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**THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY**

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## INTRODUCTION

Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan has become very important since the first days of the Independence of our country which pays much attention to the rising of education level of people, their intellectual growth. As our President I. A. Karimov wrote: “The next important priority is the further development of the industrial and social infrastructure as one of the most important factors of modernization of the country and its people’s employment [1,42]. That’s why knowing foreign languages is very important today. Under the knowledge we understand not only practical but theoretical basis too. And history is very important today, as without history we cannot discuss and explain the problems and events of present time. In the frame of realization of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan “About the Education system” there created the complex system of teaching foreign languages, directed to the formation of harmoniously developed, highly educated, thinking in modern way, growing generation and further integration of the republic into world cooperation [2,1].

**The actuality of the theme of research.** In this research work we investigated the vocabulary of English, its development, the grammatical and morphological peculiarities of the language at different stages of its formation. This is very significant in linguistic science and makes the theme of research actual and important. As we know, throughout the history of the English language since the 5-th century up to 12 modern times the English wordstock has been constantly changed, though at certain times changes took place more rapidly than at other times. And it is considerably known, that we cannot be aware of the development of the English vocabulary without information about the social life of the community in which it occurs. The influence of the cultural, social, material and political life of people was great. These spheres of life more than other reasons, play a dominate role in the development and change of the English wordstock. These are accepted as the main reasons of its development, but there are also the internal tendencies in the evolution of the English wordstock.

The English vocabulary of the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> century had adopted words

from more than 50 languages: French, Scandinavian, Germanic, Italian, Indian, etc. Among them we can outline a group of oriental borrowings. They appeared in the English vocabulary as foreign words, but later were constantly used by the natives, and in this way they were introduced into the English wordstock. It's very important to study the vocabulary of English, because each word has its own history and reason of being included into the English wordstock and each loan word conveys the culture and peculiarities of its language [37,84].

The history of the English language was the aim of investigation of such scientists as Beryozin F.M., Vandries J., Baker S.K., Simmons D.S., Kameenui E.J., Coady J., Keenan E.Z., Ralph B., Smith E.L., Zimmerman and others. They investigated the influence of historical events on the development of the English language. We combined their opinions and investigated problems together and generalized the development of English vocabulary from old times up to the present time.

The English vocabulary development activities and resources in this and related sites are based primarily on Latin and Greek elements that are included in thousands of English terms and expressions. A very small number of schools currently provide learning situations and activities that include vocabulary etymology and histories; therefore, it is advantageous for students to learn more about English development.

To know the origin of words is to know how men think, how they have fashioned their civilizations. Word history traces the paths of human relationships, the bridges from mind to mind, and from nation to nation.

Some of the words in English can be traced to a remote past; some have histories that began yesterday or are even beginning today. Slow changes, swift new coinages of science or slang, ancient or recent borrowing from many tongues; together they give flexibility, power, and beauty to English, the richest and most widespread language of all time.

The national language is a historical category and forms out of regional dialects as the nation takes shape. As the national language progresses, with the development and consolidation of literary styles, dialectal relationship assumes a

new aspect. Frequently, the national literary language is based on a dialectal foundation other than that of old literary monuments, assimilating but certain particular elements of the latter. The alliance of territorial and social factors is likewise essential. As a definite historical stage in the evolution of the language of the given nation, national language comprises the literary style in both speech and writing. This literary language is in complicated and modifying relationship with the extraliterary variants of speech (dialects, semi-dialects, various aspects and forms of popular speech etc.). When viewed in the light of persistency of its standard forms, literary language may, at various historical stages of its development, hold different positions with respect to the extraliterary variants of popular speech [28,44].

The British colonization of North America, Australia and parts of Asia and Africa has resulted in the creation of whole continents speaking English, which in turn has been enriched by the mother tongues of locals and immigrants. In 1828, Noah Webster published the first official [dictionary](#) of American English, which established differences in spelling between [British](#) and American English and further paved the way to differences in vocabulary between these two language varieties. The rise of the mass media during the 20th century: newspapers, cinema, radio, television and The Internet have given the latest push to English in becoming a global language, as English is the main language used. This in turn brings more words into English from just about any other language on the planet but also has the potential to disintegrate English itself to new emerging local English varieties [43,29]. History influences on the development of the language and causes a lot of changes in its grammar, vocabulary and phonetics.

The richness of the English wordstock can be explained by the borrowings and loan words included into its vocabulary at different stages.

The English vocabulary development activities and resources in this and related sites are based primarily on Latin and Greek elements that are included in thousands of English terms and expressions. As part of the European Year of Languages, a special survey of European attitudes towards and their use of

languages has just published. The report confirms that at the beginning of 2001 English is the most widely known foreign or second language, with 43% of Europeans claiming they speak it in addition to their mother tongue. Sweden now heads the league table of English speakers, with over 89% of the population saying they can speak the language well or very well. However, in contrast, only 36% of Spanish and Portuguese nationals speak English. What's more, English is the language rated as most useful to know, with over 77% of Europeans who do not speak English as their first language, rating it as useful. French rated 38%, German 23% and Spanish 6%. English has without a doubt become the global language.

**The aim of the research work** is to learn out the development of the English word stock, its main stages, determinate the loan words, classify them according to the borrowed languages and define native words which had founded the whole vocabulary of the language.

The research work carries out **the following tasks**:

- to learn out the vocabulary of English, paying attention to loan words ( or borrowings);
- to investigate the process of development of native word stock and its main stages;
- to make out a group of different groups of borrowings;
- to study the influence of historical events on the development of English vocabulary;
- to research the grammatical changes of the word stock.

**The object of research** is the changes of the language at different stages of its development paying attention to the historical events of that period of time.

**The subject of research** is the morphological, grammatical, phonetical peculiarities of the development of the English wordstock, loan and native words of the language.

The following **methods of inquiry** were used for this research work: descriptive method, comparative analysis, method of classification, historical analysis, critical analysis of the literature on the problem of investigation.

**The scientific novelty** of the research work is the investigation of the process of different changes in the English vocabulary, classifying its main stages and making out different groups of borrowings and the reasons of including them into the English word stock.

**The methodological ground of research** is the complex of scientific works, articles and thesis of scientists in the sphere of history of language, linguistics, lexicology, dialectology. They are indicated in the list of Bibliography.

**The theoretical value** of the research work is the material of investigation of the development process of the English language and borrowings from other languages (German, Italian, French, etc.), the tables of loan words in English. The material can be included into the lectures on History of language and lexicology.

**The practical value** of the research work. The investigation material can be used by students at the lessons and seminars on History of the English language, Lexicology, Linguistics, in writing course-works, scientific articles and thesis on the theme of investigation.

**The structure of the research work.** The research work consists of Introduction, 3 chapters, Conclusion and List of used literature. Introduction has general overview of the problem, reveals the aim, duties, methods, theoretical and practical value of the work. Each chapter consists of smaller paragraphs and presents the fullest information about the development of the English wordstock and its main stages. Conclusion demonstrates the main and significant results of the investigation. List of used literature indicates the scientific works, articles and thesis used for the work.

# **CHAPTER I**

## **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

### **VOCABULARY**

#### **1.1 The influence of historical events on the development of the English wordstock**

The Old English territorial dialects were not a mechanical continuation of the old dialects of the Germans, who had settled in Britain in the fifth century, although the former had originated from the latter. A proof of the independent evolution of dialects in the Old English period is furnished by the recognized difference of the Mercian dialect from the Northumbrian although both come from the Anglican dialect.

In Middle English the development of each of the territorial dialects depends on the historical conditions peculiar to every district. In speaking of the central dialects, which supposedly bridge the extreme points, the growing differentiation of Southern and Northern dialects is of paramount importance.

From the start of the thirteenth century documents, to be found in London, display features that somewhat distinguish the London style from other dialectal subdivisions of the English language. According to Wild, two distinctive dialectal types were in existence over the dialectal territory that included London:

- 1) the City type, identical with the Essex dialect and
- 2) the Central Southern type, i.e. the Middlesex dialect [12,30].

As time wears on the London dialect loses some of its predominant features and verges to the Middlesex dialect. The second half of the thirteenth and the first half of the fourteenth centuries witness an ousting of southern dialectal features from London English and their replacement by East Midland elements. Generally at the root of the national literary language lies the dialect of a large city — the economic, political and cultural centre of the country — this dialect stemming from a mingled origin, but in course of time it oversteps the narrow dialectal confines.

In the London dialect of the early (twelfth century — the first half of the



thirteenth century) and late (second half of the thirteenth — fourteenth centuries) periods, proportions in the relationship of sound patterns, typical of the Southern and East Midland idioms, are notable for the dialectal re-orientation of the language of London.

In the subsequent history of London English, which coincides with the history of literary English, two cases of phonetic changes are to be seen.

In the first case, the replacement of the «old» (i.e. historically southern) type was partial, and the sound pattern of most of the words in Modern English is a direct continuation of the London pronunciation of the thirteenth century. An instance is offered by words with an initial Old English palatal spirant *ʃ*. The Mod. E. literary 'yard' is phonetically a historical continuation of the O. E. 'ȝeard'. This law, however, cannot interpret the Mod. E. 'give' in terms of the M. E. 'ȝeven, yiven' and the O. E. 'giefen'; it comes as a contribution of the northern dialects in which, under the effect of etymologically identical Scandinavian words, it used to be pronounced occlusive (g) at the beginning of the word.

