatross, gazelle, giraffe, marabou, popinjay, varan, zebra (43 words).

Astronomy and Astrology - algol, asimuth, nadir, Vega, zenith (44 words).

Botany - henna, apricot, artichoke, banian, baobab, camphor, coffee, cotton, crocus, jasmine, lemon, lilac, line, manna, orange, sandal, sesame, senna, spinach, tamarisk, tarchon (137 words).

Chemistry and Alchemy - alchemy, alcohol, alkali, amalgan, antimony, arsenic, benzoin, chemistry, elixir, jargon, matrass, naphtha, natron, nitre, talo, tartar, zircon (56 words).

Clothing and Stuffs (chiefly Oriental) - atlas, baldachin, calico, camise, cassock, chiffon, cottanee, damask, gauze, mohair, moire, mousseline, mufti, muslin, sash, taffeta (50 words).

Dyeing and Colouring – A considerable number of dye-stuffs were imported from the East before the development of modern colour-chemistry: anil, azure, brazil, carmine, crimson, crocus, fustic, henna, saffron, olizarin (30 words).

Food, Drink, and Vessels - candy, carafe, caramel, carotel, jar, marzipan, sherbet, sherry, shrub, sugar, syrup, etc. (35 words).

Geography and Travel - barbary, dragoman, hakim, Kaffir, kibitka, mahal, sahara, simoom, sirocco, typhoon (83 words).

Mathematics - It appears that the Arabic mathematical terminology was translated, not borrowed. There is little to borrow in mathematics except figures,

and our figures are of course borrowed from Arabic, and our way of writing them is Arabic: Algebra, algorithm, cipher, etc. (5 words).

Medicine and Surgery (nearly all obsolete) - elemi, elixir, emblic , hakeem, mummy, soda (40 words).

Music - guitar, kanoon, lute, tambourine, timbal (18 words).

Place-names, Proper Names and Titles - Arab, Arabia, Bedouin, Berber, Brazil, Cairo, Emir, Gibraltar, Guadalupe, Kabyle , Mahomet, Mecca, Mirza, Mogul, Morocco, Nabob, Ottoman, Sahara , Saracen, Sheikh, Sudan, Sultan, Swahili , Trafalgar (cape of the cave), Vizier, Zanzibar (106 words).

Religion (chiefly Islamic) - Allah, bismillah, caliph, darwish, fakir, imam, Islam, Kaffir, kismet, Koran, madrasa, minaret, Moslem, mosque, muezzin, mulla(n) , mussulman, Ramadan, Shaitan, sura, talisman (75 words).

Shipping - cable, felluca, etc. (17 words).

Trade - camphor, magazine, sicca, tariff (45 words).

Various words - alcove, almanac, amulet, check, checkmate, cheque, chess, harem, kaif, kalian, khan, macrami, masquerade, mattress, ottoman, racket (for games), risk, salaam, sofa (68 words).

War - admiral, arsenal, assassin, calibre, mafia, tabor (51 words).

By reading and using a foreign word in English, an Englishman gives that word a right in the English vocabulary. By pronouncing it as an English word he in part naturalizes it: by writing it down as he pronounces it, in the ordinary English alphabet, he carries that process a stage further. The word needs an accepted pronunciation and spelling before it will seem at home in its new environment. The best rule is to write down and pronounce the word in the simplest and least ambiguous way.

Many Arabic words end with the stressed syllable [lj] or [Jj]. Arabic consonants are uttered with more vigour then the corresponding English ones. The result is that a vowel is heard after the final consonant; thus we meet the forms Arabia, Kefia.

The second problem is how to write down the long [J] in Arabic words. When the word has come of age in English, and has been given an English stress on the first syllable, this long vowel disappears, and we say harem [hɛqrqm] instead of [hRrJm], moslem ['mɔzlqm] instead of [muz'lJm].

The Arabic short "U" we tend to transform into [ʌ]. We have retained it in sugar but transformed it in sultan, sultana, felucca. The long "U" written variously as U in marabout or -oo- in kanoon.

We do not attempt to pronounce final "H" in rayah, subah; the tendency in English is to drop it; the only reasonable "H" is in the word fellah. Allah is not likely to change its form either.

The consonant kh is rather a difficulty, if one tries to pronounce it. In khan and shaikh we pronounce it as K.

When one thinks of Arabic words in English, one thinks first of the typical words beginning with -al- (the Arabic definite article). It is worth of note that English has not been guilty of borrowing words from Arabic with the -al- attached as though it were part of the word: all the loan-words beginning with -al- were taken immediately from French, Spanish or Latin.

The French loans from Arabic (25% of the total number) were made from the Middle English period onwards, a fair number of words being first recorded by Chaucer. Through Spanish (many of them via French), and from Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian direct, loans totalling 22% we made from the XVI century onwards, through translations from those languages, and as a result of colonial and mercantile expansion. The last and largest group of words is the 34% taken from Arabic direct from the end of the XVI century when English travellers and merchants came into personal contact with Arabic-speaking people and when Arabic in the XVII century began to be taught at Oxford.

As the result of the Crusades the Arabic names for the different kinds of merchandise and ship, as well as for the operations of business, then came into

current use in Mediterranean countries. Those words were already known to the Spaniards and Italians; but they now became truly international.

Spain was for over 500 years the home of Islamic civilization, the benefits of which she spread through trade, through universities, through literature, over the rest of civilized Europe. Arabic affected Spanish at the most impressionable period of its growth - the beginning - at the time when Latin was first changing. Arabic affected the Spanish vocabulary so extensively because it was the language not only of the ruling class but of a higher civilization.

Arabic did not affect the grammatical structure of Spanish, even less than Norman - French affected the grammatical structure of English; but like French on English, Arabic had an enormous influence on enlarging and enriching the Spanish vocabulary. Thus Arabic affects the vocabularies of European languages primarily through Spanish. And not only Europe did she teach but Spanish America; and even in the United States of the Spanish words which the Red Indians adopted, about 200 are of Arabic origin.

The most useful Arabic words in English are those which came through French and Latin. The words taken immediately from Spanish or Italian tend to remain rare or technical. The most numerous class, that was brought to English by travellers, colonists, and orientalists directly from Arabic, or from some or other dialect of that language, contains those words not yet fully anglicized. It is possible that future loan-words will be adopted in a form nearly approaching a transliteration of the Arabic word.

German Borrowings in English

The influence of German on the ordinary vocabulary of English is not very considerable. The total number of German borrowings is about 1500 words.

The majority of borrowings are in the sphere of terminology (75 %). The process of borrowing from German began in the XVI century in connection with the establishment of cultural and economic ties between England and Germany.

The level of economic development of the two countries was rather high and German borrowings penetrated into the spheres where the contacts were close.

From the sphere of geology, mineralogy, mining industry came about 280 words: “bismuth”, “calcite”, “cobalt”, “field-spat”, “limonite”, “magnetite”, “ozocerite”, “zink”, “nickel”, “wolfram”, “quarz”, etc.

In the sphere of biology we deal with the following German borrowings: “anlage”, “biology”, “crowberry”, “cyclotomy”, “dahlia”, “kohlrabi”, “plankton”, “voller”, “zinnia”, etc. (about 120 words).

The sphere of chemistry the vocabulary was enriched by: “alkaloid”, “aspirin”, “caesium”, “polymer”, “saccaharine”, “titanium”, “uranium”, etc.

About 40 words were borrowed from the sphere of physics, mathematics, astronomy: “eigenvalue”, “eigenstate”, “function”, “infinitesimal”, “monad”, “satellite”.

Only 40% are fully assimilated words: “bower”, “dollar”, “halt”, “lard”, etc.

Partially assimilated words constitute 60% of the total number of German borrowings. Loan words from German taken from the sphere of everyday life are not numerous: “sauerkraut”, “lagerbeer”, “vermouth”, “schnaps”, “poodle”, “kirsch”, “kummel”, “marzipan”, “carouse”, “waltz”, “swindler”, “lobby”, “vaneer”, “iceberg”, “kindergarten”, “rucksack”.

German borrowings are practically devoid of synonyms and are not characterized by changes in their semantic structure (exceptions are very few: German “Fraulein” - an unmarried woman develops in English into “Fraulein” - a governess of German origin); here we deal with specialization of meaning.

16% of borrowings from German are involved into derivation through affixation (-ism, -ish, -lc, -lee, -ly), 2% are capable of conversion (“to plunder”- “plunder”, “blitz” – “to blitz”).

Though the number of German borrowings can’t be compared with borrowings of Romanic origin, the influence of German is obvious in the XIX-XX centuries and the fact should not be overlooked.

A great number of German borrowings are words denoting social, political, and philosophic concepts: “objective”, “subjective”, “determinism”, “intuition”, “transcendental”, “constant value”, “class struggle”, “world-view-determinism”, “idea”, “form”, “obscurant”, “dialectics”, etc.

During the Second World War German loan-words characterizing the fascist regime, the army and the new social “order” of the country entered the English vocabulary: “wehrmaht”, “blitzkrieg”, “luftwaffe”, “fau”, “bunker”, “panzerdivision”, “sitzkrieg”, “volkssturm”, “gestapo”, “nazi”.

Translation loans are quite numerous among German borrowings: “Blood and iron” (Blut und Eisen); “iron rations” (Eiserne Ration); “mailed fist” (gepanzerte Faust); “superman” (Übermensch); “thing-in-itself” (Ding an sich); “place in the sun” (Platz an der Sonne); “song without words” (Lieder ohne Wörter); “homesickness” (Heimweh); “time-spirit” (Zeitgeist); “masterpiece” (Meisterstück).

98% of German borrowings are nouns. Phonetic assimilation of German loan-words is impeded by their written character.

Russian Borrowings

English and Russian are cognate Indo-European languages. But the history of actual contacts and inter-influences between Slavonic and Germanic began long before English and Russian had emerged as languages. On the one hand, it seems likely that contacts between Goths and Slavs near the Black Sea caused the Goths to adopt the Slavonic words. Russian платье and плясать are represented in the words plat (a piece of cloth) and plinsjan (to dance); while the Slavonic words for bread and milk represented by the Russian хлеб and молоко, seemed to have been adopted from Germanic types seen in the Gothic hlaifs and in the modern English milk.

It is not, however, till late in the XIV-th century that we find any notable direct reference to Russia in English literature, namely Chaucer’s mention of that country as one in which his ideal Knight had fought with distinction: and it

is, perhaps, significant that, English and French sable appears from the Russian соболь. During the period of Tartar oppression no Russian words appear in English and only in the second half of the XVI th century when political and trade relations between England and Russia began to develop Russian words are found in the English vocabulary. The correspondence between Ivan the Terrible and Queen Elizabeth, the activities of the so-called “Moscow firm” in 1554, books of travellers describing Russia brought about adoptions, representing various semantic spheres: geographical names (steppe, taiga, tundra), names of animals and fish (mammoth, suslik, borzoi, beluga, sterlet), objects connected with the mode of life, as vehicles (troika, kibitka, tarantass, droshki), measure (pood, sagene, verst, arshin), money (rouble, copeck), national musical instruments (balalaika), beverages (vodka, koumiss, kvass), historisms, reflecting the political and everyday life of Russia (czar, tsarina, tsarevitch, boyars, maujik, cossak, pogrom, zemstvo, ukaz, knout, uyezd, volost, duma).

The period of major influential contacts between English and Russian:

1. That of Ivan the Terrible. This includes the varied Anglophil activities of Ivan himself, of Boris Godunov and of the false Dmitri. Although the aims of these men were connected with commerce, politics and war rather than any liking for the English for their own sake, their reigns mark a first inter-influence of the two languages.

2. The reign of Peter the First (with his Scottish and English technical helpers) and the following XVIII century.

3. “The golden age” of Russian literature indicated by the name of Pushkin.

4. A period of marked inter-influence of both languages after the Great October Socialist Revolution which showed its fullest characteristics in the years immediately following it, and still continues.

In England the translation of works of Russian literature scarcely began before the XIX-th century, though one of the most fruitful and at the same time most baffling of linguistic contacts is the art of translation and the related matters of literary inter-influence.

In the XIX th century, with the growth of people's democratic liberation movement Russian words of different semantic spheres penetrate into the English vocabulary: "narodnic", "nihilist", "Decembrist", "intelligentsia". Scientific and cultural spheres are presented by: "Periodic law", "chernozem", "peredvizhnaya exhibition".

A considerable number of political words came into use to express the rising revolutionary democracy which has become the USSR.

The term "Soviet' describes a new ideal and way of life and stands in a class by itself among political words and has become a "common European" word.

The beginnings of Anglo-Russian lexicography took shape in England long before there was a Russian dictionary proper. A collection of manuscript material for a Russian-English dictionary was made by Richard Janes in 1619 after his visit to Russia.

In handling Slavonic languages English deals with 3 types of alphabet and their later modifications: the Cyrillic, the Glagolitic and the Latin; of these not even the revised Russian of the USSR can be rendered in Latin characters as familiar in English usage: (заутреня - zautrana).

Russian borrowings after the Great October Socialist Revolution reflect the epoch-making changes in Russia. Most of such loan-words are international in character; new social-economic relations as well as new political, cultural and moral concepts, new ideas are denoted by Russian words with precision.

From the point of view of their form Sovietisms are presented by phonetic borrowings ("Soviet", "Bolshevik", "the Pravda", "sputnick", "pyatiletka", "Komsomol", "artel", "sovkhos", "kolkhoz", etc.), by translation loans ("labour

day", "social work", collective farm", "self-criticism", "People's court of Justice"), explanatory translations ("poor peasant", "Young Communist League").

Semantic loans, i. e. words which have developed their meaning under the influence of Russian, are presented by: "to liquidate" (abolish), "brigadier", "cadres", "pioneer", "criticism", "partisan".

The so-called "hybrid" borrowings, i.e. formed from Russian and English are not numerous: "Soviet Union", "Soviet power", "Stakhanovite movement". The new epoch of borrowing from Russian began in the 90s of the XX th century and still continues: perestroika, uskoreniye, hozraschet, etc.

Borrowings from Indian, Chinese, Japanese and Other Languages

With the beginning of England's colonial expansion in the XVI th - XVII th centuries many words penetrate into the English vocabulary from the languages of colonial countries.

Indian - bandana, calico, cashmere, chintz, jute, bungalow, jungle, khaki, loot, nirvana, rajah, rupee, shampoo.

Malayan - bamboo, gong, gutta-percha, orang-outang

Chinese - ginseng (life-root), nankeen, kaolin, bonze, serge.

Japanese - geisha, harakiri, riksha, jiu-jitsu, kimono, samurai.

Australian - boomerang, kangaroo

Polynesean - tattoo, taboo

African - baobab, chimpanzee, gnu, gorilla, guinea, negus

Egyptian - pyramid, fustian

The languages of North-American Indians - hickory, moccasin, hominy, oppossum, racoon, skunk, squaw, toboggan, tomahawk, wigwam.

Hebrew Words in English

English contains a certain number of Hebrew words; most of then came due to the influence of the Hebrew text of the Old testament, or to the Rabbinical students: "amen", "behemoth" (this Hebrew word is perhaps of Egyptian origin),

“cabala”, “cherub”, “elder” (through French, Latin and Greek), “cinnamon”, “ephod”, “gehenna” (through Greek), “halle lujah”, “hosanna”, “jew”, “jubilee”, “leviathan”, “manna”, “Messiah”, “Pharisee”, “Rabbi”, “Sabacth”, “Sabbath”, “sack”, “Satan”, “seraph”, “shibboleth”, “Talmud”.

International Words

Many English and American words are now completely international, not merely understood but spoken and published around the world. Among the most familiar of these, universally employed on every continent, are:

baby-sitter, bar, bridge (the game), boyfriend, best seller, bikini, bulldozer, bus, beefsteak, cafeteria , cocktail, cow-boy, flirt, gangster, goddam, hamburger, hot dog, ice cream, jazz, juice, jeep, knockout, night-club, party, racket, sandwich, scooter, shorts, sex appeal, steak, taxi, whisky, weekend. It goes without saying that for years Okay has been a universal expression of assent. Here and there certain American trade names have achieved international status as generic terms: e.g. public opinion polls are now generally known throughout Europe as gallups; stockings are nylons; and any paper tissue is Kleenex.

Folk Etymology

Foreign words when adopted into English need to be assimilated. Sounds in foreign speech that are strange to English speech need to be fitted into the English scheme. There is ever present the disposition to fit the strange elements into familiar word molds, involving, in many instances, strange distortions. Thus French words and phrases recast in English form produced strange effect. There were some attempts to connect unfamiliar words with known meanings.

In the earlier history of words evidence of this tendency is everywhere to be found. The influence of buzz is to be seen in the transformation of O.Fr. busart (Latin buteo) into buzzard. Surround goes back, through the French to a late Latin superondare (onda, “Wave”) to overflow, to deluge but is influenced in form by the word round of unrelated origin. Cutlet in origin is not

related to cut, cut comes through the French, from the Latin Costa meaning "rib", and, therefore, means literally "little rib". The French gentil has been borrowed into English four successive times, and has assumed in English four different forms with four different meanings as: gentle, gentile, genteel, and jaunty. Rosemary goes back, through the French, to Latin Ros Marinus, "sea dew". Mushroom has nothing to do with room but comes from the O.Fr. mouscheron which is derived from mousse, "moss". Buckwheat comes from the Dutch boekweit, "beech-wheat", a name the relation of which to this kind of grain is readily apparent. The cockroach is the Spanish cucaracha cast in an English word mold. Crayfish and crawfish represent two stages in the process of folk-etymologizing. The word comes into English in the Middle English period in the form crevice from the O.Fr. crevice.