Although the very concept of literary standard and the related notion of one language form or another as «right» or «wrong» emerge much later, yet from the close of the fourteenth century the London English can be referred to as the basis of the national literary language. The relative unity of the English language shapes itself by the fifteenth century when it gets promoted by the introduction of printing that gave a powerful impetus to the distribution of a certain type of literary language all over England.

Which genre and style varieties of the English language were the first to institute a relative uniformity is an open problem as yet. Being one of the constituent elements in the formation of the literary language, the administrative-office style failed, nevertheless, to play a predominant role. The reason for this is presumably to be sought in the long-term supremacy of the French language] in the state bureaucratic body (law, parliament etc.) which eventually compelled the English language, when the latter took the place of French, to adopt the terminology borrowed from French, while its phonetic-morphological basis rested

on the same London dialect of mingled structure.

As far as the vocabulary is concerned the mingling of the dialects and the introduction into the London dialect of new words can best be shown by those words that had been, in former days, taken over by the inhabitants of the northern and north-eastern districts of Great Britain from the language of Scandinavian conquerors. The appearance of Scandinavian words in the records of the London dialect of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries is due to the interrelation of dialects and the growing influence of the dialects of the north-east of England in the evolution of the English language [19,66].

The complete abandonment of the English synonym or the clear-cut demarcation of the meanings of former synonyms was effected much later. But in a number of cases, when modern literary English retains only the one-time borrowed Scandinavianism, Chaucer makes use of both synonyms in his writings. Thus, for instance, although the English verb 'clepen' is more frequently used in Chaucer's «The Canterbury Tales» (107 cases), yet the verb 'callen' of Scandinavian origin, is quite familiarly met with (54 cases).

Writings on the history of the English language have always set great store by foreign influences. In addition to the usual cultural and historical relations in the life of the English people, the nation has experienced events that have favoured the large-scale settlement of foreign inhabitants in Britain and created thereby, for at least certain periods in its history, zonal or social bilingualism.

Bilingualism has been the rule in many countries until the formation of one standard system of the literary language; in other words, the parallel use in the country of the foreign and native tongues, the scope of use of those languages and the forms of their links depended on the history of the given country. Bilingualism was very common in mediaeval Europe; it was, first of all, the result of the use of Latin in the written language.

The specific trait of the English language lays in the fact that the forms and causes of bilingualism altered, while at times three languages — English, French and Latin—were in use in the various spheres of communication [57,122].

Many valuable writings are out that treat of the Scandinavian contribution to the English language and the forms of adaptation of the Scandinavian material resulting from intercourse with inhabitants speaking almost cognate languages. However, dealing with the period when national literary English was being formed, one can speak but of the part played by the northern dialects alone that have assimilated the bulk of Scandinavian loans. I here-fore, when referring to the fourteenth—fifteenth centuries, the problem of interdialectal and not interlingual should come to the fore.

From the historical standpoint the specific relations between the language and the community can be conducive to infrastructure consequences. The special relations, that account for the usage the French language in England during the eleventh—thirteenth centuries (French was the language brought by the conquerors who took the reins of power into their state eventuated not only in a multitude of French loan-words, but also Dutch which is of utmost importance — they paved the way for those words to invade the English language not as isolated units but as large, complete systems, semantic or structural.

The term 'semantic' implies groups of words linked together by common notional sphere they designate (for instance, borrowings from French relating to the domains of administration and warfare, religion and law, customs and cookery, the hierarchy of court of antimilitary ranks and toilet requisites).

What is to be called an «intermediate» or «indirect» influence turns out to be a major factor of affecting one language by another. This type of influence can be referred to in the case of borrowings in great numbers, which fact is to be noted in the relationship of English and French. We have in mind the correlation of productive and unproductive models and the fate of neologisms of morphological or syntactical order. The role of neologisms finding their way into the language by the productive patterns, which are in force in the language of the given period, is vital inasmuch as an intensive lexical reinforcement of a similar pattern secures its differentiation from other models. As a result, the periods of intensive enlargement of the vocabulary of a language are essential for its grammatical structure as well.

Borrowing is one of the sources enriching the vocabulary of a language. It is natural that the borrowed words entering the given language can evolve only by the productive patterns at work in the given language.

The influence of transfers can also be traced in the development of grammatical meanings. Substantial changes occurred in Middle English in those grammatical categories that had a definite morphological expression in Old English. For instance, since very remote times trends had been noted in English toward the elimination of the morphological difference between transitive and intransitive verbs [38,71].

French verbs invaded Middle English in quantities; they began to be used on a par with the native verbs. In those days there existed no morphological distinction in the French transitive and intransitive verbs, and one and the same verb could convey both meanings.

No doubt, the assimilation of a large number of French verbs with both meanings that remained in English too, greatly accounted for the mingling of the transitive and intransitive verbs in English and the establishment of a new state of affairs. Here the French element should be singled out for mention since the French loans not only failed to arrest the process of disintegrating the morphological expression of the transitive—intransitive category but, on the contrary, those transfers enhanced this process swelling the ranks of verbs with both transitive and intransitive meanings.

With reference to vocabulary the relationship of languages can be diverse. Of the three possibilities available — the driving out of the native English word by the French loan, the gradual extinction of the borrowed word, the differentiation of the meanings of competing synonyms — it was precisely the last that led to the semantic development and enrichment of the English vocabulary introducing semantic reforms in it.

However, despite the period of bilingualism, very few are the syntactical constructions in English that go back directly to French patterns and the appearance of which could be explained by the direct influence of the French

language during the Norman Conquest. The syntactical constructions of Modern English can be recognized as a direct development of those forms the embryos of which, despite their qualitative differentiation from modern phraseology, were already in existence in the system of Old English. Even in particular cases of syntactical translation loans, constructions totally alien to the receiving language, cannot consolidate their positions in the language. The *sine qua non* is the existence in the receiving language of such peculiar trends of development with which the borrowed pattern should not come in clash.

One of the distinctive features of the literary language of the state is its functional universality, i. e. the use of the literary language in all the spheres of communication in the given community. Two aspects of the functional universality of the literary language should be differentiated: one is the relation of the literary language to the form of literary activities, the other is the relation of the literary language to the social groups speaking it.

The key issue in the fifteenth and particularly in the sixteenth centuries was the problem of spreading the English language on all forms of literature, belles-lettres as well as science, philosophical and didactic literature. In the preceding centuries those domains were served by Latin, as the international language of science in mediaeval Europe and, somewhat earlier, by the French language, the source of rich Anglo-Norman fiction following the conquest of Britain by the Normans. The situation changes completely in the sixteenth century.

The problems of the culture of the vernacular attract more and more attention and are discussed by writers, grammarians and theoreticians of literature. The relationship of the literary style of fiction and that of spoken language is regarded as a salient feature of the sixteenth century. A scrupulous analysis of various records, both literary and nonliterary, leads H. G. Wild to the conclusion that the close links between spoken literary style and the language of English literature should by all means be emphasized. The language spoken by Shakespeare was the same language in which he wrote.

The writings of prominent authors can naturally contain subjective

appreciations of the standard and properties of the literary language of their times, their attitude to the measures aimed at enriching and improving the language, and their views on the problems of linguistic construction. Those issues assume greater prominence during the formation of the national language and its literary criteria. The problem of qualities of literary English, i. e. of its possibilities to convey ideas in any stylistic forms, was raised primarily by:

1) translators from other languages — and foremost of all the classical languages — who were after adequate translations;

2) poets, theoreticians and verse critics, looking for new forms of versification which, to a certain measure, would imitate the genres of French and classical poetry;

3) authors engaged in serious (science, didactic, philosophical prose, i. e.) the type of literature over which Latin held its sway until the sixteenth century. Such authors were especially in need of terminological vocabulary [39,286].

To secure the right to be applied in all the genres of literary endeavor was a cardinal issue for the English language. Almost every author of the sixteenth century who took to a serious treatment of a given topic in English, considered it necessary to produce one argument or another in support of his right to use the vernacular. This fact by itself is a proof to the effect that literary English gained general acceptance but gradually.

The choice of one variant and the disappearance of another proceeds with a dissimilar degree of intensity at the various levels of the language. In matters of vocabulary the competing words are often seen to remain within the limits of literary usage when the meaning of one of them is shifted. Even if one of the competing words is discarded from daily use in literary style, it can pass over to the category of marked forms — archaisms. It can also turn into a specialized word and be used as a term pertaining to a definite sphere of knowledge. Many transfers from Latin and partly from French, after falling into disuse in spoken language, were retained in law and legal literature, the style of which was evolving historically under the strong impact of the Latin-Roman vocabulary [50,933].

As to grammar the problem of competing forms is most often reduced to the choice between the analogical and historical formations when the establishment of a single law, common to all forms of the given category, is excluded. For instance, quite often we notice that in Modern English, in a verb of the seventh class, out of two competing forms the historical survives whereas in another verb of the same morphological class the form derived by analogy of the productive verbal classes is used in Modern English.

Turning to the phonetic level of the language it is easy to reveal that many variants of pronunciation still survive in Modern English. The more pronounced dialectisms have gradually died out under the impact of the accepted pronunciation advocated by the school and based, in the main, on the southern standard of English. However, it is precisely in the field of pronunciation that existed and continue in use the regional substandard which tell the Englishman from the Briton of northern England or the Kentish district. The concept of a standard criterion is one of the most significant notions in the period of stabilizing the national literary language. New types of evaluation grow up, one form of the language or another is appreciated as «correct» or «incorrect», or as «literary» or «nonliterary» [46,56].

From the genetic point of view the literary standard is a complicated phenomenon. It is characterized by territorial as well as social distinctions closely merged and interrelated. Although some territorial dialect always lies at the root of the literary language, usually of mingled nature, it at once assumes familiar social traits as soon as it gets differentiated. Such conscious differentiation for the English language with its criteria takes place, according to Dobson, in the sixteenth century. He notes that evidences are available as to the idea gaining currency in the sixteenth century that there existed a correct form of English speech that should be taught. It was pointed out that this was the language of the south of England, especially the English of the London basin, not in use in the north and the west of the country. It was indicated that this was the language of educated and well-read men; particular stress was laid on the fact that this was the

tongue of the royal court. Thus social criterion was introduced.

An important problem in the history of literary languages is the relation of the elemental and conscious factors when selecting the new literary forms. It is reasonable that both terms are taken in their relative sense. 'Elemental'<sup>1</sup> means the process defined only by the functioning of the language and not regulated by any accepted standards. At the same time one should not overlook the part played by the conscious choice of one of the possible forms and units of the language in stabilising the literary criteria, which fact is typical of the period of the establishment of the literary language. What happens then to those phonetic, grammatical and lexical elements that have failed to gain a foothold in the language as a literary criterion? If they do not disappear completely, they continue in dual usage.

It should be noted that if every territorial dialect has its own history and bears the influence of the literary language, just like the reverse impact can be likened, in some sense, to the process of borrowing, the social dialects develop in constant comparison and juxtaposition to the literary language, i.e. their social differentiation is always relative. In those instances the linguistic and extralinguistic factors always interact.

### **1.2 The Resourcefulness of the Old English Vocabulary**

To one unfamiliar with Old English it might seem that a language which lacked the large number of words borrowed from Latin and French which now form so important a part of our vocabulary would be somewhat limited in resources, and that while possessing adequate means of expression for the affairs of simple everyday life would find itself embarrassed when it came to making the nice distinctions which the original is here somewhat normalized [22,52]. a literary language is called upon to express. In other words, an Anglo-Saxon would be like a man today who is learning to speak a foreign language and who can manage in a limited way to convey his meaning without having a sufficient command of the vocabulary to express those subtler shades of thought and feeling, the nuances of meaning, which he is able to suggest in his mother-tongue. This,



however, is not so. In language, as in other things, necessity is the mother of invention, and when our means are limited we often develop unusual resourcefulness in utilizing those means to the full. Such resourcefulness is characteristic of Old English. The language in this stage shows great flexibility, a capacity for bending old words to new uses. By means of prefixes and suffixes a single root is made to yield a variety of derivatives, and the range of these is greatly extended by the ease with which compounds were formed. The method can be made clear by an illustration. The word *mod*, which is our word *mood* (a mental state), meant in Old English ‘heart’, ‘mind’, ‘spirit’, and hence ‘boldness’ or ‘courage’, sometimes ‘pride’ or ‘haughtiness’. From it, by the addition of a common adjective ending, was formed the adjective *modig* with a similar range of meanings (spirited, bold, high-minded, arrogant, stiff-necked), and by means of further endings the adjective *modiglic* magnanimous, the adverb *modiglice* boldly, proudly, and the noun *modignes* magnanimity, pride. Another ending converted *modig* into a verb *modigian*, meaning to bear oneself proudly or exultantly, or sometimes, to be indignant, to rage. Other forms conveyed meanings whose relation to the root is easily perceived, *gemadod* disposed, minded, *modfull* haughty, *modleas* spiritless. By combining the root with other words meaning ‘mind’ or ‘thought’ the idea of the word is intensified and we get *madsefa*, *modgepanc*, *modgepoht*, *modgehygd*, *modgemynd*, *modhord* (*tsord* = treasure), all meaning ‘mind’, ‘thought’, ‘understanding’. Some sharpening of the concept is obtained in *moderxit* intelligence, and *modertig* intelligent. But the root lent itself naturally to combination with other words to indicate various mental states such as *gladmodnes* kindness, *modluju* affection (*lufu* = love), *unmod* despondency, *modcaru* sorrow (*caru* = care), *madleast* want of courage, *madmod* folly, *ofermod* and *ofermodi-* gung pride, *ofermodig* proud, *heahmod* proud, noble, *modhete* hate (*jsete* = hate). It will be seen that Old English did not lack synonyms for some of the ideas in this list. By a similar process of combination a number of adjectives were formed: *micelnid* magnanimous, *swipmod* great of soul (*swip* = strong), *stipmod* resolute, obstinate (*Qtip* = stiff, strong), *gupmod* war-like (*Jgup* = war,

battle), *torhtmod* glorious (*torht* = bright), *modleof* beloved (*leof* = dear). The examples given are sufficient to illustrate the point, but they are far from telling the whole story. From the same root more than a hundred words were formed. If we had space to list them, they would clearly show the remarkable capacity of Old English for derivation and word-formation, and what variety and flexibility, of expression it possessed. It was more resourceful in utilizing its native material than Modern English, which has come to rely to a large extent on its facility in borrowing and assimilating elements from other languages [10,91].

**Self-explaining Compounds.** In the list of words given in the preceding paragraph there is a considerable number which we call self-explaining compounds. These are compounds of two or more native words whose meaning in combination is either self-evident or has been rendered clear by association and usage. In Modern English *steamboat*, *railroad*, *electric light*, *sewing machine*, *trolley fole*, are examples of such words. Words of this character are found in most languages, but the type is particularly prevalent in Old English, as it is in modern German. Where in English today we often have a borrowed word or a word made up of elements derived from Latin and Greek, German still prefers self-explaining compounds. Thus for hydrogen German says *Wasserstoff* (water- stuff), for telephone *Fernsprecher* (far-speaker), and for fire insurance company *Feuer \ versicherungs \ gesellschaft*. So in Old English many words are formed on this pattern. Thus we have *leohtit* lamp (*leoht* light + *fat* vessel), *medu-heall* mead-hall, *dagred* dawn (day-red), *ealohus* alehouse, *ealoscop* minstrel, *earhrig* earring and many more. The capacity of English nowadays to make similar words, though a little less frequently employed than formerly, is an inheritance of the Old English tradition, when the method was well-nigh universal. As a result of this capacity Old English seems never to have been at a loss for a word to express even the abstractions of science, theology, and metaphysics, which it came to know through contact with the church and Latin culture.

**Prefixes and Suffixes.** As previously mentioned, a part of the flexibility of the Old English vocabulary comes from the generous use made of prefixes and

suffixes to form new words from old words or to modify or extend the root idea. In this respect it also resembles modern German. Among the words mentioned in the preceding paragraphs there are several which are formed with the suffixes *-ig*, *-full*, *-leas*, *-lice*, *-nes*, and *-ung*. Others frequently employed include the adjective suffixes *-sum* (*wynsum*) and *-wis* (*rihtwis*), the noun suffixes *-dom* (*cyningdom*, *eotldoni*) *-end*, and *-ere* denoting the agent, *-had* (*cildhad*), *-ing* in patronymics, *-ung* (*dagung* dawn), *-scife* (*freondscipe*), and many more. In like manner the use of prefixes was a fertile resource in word-building. It is particularly a feature in the formation of verbs. There are about a dozen prefixes that occur with great frequency, such as *a-*, *be-*, *for-*, *fore-*, *ge-*, *mis-*, *of-*, *ofer-*, *on-*, *to-*, *un-*, *under*, and *wip-*. Thus, with the help of these, Old English could make out of a simple verb like *settan* (to set) new verbs like *asettan* place, *besettan* appoint, *forsettan* obstruct, *foresettan* place before, *gesettan* people, garrison, *ofsettan* afflict, *onsettan* oppress, *tosettan* dispose, *unsettan* put down, and *wipsettan* resist. The prefix *wip-* enters into more than fifty Old English verbs, where it has the force of *against* or *away*. Such, for example, are *wipceosan* reject (*ceosan* == choose), *wipcwepan* deny (*cwepan* == say), *wipdrifan* repel, *wipsprecan* contradict, and *wipstandan*. Of these fifty verbs *withstand* is the only one still in use, although in Middle English two new verbs, *withdraw* and *withhold* were formed on the same model. The prefix *ofer-* occurs in over a hundred Old English verbs. By such means the resources of the English verb were increased almost tenfold, and enough such verbs survive to give us a realization of their employment in the Old English vocabulary. In general one is surprised at the apparent ease with which Old English expressed difficult ideas adequately and often with variety. *Companionship* is literally rendered by *geferascipe*, *hospitality* by *giestlipnes* (*giest* stranger, *lipe* gracious), *gitsung* covetousness (*gitsian* = to be greedy). *Godcundlic* divine, *indryhten* aristocratic (*dryhten* = prince), *giefolnes* liberality (*igiefu* = gift), *gaderscipe* matrimony (*gadnan* = to gather), *lizcecrift* medicine (*lace* = physician) illustrate, so to speak, the method of approach. Often several words to express the same idea result. An astronomer or astrologer may be a

*tunglere* (*tungol* = star), *tungolcrtiga*, *tungolwitega*, a *tidymb-widtend* (*tid* = time, *ymb* = about, *widtian* = to gaze) or a *tidsceawere* (*sceawian* = see, scrutinize). In poetry the vocabulary attains a remarkable flexibility through the wealth of synonyms for words like war, warrior, shield, sword, battle, sea, ship sometimes as many as thirty for one of these ideas and through the bold use of metaphor. The king is the leader of hosts, the giver of rings, the victory-lord, the heroes, treasure-keeper. A sword is the product of files, the play of swords a battle, the battle-seat a saddle, the shield-bearer a warrior. Warriors in their woven war-shirts, carrying battle-brand or war-shaft, form the iron-clad throng. A boat is the sea-wood, the wave courser, the broad-bosomed, the curved-stem, or the foamy-necked ship, and it travels over the whale-road, the sea-surge, the rolling of waves, or simply the water's back. Synonyms never fail the Beowulf poet. Grendel is the grim spirit, the prowler on the wasteland, the lonely wanderer, the loathed one, the creature of evil, the fiend in Hell, the grim monster. The dark death-shadow, the worker of hate, the mad ravisher; the fell spoiler, and the incarnation of a dozen other attributes characteristic of his enmity toward mankind. No one can long remain in doubt about the rich and colorful character of the Old English vocabulary [15,140].