The last element is first converted into fish and then the first element is changed to crab in order to associate the form with the familiar mode of locomotion of the animal. The O.Fr. crevice (Mod.Fr. ecrevisse), is of Germanic origin, O.H.G. chrebiz. The Germanic word appears in modern German as Krebs and in English as crab (O.E. crabba).

Salt is a redundant element attached to cellar in saltcellar, since cellar in this case is falsely transformed from earlier seler, which goes back, through the French, to the Latin saliaria, feminine for saliarius, "of salt", and itself means a "salt receptacle".

In some instances the misinterpretation involved in folk-etymology provides the basis for further word building. The word lark, in the sense "frolic", "spree", probably goes back to the OE lac, meaning "dance", "play". The merriment plausibly becomes associated with the glee of the lark, and on the basis of this poetic reading of the word, a superlative form, skylarking, makes its appearance as a name for "frolic". The words standard is derived through the French estendart from the Latin extendere, "to spread out" and, therefore, applied originally to the meaning "flag" and is still applied as the

name for the flag of a cavalry regiment. It became erroneously connected with the meaning “stand”, involving change in meaning as well as in form. There is connection between this meaning mistakenly read into the word standard, and the use of the seemingly synonymous word platform in American politics as the name for the body of principles upon which a party stands. In the same way older samblind (O.K. sam, “half”, cognate with Latin semi) becomes converted into sand-blind. Popular reasoning is that if sand-blind means half blind, complete blindness is expressed by the word stone-blind.

The word rarebit, in the phrase Welsh rarebit, results from the attempt to read meaning into the common phrase Welsh rabbit, which is in reality a product of popular humour having many parallels, such as digby chicken for smoked herring; folkstone beef for shark; deep sea turkey for codfish; Alabama wool for cotton; Irish confetti for bricks, bog orange for potato.

Folk-etymologizing is a process associated, as the name itself indicates, with the unlettered class. In the XVI-th century abominable was often written abhominable from the erroneous idea that the word was composed of Latin ab+homine “from man”. The form of the word corporal rests on false learning. In reality it is derived from a Latin caporalis (Latin caput, head), a form represented by the French caporal, it took its English form through the influence of the word corporal (Latin corpus, “body”), or of the word corps.

In a similar way the forms of many common English words reflect an attempt to show the derivation of English words from Latin originals. Debt and doubt which had come into English through French, and which were dette and doute in Chaucer’s language, were changed in spelling by the insertion of a “b” in order to show the relation to Latin debitom and dubito respectively. Other words which were treated in a similar way were subtle (sotil), arctic (artik), receipt (receit). The “l” in such words as fault, assault, cauldron, which does not appear in the earliest English forms of these words derived from the French, owes its insertion to the effort to make English words conform to supposed

Latin originals. The same is true of the "d" in words such as advice and adventure (avis, aventure), the "qu" in liquor (licour, lykor), the -ure in leisure and pleasure (layser, plesur).

Such efforts often lead to mistakes. For instance, in island (M.E. iland, meaning "water land"), the "s" was inserted in order to show the supposed connection with isle (from Latin insula), and rhyme (Chaucer, rime), was re-spelled so as to show the imagined relation to rhythm. Scissors (M.Fr. sisoures, O.Fr. cisoires), gets its initial sc- from its supposed derivation from the Latin verb scindere, "to cut".

The ending -gue apparently of French origin and belonging to words such as vague, vogue, catalogue was applied inappropriately to several English words: tongue (tonge) and rogue (roge).

The process of folk-etymology is a popular form to attempt to bring about uniformity and system into the language.

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

Words are made up of **morphemes**. A morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a word. We distinguish root morphemes and affixational morphemes. The very term "morpheme" is of the Greek origin (*morphe* – form). Can morphemes occur in speech as separate independent units? They can, if a word consists of a single morpheme: he can, pen, walk. But upon the whole morphemes are **not autonomous**. They occur in speech as consistent parts of words. **Word** is the basic unit of a given language. The approach to the study of the vocabulary in this country is **lexicocentrical**. Any word is a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit and is fully autonomous. Words are minimal free forms.

Different morphemes play different roles in constructing words. **Root morphemes** carry the lexical meaning of the word making it the semantic centre. **Affixational morphemes** fall into functional morphemes (inflexions, grammatical formants) and derivational morphemes.

Functional morphemes are dealt with in grammar and they are few in Modern English: Ns (es), Ns, Ns', -er, -est, Vs, Ves, -ing, -ed, -t, -n (en).

Lexicology deals with **derivational affixes**. They may be treated from the point of view of **word**-building (in what way they derive new words) and from the point of view of word-structure (what role they play in the structure of the word, as a structural unit).

As far as the morphemic composition of words is concerned we distinguish **monomorphemic** and **polymorphemic** words. *I, bad, tree, go* – are monomorphemic words representing the root morpheme only.

Teacher, loveableness, irreproachful, bookshop – are polymorphemic words consisting of root morphemes and affix, morphemes or two root morphemes.

Affixational derivational morphemes are subdivided into **prefixes, suffixes** and **infixes**. An affix before the root-morpheme is called a prefix: *re*-presentation, *un*-willingly, *im*-possible, *en*-circle and that following the root-morpheme – a suffix: walk-*er*, yellow-*ish*, symbol-*ism*, fellow-*ship*. Affixes possess the part-of-speech meaning.

Structurally we distinguish *free* morphemes and *bound* morphemes. *Bound* morphemes function only as parts of words: *-ness, -ate, -hood, de-*. *Bound* morphemes among roots are presented by *–ceive* (conceive, deceive), *theor-* (theory, theoretical).

Infixes (N in stand) are not productive in English.

Structural Types of English Words

When we remove from a word all functional affixes (inflexions) we receive a stem (основа слова). The stem expresses both lexical and part-of-speech meaning. It is the part of a word which remains unchanged through its paradigm. **A paradigm** is a system of grammatical forms of the word.

Stems may be simple (root stems), derived (beautiful) and compound (handbag).

A stem containing one and more affixes is called a derived stem.

When we remove derivational affixes from the stem we receive the root of the word – the common element of words within a word family: hand, handy, handiwork, handicraft, handful, free-handed, red-handed, handbag, handcuffs.

The morphlogical structure of the English language is such that the majority of words are **root** ones. It is the influence of the analytical structure of the language.

For that reason it is difficult to say to what part of speech words belong. Word meaning can be modified by affixes (ad+fixus-L.). Affixes express lexico-grammatical meanings and serve to build new words. Prefixes modify the

meaning of words while by the addition of the suffix not only the meaning is modified but the word itself is transferred to another part of speech.

cf.: honest-dishonest, carry-miscarry, archaic-pseudoarchaic, VS clever-cleverness, present-presentation, work-worker, achieve-achievable.

From the point of view of the morphological structure of English words we distinguish:

1) Simple words (root-words) where the root coincides with the stem in form;
2) Derived words (derivatives) where the meaning of the root, the lexical nucleus is modified by the potential meaning of suffixes;
3) Compound words where two or more stems are fused into semantic and structural whole.
4) Compound derivatives or derivational compounds constituted by two or more stem-morphemes (roots) modified by an affix.

Simple or root words predominate in speech communication, as we see from average talk and reading. Root words are the most frequent lexical units in English. Without special frequency counts the high frequency value of the so-called “functional words” (prepositions, articles, conjunctions, pronouns) is evident. As to the notional words 60 % of the total number of nouns and 68,7 % of the total number of adjectives used in Modern English are root words. In dictionaries, however we find 18 % of nouns and 12,4 % of adjectives.

Derived words (38 % of nouns and 12,4 % of adjectives) are, above all structural types. In dictionaries derived nouns constitute 67 % of all the nouns, 86,3 % of adjectives are derived words.

Compound words do not possess a high frequency value – 2 % of nouns and 0,21 % of adjectives. The number of compound words is steadily growing in the language. Thus, prof. Mühler states that in 1943 there were 48 compound words with “fire”, in 1960 – 61.

As all the words of the English language are divisible it is possible to carry out 3 levels of analysis of word structure.

I. Morphemic analysis states the number of morphemes in a word and their types.

Thus un-believe-bal-ness consists of 4 morphemes: one root morpheme and 3 affix morphemes.

II. Derivational or structural word-formation analysis shows the structural correlation of the word with other words, the structural patterns or rules on which we build words. We present structurally correlative words in a set of binary oppositions. Each second element of these oppositions may be derived from the corresponding first elements; white = yellow = red

whitish = yellowish = reddish

We may observe from proportional oppositions that *ish* is their distinctive feature. Any other word built according to this pattern contains this component common to the whole group.

III. Analysis into Immediate Constituents.

Immediate Constituents are any of the two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unity. Any word (not a simple one) is characterized by morphological divisibility. The analysis into IC reveals the history of the word and its motivation (we play back the process of its construction). Let's take, for example, remacadamized (road). The analysis is binary and at each stage we may split the word into 2 constituent parts only:

I. remacadamize + ed
or re+macadamized

II. re + macadamize
macadamize + ed

III. macadamize
macadam + ize

Breaking the word into ICs we observe in each cut the structural order of its constituents.

Finally the Ultimate Constituents will look this way:

re + macadam + ize + ed.

If the analysis is carried out correctly its results will coincide with the result of morphemic analysis.

Derivational and Functional Affixes

The connection between lexicology and grammar is illustrated by the characteristics of affixes, the study of which is especially important for building words.

Derivational and functional affixes may coincide in form but they are absolutely different in meaning, function, valency, their structural property.

Functional affixes (hardly 10 in number) may be added to any element belonging to definite part of speech (pen-pens, work-worked, big-bigger).

Derivational affixes do not possess such freedom of combinability (e.g. –ish is not added to verbal stems, -en can be added to “gold” or “wood” but cannot be added to “steel”.

A person living in London is Londoner, in New York – New Yorker, Moscow – Muscovite, Washington – Washingtonian.

WORD-BUILDING IN ENGLISH

AFFIXATION

The description of affixational system of the language aims at the establishment of the inventory (инвентарь) and the boundary of affixation and the semantic load carried by this or that affix.

Derivational status of affixes is especially important for the English language where due to borrowing it is very difficult to establish morphemic and derivational properties of words.

The number of affixational morphemes in Modern English varies in different classifications: up to 130 suffixes and 48 prefixes. They may be characterized from various points of view depending on the purpose of the research.

I. Classification of affixes according to the part of speech in which the most frequent affixes of present-day English occur.
   1. Noun-forming suffixes: -er, -ness, -ship, -hood, -ing, -dom, -(in)ty, -ance, -age, -ist, - ism, -ee, -eer, - ant/ent, -eer, -ee;
   2. Adjective-forming suffixes: -ful, -less, -ic, -al, -able, - ant, -ate, -ed, -an/-ian, -ish, -ive, -like, -ous, -y;
   3. Numeral-forming suffixes: -fold, -teen, -th, -ty;
   4. Verb-forming suffixes: -en, -ate, -er, -fy, -ize, -ish;
   5. Adverb-forming suffixes: -ly, -ward, -wide.

II. Classification of affixes according to their origin

(Native and borrowed affixes)

Native affixes are formed from Old English words (bound forms may be derived from free words).

The most important native suffixes are: -er, -ed, -dom, -en, -ful, -less, - hood, -let, -lock, -ly, -ness, -red, -ship, -some, -teen, -th, -ward, -wise, -y.

Borrowed affixes, according to their origin, are Latin (-or, -ant, -able), French (-ard, -ance, -ate) and Greek (-ist, -ism, -oid).

The nomenclature of suffixes and other word-final elements in English is gradually increasing and amounts to about 1500 elements.

e.g. phobia –agarophobia
pedia – logopedia
noia – paranoia
onomasia – paronomasia
logic – genealogic, dialogic
biotic – antibiotic
valence – equivalence, prevalence
scape – seascape
shire – Oxfordshire
phony – euphony, cacophony
grapher – lexicographer

These forms are either always or frequently encountered in combination with other words or word elements. *

III. Classification of affixes according to their meaning

Lexico-grammatical meaning of suffixes is determined by their belonging to lexico-grammatical classes within parts of speech. Suffixes signalize whether we deal with names of persons, names of things, abstract nouns, material nouns, etc.

There is a special subgroup of feminite affixes (-ess, -ine, -rix, -ette). Collectivity is signalled by –dom, -ery, -hood, -ship. The absence or presence of quality is rendered through –full, -less.

Prefixes modifying lexical meaning of the stem may impart a negative meaning (un-, mis-, dis-, in-), the meaning of time and order (pre-, post-, after-), place (super-, sub-, trans-, in-), degree and size (over-, under-, out-).

Prefixation in English concerns mostly verbs.

* Laurence Urdang, Suffixes and Other Word-Final Elements of English. – Detroit, Michigan, 1982

IV. Classification of affixes according to their valency

All the affixes are characterized by their combining power or **valency** and the derivational patterns in which they occur. We can see that not all combinations of root morphemes with affixes are possible. Untrue and unkind may exist but not unclever and uncruel. The possibility of a particular stem to combine with a particular affix depends on semantic, morphological and phonological factors. Thus, -er (agent of a verbal action) is added to verbal stems, -dom and –ism, -ish and –ly are combined with adjectival stems: *freedom, realism, whitish, slowly*. When –ish is added to noun-stems (*boyish, swinish, Mono-Lizaish*), -it forms adjectives with a slight derogatory colouring which is absent in Adj + ish.

-Tion and –or are both noun-forming suffixes and are both combined with V-stems but –tion forms abstract nouns and –or –agent nouns.

A wide range of derivational patterns in which we meet un – may be demonstrated by:

un + Adj (unfair), un + Part I stem (unfailing), un + Part II stem (unbalanced), un + V (unpack), un + N (unperson).

Affix – valency is given in comprehensive dictionaries:

be- → be + N → V_{trans} (bediamond)
→ be + V → $V_{intense}$ (becompliment)
→ be + N → $V_{turn\ into}$ (becalm, bedim)
→ be + N → $V_{deprive}$ (behead)

V. Classification of Affixes According to their Productivity

Certain affixes are no longer felt as constituent parts of words merging with the root: -d (“dead”, “seed”), -le, -l, -el (“bundle”, “sail”), -lock (“wedlock”), -t (“flight, “gift”).

The so-called “living” affixes are different from the point of view of their productivity, the ability to form *new* words . The degree of productivity varies from highly productive (-er, -ish, -les) to non-productive (-ard, -ive, -th, -ous,

fore-). The dictionaries of new words may contribute to the study of the productivity of certain affixes.

VI. Classification of Affixes According to their Frequency of Occurrence

Frequency is measured by the number of words containing this or that affix registered by the dictionaries and found in actual usage. Productive affixes are always frequent but not every frequent affix is productive. –Ous is a very frequent suffix but not productive.

VII. Classification of Affixes According to their Connotational Characteristics

(Emotive Charge and Stylistic Reference)

Together with meaning certain affixes charge the stem with emotional force, mainly derogatory: - ard (dullard, stinkard, drunkard), - ster (roadster, hipster, gangster, youngster), -ton (simpleton) –ling (kingling, shaveling, Greekling), -o (bosso, stinko), -y/ie (whitey, Paddy, Yelie). Emotionally coloured diminutive suffixes may express endearment mingled with reprobation: cabbie, hanky, mannikin, Frenchy.

From the point of view of their stylistic reference English affixes are characterized by neutral stylistic reference: -er, -able, -ing and a certain stylistic value (bookish, terminological, etc.): -oid, -eme, -tron, para-, arch-, -aceous.

COMPOSITION

Composition as a way of word-building was very productive since OE period and remains one of the most active types of word-formation in Modern English. Compound words are words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. There are compound words among all notional parts of speech, but mostly among nouns and adjectives: synchronic word-building system of English has a nominal (именной) character.

Compound words are inseparable vocabulary units which are formally and semantically dependent on their components and relations between them. More than ⅓ of neologisms in English are compound words.

In OE domineering structural patterns of composition were N + N, Adj + N, N + Adj:

tunȝol (звезда) + witeȝa (ученый) > tunȝolwiteȝa (астролог);

hāliȝ (святой) + dæȝ (день) > hāliȝdæȝ (праздник);

īs (лед) + ceald (холодный) > īsceald (холодный как лед);

stip (сильный) + mōd (характер) > stipmōd (храбрый).

In Middle English period compound nouns were very numerous: tablecloth, penknife. New compounds consisted of Prep + N (afternoon, thoroughfare), Adv + V (income), V + N (breakfast); new compound pronouns were: anybody, everything, anything; compound adverbs: meanwhile, beforehand, already.

All the existing classifications of compound words represent a modified classification of Old Sanscrit Grammar where nominative compound words are subdivided into *copulative* (Norman–French, woman–doctor, secretary–stenographer), *determinative* (air–mail, spaceman, handbag) and *exocentric* (kill-joy, dare-devil, cut-throat) which are not typical of the English language.

As English compound words consist of free forms it is difficult to distinguish them from combinations of words. What is the difference between a black board and a blackboard? A slow coach and a slowcoach? There are several criteria which help us to differentiate between them.

1. Graphical Criterion

Compound words may have either solid and hyphenated spelling and even separate spelling.

The lack of uniformity in spelling makes this criterion unreliable and insufficient.