The greatest single work of Old English literature is the \ *Beowulf*. It is a poem of some 3000 lines belonging to the type known as the folk-epic, that is to say, a poem which, whatever it may owe to the individual poet who gave it final form, embodies material long current among the people. It is a narrative of heroic adventure relating how a young warrior, Beowulf, fought the monster Grendel, which was ravaging the land of King Hrothgar, slew it and its dam, and years later met his death while ridding his own country of an equally destructive foe, a fire-breathing dragon. The theme seems somewhat fanciful to a modern reader, but the character of the hero, the social conditions pictured, and the portrayal of the motives and ideals which animated men in early Teutonic times make the poem one of the most vivid records we have of life in the heroic age. It is not an easy life. It is a life that calls for physical endurance, unflinching courage, and a fine sense of duty, loyalty, and honor.

### **1.3 The Development of Literary English Vocabulary**

In linguistic science the study of the formation of literary language and its historical relation with regional dialects has been grounded on the factual data of various languages. The national language is a historical category and forms out of regional dialects as the nation takes shape. As the national language progresses, with the development and consolidation of literary styles, dialectal relationship assumes a new aspect [56,213]. Frequently, the national literary language is based on a dialectal foundation other than that of old literary monuments, assimilating but certain particular elements of the latter. The alliance of territorial and social factors is likewise essential. As a definite historical stage in the evolution of the language of the given nation, national language comprises the literary style in both speech and writing. This literary language is in complicated and modifying relationship with the extraliterary variants of speech (dialects, semi-dialects, various aspects and forms of popular speech etc.). When viewed in the light of persistency of its standard forms, literary language may, at various historical stages of its development, hold different positions with respect to the extraliterary variants of popular speech.

From the start of the thirteenth century documents, to be found in London, display features that somewhat distinguish the London style from other dialectal subdivisions of the English language. According to Wild, two distinctive dialectal types were in existence over the dialectal territory that included London:

- 1) the City type, identical with the Essex dialect and
- 2) the Central Southern type, i.e. the Middlesex dialect.

As time wears on the London dialect loses some of its predominant features and verges to the Middlesex dialect. The second half of the thirteenth and the first half of the fourteenth centuries witness an ousting of southern dialectal features from London English and their replacement by East Midland elements. Generally at the root of the national literary language lies the dialect of a large city — the economic, political and cultural centre of the country — this dialect stemming from a mingled origin, but in course of time it oversteps the narrow dialectal

confines.

In the London dialect of the early (twelfth century — the first half of the thirteenth century) and late (second half of the thirteenth — fourteenth centuries) periods, proportions in the relationship of sound patterns, typical of the Southern and East Midland idioms, are notable for the dialectal re-orientation of the language of London.

The substitution of the dialectal basis for the form of English which in course of time becomes the literary standard, occurs gradually and is to be seen, in the main, during the early period of the formation of the national language. It does not, naturally, follow that in the London style the struggle between the elements originating from various dialects comes to an end; rather it intensifies, but as time wears on the apprehension and evaluation of the competing phonetic and grammatical forms modify.

As far as the vocabulary is concerned the mingling of the dialects and the introduction into the London dialect of new words can best be shown by those words that had been, in former days, taken over by the inhabitants of the northern and north-eastern districts of Great Britain from the language of Scandinavian conquerors. The appearance of Scandinavian words in the records of the London dialect of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries is due to the interrelation of dialects and the growing influence of the dialects of the north-east of England in the evolution of the English language.

The complete abandonment of the English synonym or the clear-cut demarcation of the meanings of former synonyms was effected much later. But in a number of cases, when modern literary English retains only the one-time borrowed Scandinavianism, Chaucer makes use of both synonyms in his writings. Thus, for instance, although the English verb 'clepen' is more frequently used in Chaucer's «The Canterbury Tales» (107 cases), yet the verb 'callen' of Scandinavian origin, is quite familiarly met with (54 cases).

Writings on the history of the English language have always set great store by foreign influences. In addition to the usual cultural and historical relations in the

life of the English people, the nation has experienced events that have favoured the large-scale settlement of foreign inhabitants in Britain and created thereby, for at least certain periods in its history, zonal or social bilingualism [8,46-47].

Bilingualism has been the rule in many countries until the formation of one standard system of the literary language; in other words, the parallel use in the country of the foreign and native tongues, the scope of use of those languages and the forms of their links depended on the history of the given country. Bilingualism was very common in mediaeval Europe; it was, first of all, the result of the use of Latin in the written language.

The specific trait of the English language lays in the fact that the forms and causes of bilingualism altered, while at times three languages — English, French and Latin—were in use in the various spheres of communication.

The influence of transfers can also be traced in the development of grammatical meanings. Substantial changes occurred in Middle English in those grammatical categories that had a definite morphological expression in Old English. For instance, since very remote times trends had been noted in English toward the elimination of the morphological difference between transitive and intransitive verbs.

French verbs invaded Middle English in quantities; they began to be used on a par with the native verbs. In those days there existed no morphological distinction in the French transitive and intransitive verbs, and one and the same verb could convey both meanings.

No doubt, the assimilation of a large number of French verbs with both meanings that remained in English too, greatly accounted for the mingling of the transitive and intransitive verbs in English and the establishment of a new state of affairs. Here the French element should be singled out for mention since the French loans not only failed to arrest the process of disintegrating the morphological expression of the transitive—intransitive category but, on the contrary, those transfers enhanced this process swelling the ranks of verbs with both transitive and intransitive meanings.

With reference to vocabulary the relationship of languages can be diverse. Of the three possibilities available — the driving out of the native English word by the French loan, the gradual extinction of the borrowed word, the differentiation of the meanings of competing synonyms — it was precisely the last that led to the semantic development and enrichment of the English vocabulary introducing semantic reforms in it.

The problem of the influence of one language upon another in the sphere of syntax is much more involved for solution than the problem of direct lexical borrowings or semantic translation loans. The «motivation» of syntactical structures and the fact that words in combinations, the more so in sentences, possess a lesser degree of «coupling» than the morphemes of words, gave the linguists an occasion to regard the syntax as a penetrating sphere (the so called «open» system) and exaggerate the assets of foreign influences on the syntactical structure of the language.

However, despite the period of bilingualism, very few are the syntactical constructions in English that go back directly to French patterns and the appearance of which could be explained by the direct influence of the French language during the Norman Conquest. The syntactical constructions of Modern English can be recognised as a direct development of those forms the embryos of which, despite their qualitative differentiation from modern phraseology, were already in existence in the system of Old English. Even in particular cases of syntactical translation loans, constructions totally alien to the receiving language, cannot consolidate their positions in the language. The *sine qua non* is the existence in the receiving language of such peculiar trends of development with which the borrowed pattern should not come in clash [3,73].

One of the distinctive features of the literary language of the state is its functional universality, i. e. the use of the literary language in all the spheres of communication in the given community. Two aspects of the functional universality of the literary language should be differentiated: one is the relation of the literary language to the form of literary activities, the other is the relation of the



literary language to the social groups speaking it.

The writings of prominent authors can naturally contain subjective appreciations of the standard and properties of the literary language of their times, their attitude to the measures aimed at enriching and improving the language, and their views on the problems of linguistic construction. Those issues assume greater prominence during the formation of the national language and its literary criteria. The problem of qualities of literary English, i. e. of its possibilities to convey ideas in any stylistic forms, was raised primarily by:

1) translators from other languages — and foremost of all the classical languages — who were after adequate translations;

2) poets, theoreticians and verse critics, looking for new forms of versification which, to a certain measure, would imitate the genres of French and classical poetry;

3) authors engaged in serious (science, didactic, philosophical prose, i. e. the type of literature over which Latin held its sway until the sixteenth century. Such authors were especially in need of terminological vocabulary.

To secure the right to be applied in all the genres of literary endeavour was a cardinal issue for the English language. Almost every author of the sixteenth century who took to a serious treatment of a given topic in English, considered it necessary to produce one argument or another in support of his right to use the vernacular. This fact by itself is a proof to the effect that literary English gained general acceptance but gradually.

As to the structure of the language the controversial issue of the sixteenth century referred, to begin with, to orthography and secondly to the enlargement of the word stock of the English language.

The problem of protecting the English language from incapable and immoderate transfers coupled with the necessity of replenishing it with foreign words has been, more than once, the subject of bitter polemic discussions. Most scholars have disfavoured overindulgence in foreign loans but not the practice of borrowing lacking words from other languages. At the same time, some prominent figures of

the English Renaissance, like Lever, set themselves the task of driving out the Latin words and resorted to individual word coinage. Those attempts were more frequently to be seen in terminology. Borrowing as a means of enriching the vocabulary was assisted by:

1) the large number of translations from various languages into English during which it was at times much easier to take over the word from the original than look for its equivalent in the English language;

2) the existence in the language of an appreciable number of Latin-Roman roots, already assimilated by English which might, to a certain measure, favour new, kindred etymological borrowings;

3) the analytical system of English, already in operation at that time, which helped the morphological assimilation of loan roots since morphological formation was mainly analytical, at times agglutinative in nature, whereas word-building (i. e. the formation of derived roots) was predominantly agglutinative and occasionally analytical in nature (the so-called conversion).

An important problem in the history of literary languages is the relation of the elemental and conscious factors when selecting the new literary forms. It is reasonable that both terms are taken in their relative sense. 'Elemental' means the process defined only by the functioning of the language and not regulated by any accepted standards. At the same time one should not overlook the part played by the conscious choice of one of the possible forms and units of the language in stabilising the literary criteria, which fact is typical of the period of the establishment of the literary language. What happens then to those phonetic, grammatical and lexical elements that have failed to gain a foothold in the language as a literary criterion? If they do not disappear completely, they continue in dual usage. It should be noted that if every territorial dialect has its own history and bears the influence of the literary language, just like the reverse impact can be likened, in some sense, to the process of borrowing, the social dialects develop in constant comparison and juxtaposition to the literary language, i.e. their social differentiation is always relative.

## **Conclusion on Chapter I**

The Old English territorial dialects were not a mechanical continuation of the old dialects of the Germans, who had settled in Britain in the fifth century, although the former had originated from the latter. In Middle English the development of each of the territorial dialects depends on the historical conditions peculiar to every district. In speaking of the central dialects, which supposedly bridge the extreme points, the growing differentiation of Southern and Northern dialects is of paramount importance.

When we observe phenomena which might be characterized as a general tendency in the development of the system of the English language, it should be recalled that both in phonetical and morphological facts of the language the chronological disparity of the same processes for the various dialects leads to the coexistence in the bordering dialectal zones or in the city dialects of mingled type of forms, new and old, historical as well as analogical. Some of the historical forms can persist down to the Modern English period. Although the very concept of literary standard and the related notion of one language form or another as «right» or «wrong» emerge much later, yet from the close of the fourteenth century the London English can be referred to as the basis of the national literary language. The relative unity of the English language shapes itself by the fifteenth century when it gets promoted by the introduction of printing that gave a powerful impetus to the distribution of a certain type of literary language all over England.

The specific trait of the English language lays in the fact that the forms and causes of bilingualism altered, while at times three languages — English, French and Latin—were in use in the various spheres of communication.

The greatest single work of Old English literature is the *Beowulf*. It is a poem of some 3000 lines belonging to the type known as the folk-epic, that is to say, a poem which, whatever it may owe to the individual poet who gave it final form, embodies material long current among the people.

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- 1) the large number of translations from various languages into English during which it was at times much easier to take over the word from the original than look for its equivalent in the English language;

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elemental and conscious factors when selecting the new literary forms. It is reasonable that both terms are taken in their relative sense. 'Elemental' means the process defined only by the functioning of the language and not regulated by any accepted standards. At the same time one should not overlook the part played by the conscious choice of one of the possible forms and units of the language in stabilising the literary criteria, which fact is typical of the period of the establishment of the literary language.

## CHAPTER II

### THE MAIN STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH WORD STOCK

#### 2.1 The main periods of development of English word stock

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches: Latin and the modern Romance languages (French etc.); the Germanic languages (English, German, Swedish etc.); the Indo-Iranian languages (Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit etc.); the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech etc.); the Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian; the Celtic languages (Welsh, Irish Gaelic etc.); Greek.

The influence of the original Indo-European language can be seen today, even though no written record of it exists. The word for *father*, for example, is *vater* in German, *pater* in Latin, and *pitr* in Sanskrit. These words are all cognates, similar words in different languages that share the same root.

Of these branches of the Indo-European family, two are, as far as the study of the development of English is concerned, of paramount importance, the Germanic and the Romance (called that because the Romance languages derive from Latin, the language of ancient Rome). English is a member of the Germanic group of languages. It is believed that this group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. By the second century BC, this Common Germanic language had split into three distinct sub-groups:

1) East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to southeastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.

2) North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Hungarian and Estonian and is not an Indo-European language).

3) West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

## Old English (500-1100 AD)

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began to settle in the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian - the language of the northeastern region of the Netherlands - that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.

These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words. These Celtic languages survive today in the Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland and in Welsh. Cornish, unfortunately, is, in linguistic terms, now a dead language. (The last native Cornish speaker died in 1777) Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions and settlement, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England. Some examples are *dream*, which had meant 'joy' until the Vikings imparted its current meaning on it from the Scandinavian cognate *draumr*, and *skirt*, which continues to live alongside its native English cognate *shirt*.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this is deceptive; Old English is much more important than these statistics would indicate. About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like *be*, *water*, and *strong*, for example, derive from Old English roots.

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem [Beowulf](#), lasted until about 1100. Shortly after the most important event in the development and history of the English language, the Norman Conquest [59,60].

### ***The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100-1500)***

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered

England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD. The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock ("Norman" comes from "Norseman") and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots.

Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the seventh century (ecclesiastical terms such as *priest*, *vicar*, and *mass* came into the language this way), but now there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words.

The influence of the Normans can be illustrated by looking at two words, beef and cow. *Beef*, commonly eaten by the aristocracy, derives from the Anglo-Norman, while the Anglo-Saxon commoners, who tended the cattle, retained the Germanic *cow*. Many legal terms, such as *indict*, *jury*, and *verdict* have Anglo-Norman roots because the Normans ran the courts. This split, where words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romantic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots, can be seen in many instances.

Sometimes French words replaced Old English words; *crime* replaced *fīren* and *uncle* replaced *eam*. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French *gentle* and the Germanic *man* formed *gentleman*. Other times, two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English. Thus we have the Germanic *doom* and the French *judgment*, or *wish* and *desire*.

It is useful to compare various versions of a familiar text to see the differences between Old, Middle, and Modern English. Take for instance this Old English (c. 1000) sample:

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum si þin nama gehalgod to becume þin rice  
gewurpe þin willa on eorðan swa swa on heofonum urne gedæghwamlican hlaf  
syle us to dæg and forgyf us ure gyltas swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum and  
ne gelæd þu us on costnunge ac alys us of yfele soþlice.



Rendered in Middle English (Wyclif, 1384), the same text is recognizable to the modern eye:

Oure fadir þat art in heuenes halwid be þi name; þi reume or kyngdom come to be. Be þi wille don in herpe as it is doun in heuene. yeue to us today oure eche dayes bred. And foryeue to us oure dettis þat is oure synnys as we foryeuen to oure dettouris þat is to men þat han synned in us. And lede us not into temptacion but delyuere us from euyl.

Finally, in Early Modern English (King James Version, 1611) the same text is completely intelligible:

Our father which art in heauen, hallowed be thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth as it is in heauen. Giue us this day our daily bread. And forgiue us our debts as we forgiue our debtors. And lead us not into temptation, but deliuer us from euill. Amen.

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted a modified English as their native tongue. About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. And as a result of this the labouring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman.

This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English. The most famous example of Middle English is [Chaucer's Canterbury Tales](#). Unlike Old English, Middle English can be read, albeit with difficulty, by modern English-speaking people.

By 1362, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. In that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.

The Middle English period came to a close around 1500 AD with the rise of Modern English [59,60].

### ***Early Modern English (1500-1800)***

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these "inkhorn" terms, but many survive to this day. Shakespeare's character Holofernes in *Loves Labor Lost* is a satire of an overenthusiastic schoolmaster who is too fond of Latinisms.

Many students having difficulty understanding [Shakespeare](#) would be surprised to learn that he wrote in modern English. But, as can be seen in the earlier example of the Lord's Prayer, Elizabethan English has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Many familiar words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless idioms are his.

Newcomers to Shakespeare are often shocked at the number of clichés contained in his plays, until they realize that he coined them and they became clichés afterwards. "One fell swoop," "vanish into thin air," and "flesh and blood" are all Shakespeare's. Words he bequeathed to the language include "critical," "leapfrog," "majestic," "dwindle," and "pedant."

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400. While modern English speakers can read Chaucer with some difficulty, Chaucer's pronunciation would have been completely unintelligible to the modern ear.

Shakespeare, on the other hand, would be accented, but understandable. Vowel sounds began to be made further to the front of the mouth and the letter "e" at the end of words became silent. Chaucer's *Lyf* (pronounced "leef") became the modern *life*. In Middle English *name* was pronounced "nam-a," *five* was pronounced "feef," and *down* was pronounced "doon." In linguistic terms, the shift

was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

### ***Late-Modern English (1800-Present)***

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own [59,60].

The industrial and scientific revolutions created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek. Words like *oxygen*, *protein*, *nuclear*, and *vaccine* did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots. Such neologisms were not exclusively created from classical roots though, English roots were used for such terms as *horsepower*, *airplane*, and *typewriter*.