2. Phonological Criterion

There is a strong tendency in English to give compounds a heavy stress on the first element. Almost all compound nouns with a few exceptions always show a high stress or the first element. Compound adjectives are double-stressed: 'gray-'green, 'easy-'going, "snow-'white (emphatic comparison).

Sometimes phonological stress helps to differentiate the meaning of compounds man'kind (the human race) and 'mankind (contrasted with women).

3. Semantic Criterion

The meaning of a compound word is not a total sum of the meanings of the components but something entirely different. The semantic integrity of compound lexical units serves as the basis of semantic criterion of distinguishing compound words from word-combinations.

Semantically compound words are motivated by the meanings of their components, they express a single idea which is not identical in meaning to the sum of the meanings of its components in a free phrase.

There are compound words “table-cloth, “bookcase”, “toothache”, “shipwreck” where semantic motivation is quite clear but in such compounds as “fusspot”, “slow-coach”, “brain-wash” motivation is not transparent: they are idiomatic. Between clearly motivated compounds and idiomatic ones there is a great number of intermediate cases. In case of idiomatic compounds it is impossible to derive the meaning of “night-cap” (the last drink taken before going to bed) and “blackguard” from meaning of the components.

In motivated compound words motivation may be complete (sky-blue, tea-leave) and partial (hand cuffs, flower-bed, castle-builder).

In non-motivated (idiomatic) compound words we see no connection between their lexical meaning, lexical meaning of their constituent parts and the meaning of the pattern: fiddlesticks (nonsense, rubbish), butter-finger (a person who can’t do things well), blue-stocking (a pedantic woman).

4. Morphological Criterion

Criterion of Formal Integrity was introduced by A.I. Smirnitsky. Comparing “shipwreck” and “wreck of a ship” with identical sets of morphemes and identical meaning he states that they differ: a word is characterized by structural integrity which is absent in a word-combination. Grammatical

formants (endings) are added not to every component of “shipwreck” but to the whole compound: shipwrecks, shipwreck’s, shipwrecks”.

5. Syntactic Criterion

We have no right to modify any component of a compound word or to change their order or to insert any word into its structure. L. Bloomfield points out that the word “black” in the phrase “black birds” can be modified by “very” (“very black birds”) but *never* in a compound “blackbirds”. B. Block and G. Trager say that *nothing* can be inserted between the components of “blackbird”.

In some cases transformational analysis helps us to prove the structural integrity of a compound word (if they are not idiomatic): tooth-powder → powder for teeth; **But** (!) “wall-paper” is not “paper on the wall”.

It should be mentioned therefore that not a single criterion mentioned above is sufficient to establish whether we deal with a combination of words or a compound word.

The Historical Development of Compounds

Not all the compound words inherited by the vocabulary of English are preserved in the language in their primary form having undergone various phonetic changes, which reduced them to **simple** or root words. This process is called **simplification** of stems (опрощение основы). It was investigated by Russian scholars V.A. Bogoroditsky, L.A. Bulakhovsky and N.N. Amosova.

The form of a compound word and its pronunciation may be changed beyond recognition. The following examples serve as illustration: daisy < OE dæȝes eaȝe (day’s eye), woman < OE wifmann (woman person), barn < OE bere-ærn (a place for keeping barley), elbow < OE elnboȝa (the bending of the arm), gossip < OE ȝodsibbe (godparent ← fellow sponsor at baptism: sib means “a kin”), husband < OE husbonda (master of the house, “bua” – to dwell).

Demotivation (деэтимологизация) is closely connected with simplification but not identical with it. This process begins with semantic change which is later accompanied by sound form change: kidnap (to seize a young goat) and then the word becomes morphologically indivisible: boatswain (OE batswe*Z*en where archaic "swain" meant "lad"); breakfast (going without food), cupboard. Graphical simplification is not completed.

Classification of Compounds

1. Structural Classification

(endocentric *bookcase, sunrise***,** exocentric *cut-throat, daredevil***,** bahuvrihi* *bigwig, greenhorn, black-shirt***,** syntactic compounds which correlate with phrases: *baby-sitting*).

2. According to the type of composition

a) Juxtaposition without linking elements:
heartache, bookcase, film-star.

b) Compounds with a linking vowel and consonant:
Afro-American, speedometer, handicraft, saleswoman.

c) Compounds with linking elements represented by preposition and conjunction stems:
up-to-date, father-in-law, bread-and-butter, matter-of-fact.
Also lexicalized phrases: *forget-me-not, devil-may-care, stick-in-the-mud, dog-in-the-manger.*

3. According to the structure of ICs

a) Compounds consisting of simple stems: *bottle-neck, star-gaze, pen-knife, acid-sweet.*

b) Compounds where 1 IC is derived: *beaf-eater, cinema-going.*

c) Compounds where 1 IC is clipped: *X-mas, H-bomb.*

d) Compounds where 1 IC is compound: *wastepaper-basket*.

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* Bahuvrihi, "much-riced" – exocentric compounds where a person, animal or thing are metonymically named after some striking feature they possess (e.g. appearance) where there this feature is expressed by the sum of the meanings of Ics.

Specific Features of English Compounds

The majority of English compounds consist of free forms where combining elements are rare and possess a regular two-stem pattern (except compounds of "bread-and-butter" type, which distinguish them from German with its monstrosities: Feuer-und-Unfallversicherungsgesellshaft.

Any element playing an attributive function and standing before the main word may be united with it and form a compound word: *last-minute preparation, working-class morality, five-year course.*

The speakers can freely create nonce-compounds as the need for them arises. They are also called quotation compounds or holophrasis**:** *go-to-hell voice, end-of-the-day gesture, five-o'clock-in-the-morning men, let-steeping-dogs-lie approach.*

Derivational compounds or compound derivatives contain 2 free stems and a suffix referring to the whole combination: *blue-eyed, schoolboyishness, honeymooner***.** There are many nonce-words (occasionalisms) among them: *Pied Piperish, save-your-own-soul-ism, not-my-cup-of-tea-ness***.** They meet the requirements of different situations.

A special group of compound words is constituted by **reduplicative compounds**: reduplicative compounds proper, ablaut combinations and rhyme combinations:

1. *rush-hush, pooh-pooh, blah-blah*;
2. *sing-song, chit-chat, ding-dong, ping-pong*;
3. *boogie-woogie, harum-scarum, willy-nilly.*

New word-forming patterns in composition revealing the influence of extra-linguistic factors are illustrated by such compounds as: *teach-in, marry-in, burry-in, sit-in, phone-in* which resemble breakdown, feedback, lockout, etc. but contain a connotation of public protest.

Compound words are mostly frequent among nouns and adjectives but scholars doubt the very existence of compound verbs in Modern English.

To whitewash, to blacklist, to stage-manage, to overflow are often called compound verbs. **But!** *To house-keep, to hitch-hike, to week-end* are created not by composition but conversion and back-formation if treated diachronically.

CONVERSION

When a new word appears in a different part of speech without adding any derivational elements and the original and derived words coincide: *silence – to silence, table – to table, sleep – to sleep* we speak of **conversion**[*].

Other terms are: *zero derivation, root creation (formation), transposition, or functional change.* All the terms are opened to criticism.

This way of building new words is especially productive due to the absence of formal signs of different parts of speech. Thus the word *home* may belong to 4 parts of speech: noun, verb, adjective, adverb.

When speaking of the historical background of conversion we go back to the period of lost endings. Diachronic approach to this phenomenon helps us to understand what made conversion so widely spread. The disappearance of grammatical endings lead to merging of verbs and nouns:

OE	**Mod E**
lufian v – lufu n	love v, n
carian v – caru n	care v, n

Such cases are called patterned homonymy where words identical in sound form possess a common semantic component.

Syncronically “love – to love” and “diamond – to diamond” are not different.

In present-day English conversion is considered to be predominant in the sphere of verb-formation (compound verbs are problematic and verbal affixes are very few).

[*] H. Sweet was the first to use the term in his “New English Grammar” (1891)

A. I. Smirnitsky regards conversion as transferring a word from one paradigm to another without considering its syntactic properties. For that reason it is necessary to look upon conversion as a combined morphological and syntactic way of word-building. (J. Zhluktenko).*

Those linguists who say that "wife- to wife", "knife – to knife", "to run – run" are different forms of the same word regard such cases as belonging of a word to different lexico-grammatical classes which is not true.

Converted pairs are variegated: 4,5 % is constituted by "love – to love", "harp – to harp", 62 % is constituted by "pencil – to pencil", "hammer – to hammer". 35 % is constituted by borrowings, phonetic changes. But the results of different processes form a unified word-building system.

The following cases of conversion are indisputable in linguistic literature:

- formation of verbs from nouns and rarely from other parts of speech;
- formation of nouns from verbs and rarely from other parts of speech.

The possibility of creating adjectives from nouns is being discussed. Substantivation and adjectivization, attributive usage of words, word combinations and sentences mainly stay within occasional limits. That is why "the rich", "a Russian", "a native" are not referred to conversion * *.

Morphological simplicity favours the process of conversion, conversion is less frequent in bimorphemic and polymorphemic words. Morphologically simple words form the bulk of material used in conversion.

Conversion may present interest from the stylistic point of view:

"Let me say in the beginning that even if I wanted to avoid Texas I could not for I am *wived* in Texas and *mother-in-lawed* and *uncled* and *aunted* and *cousined* within an inch of my life." (J.Steinbec, Travels with Charley).

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* There is also a purely syntactic approach which is called **functional** (A. Kennedy, R. Woddell, C. Pollock)

* *The blind, the dead, the wounded, the accused* are partially substantivized, we see no morphological changes, no new paradigms.

“No sooner was he settled anywhere than he would light unexpectedly upon a new *find*.” (A. Christie, Selected Stories).

Semantic Relationships in Converted Pairs

There are several typical relations between members of converted pairs:

N → V

1. To fulfill the action characteristic of a noun: “to father”, “to ape”, “to pussycat”, “to wolf”.
2. To act with the help of a thing described by a noun” “to chain”, “to finger”.
3. To provide with a thing described by a noun: “to curtain”, “to cuff”.
4. To place the object: “to blacklist”, “to pocket”.
5. To deprive of the object: “to skin”, “to dust”, “to weed”.

V → N

1. A singular action: “to jump – a jump”, “to move – a move”.
2. The action of object or person: “to drill – a drill”, “to dig – a dig”.
3. The place of action: “to forge – a forge (кузница)”, “to ride – a ride” (место для верховой езды).
4. The object or result of action: “to find – a find”, “to tear – a tear (дыра)”, “to peel – a peel (кожура)”.
5. The distance covered: “to sweep – a sweep” (величина взмаха), “to pace – a pace (величина шага)”.

A word coined by conversion is capable of further derivation: view (to watch TV) → viewable, viewer, viewing.

Conversion may be combined with composition forming nouns out of verb-adverb combinations: a breakdown – to breakdown, to make up – a makeup, to setback – a setback.

Semantically such nouns are connected with verbal phrases.

Among semantic criteria which are used to establish the direction of derivation in conversion we distinguish the frequency criteria. A less frequent word is usually a derived word. “Thus “to author” is derived from “author”, “to

waterproof" – from "waterproof". The semantic structure of a derived word ("dog" – "to dog") is more simple.

Occasional conversion has a certain stylistic value:

"She has *out* – *Barbared* Barbara herself".

"I shall *diamond* you!"

"Don't *now-then* me!"

MINOR WAYS OF WORD-BUILDING

Back-Formation or Reversion

is a morphological way of word-building by **subtracting** a real or supposed affix from words through misinterpretation of their structure. The most frequent is the pattern V_{stem} + er. The process is viewed diachronically. On the synchronic plane we may not feel any difference between *butler* and *painter*. But *painter* appeared from *to paint* while the verb *to butle* - "to act or serve as a butler" is derived by subtraction of *-er* from a supposedly verbal stem in the noun *butler*. A very productive type of back-formation in present-day English is derivation of verbs from compounds with *–er* and *-ing* as final elements.

E.g. *to air–condition* (from *air-conditioner*), *to thought-read* (from *thought-reader*), *to baby-sit* (from *baby-sitter*), *to house-clean* (from *house-cleaner*), *to tape-record* (from *tape-recorder*), *to beach-comb* (from *beach-comber*). Structural changes in back-formation are preceded by semantic changes (demotivation). The latter influences the morphological structure.

Butler appeared from OFr *boutiller* "bottle bearer" – the man-servant in charge of wine. Now it means "the chief servant of a rich household who is in charge of other servants, he receives guests and directs the serving of meals."

Shortening (Clipping or Curtailment)

is the reduction of a word to one of its parts, building new words with the help of subtraction of a part of the original word. It exists in English from the XV-th

century and has gained a special productivity. A lot of neologisms are formed in this way: *detox (detoxification)* – часть больницы или клиники, где лечат алкоголиков и наркоманов, *lib (liberation), scrip (prescription).* A shortened word is different from its prototype in meaning, style and usage. We classify shortenings according to the position of the clipped part:

apocope – the final part of the word is clipped:

gym – gymnasium, photo - photograph, lab – laboratory, prep – preparation, exam – examination (this type is numerous).

apheresis – the initial part of the word is clipped:

cute – acute, story – history, sport – disport, chute – parachute (this type is less numerous).

syncope – the middle part of the word is clipped: *maths – mathematics, specs – spectacles, fancy – fantasy, ma'am – madam.*

a combination of initial & final clipping: *fridge – refrigerator, tec – detective, flu – influenza.*

Clipped forms exist in the language alongside with prototypes. Shortening produces words in the same part of speech. the majority of clipped words are nouns *. Sometimes it is very difficult to establish a connection between the two words: *chap + chapman, fan – fanatic.* It is typical of curtailed words to render only one of the secondary meanings of a polysemantic word:

- *to double* (умножить, увеличить в 2 раза, сыграть в октаву, сбежать – военный термин);
- *to dub* – дублировать фильм.

What are the reasons for the considerable role of shortening in Modern English word-building? Linguistic causes – analogical extension, modification of form on the basis of analogy – English monosyllabism. Extralinguistic causes – rapid tempo of modern life.

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* Shortened adjectives are very few and complicated by suffixation (**comfy – comfortable, mizzy – miserable**). Shortened verbs are rare.

Graphical Abbreviations. Acronyms

A growing custom to use laconic forms, to call countries, different official organizations by initial abbreviations typical of written speech was established in English since 30_s – 40_s of the XX-th century. They are very popular on the threshhold of the XXI-st century.

There are two types of orthoepic correlation between written and spoken forms. If the abbreviated written form is read as an ordinary English word it is called an **acronym**: *UNO* – United Nations Organization, *USA* – United States of America, *NATO* – North Atlantic Treaty Organization, *radar* – radio detection and ranging, *TESOL* – Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. Coining new words from the initial letters of phrasal terms is explained by the requirement for a strong signal in the minimum time.

If the abbreviated written form retains alphabetical reading it is pronounced as a series of letters: *BBC* – the British Broadcasting Corporation, *GI* – Government Issue, *DOD* – Department of Defense, *GOP* – Grand Old Party (Republican), *FBI* – Federal Bureau of Investigation (cf. Russian ФБР), *MP* – Memeber of Parliament or Military Police.

A special type of graphical abbreviations is used in writing to replace full forms of words and to economize time, space and effort. *N.Y.* – New York, *X-mas* – Christmas, *B.A.* – Bachelor of Arts, *U-boat* – a submarine, *U-language* – upper-class language.

Latin abbreviations typical of written speech may be replaced in reading by their English equivalents: *e.g.* – exempli gratia, *p.m.* – post meridiem, *ib (id)* – ibidem, *i.e.* – id est, *op.cit*. –opus citato, *cf.* – conferre.

There are certain graphical abbreviations which are in active use:

Apt. Apartment – квартира

Blvd. Boulevard – бульвар

P.O. – Post Office – почта

Rd. – Road – дорога

Rw. – Railway – железная дорога

St. –Saint – святой

St. – Street – улица

Names of American States:

AL – Alabama, FL – Florida, NB – Nebraska, OK – Oklahoma

Days of the Week:

Mo – Monday, Tues – Tuesday, Fri – Friday

Months:

M. – May, Mar. – March, Oct. – October, J. – July

Special Signs:

@ - at the rate of – по цене

/ - and, or – и, или

- number – номер

& - and – и

© - copyright – авторское право

Miscellanea:

c – cents – центы

D/A – documents attached – документы приложены

ft – foot – фут (30, 48 см)

Inc. – Incorporated – имеющий статус корпорации

LE – Latest estimates – последние данные

M & S – marketing & sales – маркетинг и продажи

N/C – no change – без начислений

OH – overhead expenses – накладные расходы

do. ditto – то же самое

hrs – hours – часы

enc(l). – enclosure – приложение

intl. – international – международный

et, al – et alii (лат.) – и другие

i/c – in charge of – исполняющий обязанности

COD – cash on delivery – оплата наложенным платежом

A/R – all risks – любая случайность

Blending

has always been the object of special attention and received different names: *blends, fusions, telescoping, portmanteau words, contamination*. Blends are words that combine two words including sometimes letters or sounds in common as a connecting element. In such a word the final part of the first IC may be missing and the second constituent is presented by a stem of which the initial part is missing:

motel – motor + hotel, cinemactress – cinema + actress,

fruice – fruite + juice, smog – smoke + fog.

The word *snob* which is defined in modern dictionaries as a person who pays too much respect to social position or wealth, or who despises persons of lower social position. It originates from *sine nobilitate*, written after a name in the registry of fashionable English schools (Iton, Harrow, etc.) to indicate that the bearer did not belong to nobility. The word was introduced to the literary tradition by W.M. Thackeray.

There are two types of blends: the additive and the restrictive. In the first type the components are synonymous and complete each other: *brunch = breakfast + lunch, tranceiver = transmitter and receiver*. In the second type the first element modifies the second: *positrone = positive + electrone*.

Blends play a considerable role in building neologisms, thus they constitute 4,8 % of new words in the Barnhart dictionary Ist.-ed, 8 % - in the II-nd edition. The most productive is final clipping of the 1-st component:

Europlug – European plug – электровилка, применяемая во всех странах Европы; *cigaretiquette* – cigarette + etiquette; *workaholic* – work + alcoholic – трудоголик; *kidvid = kid + video* – детские телевизионные программы; *disohol = diesel + alcohol* – смесь дизельного топлива и этилового спирта; *slimnastics = slim + gymnastics.*

Blends reflect the tendency towards univerbalization and rationalization of the language, their motivation is not always clear; they are domineering in advertising, mass media, colloquial speech, trade and marketing.

Adidas = Adi + Dassler – основатель компании

dancercise = dance + exercise

jazzercise = jazz + exercise.

Other examples are:

cottoncracy, cottonopolis, porkopolis, churchianity, anonymuncul, subtopia, dixiecrat, wegotism, Trumanburger.

Onomatopoeia

(sound imitation)

When we speak of motivated words in English first of all we mention words motivated with reference to extra-linguistic reality i.e. those which reflect natural sounds: *ding, bang, babble, moo, crash, etc*. We name an action or a thing by reproducing a sound associated with it (these are not real sounds – different languages have different sounds to represent reality: чирикать – *churrup, twitter (E), pépier (F), zwitschern (G).*

It is possible to distinguish onomatopoeic words into those produced by human-beings for expressing feelings: *giggle, grunt, whisper, chatter*, those, produced by animals, birds and insect: *buzz, cuckoo, new, roar, hiss, honk,* those imitating sounds of nature and the objects of the sounding world: *whip, splash, tinkle, buzz, crash.* Very often onomatopoeic words develop transferred meanings; thus roar can be applied to a loud-mouthed person, *whine* is not only a long complaining cry or a high-pitched sound made by a miserable dog but also a human complaint esp. about trivial things. The metaphorical possibilities here are unbounded.

Sound Interchange

is not productive in Modern English but exists as a survival of the language's past: *food - feed, speak - speech, life - live, long – length, blood – bleed, wide –*

width, etc. It may be either the result of **ablaut or vowel gradation**: *bear – burden, ride – road, strike – stroke, везу – воз, несу – ноша* or **vowel mutation or umlaunt**: *full-fill, tale – tell, whole – heal.* Consonant interchange is also caused by phonetic surroundings: *speak – speech, bake – batch, wake – watch.* No neologisms are formed by sound interchange, it only serves to distinguish one long-established word from another.

Distinctive Stress

is also non-productive in Modern English: *'present – pres'ent, 'accent – ac'cent, 'contrast - cont'rast, 'conduct - con'duct*. These words were F. borrowings with original stress on the last syllable. Verbs retained it on the analogy with E (to be'come), nouns were assimilated. It may be referred to adjectives and verbs: *'abstract - abstr'act, 'perfect - perf'ect*. In many cases verbs and nouns have stress on the first syllable: *figure, quarrel, comment, preface* and on the second: *defeat, escape, attack, advance, research.* Stress alone is not sufficient to distinguish words.

SEMASIOLOGY

WORD-MEANING, ITS STRUCTURE

The meaning of words, its structure, change and development are studied by **semasiology** ("sema" – sign, "logos" – learning).

The definition of lexical meaning may be based on the relation between the object or notion and the name (through concepts), on the situation in which the word is uttered. Though meaning cannot be studied instrumentally strictly and objectively we cannot exclude it from linguistics which treats it as the realization of concept or emotion by means of language system.

When we take into consideration only referential functions of words it means that we ignore the pragmatic functions of the language – communicative, emotive, evaluative, phatic, esthetic, ideological, national, cultural, etc.

There are no words without lexical and grammatical meaning. Grammatical meaning unites words into parts of speech: *books girls, tables* have a common grammatical meaning but different lexical meanings; they are characterized by a common system of forms in which their grammatical categories are expressed.

Lexical meaning includes two components: **denotational and connotational.**

Denotational component is present in every word and is regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language, due to the denotational component people understand each other: it makes human communication possible. It is given in every explanatory dictionary which try to formulate the simplest concept:

- month – any of the twelve parts into which the year is divided.
- savannah - treeless, grassy plain, in tropical and subtropical America and East and West Africa.
- sausage – chopped up meat, etc. flavoured and stuffed into a casing or tube of thin skin.

Denotational component of meaning shows what the word refers to.

Connotational component is connected with pragmatic communicative value of the word, it shows where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what context it is used.

Connotational component includes stylistic, emotional, evaluative types of connotation.

Stylistic connotation (component of connotation) shows the stylistic characteristics of every word: neutral, bookish, poetical, colloquial, slangy, jargon, vulgar (*parent*, *father*, *dad, daddy*, *pop, old man, oldie, octogenarian, oldster*).

Evaluative component of connotation expresses approval or disapproval, positive and negative attitude towards what you say. It may be rational and emotional.

Emotional evaluation is connected with the expression of our emotions.

Stylistic Stratification of the Vocabulary

Stylistic reference of words gives "stylistic passport" to every word of the vocabulary. Stylistics gives recommendations to the actual use of words and stratification of the vocabulary from the point of view of style, it is based on the aesthetic value of words and their social prestige.

Though stylistic scale demonstrates only the general principle of the aesthetic differentiation of the vocabulary it is possible to single out word-classes of definite stylistic value.

Poetic words (morn, street, sylvan, spouse) constitute the highest level of the scale. Their aesthetic value is great.

Bookish (learned) words are used in cultivated spheres of speech and may have synonyms among neutral words: to begin – to initiate, man – individual, answer – respond.

Neutral words are used in every sphere of communication and constitute the overwhelming part of the vocabulary: the, he, they, do, town, dog, think, etc.

Subneutral words are subdivided into **colloquial words, jargon words** and **vulgar words.**

1. Colloquial words include: colloquial words proper: dad (father), chap (fellow), exam (examination); phonetic variants of neutral words: gaffer (grand-father), feller (fellow), baccy (tobacco); diminutives of neutral (or of colloquial) words: Johny, Annie, antie, granny; colloquial meanings of polysemantic words: spoon (a man of low mentality), card (a man, a type) handful (smb. or smth. causing trouble).

2. Jargon words are informal, often humorous substitutes of neutral or formal lexical unites which may express disrespect.

As every professional group has its own jargon we distinguish students' jargon, soldiers' jargon, medical jargon, lawyers' jargon, etc.: a crib (шпаргалка), to cut a lesson (убежать с урока), a screamer (смешная комедия), walkie-talkie (переносный телефон).

The term **jargon** is often confused with the term **slang**. To clarify the point it is appropriate to apply **jargon** to professional and social spheres and to refer **slang** to all communicative situations where we are striving for novelty of expression, manifesting protest against established conventions. Slangy synonymic groups are very rich: **MONEY:** jack, tin, brass, oof, slippery, stuff; **FOOD:** chuck, chow, grub, hash.

3. Vulgar words are words which are considered to be too offensive for polite usage. They may express ideas unmentionable in civilized society: various oaths, the so-called "four-letter words", units of low slang.

PLURALITY OF MEANING (POLYSEMY)

The majority of words in English have a wide range of meanings, they are polysemous. Thus the word f a m i l y, a simple and well-known word has such meanings, realized in the following contexts: 1. She lost both her families. 2. My

family comes from Oregon. 3. English belongs to the West-Germanic family of languages. 4. The cat family includes lions and tigers.

A certain amount of words are monosemantic: kidney, month, epithet. The majority of them belong to terminology.

In a polysemantic word different meanings are closely interrelated. Now that the meaning is global it cannot be presented as a set of semantic variants or multipliers. Such highly polysemantic words as SEE, GO, DO as used in a variety of meanings still preserve their semantic identity. In spite of the fact that the number of meanings in such words has a tendency to grow they remain global units. This quality makes it possible to portray polysemy in a playful way.

The word's meaning can be regarded as a semantic structure where new and old meanings are interrelated forming a hierarchy. If we take a number of lexical-semantic variants of the verb to weight we receive:

1) to measure how heavy smth. is by means of scales;
2) to show a certain weight ("How much do you weigh?");
3) to consider carefully the relative value or importance of smth.;
4) to lift an anchor out of the water;
5) to be considered important when smth./smb. is being judged.

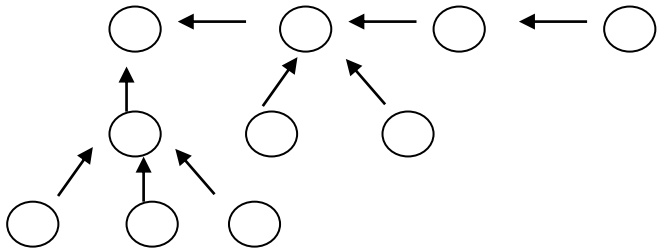
We should also relate meaning to pragmatics – the way in which sentences are actually used and interpreted in speaker-hearer communication – the context of usage helps to realize a number of additional meanings.

Topological Kinds of Polysemy

Fellow

1) one, who shares with another in a profession, a partner, colleague, worker (obs.);
2) one that is associated with another in habitual or temporary companionship, a companion, comrade (now rare);

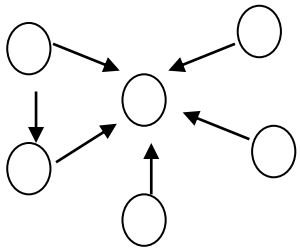
3) an agreeable or pleasant companion, usually one who is fond of feasting and good company;
4) the complementary individual of a pair; the mate;
5) one who shares with another in any attribute, one belonging to the same class (in position, rank, ability, etc.);
6) one of a company or party whose interests are common, a number;
7) in college and university use: a) the name given to the incorporated members of a college or collegiate foundation; b) applied to the holders of certain stipendiary positions;
8) the title given in various learned societies;
9) a familiar synonym for man, male person.

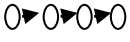


Irradiation here is connected with concatenation.*

Kid

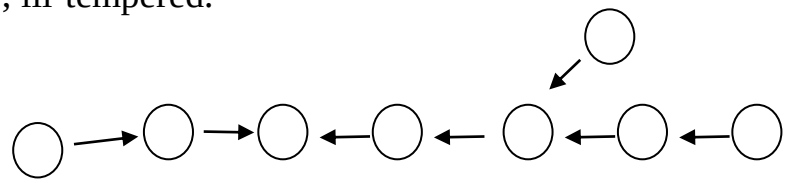
1) the young of a goat;
2) the flesh of a young goat;
3) a) the skin of a kid; b) leather made from kid-skins;
4) a pair of small stars in the constellation Auriga, represented as Kids held in the hand of the charioteer;
5) (sl) a child, esp. a young child.



* Irradiation  and concatenation  demonstrate different ways of meaning development

Ugly

1) having an appearance or aspect which causes dread or horror; frightful, horrible;
2) of events, times: dreadful, terrible (obs);
3) offensive or repulsive to the eye; unpleasing in appearance;
4) morally offensive or repulsive; base, loathsome, vile;
5) offensive or unpleasant to the smell of taste;
6) offensive to refind taste or good feelings; disagreeable, unpleasant;
7) somewhat hazardous or perilous;
8) cross, angry; ill-tempered.



In English polysemy is highly developed due to the monosyllabic character and the predominance of root words. In most frequent English words the average number of meanings amounts to 25: they are called its lexico-semantic variants (LSVs). Taken together they constitute the semantic structure of the word.

Style

1) manner of writing and speaking; manner of doing anything;
2) quality that marks out smth. done or made as superior, fashionable & distinctive;
3) fashion in dress;
4) general appearance, form or design, kind or sort;
5) right title used when addressing smb.;
6) *implement used in ancient times for scratching letters on wax-covered surfaces…**

* It is the oldest original meaning of the word.

Word meaning may be *direct* and *figurative, concrete and abstract, primary and secondary, central and peripheral, general and special.*

When we present LSVs of any word in a dictionary we do not place the earliest known meaning (etymological) as the first own, we usually begin with present-day meaning which is the most frequents. Though in actual speech a word depending on the context may acquire a lot of additional (contextual) meanings still p o l y s e m y belongs to LANGUAGE, not to SPEECH; contextual meanings are not registered in dictionaries which deal only with the most typical meanings, not cases of nonce (occasional) usage.

What is the semantic structure of a polysemantic word?

A structured set of interrelated lexical variants with different denotational and sometimes also connotational meanings. LSVs are united by the existence of a common semantic component. Is there any hierarchy of LSVs and shades of meaning within the semantic structure of a word? Certainly, we can establish the priority of this or that LSV and measure the distance between them.

In order to state which of the meanings of a polysemantic word are employed we must determine the minimal stretch of speech to reveal this or that LSV – its c o n t e x t (a combination of an indicator or indicating minimum + the word the meaning of which we state in a given utterance). We can speak of lexical, syntactical and mixed context: thick hair, thick soup, thick wood, thick layer. If we speak of syntactical context the syntactic pattern is important: ”to get” in “I’ve got what you say”.

CHANGE OF MEANING

The semantic structure of words never remains stable: it is in a state of constant development. These changes are first of all determined by the social nature of the language. New things and notions appear every day – words change their meaning together with the progress of human civilization: a human

mind achieves a more exact understanding of the surrounding world. The history of the social, economic and political life of people, cultural and scientific progress necessarily leads to changes in the word-meaning.

Each social group is characterized by peculiarities of nomination and a word may acquire these peculiarities. Thus, the noun *cell* in different contexts suggests different notions for biologists, lawyers, clergy, electricians. The word *case* [1] - 1. instance or example of the occurrence of smth.; circumstances or special conditions relating to a person or thing; 2. legal question to be decided in a law court; 3. change in the form of a noun or pronoun; *case* [2] - 1. box, bag, covering, container; 2. (printing) upper case-capital letters; lower case – small letters. Historical analysis of word-meaning helps us to trace how it develops and reveal the primary meaning of words which is in some cases so far from modern meaning. Thus *legend* was originally "a book describing the life of saint people", *left* meant "weak", *hospital* – "a place to receive guests", *train* – (шлейф) a part of a female festive frock, *nice* meant "ignorant" in Latin and "silly" in OFr, *sorrow* meant "ulcer" and "grief", *ponder* – to measure the weight".

Classifying different types of semantic changes we can observe that in some cases the volume of meaning is either expanded or narrowed; in other cases the connotational component of meaning is affected by changes: a word may acquire additional emotive-evaluative shades of meaning.

Modifications of the scope of meaning are termed "specialization" and "generalization".

OE *fuƷol* came to denote *fowl* (domestic bird);

cenotaph (an empty tomb) developed into *the Cenotaph* – a monument in London in honour and memory of soldiers killed in I-st and II-nd World Wars.

OE *hund* came to denote *hound* (a special hunting dog).

OE *tacen* (sign) is restricted in meaning to something small and unimportant which may represent smth. more valuable and significant – *token* of love, gratitude, respect.

OE *mete* (food) denotes *meat* (edible flesh of killed animals).

Other examples of specialization of meaning are *room, corn, deer, write, teach.*

Generalization of meaning occurs when the scope of the new notion is wider than that of the original one. We may connect it with a higher order of abstraction than in the previous meaning.

stock meant originally supply of wood;

Now: store of any goods.

rival meant a person living on the other side of the river;

fiction - something invented or imagined (contrasted with truth)

Now: branch of literature concerned with stories, novels and romances.

Mausoleum – the tomb of the tsar Mausol in Halicarnace (IV a.d.).

citizen - a person living in the city (originally).

Now: a person who has full rights in a State either by birth or by gaining such rights.

ready (ræde) meant originally "prepared for a ride"

thing meant "what was said or decided upon"

Now: it can substitute almost any noun and receives the force of a pronoun.

person (a) (L) means "the mask used by an actor". per – "through", sōnāre – "to sound" (masks with megaphonic effect.). The name was transferred metonymically to a person.

Now: man, woman.

Changes depending on the social attitude to the object and connected with social evaluation and emotions are called **amelioration** and **pejoration** or **elevation** and **degradation.**

Thus, in OE *cwen* meant woman. Cf.: *queen; cniht* (a young servant). Cf.: *Knight; sti*ȝ*weard* meant a person who took care of pigs. Cf.: *steward. Marescealc* meant a person who cleaned horses. Cf. *Marshal; Gentle* meant "well-born" (including only the social values) and came to denote "mild, quiet, careful; not rough, violent, severe".

Gentleman (hist.) – man of good family attached to a court or to the household of a great noble. Now: man who shows consideration for the feelings of others.

Pejoration or **degradation** of meaning is connected with derogatory and scornful attitude towards persons, things and objects, lowering smb. or smth. in social scale. French *villain* (Lat. *villanus*) originally meant *farm servant, Boor* (Germ. *Bauer*) originally meant *peasant***.**

Blackleg originally meant a sheep-disease; present-day: meaning a person who offers to work when other workers are on strike.

Gossip, blackguard, clown, churl and other words of this type demonstrate development of derogatory meaning.

TRANSFER OF MEANING

A **metaphor** is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity and thus is actually a hidden comparison. Poetic metaphors are always fresh and unexpected while linguistic metaphors especially when they are dead are the result of long usage, the comparison is completely forgotten and the thing named often has no other name.