This burst of neologisms continues today, perhaps most visible in the field of electronics and computers. *Byte*, *cyber-*, *bios*, *hard-drive*, and *microchip* are good examples.

Also, the rise of the British Empire and the growth of global trade served not

only to introduce English to the world, but to introduce words into English. Hindi, and the other languages of the Indian subcontinent, provided many words, such as *pundit*, *shampoo*, *pajamas*, and *juggernaut*. Virtually every language on Earth has contributed to the development of English, from Finnish (*sauna*) and Japanese (*tycoon*) to the vast contributions of French and Latin.

The British Empire was a maritime empire, and the influence of nautical terms on the English language has been great. Phrases like *three sheets to the wind* have their origins onboard ships.

Finally, the military influence on the language during the latter half of twentieth century was significant. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries. Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced standard English. During the mid-20th century, however, a large number of British and American men served in the military. And consequently military slang entered the language like never before. *Blockbuster*, *nose dive*, *camouflage*, *radar*, *roadblock*, *spearhead*, and *landing strip* are all military terms that made their way into standard English.

Also significant beginning around 1600 AD was the English colonization of North America and the subsequent creation of American English. Some pronunciations and usages "froze" when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, some varieties of American English are closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern Standard English ('English English' or as it is often incorrectly termed 'British English') is. Some "Americanisms" are actually originally English English expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost at home (e.g., *fall* as a synonym for autumn, *trash* for rubbish, and *loan* as a verb instead of lend).

The American dialect also served as the route of introduction for many native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like *Mississippi*, *Roanoke*, and *Iowa*. Indian-sounding names like *Idaho* were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names

for other things besides places were also common. *Raccoon*, *tomato*, *canoe*, *barbecue*, *savanna*, and *hickory* have native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish has also been great influence on American English. *Mustang*, *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede*, and *vigilante* are all examples of Spanish words that made their way into English through the settlement of the American West.

A lesser number of words have entered American English from French and West African languages. Likewise dialects of English have developed in many of the former colonies of the British Empire. There are distinct forms of the English language spoken in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India and many other parts of the world.

English has now inarguably achieved global status. Whenever we turn on the news to find out what's happening in East Asia, or the Balkans, or Africa, or South America, or practically anywhere, local people are being interviewed and telling us about it in English. To illustrate the point when Pope John Paul II arrived in the Middle East recently to retrace Christ's footsteps and addressed Christians, Muslims and Jews, the pontiff spoke not Latin, not Arabic, not Italian, not Hebrew, not his native Polish. He spoke in English.

Indeed, if one looks at some of the facts about the amazing reach of the English language many would be surprised. English is used in over 90 countries as an official or semi-official language. English is the working language of the Asian trade group ASEAN. It is the de facto working language of 98 percent of international research physicists and research chemists. It is the official language of the European Central Bank, even though the bank is in Frankfurt and neither Britain nor any other predominantly English-speaking country is a member of the European Monetary Union. It is the language in which Indian parents and black parents in South Africa overwhelmingly wish their children to be educated. It is believed that over one billion people worldwide are currently learning English.

One of the more remarkable aspects of the spread of English around the world has been the extent to which Europeans are adopting it as their internal

lingua franca. English is spreading from northern Europe to the south and is now firmly entrenched as a second language in countries such as Sweden, Norway, Netherlands and Denmark. Although not an official language in any of these countries if one visits any of them it would seem that almost everyone there can communicate with ease in English. Indeed, if one switches on a television in Holland one would find as many channels in English (albeit subtitled), as there are in Dutch.

As part of the European Year of Languages, a special survey of European attitudes towards and their use of languages has just published. The report confirms that at the beginning of 2001 English is the most widely known foreign or second language, with 43% of Europeans claiming they speak it in addition to their mother tongue. Sweden now heads the league table of English speakers, with over 89% of the population saying they can speak the language well or very well. However, in contrast, only 36% of Spanish and Portuguese nationals speak English. What's more, English is the language rated as most useful to know, with over 77% of Europeans who do not speak English as their first language, rating it as useful. French rated 38%, German 23% and Spanish 6%. English has without a doubt become the global language.

## **2.2 The Development of Dialects in the English languages**

Advances in English dialectology have greatly fostered the investigation of the rise and growth of literary English.

The studies of Mackenzie, Heuser, Bohman, Ekwall, the writings of Wyld and the numerous analyses of individual dialects in Modern English, with historical backgrounds, have proved of great value in determining the relationship of Middle English dialects and their part in the formation of national literary English. The monumental work «Survey of English Dialects» by Orton and Dieth contains rich material on the local distribution of dialectal peculiarities of the English language.

The Old English territorial dialects were not a mechanical continuation of the old dialects of the Germans, who had settled in Britain in the fifth century,

although the former had originated from the latter. A proof of the independent evolution of dialects in the Old English period is furnished by the difference of the Mercian dialect from the Northumbrian although both come from the Anglian dialect [28,67].

In Middle English the development of each of the territorial dialects depends on the historical conditions peculiar to every district. In speaking of the central dialects, which supposedly bridge the extreme points, the growing differentiation of Southern and Northern dialects is of paramount importance.

From the start of the thirteenth century documents, to be found in London, display features that somewhat distinguish the London style from other dialectal subdivisions of the English language. According to Wyld, two distinctive dialectal types were in existence over the dialectal territory that included London:

- 1) the City type, identical with the Essex dialect and
- 2) the Central Southern type, i.e. the Middlesex dialect.

As time wears on the London dialect loses some of its predominant features and verges to the Middlesex dialect. The second half of the thirteenth and the first half of the fourteenth centuries witness an ousting of southern dialectal features from London English and their replacement by East Midland elements. Generally at the root of the literary language lies the dialect of a large city the economic, political and cultural centre of the country this dialect stemming from a mingled origin, but in course of time it oversteps the narrow dialectal confines.

In the London dialect of the early (twelfth century — the first half of the thirteenth century) and late (second half of the thirteenth — fourteenth centuries) periods, proportions in the relationship of sound patterns, typical of the Southern and East Midland idioms, are notable for the dialectal re-orientation of the language of London [26,125].

In the subsequent history of London English, which coincides with the history of literary English, two cases of phonetic changes are to be seen.

In the first case, the replacement of the «old» (i. e. historically southern) type was partial, and the sound pattern of most of the words in Modern English is a

direct continuation of the London pronunciation of the thirteenth century. An instance is offered by words with an initial Old English palatal spirant *ȝ*. The Mod. E. literary 'yard' is phonetically a historical continuation of the O. E. 'ȝeard'. This law, however, cannot interpret the Mod. E. 'give' in terms of the M. E. 'yeven, yiven' and the O. E. 'giefen'; it comes as a contribution of the northern dialects in which, under the effect of etymologically identical Scandinavian words, it used to be pronounced occlusive (g) at the beginning of the word.

In the second case, the «old» southern features, to be met with in the London English of the thirteenth century, are encountered in separate instances, while the literary pronouncing pattern, from the very start bending largely toward the East Midland dialect, encompasses even those words which might be met with in the early London records with a pronunciation characteristic of the southern dialects. An illustration in point is the substitution of the Wessex short *ea* which changed to *e* upon contraction in the southern dialect of M. E. (in the lengthening group *e*), the English type *a* coming from the north. In the «Proclamation of Henry III» (1258) both forms — the old Wessex *healden* and the Anglian *halden* — are to be found. In both cases phonetic substitution takes place (that is one pronouncing form is driven out by another) and not a process of phonetic changes, when gradual shifting in the articulation brings forth a new sound appearing in the given word in place of the old sound and derived from the latter.

In the sphere of morphology, the dialectal mingling and the replacement of «old» dialectal forms during dialectal re-orientation of the rising literary language fall in with the complex processes of unifying the forms of expression of grammatical meanings. For instance, considering the changes in the system of declension of the nouns in the M. E. period, one can establish the general trend of simplification of the case system and unification (standardisation) of the various types of declension. However, this general trend was various in the different dialects. The weak declension of the nouns proves not only comparatively more stable in the south of England than in the northern districts, but it even attracts into its orbit a number of nouns formerly pertaining to other declensions. In the London



dialect the substitution of the plural ending in -«by the plural form -scan be regarded as resulting from the evergrowing orientation of London English to the East Midland dialects. It stands to reason that this process could not hold good for the whole type of declension but only for some particular, surviving remnants, since the plural ending in -s dominated in London English from the very onset.

As far as the vocabulary is concerned the mingling of the dialects and the introduction into the London dialect of new words can best be shown by those words that had been, in former days, taken over by the inhabitants of the northern and north-eastern districts of Great Britain from the language of Scandinavian conquerors. The appearance of Scandinavian words in the records of the London dialect of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries is due to the interrelation of dialects and the growing influence of the dialects of the north-east of England in the evolution of the English language [44,260].

The complete abandonment of the English synonym or the clear-cut demarcation of the meanings of former synonyms was effected much later. But in a number of cases, when modern literary English retains only the one-time borrowed Scandinavianism, Chaucer makes use of both synonyms in his writings. Thus, for instance, although the English verb 'clepen' is more frequently used in Chaucer's «The Canterbury Tales» (107 cases), yet the verb 'callen' of Scandinavian origin, is quite familiarly met with (54 cases).