Very many linguistic forms are used for more than one typical situation. We speak of the head of an army, of a procession, of a household and a head of cabbage, of the mouth of a bottle, cannon or river, of the eye of a needle and the hooks and eyes on a dress; of the teeth of a saw; of the tongue of a shoe or of a wagon; of the neck of a bottle and a neck of the woods; of the arms, legs and

back of a chair; of the foot of a mountain; the hearts of celery. A man may be a fox, an ass, or a dirty dog; a woman – a peach, lemon, cat or goose; people are sharp and keen or dull, or else bright or foggy; as to their wits, warm or cold in temperament; crooked or straight in conduct; a person may be up in the air, at sea, off the handle, off his base or even beside himself, without actually moving from the spot. Metaphors are based on different types of similarity: of shape and function (head of a table), duration of time and space (long speech; short time); sometimes we deal with psychological and mental notions which resulted from the transfer on them of space relations.

Caterpillar (гусеничный ход), *feeler* (осторожный вопрос) от "усик насекомого", "щупальце"; *snail* (медлительный человек) от "улитка", *bulb* (электрическая лампочка) от "луковица растения", *branch* (отрасль науки, промышленности) от "ветка дерева".

A special type of metaphors includes transitions of proper names into common ones: a *Shylock* (человек беспощадный при заключении сделок, главный персонаж "Венецианского купца" Шекспира), a *Vandal***,** a *Philistine***,** a *Cicero***,** a *Venus***,** a *Scroodge***.**

Metonymy is a transfer based upon the association of contiguity. It is a shift of names that are known to be in some way or other connected in reality or the substitution of the name of an attribute of a thing for the name of the thing itself.

- **cane** – камыш, тростник → трость из такого материала;
- **coin** – клин для чеканки монет → монета;
- **sable –** соболь → мех соболя;
- **silver** – металл - столовое серебро
  - серебряная медаль (a silver)

The Crown stands for the British monarchy;

Downing Street - the British Government;

Hand – handwriting, one's mode of writing.

Through metonymic transfer we may turn proper names into common ones.

Volt – an Italian physicist → a unit of voltage in physics;

Bobby *(Robert Peel) – the founder of the system of the British police → a British policeman;*

Wedgewood – the founder of the production of China → a sort of British china (porcelain and pottery).

There are numerous examples of geographical names turning into common nouns especially with reference to various stuffs and materials: *astrakhan (fur), china (ware), damask (steel), holland (linen), morocco (leather)* which may become international: *champagne, burgundy, madeira, cheddar, a sandwich, a hooligan.*

Hyperbole is an exaggerated statement which must not be understood directly: *a monster, a nightmare, death itself.*

See also: *I have heaps of time, I beg a thousand pardons, he was thunderstruck.*

The opposite to hyperbole is *understatement or litotes* – expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrary: *not half as bad, not small, a pool (about the ocean), no scoundrel (an honest man).*

Euphemisms are words which replace unpleasant, offensive, harsh and disagreeable lexical units: *deceased* (dead), *deranged* (mad), *disease of the age* (cancer), *garbage collector* (dustman), *the unpriviledged* (the poor); the earliest euphemisms were connected with moral and social taboo: *WC* or *usual conveniences* (water closet), *in the family way* (pregnant), *a paying guest*, **a** *man-to-stay-with-us* (a lodger), *in a state of intoxication* (drunk).

SEMANTIC GROUPINGS IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

SYNONYMS

Every language has in its vocabulary a lot of words, different in their phonetic shape, usage, collocation, connotations b u t similar in meanings – their **denotational** component is identical or nearly identical:

To slay-to kill-to do in-to murder;

Anger-wrath-rage-fury-indignation-ire.

Usually synonyms belong to the same part speech and may be interchageable in some contexts.

As the majority of English words are polysemantic, frequent words have many synonyms. The semantic structure of polysemantic words sometimes coincides in more than one meaning but never completely. Even mirror (polished surface that reflects images) and looking-glass (a mirror made of glass) are not totally identical in their meaning.

In a synonymic group loving-affectionate – devoted – fond – doting, **"loving"** and **"devoted"** are used with a positive evaluation, **"affectionate"** is neutral as well as **"fond"; "doting"** may render disapproval. **"Loving"** describes the inner emotional state, **"affectionate"** – a tender feeling which may be displayed in caressing and other manifestations, **"devoted"** demonstrates one's faithfulness, readiness to spend time and effort, **"doting"** underlines foolish, exaggerated feeling which may be blind.

In this synonymic group its members differ in rendering the basic notion, in shades of meaning and degree of intensity.

We call such synonyms **ideographic**; they express the same idea but are not fully identical in their referential content.

In a synonymic group visage – countenance – face – phiz – muzzle – snout – clock – mug its members constitute **stylistic** synonyms and we see that the presence or absence of stylistic colouring may be also accompanied by a difference in emotional colouring and evaluation.

The difference in the shade of meaning is in many cases supported by difference in style; thus we deal with **ideographic -stylistic synonyms**: Mad – maniacal – crazy – crazed – insane – demented – deranged.

We see that mental disorder is rendered by synonymic words which differ not only by shades of meaning and degrees of intensity but also by their stylistic characteristics – some of them are neutral (insane), some – bookish (demented, maniacal), some – colloquial (crazy, crazed).

Synonymic groups contain usually several members differing from each other in some shades of meaning, degree of intensity, stylistic reference and emotional colouring. **Synonymic dominant** is the most general term of its kind, usually stylistically neutral, sharing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group.

We must not confuse the synonymic dominant with a generic term or **hyperonym** - name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the name of the species **- hyponyms**.

"Insect" is a generic term for "cockroach", "ant", "fly", "flea", "gnat", "moth", etc.

It is universally known that no two words are absolutely identical in their meanings, connotations, ways of usage, stylistic reference, frequency of occurrence. We cannot be sure that even "mothercountry" and "fatherland" are absolutely identical in their meaning, they differ in terms of usage. Thus, we cannot speak of **total synonymy**.

Usually synonyms are words identical with respect to their central semantic features but different in their minor or peripheral features. In this case we deal with the so-called contextual synonyms which are interchangeable only in some contexts.

Synonyms can appear in paradigmatic and syntagmatic sets. Dictionaries of synonyms include words on the basis of relatedness of their meaning. Here we deal with identity and differentiation, continuity and variability as the main parameters. Usually in dealing with synonymy we pay attention to **semantic distinctions** between lexical units as these

distinctions in meaning and usage are very important in choosing the right word in a particular context or speech situation. In dictionaries we find a paradigmatic description of synonyms where the main accent is laid on the points of difference between them. Special supplementary notes in lexicography ("obsolete", derogatory", "poetic", "vulgar", etc.) help us to limit the wrong usage of lexical items, to avoid stylistic mistakes in choosing area of situation.

Sources of Synonyms

The English language is exceptionally rich in synonyms because in the course of its development it was greatly influenced by the languages it came into contact: Latin, French, Danish, Italian, Spanish and etc… Greek and Latin were the basic languages employed by British scholars. Thus, the richest source of synonyms for native words is classical.

I. Borrowing from other languages:

The difference between borrowed words and native elements may be first of all stylistic:

- *empty – devoid (Fr) – vacuous (L);*
- *teaching – guidance (Fr) – instruction (L);*
- *belly – stomach (Fr) – abdomen (L).*

As soon as we introduce a borrowed word into the language it states immediate changes in existing vocabulary. when two words are close in meaning and usage one of them is sure either to change its meaning or to drop out of the language:

- *Beorg* (OE) was replaced by *mountain***;**
- *Niman* (OE) was replaced by *take.*

Land as a highly polysemantic word was used in various contexts but in the course of its semantic development remained only a member of a synonymic group:

Land – earth – ground –soil.

When new synonyms appear in the language the old words modify their meaning and distribution. This process is called s y n o n y m i c d i f f e r e n t i a t i o n and is regarded as one of the laws of the language development.

II. Borrowing of synonyms may take place from numerous dialects and variants of English, especially from American English:

girl - lass (C), charm - glamour (C), child - bairn (C), liquor - whiskey (C);

flat – appartment (Am.), elevator – lift (Am.), sweets – candy (Am.), pictures – movies (Am.)

III. Word Building plays a considerably important role in creating synonyms. Synonyms may be formed practically. by all existing ways of word building: affixation, composition, conversion, shortening, etc.:

return – bring back, deceive – take in, continue – go on, regeneration – feedback, arrangement – layout, vegetables – vegs, mathematics – maths.

A very frequent type of forming synonyms is combing a noun with a verbal stem – with a verb of generic meaning to build a phraseological collocation:

to bathe – to have a bath, to take a bath;

to smoke – to have a smoke;

to walk – to take a walk;

to smile – to give a smile.

These synonyms differ in their aspective and emphatic characteristics.

Of special interest is a group of synonyms with the same root element *(hate – hatred, faithless – unfaithful, goalee – goal-keeper, among – amongst, ungrateful – ingrateful).* They should not be ignored as their total number in the vocabulary amounts to 70.000 word-pairs. One of the members may be obsolete: *fisherman - fisher (obs.), demand - mand (obs.), dislike - mislike (obs.),* stylistically marked: *scanty - scant (bookish), slippery - slippy (coll.), baby - babe (poet.),* territorially marked: *acclimatize - acclimate (American), notice-board – bulletin-board (American).*

IV. A specific source of synonyms to harsh, unpleasant, obscene, blasphemous, offensive words is **euphemy.** Euphemistic substitutions exist in all linguistic communities and historically go back to ancient taboo. Thus, the word God is substituted by phonetically similar goodness or gosh in interjections.

There are certain words expressing ideas considered unmentionable in civilized society. Such indecencies are usually expressed by various euphemistic substitutes. The word bloody is replaced by adjectives and participles beginning with the same sound combinations: blooming, blasted, blessed, blamed. As soon as a substitute becomes generally known and accepted, its euphemistic quality disappears and a new synonym is created. Such words as insane, cemetery, lavatory, which were originally euphemisms to mad, graveyard and water-closet lost their euphemistic character and turned to direct nominations. Among euphemisms we find separate words (to expectorate instead of to spit), phraseological units (to breath one's last instead of to die, to have the sun very strong in one's eyes instead of to be drunk).

One can find in English some jocular words, euphemistic synonyms to an article of clothing – trousers: unexpressibles, unwhisperables, unspeakables, sit-upon's, one-must-not-mention-em-s, indescribables.

Euphemisms which replace tabooed and offensive nominations are opposed to **dysphemisms**, rough, derogatory nominations.

It should be especially noted that subjects prominent in a certain linguistic community always attract a multitude of synonyms. In ancient Anglo-Saxon literature, such as "Beowulf" there were numerous synonyms for sea, hero, battle, woe, fight.

It goes without saying that modern reality presents a large variety of synonyms for quite different objects and notions: money, alcoholic drink, narcotics, sex, crime, various perversions in human relations.

Ex. 1. *money, coin, specie, dough, bucks, beans, do-re-me, the chips, the needlful, wherewithal, greenbacks, spondulicks, billie, lettuce.*

Ex. 2. *amps. (amphetamines), antifreeze (heroin), angie (cocaine), Aunt Mary (marijuana), bammy (marijuana), basketballs (drugs), big-M (morphine), birdwood (marijuana), ashes (drugs), Barbie doll (drugs).*

Ex. 3. *batted (alcohol intoxicated), belcher (a beer drinker), beted (alcohol intoxicatted), binged (alcohol intoxicated), blue Johnnies (the term delirium tremens), boozy-woozy (alcohol intoxicated).*

Ex. 4. *dike (a lesbian; a homosexual woman), faggot (a homosexual), fairy (a homosexual), in drag (wearing the clothing of the opposite sex), pimp (a man who solicits business for a prostitute), queen (a homosexual male), sex pot (one who flaunts one's sexuality).*

When a word acquires a transferred meaning its synonyms develop along parallel lines. This very active form of analogy is called **radiation of synonymes.**

ANTONYMS

Antonyms are words of the same language rendering **contradictory** or **contrary** notions. Complete or perfect antonyms are very rare. Antonyms are always coupled and belong to the same part of speech. They are different in sound form and are characterized by different types of semantic contrast of the denotational meaning.

Among antonyms we distinguish several groups:

1. Contradictories are presented by mutually opposed notions which deny one another: *alive* || *dead, good* || *bad, married* || *unmarried, white* || *black, perfect* || *imperfect, true* || *false.*

2. Contraries are presented by mutually opposed notions which are gradable: *old* || *young, hot* || *cold, slow* || *fast.*

3. Incompatibles are presented by antonyms with the common component of meaning and the reverse of hyponymy with the relations of exclusion (not of contradiction)

morning ≠ *night* ≠ *evening* – time (common)

red ≠ *black* ≠ *blue* – colour (common)

4. Antonyms with a contrary vector of direction:

South || *North, West* || *East, know* || *forget, arrive* || *depart.*

5. Conversive antonyms denote reversive notions:

doctor || *patient, husband* || *wife, lend* || *borrow, tie* || *untie.*

Antonyms are characterized by different structural characteristics: a considerable number of antonyms are root words: *slow* || *fast, clever* || *silly, love* || *hate, rich* || *poor.* Among them there are different parts of speech: adjectives (domineering), verbs, adverbs, nouns.

Derivational antonyms are words with the same root but with affixes which serve to deny the quality stated in the stem. A pair of derivational antonyms form a privative binary opposition:

logical || *illogical, appear* || *disappear, pleasant* || *unpleasant, kind* || *unkind.*

Root (absolute) and derivational antonyms are different from the point of view of morphological and semantic characteristics. While root antonyms form a gradual opposition *clever* – not bright of average mental abilities – not quick-brained – unintelligent – *silly,* derivational antonyms always build a privative binary opposition: *kind – unkind, real – unreal.*

It should be observed that words form antonymic pairs not in every context. Thus *tall* building || *low* building, *tall* tree || *low* tree but: *tall* man || *short* man. *Old* house || *new* house but *old* man || *young* man.

In polysemantic words each of the meanings has its own antonym: *clever* (умный) || *stupid* (глупый); *clever* (даровитый) || *dull* (тупой); *clever* (ловкий) || *clumsy* (неуклюжий).

At the same time, words, which do not form an antonymic pair may be opposed to each other in certain contexts, this becoming **contextual antonyms.**

Antonyms are employed in fiction as a very effective stylistic device. This phenomenon is named "a n t i t h e s i s " (from Greek a n t i "against"; t h e s i s "statement") and is applied to any active confrontation of notions, really and presumably contrastive.

The following example demonstrates the contradictory nature of the referent:

"It was *best* of times, it was the *worst* of times, it was the age of *wisdom*, it was the age of *foolishness*, it was the epoch of *belief*, it was the era of *incredulity*, it was the season of *Light*, it was the season of *Darkness*, it was the spring of *Hope*, it was the winter of *Despair*, we had *everything* before us, we had *nothing* before us … on the right and *in front* and *behind* …

(Ch. Dickens, "A Tale of Two Cities")

Antithesis may concern two different objects with the opposite characteristics and absolute incompatibility:

His fees were *high*, his lessons were *light*…

(O'Henry "The Gifts of the Magi")

"High" and "light" are not antonyms denoting incompatible notions, but their confrontation is quite legitimate in the context.

A considerable number of set phrases are based on antithesis:

dead or alive, black and white, the first and the last, from top to toe, sooner or later.

Antithesis is used in every type of emotional speech of all stylistic registers.

HOMONYMS

Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and origin are called **h o m o n y m s**. (GK. homōnymous – homos "the same", onoma "name").

Homonymy exists in many languages but it is particularly frequent in English with its monosyllabism. (from 2540 homonyms listed in the “Oxford English dictionary” 89 % are one-morpheme words).

Homonyms are subdivided into **homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.**

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling: *back* (part of the body) – *back* (away), *ball* (a round object used in games) – *ball* (a gathering of people for dancing), *bark* (the skin of a tree) – *bark* (a sailing ship) – *bark* (the noise made by the dog).

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning: *air – heir, birth – berth, cite- site – sight, desert – dessert, fir – fur, hoarse – horse, sale – sail.*

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling: *bow* [bəu] – *bow* [bou], *lead* [lJd] – *lead* [lɛd], *tear* [tɬq] – *tear* [tlq].

Patterned homonymy is characteristic of homonyms that have developed from one common source, possess identical lexical meaning and belong to various parts of speech. *Care*$_{n}$ – *care*$_{v}$, *love*$_{v}$ – *love*$_{n}$, *stone*$_{n}$ – *stone*$_{v}$, *drive*$_{v}$ – *drive*$_{n}$.

Full homonyms are words that are homonymous in all their forms (complete homonymy).

Seal – any of various aquatic mammals with a sleek, torpedo – shaped body and limbs in the form of flippers; *seal* – a die or signet with a raised or incised emblem used to stamp an impression on a substance such as wax or lead.

Partial homonyms are word forms that are homonymous in some of their forms (this type of homonymy is characteristic of words belonging to different lexico-grammatical classes).

Seal$_{n}$ – an aquatic mammal (*seal, seal’s, seals, seals’*).

Seal$_{v}$, to close tightly (*seal, seals, sealed, sealing*).

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound and meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged:

Hanged – hung, assure – ensure, ingenious – ingenuous, affect – effect.

The Origin of Homonyms

The intense development of homonymy in the English language is first of all connected with the phonetic identity or words and stems, their monosyllabic character.