Writings on the history of the English language have always set great store by foreign influences. In addition to the usual cultural and historical relations in the life of the English people, the nation has experienced events that have favoured the large-scale settlement of foreign inhabitants in Britain and created thereby, for at least certain periods in its history, zonal or social bilingualism.

Bilingualism has been the rule in many countries until the formation of one standard system of the literary language; in other words, the parallel use in the country of the foreign and native tongues, the scope of use of those languages and the forms of their links depended on the history of the given country. Bilingualism was very common in mediaeval Europe; it was, first of all, the result of the use of

Latin in the written language.

The specific trait of the English language lays in the fact that the forms and causes of bilingualism altered, while at times three languages — English, French and Latin—were in use in the various spheres of communication.

Many valuable writings are out that threat of the Scandinavian contribution to the English language and the forms of adaptation of the Scandinavian material resulting from intercourse with inhabitants speaking almost cognate languages. However, dealing with the period when national literary English was being formed, one can speak but of the part played by the northern dialects alone that have assimilated the bulk of Scandinavian loans. I here-fore, when referring to the fourteenth—fifteenth centuries, the problem of interdialectal and not interlingual should come to the fore.

From the historical standpoint the specific relations between the language and the community can be conducive to infrastructure consequences. The special relations, that account for the usage the French language in England during the eleventh—thirteenth centuries (French was the language brought by the conquerors who took the reins of power into their state eventuated not only in a multitude of French loan-words, but also Dutch which is of utmost importance — they paved the way for those words to invade the English language not as isolated units but as large, complete systems, semantic of structural [52,11].

The term ‘semantic’ implies groups of words linked together by common notional sphere they designate (for instance, borrowings from French relating to the domains of administration and warfare, religion and law, customs and cookery, the hierarchy of court of antimilitary ranks and toilet requisites).

What is to be called an «intermediate» or «indirect» influence turns out to be a major factor of affecting one language by another. This type of influence can be referred to in the case of borrowings in great numbers, which fact is to be noted in the relationship of English and French. We have in mind the correlation of productive and unproductive models and the fate of neologisms of morphological or syntactical order. The role of neologisms finding their way into the language by

the productive patterns, which are in force in the language of the given period, is vital inasmuch as an intensive lexical reinforcement of a similar pattern secures its differentiation from other models. As a result, the periods of intensive enlargement of the vocabulary of a language are essential for its grammatical structure as well. Borrowing is one of the sources enriching the vocabulary of a language. It is natural that the borrowed words entering the given language can evolve only by the productive patterns at work in the given language.

The influence of transfers can also be traced in the development of grammatical meanings. Substantial changes occurred in Middle English in those grammatical categories that had a definite morphological expression in Old English. For instance, since very remote times trends had been noted in English toward the elimination of the morphological difference between transitive and intransitive verbs.

French verbs invaded Middle English in quantities; they began to be used on a par with the native verbs. In those days there existed no morphological distinction in the French transitive and intransitive verbs, and one and the same verb could convey both meanings [56,82].

No doubt, the assimilation of a large number of French verbs with both meanings that remained in English too, greatly accounted for the mingling of the transitive and intransitive verbs in English and the establishment of a new state of affairs. Here the French element should be singled out for mention since the French loans not only failed to arrest the process of disintegrating the morphological expression of the transitive—intransitive category but, on the contrary, those transfers enhanced this process swelling the ranks of verbs with both transitive and intransitive meanings.

With reference to vocabulary the relationship of languages can be diverse. Of the three possibilities available — the driving out of the native English word by the French loan, the gradual extinction of the borrowed word, the differentiation of the meanings of competing synonyms — it was precisely the last that led to the semantic development and enrichment of the English vocabulary introducing

semantic reforms in it.

The problem of the influence of one language upon another in the sphere of syntax is much more involved for solution than the problem of direct lexical borrowings or semantic translation loans. The «motivation» of syntactical structures and the fact that words in combinations, the more so in sentences, possess a lesser degree of «coupling» than the morphemes of words, gave the linguists an occasion to regard the syntax as a penetrating sphere (the so called «open» system) and exaggerate the assets of foreign influences on the syntactical structure of the language.

However, despite the period of bilingualism, very few are the syntactical constructions in English that go back directly to French patterns and the appearance of which could be explained by the direct influence of the French language during the Norman Conquest. The syntactical constructions of Modern English can be explained as a direct development of those forms the embryos of which, despite their qualitative differentiation from modern phraseology, were already in existence in the system of Old English. Even in particular cases of syntactical translation loans, constructions totally alien to the receiving language, cannot consolidate their positions in the language.

One of the distinctive features of the literary language of the state is its functional universality, i. e. the use of the literary language in all the spheres of communication in the given community. Two aspects of the functional universality of the literary language should be differentiated: one is the relation of the literary language to the form of literary activities, the other is the relation of the literary language to the social groups speaking it.

The key issue in the fifteenth and particularly in the sixteenth centuries was the problem of spreading the English language on all forms of literature, belles-lettres as well as science, philosophical and didactic literature. In the preceding centuries those domains were served by Latin, as the international language of science in mediaeval Europe and, somewhat earlier, by the French language, the source of rich Anglo-Norman fiction following the conquest of Britain by the Normans. The

situation changes completely in the sixteenth century [53,42].

The problems of the culture of the vernacular attract more and more attention and are discussed by writers, grammarians and theoreticians of literature. The relationship of the literary style of fiction and that of spoken language is regarded as a salient feature of the sixteenth century. A scrupulous analysis of various records, both literary and nonliterary, leads H. G. Wyld to the conclusion that the close links between spoken literary style and the language of English literature should by all means be emphasized. The language spoken by Shakespeare was the same language in which he wrote.

The writings of prominent authors can naturally contain subjective appreciations of the standard and properties of the literary language of their times, their attitude to the measures aimed at enriching and improving the language, and their views on the problems of linguistic construction. Those issues assume greater prominence during the formation of the national language and its literary criteria. The problem of qualities of literary English, i. e. of its possibilities to convey ideas in any stylistic forms, was raised primarily by:

- a) translators from other languages — and foremost of all the classical languages — who were after adequate translations;
- b) poets, theoreticians and verse critics, looking for new forms of versification which, to a certain measure, would imitate the genres of French and classical poetry;
- c) authors engaged in serious (science, didactic, philosophical prose, i. e. the type of literature over which Latin held its sway until the sixteenth century. Such authors were especially in need of terminological vocabulary.

To secure the right to be applied in all the genres of literary endeavour was a cardinal issue for the English language. Almost every author of the sixteenth century who took to a serious treatment of a given topic in English, considered it necessary to produce one argument or another in support of his right to use the vernacular. This fact by itself is a proof to the effect that literary English gained general acceptance but gradually.

As to the structure of the language the controversial issue of the sixteenth century referred, to begin with, to orthography and secondly to the enlargement of the word stock of the English language.

The problem of protecting the English language from incapable and immoderate transfers coupled with the necessity of replenishing it with foreign words has been, more than once, the subject of bitter polemic discussions. Most scholars have disfavoured overindulgence in foreign loans but not the practice of borrowing lacking words from other languages. At the same time, some prominent figures of the English Renaissance, like Lever, set themselves the task of driving out the Latin words and resorted to individual word coinage. Those attempts were more frequently to be seen in terminology. Borrowing as a means of enriching the vocabulary was assisted by:

- 1) the large number of translations from various languages into English during which it was at times much easier to take over the word from the original than look for its equivalent in the English language;

- 2) the existence in the language of an appreciable number of Latin-Roman roots, already assimilated by English which might, to a certain measure, favour new, kindred etymological borrowings;

- 3) the analytical system of English, already in operation at that time, which helped the morphological assimilation of loan roots since morphological formation was mainly analytical, at times agglutinative in nature, whereas word-building (i. e. the formation of derived roots) was predominantly agglutinative and occasionally analytical in nature (the so-called conversion).

Variety of linguistic forms was, one way or another, in existence during all the periods of development of English. The occurrence of forms derived from various dialects, historical and analytical forms, archaisms and neologisms, can be seen in any language. The competing variants can be of various origin. Firstly, this is the «new» and the «old» in the literal sense of the word, i.e. for instance, in phonetics, forms which reflect sound changes already complete or, on the contrary, not yet fully established; in grammar — analogical and

historical forms [51,88].

The second case is when the difference of forms is accountable in terms of various dialect origins. Both the southern form 'dradde' and the Midland form 'dredde' are equally met with in Chaucer's writings.

No problem of a unified standard language arose in Middle English since the language existed in the form of various local dialects.

The trend of selecting the form of the literary language was noted in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries although their consolidation and conscious codification comes much later. The diversity of variants at all levels of the language, occurring in the sixteenth century literary productions of even the celebrated hands at writing, is quite considerable.

The choice of one variant and the disappearance of another proceeds with a dissimilar degree of intensity at the various levels of the language. In matters of vocabulary the competing words are often seen to remain within the limits of literary usage when the meaning of one of them is shifted. Even if one of the competing words is discarded from daily use in literary style, it can pass over to the category of stabilized marked forms — archaisms. It can also turn into a stabilizing word and be used as a term pertaining to a definite sphere of knowledge. Many transfers from Latin and partly from French, after falling into disuse in spoken language, were retained in law and legal literature, the style of which was evolving historically under the strong impact of the Latin-Roman vocabulary.