In the course of numerous phonetic transformations two or more words accidentally coincide in sound: homonymy develops in this case through **convergent sound development**. Out of 2540 homonyms listed in "The Oxford English Dictionary" 93 % are formed through occasional coincidence in sound:

Sound (Zesund) – sound (sonus), see – sea, knight – night, bee – be, bean – been, cell – sell, fair – fare, son – sun, week – weak.

Homonymy may also develop from polysemy through **divergent sense development**. This process also may be combined with loss of endings and other morphological processes. It may be the result of split of polysemy or polysemy destroy.

Polysemy and Homonymy

When a word has several meanings it is not always an example of **polysemy** or **homonymy**. LSVs cease to be alternations of one and the same unit and become different words. Solving this problem we must turn to dictionaries where a polysemantic word will be treated as a single entry while a homonymous one has separate entry for each of the homonyms. Are there any serious criteria by means of which we can distinguish between polysemy and homonymy? There are t h r e e major factors taken into account:

1) the semantic proximity of the lexical-semantic variants;
2) their derivation capacity;
3) the range of collocability.

In case of polysemy it is easy to discover a central core of meaning which brings the LSVs under a single general notion. Usually they are metaphorically interrelated.

It is most difficult to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy when a word has a number of nominative (and not nominative-derivative) meanings. They are usually nominations of things or actions which developed independently of each other. This **parallel polysemy** is mostly characteristic of nouns and verbs.

If we take board 1) a piece of wood; 2) a company, council; 3) meals, at first sight their semantic proximity does not lie on the surface and it is not clear synchronically whether it's a case of polysemy but a deeper insight on a diachronistic plane helps us to restore the fact that the original meaning "a piece of wood" through metonymic transfers served as the basis for development of additional meanings.

As it was already mentioned, one of the sources of homonymy in language is its development as **the limit of polysemy**. At a certain point new lexical-semantic variants become mutually incompatible. We observe the process of diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word. Various meanings of the same word move away from each other so far away:

Spring
1. *the season between winter and summer;*
2. *a twisted piece of metal that will return to its previous shape after it has been pressed down;*
3. *a place where water comes up naturally from the ground;*
4. *a sudden quick movement or jump in a particular direction.*

The semantic core of the word spring is no longer elastic, it cannot be stretched any further. Thus we receive four separate words which are homonymous. But how can we distinguish between polysemy and homonymy? We must bear in mind that the transition form polysemy to homonymy is a

gradual process and it is not possible to point out the time when two separate words with identical form and sound shape appear in the language.

We must take into account the **semantic proximity** of the lexical-semantic variants; in polysemantic words we look for a central meaning; especially when we have examples of semantic transfer.

It is more difficult to distinguish between polysemy and homonymy when a word has a number of nominative meanings (concrete names referring to things and to actions which have developed independently of each other):

board$_1$ (a piece of wood)

board$_2$ (a company, council)

board$_3$ (meals)

Distinguishing polysemy from homonymy we also take into consideration the derivational capacity of the variants. Homonyms usually develop their own sets of derivative or derived words: *deep – voiced, voicing against the candidate, active voice of the verb*.

One more criterion which differentiates homonymy, from polysemy is the range of the word's collocability:

Cell

1. The number of red blood *cells* is abnormal in his blood analysis.
2. The monk retired to his *cell*.
3. To produce electricity they used alkaline battery *cells*.
4. The police arrested a terrorist *cell*.
5. The old peasant showed the *cells* of a honeycomb to the children.

It should be mentioned that the problem of established strict and reliable criteria for the distinction of different words identical in sound form and different meanings of the same word is hard to solve: synchronically there exists no universal criterion between polysemy and homonymy.

PHRASEOLOGY

is a branch of lexicology dealing with word-groups consisting of two or more words, which taken together, mean something different from the individual words in this group when they stand alone: *at the eleventh hour* (в последнюю минуту), *to cook smb's goose* (погубить кого-либо), *thirty pieces of silver* (цена предательства), *the skeleton in the cupboard* (постыдный семейный секрет); *a white elephant* (ненужная, губительная роскошь).

The way in which the words are put together is often odd, illogical or even grammatically incorrect. Other word-combinations are completely regular and logical in their grammar and vocabulary.

There are different terms to name these word-groups: **phraseologisms, set-expressions, idioms, phraseological units**. The term **idiom** is too polysemantic, it may denote a mode of expression peculiar to a language, it may be applied to a word (*dog-days*), groups of words (*deaf as a beetle* – глухой, как пень), it may also denote a form of expression peculiar to a certain individual, a district (local idiom), a country. The etymology of the word is GK. *idioma* (property, from "idios" – own, private).

Such word-groups are not created in speech but used as ready-made units being contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. In free phrases we can permit substitution of any element: *to act well, to do well, to act badly, to do smth*. In semi-fixed combinations we can change only one element: *to go to bed, to go to school, to go to courts*. No such substitution is possible in set-expressions: they are units of fixed context: *busy as a bee, to take a French leave, to buy a pig in a poke, red tape*. ***To cut bread*** but ***to cut a poor figure*** (жалко выглядеть).

THE ORIGIN OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

There are two origins of phraseological units: native and borrowed. Borrowed phraseological units may be borrowed from other languages by translation or from other variants of English (mainly American), or borrowed in the original unassimilated form.

I. Native phraseological units are connected with English customs, traditions, national realia, historical facts:

By bell, book and candle (jocular) – finally, irrevocably (бесповоротно), one of the forms of excommunication (отлучение от церкви) which ends with the following words: Doe to the book, quench the candle, ring the bell!

Baker's dozen – thirteen instead of twelve. The extra one was the outcome of the imposition of a heavy penalty for underweight. To be on the safe side the baker gave the retailer an extra loaf to the dozen (called in – bread) to avoid all risk of incurring the fine.

To tell it to the bees – a custom many centuries old in country districts, is to tell the bees when a birth occurs in the family, and to hang a piece of black crepe over the hive when a death occurs. The superstition attached to the custom is that unless the bees are told they will not stay. The superstition comes probably, from the belief, as far back as the ancient Greeks, that there was some connection between bees and souls.

To jump over the broomstick – the phrase means "to marry informally" Broomstick is connected with brom, the name for the bit in a horse's bridle. Thus, to **jump over the broom** is to avoid the restraint of a full marriage service, and to wed quietly and informally.

To eat humble pie – this phrase dates back to the old days of feasting off venison, when banquets were given in Baronial Halls. The lords and ladies dined off the flesh of the deer. The huntsmen and the servants of the household had to be content with what were called the "umbles" – the heart,

liver and the entrails. These were made into huge pies. Hence, to eat umble pie meant that you were not of sufficient importance to suite with the household. You were, in point of fact, an inferior person.

II. Phraseological Units connected with English realia:

Blue stocking – a derogative term for a studious woman, which came from a literary club formed by a Mrs. Montague in 1840. Benjamin Stillngfleet, who wore blue stockings, was a regular visitor, and blue stockings became the recognized emblem of membership.

To carry coals to Newcastle – cf. ездить в Тулу со своим самоваром, i.e. to carry goods and materials to places where there are plenty of them.

To come to the end of ones tether – to come to the limit. The simple origin in the rope or chain, by which a horse, or other grass-feeding animals, was tethered to a stake. It could graze only in the confines allowed by the tether. There, its resources of food or exercise ended.

III. Phraseological units connected with the names and nicknames of English kings, queens, scholars, eminent writers, public leaders, etc.

Tumbledown Dick – a contemptuous name for a ne'er-do-well. The origin of Tumbledown Dick was Richard Cromwell, son of the Protector, a poor son of his father.

Cooper-nosed Harry – when Henry VIII had spent his inheritance, he minted a very inferior silver coin. The cooper alloy of the coin soon showed itself through the silver on the more prominent parts, particularly the nose of the face. It earned for Henry the nickname "cooper-nosed" (or "cooper-nose").

Man of Destiny – Napoleon. Sir Walter Scott described him as "The Man of Destiny, who had power for a time to bind kings with chains and nobles with letters of iron".

Queen Anne is dead! – ответ сообщившему устаревшую новость.

According to Cocker – по всем правилам, точно; Э. Кокер автор широко распространенного в XVIII в. учебника арифметики.

IV. Phraseological units connected with historic facts:

One dog, one bull – on equal conditions. A North country saying, meaning "fair play for all". It is derived from Shropshire and the days of bull-baiting there. Only one dog was allowed to be loosed on the bull at a time, hence the phrase, which is even now used extensively for fair play among miners in the North of England.

To fight like Kilkenny cats– to fight with determination to the bitter end. The probable origin lies in the bitter struggle between the municipalities of Kilkenny and Irishtown over the question of their individual boundaries in the XVII th century, which left both of them impoverished.

To chalk it up – the custom is still maintained in many country village public-houses of chalking up drinks supplied on credit on a slate kept the bar.

V. Shakespearisms constitute more than 100 phraseological units in English:

A fool's paradise ("Romeo & Julet") – призрачное счастье, мир фантазий;

The green-eyed monster ("Othello") – ревность;

Midsummer madness ("Twelfth Night") – умопомрачение, чистое безумие;

The seamy side ("Othello") – неприглядная сторона, изнанка чего-либо;

Murder will out ("Macbeth") – шила в мешке не утаишь;

The milk of human kindness ("Macbeth") – бальзам прекраснодушия;

To paint the lily ("King John") – пытаться украсить что-либо, не нуждающееся в улучшении и украшении.

To have an itching palm ("Julius Caesar") – быть взяточником; быть корыстолюбивым, жадным человеком;

Give the devil his due ("King Henry V") – отдавать должное противнику;

That's flat ("Love's Labour Lost") – окончательно (решено), решительно и бесповоротно, коротко и ясно;

To one's heart's content ("Merchant of Venice") – вволю, сколько душе угодно, вдоволь, всласть;

The observed of all observers (“Hamlet”) – центр всеобщего внимания.

The Shakesperian quotations have contributed enormously to the store of the language.

Quotations from such a classical source is a recognized feature of public speech: *Frailty, thy name is woman; Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice; Something is rotten in the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; The rest is silence; There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in your philosophy*.

VI. Such great English writers as Jeoffrey Chaucer, John Milton, Jonathan Swift, Alexander Pope, Charles Dickens and Walter Scott contributed greatly to the stock of phraseologisms:

Quarrel with one’s bread and butter (Swift) – бросить занятие, дающее средства к существованию);

To rain cats and dogs (Swift)

An Artful Dodger – прохвост, пройдоха (прозвище карманника Джона Докинса в романе “Oliver Twist” by Ch Dickens);

Prunes and prism – жеманная манера говорить, жеманство, манерность (“Little Dorrit” by Ch. Dickens);

To laugh on the wrong side of one’s mouth – приуныть после веселья, от смеха перейти к слезам (“Rob Koy” by W. Scott);

What will Mrs. ***Grundy say?*** (“Speed the Plough” by Th. Morton);

Small talk – (“Letters to his Son” by Lord Chesterfield);

Dr. ***Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*** (Robert Lewis Stevenson).

Corridors of power – (Charles Snow)

The Wind of change – ветер перемен (Harold Mc Millain, The British prime-minister used it in 1960 speaking to the South-African parliament.

VII. Bibleisms represent borrowings which are fully assimilated:

To cast pearl before swine;

New wine in old bottles;

The root of all evil;

The olive branch;

A wolf in sheep's clothing;

To beat swords into plough-shares.

VIII. Phraseological Borrowings:

1) A great amount of English phraseological units are connected with ancient mythology, history and literature; some of them have an international character:

Achilles heel, the apple of discord, Augean stables, the golden age, the thread of Ariadne, the Trojan Horse, to cry wolf too often, to rest on one's laurels, a bed of roses, at the Greek calends (ad calendas Graecas).

2) Phraseological borrowings from French were either rendered into English or present translation loans:

after us the deluge (après nous le déluge);

appetite comes with eating (l'appétit wient en mangeant);

the fair sex (le beau sexe);

castles in Spain (châteaux en espagne);

let's return to our muttons (revenons à nos moutons);

3) Phraseological borrowings from German were not numerous:

Blood and iron (Blut und Eisen) принцип политики Бисмарка

The mailed fist (gepanzerte Faust) Вильгельм II, 1897

Storm and stress (Sturm und Drang) – течение в немецкой литературе 70-80 гг. XVIII в.. Период напряжения и беспокойства.

4) Phraseolical borrowings from other languages: Spanish, Russian, Danish, Dutch, Italian, Arabic, Chinese:

Blue blood, the fifth column, the Knight of the Rueful Countenance, tilt at windmills.

The Sick Man of Europe – Николай II о Турции в 1853 г. – любая европейская страна, находящаяся в тяжелом экономическом положении.

An ugly duckling – человек несправедливо оцененный ниже своих достоинств (Г.Х. Андерсен);

To lose face – потерять престиж, быть униженным, обесчещенным (кит. Tiu lien);

Alladin's lamp, an open sesame – быстрый и легкий способ достижения чего-либо.

It is worthy of note that there are phraseologisms which coinside in Russian, English, French, and German without borrowing:

A bird of passage, oiseau de passage, Zugvogel.

IX. Phraseological units belonging to AE are the so-called inner borrowings:

bark up the wrong tree – напасть на ложный след, ошибиться;

a green light – свобода действий;

in the soup – в трудном положении;

to sell like hot cakes – нарасхват;

out of sight – великолепно, несравненно;

small potatoes – мелкая сошка

to look (feel) like a million dollars

time is money (Benjamen Franclin's "Advice to a Young Tradesman", 1748);

the almighty dollars;

a Rip Van Winkle – отсталый, косный человек (W. Irwing);

the last of the Mohicans (F. Cooper)

to bury the hatchet, to dig up the hatchet, to be on the war path;

ships that pass in the night (H. Longfellow) – мимолетные, случайные встречи;

the grapes of wrath – J. How;

hitch one's wagon to a star – Ralf W. Emerson;

the call of the wild (J. London);

the iron heel (J. London);

the big stick (Th. Roosevelt, 1900);

pie in the sky (IWW).

Similarity and Difference between a Set-Expression and a Word

The point of difference between a word and a set expression is the divisibility of a phraseological unit into separately structured elements VS the structural integrity of words. A set expression can be resolved into words – words are resolved into morphemes.

In phraseological units it is possible to make syntactic transformations without destroying their meaning: *The chairman broke the ice // Ice was broken by the chairman.*

CLASSIFICATION OF PHARASEOLOGICAL UNITS

I. The most popular classifications of phraseological units belong to Russian linguists. A synchronic classification of Academician V.V. Vinogradov based on the views of the Swiss linguist Charles Bally takes into consideration the degree of motivation of the unit, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts.

Phraseological fusions demonstrate the highest degree of idiomaticity: the meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole; it is impossible to find full equivalents to them in other languages.

To be sent to Coventry – подвергнуться бойкоту, изоляции. Coventry was a parliamentary stronghold in the Civil War, and troublesome royalist prisoners were sent there for safe keeping;

To kick the bucket – сыграть в ящик;

Cock-and-bull story – небылица, турусы на колесах;

The king's picture – фальшивая монета;

To be on tenter hooks – мучиться неизвестностью, быть как на иголках (крючки для натягивания полотна)

Phraseological unities are motivated through the image created by the whole construction; it is possible to sometimes replace them with synonyms:

To dot the i's and cross the t's – поставить все точки над i, to round the thing off, to complete;

To go through fire and water – пройти огонь и воду;

To flog a dead horse – зря тратить силу;

To skate on thin ice – рискнуть.

Phraseological combinations are motivated, semantically transparent; one of their components is used in its direct meaning while the other can be used figuratively:

to get in touch with, to take effect, to take revenge, to hold office, to lose one's way.

II. In the classification suggested by a representative of the linguistic school of St. Petersburg's university prof. N.N. Amosova the accent is made on context.

Phraseological units are units of **fixed context** which is characterized by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them.

P h r a s e m e s (which are always binary) contain one component which is phraseologically bound, the second serves as the determining context:

green eye (ревнивый взгляд), *green years* (юные годы), *green wound* (незажившая рана), *green hand* (неопытный работник), *green finger* (садоводческое искусство), *green wood* (невыдержанная древесина).

I d i o m s possess the meaning which is created by the whole; individual meanings of the components may either be retained or lost: *to know the ropes* (владеть в совершенстве), *to pin one's heart on one's sleeve* (не скрывать своих чувств). A knight in the "brave old days", went into combat with his lady's favour pinned to his sleeve.

To play the wrong card (сделать неверный шаг).

III. Prof. A.V. Koonin considers phraseology to be an independent linguistic science and bases his classification of phraseological units on the functions they fulfill in speech. He distinguishes:

1) Nominative phraseological units:

   A grass widow (соломенная вдова), *Indian summer* (бабье лето), *maiden speech* (первая речь нового члена парламента), *pin-up girl* (фотография красотки), *sheet anchor* (последнее прибежище, единственная надежда).

2) Interjectional phraseological units:

   By George! Come, come! Like hell! My foot! (черта с два). *Bless me! Draw it mild!* (не преувеличивай!)

3) Communicative phraseological units:

   (Don't) teach your grandmother to suck eggs (не учи ученого! Яйца курицу не учат!)

   That's all Hookey Walker! (все это вздор);

   Walls have ears (и стены имеют уши);

   You can't serve God and Mammon (Syrian "mamona" mean "riches").

4) Nominative-communicative phraseological units:

To carry the day – взять верх, выйти победителем;

To put one's foot in the mouth – влипнуть, опростоволоситься;

To hand smb. a lemon – обмануть, обмануть кого-либо;

To set the Thames on fire – сделать что-либо необычное.

We should not confuse with phraseological units stable combinations of words that have their literal meaning, and are not of phraseological character: t h e b a c k o f t h e h e a d , t h e b l u e s k y , t o r e a d a b o o k .

In these word-combinations we can change every element, any substitution is permitted. E.g. to go early – "go" may be preceded by any noun or followed

by any adverbial. In semi-fixed combinations we deal with certain limitations (t o g o t o b e d, t o g o t o s c h o o l, t o g i v e a s m i l e).

If substitution is only partial and the elements are constant (fixed) we deal with **a set expression**.

In: *"as busy as a bee", "time and again", "green love"* we see the extreme of restrictions. Here no substitution is possible because it can destroy the integral meaning of the whole, to say nothing of stylistic and emotional colouring. The expression *"a square head"*, for example, is a derogatory name, for a Scandinavian. Thus, *"to cut bread"* and *"to cut a poor figure"* are entirely different: the substitution of "cut" and "figure" are impossible. Only "poor" may be substituted for "miserable", "grand", "ridiculous".

IV. A peculiar classification of phraseological units in the English language belongs to A.I. Smirnitsky. He classifies phraseological units from the point of view of semantic relationship between the components, from the point of view of their structure into one-summit and many-summit phraseological units. One-summit phraseological units are composed of a notional and a form word, as in *"in the soup"* – в затруднительном положении, *"in the pink"* – в расцвете, *"on the rocks"* – в финансовом крахе.

Many-summit phraseological units are composed of two or more notional words; *"to take the bull by the horns"*, *"to wear one's heart on one's sleeve", "to know which side one's bread is buttered"*.

A.I. Smirnitsky classifies phraseological units into traditional phraseological units (фразеологические единицы) and idioms. Phraseological units *("to fall in love", "to take to drinking"*) are stylistically neutral and devoid of metaphorical expressiveness when compared to idioms *("to take the bull by the horns", "to pay through the nose", "to be born on the wrong side of the blanket"*).

V. The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is t h e m a t i c .

It is widely used in numerous English and American guides to idiom, phrasebooks, collections of “unusual” word-combinations. Thus, L.P. Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fisherman, soldiers, hunters, etc.

In some cases the origin of these units is given though the general principle and is not etymological. This principle of classification deserves attention but it does not take into consideration the linguistic characteristics of these units.

PROVERBS, SAYINGS, FAMILIAR QUOTATIONS, CLICHES

They are excluded from phraseology by J. Casares and N.N. Amosova because they are independent communicative units and not fragments of other sentences and because the meaning of component parts does not show any changes when compared to the meaning of the same words in free combinations.

Proverbs express national wisdom, they are instructive and didactic sentences with a traditional and mostly figurative meaning:

The proof of the pudding is in the eating;

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush;

People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.

They have much in common with phraseological units due to the stability of their components and ready-made reproduction in speech. I.V. Arnold, A.V. Koonin, V.V. Vinogradov think that proverbs must be studied together with phraseological units. Set expressions are very often built on their bases:

A drowning man will clutch at a straw;

To clutch at a straw.

Familiar quotations have a literary character and constitute the cultural treasure of the language testifying to the richness of one’s background knowledge, especially those from classical sources, Shakespeare, other celebrities. Sometimes we may preserve the original form:

Cum grano salis (with a pinch of salt), *O tempora, o mores!*

Cherche la femme! Ordnung muß sein!

Clichés are phrases which became habitual and lost their original expressiveness: *the irony of fate, to break the ice, the sleep of the just.*

Sayings are communicative phraseological units of colloquial character expressing positive and negative evaluation which are devoid of didactic force:

Does you mother know you are out? (у вас молоко на губах не обсохло)

Put that in your pipe and smoke it (зарубите это на носу)

Paradigmatic treatment of phraseological units must be completed by the study of their actual usage in speech where they undergo grammatical and lexical changes and determined by the context.

"I am always thinking of the bricks they may drop during my absence".

"Everybody knows him belonging to the apple of his uncle's eye".

Various lexical modifications are more interesting: we may insert a word to intensify and concretize the meaning, making it applicable to this particular situation. "I wasn't keen on washing this kind of dirty linen in public". (C.P. Snow).

To make the utterance more expressive one of the components of the idiom may be replaced by some other;

"You're *a dog in the manger* [mɛlnGq], aren't you dear? And it was true enough: indeed she was *a bitch in the manger"* (A. Christie).

One or more components of the idiom may be left out, but the integrity of the meaning of the whole idiom is retained, e.g.: "I've never spoken to you or anyone else about the last election. I suppose I've got to now. It's better *to let it lie*," said Brown. (C.P. Snow).

In the idiom *"let the sleeping dogs lie"* two of the elements are missing, and "it" refers to the preceding text.

"Bundle wondered vaguely what it was that Bill had or thought he had – *up in his sleeve.* (A. Christie)

(to have a card up one's sleeve).

"She does not seem to think you are *a snake in the grass*, though she sees a good deal of grass for a snake to be in. (E. Bowen)

(a snake in the grass)

REPLENISHMENT OF THE VOCABULARY

NEOLOGISMS

The English vocabulary is in a state of constant development. Some words go to the periphery of the language system, some words come into life. We do not always introduce a new word as soon as a new thing (object) appears in our life. Sometimes a new word is simply coined to avoid monotony, to create an expressive synonym for a word already existing in the language.

25-30 years – during this period we regard a word as a new one. We can never say exactly how many words we have in the language because they appear every day. English like all languages has its resources to allow speakers to say literally anything they choose.

Our language does not cover equally well absolutely everything modern life presents us with and we are constantly adapting the English vocabulary to keep covering our experience.

The modern world is constantly presenting us with new things, relationships between things, and ways of THINKING about life and we are constantly inventing new words.

Entirely new words are even more interesting, because here we see speakers of the language being considerably more creative. We have a lot of words like computer derived from the basic compute. We invent a basic word to televise from television and call this **back-formation**. Even newer are *grunge* and *liaise* from older *grungy* and *liaison*. Throughout history, people speaking English have created brand-new words. Now we have *nimby, wimp, dork, geek, slomo.*

Putting two familiar words together we receive **compound words**: *coach-potato, snail-mail, sound-bite, push-poll*. Sometimes a member of a compound word can be added practically without limit: *-friendly, -free, -babble, -bashing.*

A neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language.

In the process of the evolution of the vocabulary of the language there are 4 elementary stages of the nomination change.

1. The usage of the sign for the nomination of a new object.
2. The introduction of a new sign for the object which has its nomination in the language.
3. The introduction of a new sign for a new object (quality, process) of extra-linguistic reality.
4. The falling out of the sign when it is no longer up-to-date.

In the English language of the last decades units of the first two groups prevail – because the intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meanings of old ones. Thus box has developed several new meanings: in BE it is a TV-set, in AE – a new ZSV (a portable tape-reorder). A TV-set in USA – the tube.

Each new word has its author – the **originator**. If the new word is approved of by society (receives its social approbation) it is lexicalized in the language system. The so-called **purveyors** spread a new lexical unit among masses.

Neologisms are subdivided into:

phonological neologisms;

borrowed neologisms;

semantic neologisms;

syntactic neologisms;

morphological neologisms.

I. Phonological neologisms represent unique configurations of sounds; sometimes they are onomatopoeic coinages. These neologisms are marked by a strong degree of novelty:

zizz (короткий сон), *sis-boomban,* Am. (зрелищные виды спорта), *zap* (стрелять, ударять в зубы), *to whee* Am.sl. (волновать), *yech* [jek] междометие, выражающее сильное отвращение).

II. Borrowed neologisms are also characterized by a strong connotation of novelty. Their phonetic shape and lack of motivation as well as morphological segmentation speak of their "foreignness". Part of them belongs to xenisms (borrowed lexical units reflecting their specific extralinguistic character connected with native realia): *gyro* (GK.) - тонкий слой поджаренного мяса на небольшом кусочке хлеба; *zazen* (Jap.) – медитации, практикуемые в дзен-буддизме; *Kung fu* (Chin). – борьба.

The number of translation-loans among neologisms is not great:

dialogue of the deaf (dialogue des sourds);

gliding time (Gleitzeit);

photonovel (Sp. Foto novela).

III. Semantic neologisms are built through different types of semantic transfer (lexical units acquire new meanings without changing their form):

apple – a derogatory name for an American Indian who is part of or cooperates with the white establishment.

IV. Among morphological neologisms affixational units constitute 24% of all new words. During the last 25 years 103 suffixes participated in the formation of neologisms; some of them have never belonged to affixational nomenclature: *-cade, -ectomy, -emia, -esque, -eteria, -fest, -iasis, -idase, -ification, -igenic, -metry, -mycin, -ol, -ola, -ology, -orina, -orinum.*

We can also point out such frequent semi-affixes as: *-athon, -gate, -gram, -oriented, -pedia, -wide.*

A few Greek semi-prefixes are: *agri-, acqua-, -cardio-, Euro-, hemi-, ortho-, porno-, sexo-, socio-, trans-, xeno-, tele-, dial-, flexi-.*

Telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping; Dial-a-bus, dial-a-meal;

Flexicover, flexinomics, flexiroof

-*Y/ie* suffix retains its productivity in slang: **N + y/ie ⟶ N**;

Groupie – поклонник рок-ансамбля;

Preppie – ученик частной подготовительной школы;

Tekky (techno-freak) – человек, одержимый техническими новшествами.

Very often this suffix is combined with an acronym: Acronym + y/ie ⟶ N:

Yuppie – young and urban professional people;

Yumpie – young upwardly mobile professional people;

Bluppie – black urban professional people;

Among most productive semi-affixes are: -intensive, -wide, -friendly, -nomics, -speak: environment-friendly, profit-intensive.

We can also point out modification of several prefixes:

Anti-man, anti-world, anti-nucleus, anti-hero, anti-novel.

V. Compound neologisms constitute about 30% of the whole mass of new words. Such patterns are N +N ⟶N, Adj +N ⟶N of endocentric character prevail:

glue-sniffing, think-tank, cyberpunk (a genre of science fiction),

Conversion as a way of building new words is less productive amounting to 3 %: *to butterfly* (гулять без цели), *to soft-dock* (дискриминировать отдельных владельцев собственности), *to acupuncture* (лечить иглоукалыванием), *to summit* (принимать участие во встрече на высшем уровне).

Shortening in the sphere of neology retains its productivity: *detox* < *detoxication* (часть больницы или клиники, где лечат алкоголиков и наркоманов), *lib* < *liberation.* Abbreviations and acronyms are exemplified by:

TOEFL – Teaching of English as a Foreign Language;

TESOL – Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages;

ASH – Action of Smoking and Health.

Contamination (Blending, Fusion) demonstrates economy of speech and efforts:

dancercise (dance + exercise)

citringe (citron + orange);

Social Factors and Neologisms

Coining a new world we deal with such social parameters as social status of the speakers, their age, sex, level of education, personal qualities and characteristics. There are certain limitations in choosing new words with offensive vulgar and unpleasant connotations.

For the sake of observing public decencies and political correctness in choosing a new word we prefer lexical units without harsh, obscene, indelicate overtones: thus, not to offend old people, we use the word *middlescence* (период жизни от 40 до 65 лет) on the anology with *adolescene*, *third age* (период жизни от 65 лет до …) is used together with *senior citizen* as well as *golden age* and *silver age.*

Euphemistic neologism may disguise mental and physical defects:

learning disable, special (умственно отсталый);

underachiever (отстающий студент)

mental hospital (психиатрическая лечебница)

A lot of euphemisms – neologisms are built to distract the attention from social angularities – aggression, violence, political blackmail, economic machinations, corruption:

correctional facilities – тюрьма;

community home – исправительная колония для малолетних преступников;

the troubles – вылазки экстремистов в Северной Ирландии;

protective reaction – бомбардировка военных объектов в Ираке

Fourth World – страны, отстающие в экономическом развитии.

Neologisms are registered by special dictionaries of new words:

“A Supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary”;

Berg P. “A Dictionary of New Words in English”;

“The Barnhart Dictionary of New English”;

“The Longman Register of New Words”.

OCCASIONAL WORDS

A peculiar position at the periphery of idiolects is occupied by new words which present the products of individual word-building creative activity of the speakers. Their study helps to define the diapason of word-building possibilities and observe realization of language potentials. Such words are called **o c c a s i o n a l i s m s** (Lat. Occasio – случай).

These lexical units are created to feel the gaps in idiolexicons or as expressive equivalents of ordinary words and word-combinations: *paper-pirates* (журналисты), *diaper-wetter* (грудной ребенок), *headline-grabber* (знаменитость).

Occasional words of all structural types are characterized by unique character and derived or compound structure. They are built by linear patterns of word-building (affixation, composition) and non-linear ones (conversion, substantivation and adjectivazation) or their combination.

The optional qualities of occasional words – their dependence on the context and speech situation.

Polycomponent occasional complexes may be understood without any context:

misery-go-round (J.B. Priestly) – сплошные неудачи, «карусель неудач», *night-before-Christmas-about-to leave-town-operation* (R. Ruark) – ложное представление о второй Мировой войне среди молодых американских солдат – «одна боевая операция – и к Рождеству домой!»

Occasional words are met among nouns (1), adjectives (2), verbs (3) and adverbs (4).

1. It was a relief not to machete my way through a jungle of *what-are-you-talking-aboutery* before I could get at him. (K. Amis).
2. … if it hadn't been for clever Dave he wouldn't be staring in a pawnshop window with a half-share in eighteenpence, a fortune earned by searching for *takebackable* beer bottles on the tips… (A. Sillitoe).
3. "You can't read. You only *pretend-read*. I can read, can't I, Uncle?"(J. Braine).
4. … But the blow is so sudden. I must speak to Mr. Winterbourne. Our hearts are breaking here. (*Sobissimo*). Thank you. I'll wait till you ring me. (R. Aldington)

Occasional compound adjectives of a syntactic type fully reveal their meaning in combination with a noun they determine:

go-to-hell voice (E. O'Brien), *it's-great-to-be-alive feeling* (H. Robbins), *don't-lie-to-me glance* (K. Amis), *Master-what-is-thy-will look* (S. Maugham), *couldn't-care-less attitude* (K. Amis).

Occasional adjectives built through affixation in some cases are characterized by broken valency (combinability of morphemes):

cab-horsy (R. Aldington), *Huxley-Darwinish* (J.B. Priestley), *family-physicianary* (J.K. Jerome).

OBSOLETE WORDS

The lexical system of the English language had been developing for many centuries and reflecting the changes which constantly took place in the life of the English people. Some words dropped out of use (but they may remain somewhere at the periphery of the language system); other words remained only in special contexts such as historical documents and works of fiction.

E.g. De Brancy blew his horn three times, and the archers who stood along the wall hastened to lower the drawbridge and admit them (W. Scott).

Archer – стрелок из лука;

Drawbridge – подъемный мост около замка.

E.g. At each of these gates stood two heralds, attended by six trumpets and a strong body of men-at-arms. (W. Scott).

Herald – (ист) герольд, глашатай, вестник.

Trumpet – труба, звук которой возвещал начало турнира.

Man-at-arms – (ист) тяжеловооруженный всадник

When the thing named by the word is no longer used, i.e. the causes of the word's disappearance are extra-linguistic, the name of the thing becomes an **historism**.

Historisms exist as names of social institutions, social relations, objects of material culture of the past:

Mail (кольчуга), vizor (забрало), halberd (алебарда, вид оружия), scribe (писец), yeoman (иомен, в XIV – XVIII вв. зажиточный крестьянин, мелкий землевладелец).

Other examples of historisms demonstrate their belonging to different spheres of human activity of the past:

Batlet (валек, колотушка), galley (галера), frigate (фрегат), lute (лютня), lyre (лира), clavichord (клавикорды), carl (керл, крепостной, простолюдин), flint-gun (кремневое ружье), bestiary (средневековое собрание басен, сказок, аллегорий о животных).

Archaisms are words which were once in common use but now replaced by synonyms. There is no difference in the denotational component of meaning of both words, they differ only in their connotation, mainly in their stylistic and emotional colouring, imparting to the process of nomination a special ancient flavour, making it lofty and in a way out-of-the ordinary, creating a special atmosphere:

Yon (там), hearken (слушать), foe (враг), hie (спешить), morn (утро), aught (что-нибудь), glaive (меч, палаш, копье), self-blood (самоубийство), chop-house (харчевня, трактир), carry-tail (сплетник), nose-wise (самоуверенный, самовлюбленный), law-monger (подпольный адвокат).

The above-listed examples demonstrate lexical archaisms, while grammatical archaisms are grammatical forms which dropped out of use with the development of grammatical structure of English:

Hath, speaketh, doth, thou speakest, doest-verb forms in the IIId and IInd persons singular.

There are archaic forms of the past: spake, brake, personal pronouns of the IInd and IIId persons singular and plural: thou, thee, thy, thine, ye.

Stylistic effect achieved by the usage of grammatical and lexical archaisms may be illustrated by a fragment of Byron's poetry:

With thee, my bark, I'll swiftly go
Athwart the foaming brine;
Nor care what land thou bear'st me to,
So not again to mine.
Welcome, welcome, ye dark blue waves!

Another fragment:

Whilome in Albion's isle there dwelt a youth,
Who ne in virtue's ways did take delight.
But spent his days in riot and uncouth,
And vex'd with mirth with drowsy ear of night.
Ah, me! In sooth he was a shameless wight,
Sore given to revel and ungodly glee.

It should be once again mentioned that obsolete words very rarely drop out of use forever; the majority of them move to the periphery of the lexicon and their fate is unpredictable.

You can derive the aroma of the epoch from the following ***historisms***:

cataphract – ист. кольчуга

carl – уст. керл, крепостной, виллан, простолюдин

gauntlet – латная рукавица

musket – мушкет

attainor – член большого жюри присяжных

gainage – хлебопашество

soaper – мыловар

childe – чайлд, молодой дворянин

Obsolete synonyms to *modern words are called* ***archaisms***:

law-monger – подпольный адвокат

moonish – подверженный влиянию луны, ненадежный

nose-wise – самоуверенный, самовлюбленный

malt-worm – пьяница

barley-ape – пьяница

self-blood – самоубийство

spoil-paper – бумагомаратель, писака

true-penny – честный, надежный человек

carry-tale – сплетник, переносчик слухов

chop-house – харчевня, трактир

mad-brain – сумасшедший, сумасброд

light-bob – пехотинец

whore-master – груб. развратник, распутник

seamster – швец, портной

epulation – пир, пиршество

doddypoll – олух, дурень

scatterling – бродяга

brew-house – пивоварня, пивоваренный завод

AMERICAN ENGLISH

The appearance of the American variant of the English language is the result of a long process of independent development of the people who settled in a new place to arrange a new way of life. They did not give new names to old things, but very often filled old words with new meanings and borrowed new words from their native languages. In present day reality the same words can have different connotations and implications for Britons and Americans even if they denote the same things and phenomena.

Language is sometimes compared to a castle containing the spirit, the very soul of the people inhabiting it. We can hardly find the soul of the American people in a castle built in the British Isles. It is true that the bricks for the new castle were brought from Britain and the Old World, but the castle itself was built in the new world.

We cannot look at American only through the prism of British psychology and British history. We cannot apply British standards to American values, we must get to know what Americans are like, to understand American values, attitudes and cultural patterns.

American English is, on the one hand a Key to American culture, on the other, it has a growing influence all over the world, especially in the business sphere.

The Main Difference between BE and AE.

There are several approaches to the problem of relationship between BE and AE. There is a well-known joke which defines Britain and America as two countries divided by a common tongue.

Oscar Wild wrote, *"The English have of course, language."* There are scholars who treat British and American English as two different languages. (H.L. Mencken). There are scholars who say that AE is but a "a dialect of the mother tongue" (Norman W. Schur).

There is a more realistic approach – American English is “an equal partner with British English”, but they are not two different languages, they are “varieties of English” (P. Stevens). Actually, the idioms spoken in Britain and America have too much in common to be treated as different languages. Their grammar is basically the same. The main part of the lexicon is essentially the same. Historically, the period of their separate development is too short for them to become absolutely independent.

On the other hand, during this period which is now nearly four centuries, the two nations have been living their separate lives which differ in many aspects: different environments, different political systems, different realities of their everyday life, different contacts with other languages, etc.

English penetrated into America continent at the beginning of the XVII th century. The first English colony was established there in 1607. Thus, American English history is equal to almost four centuries. The earliest period lasted till the end of the XVIII th century and was characterized by the formation of American dialects of the English language. The latest period is marked by the formation of American variant of the literary English language. (XIX – XX cc.). The most characteristic features of AE were formed during the 1st period. The first colonizers were contemporaries of W. Shakespeare, E. Spenser and J. Milton.

Obsolete British words survived in America and a lot of new words were coined to nominate things, objects and phenomena unfamiliar to Britishers. Thus, British *loan* (давать взаймы, ссужать) is fixed by OED in the XIII century and is still used the XVII century. The verb rarely used in Modern English is preserved in America. To *fellowship* (принимать, вступать в товарищество, сопровождать, общаться с кем-либо) could be met in Chaucer’s works and is also survived in AE in a wider sphere of application as well as *guess*, and *homely* (некрасивый, неприятный).

Lexical divergencies were later conditioned by the influence of extra-linguistic factors upon vocabulary: surroundings, nature, flora, fauna: *moose* (американский лось), *live-oak* (виргинский дуб), *hickory* (североамериканский орешник), *gap* (горный проход), *backwoods* (лесная глушь).

The first colonizers were gradually getting accustomed to new agriculture and house-keeping: *corndodger* (кукурузная лепешка), *coleslaw* (шинкованная капуста), *bee* (объединение соседей для совместной работы), *back-settlement* (отдаленное поселение в лесной глуши), *corn* (кукуруза), *lot* (участок земли). A special group of words denoted different realia, connected with life and culture of aboriginal inhabitants of the continent – American Indians: *squaw, moccasin, medicine man, warpath, tomahawk, canoe, wigwam, etc.*

Further enrichment of the vocabulary took place through word-building and semantic transformations and borrowing. In the sphere of word-building the difference between British and American English lies in the intensity of the process. American English is more open to neologisms. Among the most productive ways of word-formation we must mention conversion: *to deed* (передавать по акту), *to tomahawk* (убить томагавком), *to progress* (XX cent – Britain).

Affixation of the early period (XVII-XVIII c-s) employed mostly native suffixes *(-er, un-): blazer* (человек, отмечающий тропу) совр. *trailblazer* (новатор, пионер), formed from *blaze* (прокладывать тропу, делая зарубки на деревьях), *blower* – одна из змей Северной Америки; *drover* – чиновник, который конфисковал скот; *driver* – надсмотрщик за рабами, *unlocated* (незамятая земля, территория), *unlotted* (не подлежащая распределению среди поселенцев).

Borrowed suffixes came to usage by the end of the XVIII century: *demoralize* (подрывать моральные устои), *Americanize* (приспосабливаться к американским условиям), *boatable* (судоходный).

A lot of vocabulary units characteristic of British English acquired new lexico-semantic variants in AE; earlier LSV either continued to exist or disappeared.

Frontier with its additional meaning “вновь освоенный и малонаселенный район, непосредственно примыкающий к пустыне или необитаемой местности” gave birth to *frontierman, frontier country, frontier town.*

Back together with its basic meaning came to denote “глухой, захолустный, отдаленный от центра”: *back countryman, back farmer, back-settlement, back woods.*

Lot (жребий, участь, доля) came to denote a part of virgin territory, belonging to a new farmer, and an official who was in charge of the process was named *lotter, lot-layer*. Later *lot* became “любой участок земли”.

Why AE *store* means “магазин”, “лавка”? At the earliest period of settlement goods which came by water were accumulated, “stored” before they were sold. Thus *to keep store* – иметь магазин, торговать, *store-keeper* – владелец магазина.

BE *barn* – амбар, сарай для сена. In case of need in American households it was also used for cattle: *barn* – конюшня, коровник.

BE *corn* means “любые зерновые структуры”, while in AE the first food gain was “кукуруза” – *corn*. Hence – *cornfield, popcorn, corn-fed*.

In some cases the primary meaning is preserved only in BE: *lumber* (рухлядь, хлам) by the XVIII century came to denote not only “бревна, доски и прочие предметы, преграждающие путь транспорту и пешеходам”, but also лесоматериалы (BE *timber*).

Some borrowings were first taken from the language of American Indians: *squash* – кабачок, тыква, *chinkapin* – карликовые каштановое дерево, *raccoon* – енот, *skunk* – скунс.

French borrowings of the XVII – XVIII centuries are not numerous: *chowder* (тушеное блюдо или густой суп из дичи, рыбы и моллюсков),

caribou – олень карибу, *bayou* – заболоченный рукав реки, *rapids* – пороги реки, *prairie* – прерия.

Dutch borrowings are mostly referred to domestic, everyday spheres of life: *kool sla* → *cole slaw, koekje* → *cookie, krul* → *cruller* (сладкая лепешка), *stoep* → *stoop* (крыльцо), *span* (упряжка лошадей), *boss* – наниматель, хозяин. *Santa Claus* goes back to Dutch *Sant Nikolaas*. The etymology of *Yankee* is rather vague; one of the most convincing versions is to originate it from a diminutive *Janke* (*Jan*) – a name given by Dutchmen from New Amsterdam (New York) to Britishers living in Connecticut. Later this nickname passed to all New Englanders and then to all Northerners.

Normative tendencies of English literature and language connected with S. Johnson's Dictionary already did not concern English colonies in America.

The very term **Americanism** was introduced by Sir John Witherspoon, rector of Prinston university, a well known politician of the War for Independence period in one of his articles written in 1781. In the end of the XVIII century a literary normalized form of AE was still missing.

In the XIX century the number of Americanisms continues to grow and the first examples of their usage are included into historical dictionaries of Americanisms by Craigie and Mathews. The United States of America with its specific state and political structure, political parties and social institutions found its reflection in new political terminology. Such terms as *Congress, Senate, House of Representatives (House), President, Vice President, District Attorney* appeared by the end of the XVIII century. In the XIX century appeared *Administration* (правительство США), *Department of the Interior* (Министерство внутренних дел), *Department of Justice* (Министерство юстиции), *Immigration Department* (управление по иммиграции), *Superintendent of Education* (инспектор учебных заведений), *firewarden* (начальник пожарной охраны), *city marshal* (начальник городской полиции), *recorder* – судебный чиновник, ведающий регистрацией

юридических документов), *caucus* (совещание руководителей партии для составителей планов, выдвижения кандидатов и т.д.).

The evolution of the word *President* deserves special interest. Originally it meant “глава местного правительства колонии или провинции”. Later the term denoted Chairman of Continental Congress, Governor of State and at last Head of American Administration.

American technical vocabulary of railroads considerably differs from that of the British one: *railroad* (Br. railway), *engineer* (Br. engine – driver), *cow-catcher* (Br. plough – предохранительная решетка на паровозе), *freight train* (Br. goods train - товарный поезд), *baggage car* (Br. luggage van), *flat-car* (Br. truck – платформа).

Gold rush and expansion to the West left it trace in vocabulary and phraseology: *forty-niner* – gold-digger who came to California during the gold-rush of 1849, *bad man* (разбойник, угонявший чужой скот), *prairie schooner* (фургон переселенцев), *strike it rich* (напасть на богатое месторождение – fig. быстро разбогатеть, преуспевать), *jump a claim* (захватить участок, на который уже сделана заявка – fig. захватить чужую собственность).

Among words and word combinations which came into use in the XIX century a considerable part is constituted by slang with its derogatory connotations: *slush money* (деньги для подкупа должностных лиц), *floater* (избиратель-гастролер, голосующий за взятку), *bum* (бродяга), *sell-out* (политическое предательство), *lay pipes* (заниматься интригами), *holdup* (грабеж на большой дороге).

A number of new words come into AE by way of borrowing among which the most numerous is a group of Spanish words: *tornado* (ураган), *loco* (название ядовитой травы), *mustang* (мустанг), *bronco* (полудикая лошадь), *canyon* (каньон), *corral* (загон для скота), *patio* (внутренний дворик), *peon*

(батрак), *rancho, poncho, sombrero, bonanza* (золотое дно), *calaboose* (кутузка).

German borrowings are presented by *pumpernickel* (сорт ржаного хлеба), *wiener wurst* (венские сосиски), *frankfurter* (франкфуртские сосиски), *liver wurst* (ливерная колбаса), *zwieback* (сухари), *lager beer* and *black beer* (различные сорта пива).

One of the active advocates of **American Variant // Standard English** was Noah Webster who complied the most characteristic features of AE and published in 1828 “American Dictionary of the English Language”.

A considerable role in the formation of American variant of literary English belongs to Washington Irwing, Fenimore Cooper, Walt Witman, Mark Twain, O’Henry, Jack London.

Modern AE is more open to **neologisms**. Conversion remains the most productive way of word-building. Nouns are easily formed from verbs (“*a frame-up*” from “*to frame-up*”), verbs from nouns (“*to bus*” from “*a bus*”), nouns from adjectives (“*a husky*” from “*husky*”), etc. Back-formation is also very productive: *to edit* (editor), *to laze* (lazy), *to commute* (commuter), *to fax* (a fax).

All kinds of **shortenings** and **portmanteau** words are very popular with Americans:

ad (advertisement), copter (helicopter), auditeria (auditorium +cafeteria).

Speaking about the vocabulary of AE upon the whole it is possible to distinguish three types of lexical units.

1) The common (General English) word-stock.
2) Common ideas, expressed by different words.
3) The same words having different meanings.
4) Words, expressing realia, with no counterparts in the other variant.

The second and the third types are closely connected and produce inconvenience in understanding both variants. This part of the word-stock provides the material for most of the confusions and popular jokes.

AE *suspenders* – BE **braces** (for holding up men's trousers)

AE *garter belt* – BE **suspenders** (for holding up women's stockings)

AE *pants* – BE **trousers**, AE *underpants, shorts* – BE **pants**, AE *vest* – BE **waistcoat**, AE *public school* – BE **state school**, AE *private school* – BE **public school**, AE *faculty* – BE **teachers** (teaching staff), AE (university) *department* – BE **faculty**, AE *truck* – BE **lorry**, AE *baggage* – BE **luggage**, AE *closet* – BE **storeroom**.

British cars run on *petrol*, American cars run on *gasoline* (gas). In America a man *rents* a car, in Britain – *hires* it. In American high school student *graduates*. A British secondary school pupil (never student) *leaves* school.

Some American words are in fact British archaisms: *fall* (autumn), *mad* (angry), etc.

The fourth type of the word-stock is based on the new phenomena, on the appearance of new institutions, new social relations, new notions.

New forms of culture were created by the pioneers and later immigrants from different countries and they all had to be given names: *trapper* (охотник, ставящий капканы, траппер), *rum* (спиртной напиток), *sequoia, canyon*.

Idiomatic expressions are different in the two variants: AE *to blow one's top* – BE **to fly into rage**, AE *to moonlight* – BE **to work at a second job**, AE *to hijack* – BE **to take over a plane, ship, train or motor vehicle by force.**

Nowadays the difference in the vocabulary is very difficult to trace because a great number of Americanisms are borrowed into British English, so they lose their specific American character. Nevertheless, there are a considerable number of words which betray a speaker's nationality. For example, if a British girl and an American girl were out shopping together, the British girl, pointing to a **shop** window, might say, "I'd like to go into that shop and look at that **frock**", while

her American friend would more likely say, “I’d like to go into that **store** and look at that **dress**.”

In some cases not separate words and their meanings are opposed in BE and AE, but, as A.I. Smirnitsky noticed – structural variants of words (lexico-morphological and word-building or derivational variants): AE *aluminum* – BE **aluminium**, AE *acclimate* – BE **acclimatize,** AE *toward* – BE **towards,** AE *amid* – BE **amidst**, AE *candidacy* – BE **candidature**.

But: BE **terminal** (конечный пункт, экзамен в конце семестра, электротехнический зажим) is opposed to **terminus** (конечная железнодорожная станция). In AE *terminal* – конечная железнодорожная станция.

The fourth type of American word-stock – words having no British equivalents (безэквивалентная лексика) must be the object of special study as they are of great importance for cross-cultural communication; among them we single out lexical units referring to political life: *Electoral College* (коллегия выборщиков, избираемых в штатах, для выборов президента и вице-президента), *precinct captain* (участковый капитан, главный представитель партийного аппарата в избирательном участке (precinct – участок – самая мелкая административная единица); *watcher* (представитель партии, защищающий интересы своего кандидата при баллотировке); *filibuster* (флибустьер, пират, член конгресса, который тормозит и срывает законопроект, произнося непомерно длинные речи), *wardheeler* (прислужник политического «босса», представляющего интересы той или иной партии в районе (ward) и следуемый за ним по пятам); *retiree* (человек, уходящий на пенсию), *draftee* (призывник), *Birchdom* (ультрареакционеры, «поддерживающие» «Общество Джона Берча»), *GOP-ster* (республиканец), *witchhunt* (охота за ведьмами), *Republicrat, militerrorism, salariat* (низкооплачиваемые служащие).

Modern **slangy** words, which are collected in such dictionaries as L.S. Berrey and M. Van den Bark, The American Thesaurus of Slang and H. Wentworth and S. Flexner, Dictionary of American Slang serve to create fresh names for some things that are frequent topics of discourse. For the most part they sound somewhat vulgar, cynical and hash, aiming to show the object of speech in the light of an off-hand contemptuous ridicule. A great deal of words of this kind came to BE from the USA: *corny, cute, fuss-put, teenager, swell,* etc. but American slang also contains elements coming from BE: **cheerio, right-o, Gerry.**

British and American Correspondences

British English	American English
faculty	department
school leaver	school graduate
form	grade
holidays	vacation
pupil	student
headmaster	principal
exercise-book	notebook
college grounds	campus
hall of residence	dormitory
a dull pencil	a blunt pencil
full stop	period
obligatory subjects	mandatory (or required) subjects
time-table	schedule
elementary school	grade (primary) school
indian rubber	eraser
first year, second year, etc. student	freshman, sophomore, junior, senior.

American School Vocabulary

Public school – государственная школа, *private / independent school* – частная / независимая школа, *parochial school* – церковноприходская школа, *pre-school education* – дошкольное обучение, *nursery school* (daycare center) – ясли, *kindergarten* – детский сад, *elementary school* – начальная школа, *secondary school* – средняя школа, *high school* – школа III ступени (старшие классы средней школы) состоит из: *Junior high and Senior high schools, curriculum* – учебный план, программа, *Subjects (courses)* – предметы.

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