As to grammar the problem of competing forms is most often reduced to the choice between the analogical and historical formations when the establishment of a single law, common to all forms of the given category, is excluded. For instance, quite often we notice that in Modern English, in a verb of the seventh class, out of two competing forms the historical survives whereas in another verb of the same morphological class the form derived by analogy of the productive verbal classes is used in Modern English.

Turning to the phonetic level of the language it is easy to reveal that many

variants of pronunciation still survive in Modern English. The more pronounced dialectisms have gradually died out under the impact of the accepted pronunciation advocated by the school and based, in the main, on the southern standard of English. However, it is precisely in the field of pronunciation that existed and continue in use the regional substandards which tell the Englishman from the Briton of northern England or the Kentish district. The concept of a standard criterion is one of the most significant notions in the period of stabilizing the national literary language. New types of evaluation grow up, one form of the language or another is appreciated as «correct» or «incorrect», or as «literary» or «nonliterary».

From the genetic point of view the literary standard is a complicated phenomenon. It is stabilizing by territorial as well as social distinctions closely merged and interrelated. Although some territorial dialect always lies at the root of the literary language, usually of mingled nature, it at once assumes familiar social traits as soon as it gets differentiated. Such conscious differentiation for the English language with its criteria takes place, according to Dobson, in the sixteenth century. He notes that evidences are available as to the idea gaining currency in the sixteenth century that there existed a correct form of English speech that should be taught. It was pointed out that this was the language of the south of England, especially the English of the London basin, not in use in the north and the west of the country. It was indicated that this was the language of educated and well-read men; particular stress was laid on the fact that this was the tongue of the royal court. Thus social criterion was introduced.

An important problem in the history of literary languages is the relation of the elemental and conscious factors when selecting the new literary forms. It is reasonable that both terms are taken in their relative sense. 'Elemental' means the process defined only by the functioning of the language and not regulated by any accepted standards. At the same time one should not overlook the part played by the conscious choice of one of the possible forms and units of the language in stabilizing the literary criteria, which fact is typical of the period of the



establishment of the literary language. What happens then to those phonetic, grammatical and lexical elements that have failed to gain a foothold in the language as a literary criterion? If they do not disappear completely, they continue in dual usage [58,441].

It should be noted that if every territorial dialect has its own history and bears the influence of the literary language, just like the reverse impact can be likened, in some sense, to the process of borrowing, the social dialects develop in constant comparison and juxtaposition to the literary language, i.e. their social differentiation is always relative. In those instances the linguistic and extralinguistic factors always interact.

### **Conclusion on Chapter II**

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches: Latin and the modern Romance languages (French etc.); the Germanic languages (English, German, Swedish etc.); the Indo-Iranian languages (Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit etc.); the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech etc.); the Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian; the Celtic languages (Welsh, Irish Gaelic etc.); Greek.

English is a member of the Germanic group of languages. It is believed that this group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. By the second century BC, this Common Germanic language had split into three distinct sub-groups:

1) East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to southeastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.

2) North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Hungarian and Estonian and is not an Indo-European language).

3) West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this is deceptive; Old English is much more important than these statistics would indicate. About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like *be*, *water*, and *strong*, for example, derive from Old English roots.

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem [Beowulf](#), lasted until about 1100. Shortly after the most important event in the development and history of the English language, the Norman Conquest.

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these "inkhorn" terms, but many survive to this day. The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

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attitudes towards and their use of languages has just published. The report confirms that at the beginning of 2001 English is the most widely known foreign or second language, with 43% of Europeans claiming they speak it in addition to their mother tongue. Sweden now heads the league table of English speakers, with over 89% of the population saying they can speak the language well or very well. However, in contrast, only 36% of Spanish and Portuguese nationals speak English. What's more, English is the language rated as most useful to know, with over 77% of Europeans who do not speak English as their first language, rating it as useful. French rated 38%, German 23% and Spanish 6%. English has without a doubt become the global language.

## CHAPTER III

### BORROWINGS. GROUPS OF BORROWINGS

#### 3.1 Types of Borrowings

Pronunciation Borrowing. If a speaker imitates someone else's pronunciation of a word which is already familiar to the borrower, we may speak of pronunciation borrowing. Usually the donor and borrowing idiolects are mutually intelligible and the motive is prestige. Grammatical Borrowing. We have seen that grammatical change can be brought about indirectly by borrowing — via sets of related loanwords. There is some doubt that grammatical change can result from borrowing from another language in any other way, but the issue is not settled.

Adaptation. Once a borrowed word has been thoroughly "naturalized", its subsequent history is like that of any form already in the language. French *state*, *navy*, *danger* came into ME with stressed , also found at the time in such inherited words as 'name', 'shake', 'bathe'; we now have in all these words... during the period of importation, the shape of an incoming word is subject to more haphazard variation. Different borrowers will imitate a foreign word in slightly different ways. Monolinguals to whom the word is passed on will alter its shape even more. This modification of the shape of the incoming word is called adaptation: usually it leads to a shape more in keeping with the inherited pronunciation habits of the borrowers.

The buffeting-about of the incoming word often results, in the end, in a single surviving and fixed shape, but sometimes two or more shapes become more or less equally naturalized and survive, side by side, in competition. Thus *garage* has three current pronunciations: [garavz], [geravj], and [gaerijJ, the last primarily British. In the future, one of these may spread at the expense of the other two until finally only one survives.

If a language or dialect takes only scattered loans from a single donor, one is not apt to find any great consistency in the adaptation. The few English words from Chinese, such as *chop sueij*, *chow mein*, *typhoon*, entered English at various

periods and from different Chinese dialects, and show no regularity of correspondence with the shapes of the Chinese models.

On the other hand, if many loanwords come from a single source over a relatively short period, there may develop a fashion of adaptation, which then makes for greater consistency in the treatment of further loans from the same source. The Normans, later the North French, had such a fashion for the importation of learned loans from book or clerical Latin. English borrowed many of the words *statutes* or entails a semantic change. A shape change is sometimes involved. English acquisition of *wiener* [wijnsr] involved no such change, since the language already had a morpheme represented by the shape [wijn] and several morphemes represented by suffixed [-ɛr]. Our acquisition of *allegro* [aleyrow],- on the other hand, entailed a shape change of the type just described.

Other kinds of phylogenetic change are not directly implied by a single new importation, but they may come about as the result of a whole wave of loanwords from some single source, along the following lines:

Grammatical change. ME acquired a large number of Norman-French adjectives containing the derivational suffix which is now -able -iable: *agreeable*, *excusable*, *variable*, and others. At first, each of these whole words must have functioned in English as a single morpheme. But English has also borrowed some of the verbs which in French underlay the adjectives, and in due time there came to be a large enough number of pairs of borrowed for the recurrent termination to take on the function of a derivational affix in English. This is shown by the subsequent use of the suffix with native English stems: *bearable*, *eatable*, *drinkable* (the stems tracing back to OE /beran/, /etan/, /drinkan/)... It is to be noted that the derivational affix was not borrowed as such: it occurred as an integral part of various whole words and only the latter were actually borrowed. Apparently we can generalize on this point: loanwords are almost always free forms (words or phrases); bound forms are borrowed as such only with extreme rarity. *Alternation Change*. Our learned vocabulary, borrowed directly or indirectly from Latin and Greek, includes a good number of words like *datum*: *data*, *phenomenon*: *phe-*

nomina, matrix: matrices. What has happened here is that we have borrowed both the singular and the plural forms of the word. Since English already had the inflectional category of number, these importations do not imply any grammatical change, only additional patterns of alternation. In such cases there is usually competition between the imported and native patterns. Most of us tend to use data as a singular "mass-noun", like milk, saying this data is rather than these data are. Doublet plurals in competition are even commoner: matrixes [mejtriksaz] and matrices [mejtrasijz], automata and automatons, gladioluses and gladioli. One cannot safely predict which alternative in such a case will in the end win out; currently, in English, the imported plural has a more learned connotation than the native one.

**Phonemic and Phonetic Change.** The first few members of a community to use a word from another language or from a highly divergent dialect of their own, may imitate the pronunciation of the model accurately. Any isolated borrowing which spreads into general usage, however, is unlikely to retain its foreign pronunciation if that in any way goes against the pronunciation habits of the borrowers. Some of us pronounce initial [ts] in tsetse fly, tsar: most, however, begin the words with [z]. Even French words like rouge, garage, mirage, probably end more commonly in English with [j] than with [ʒ]. However, it would seem that a great flood of loanwords from some single source, involving many bilinguals as the channel for the borrowings and with a major prestige factor, can have some striking consequences in articulation habits. The stock example, once again, is the influence of Norman French on English: it was through this influence that English acquired initial [vʒ], and, consequently, the phonemic contrast between [v] and [f], [z] and [ts].

**Loanshifts.** When confronted with a new object or practice for which words are needed, the borrower may somehow adapt material already in his own language. ... a new idiom arises, and since it arises under the impact of another linguistic system, it is a loanshift [47,69].

The spread of Christianity into England in the 7th century carried many Latin words into OE as cultural loanwords: abbot, altar, pope, cap, sock, cook, to cite but a few. But for some of the fundamental notions of the religion, old Germanic

words were used: God, heaven, hell were merely stripped of their heathen connotations and invested with the meanings described by the missionaries. The influence on the borrowing language is minimal in cases of this kind: the only change directly entailed is semantic.

If the model in the donor language is a composite form, then the borrower may build a parallel composite form out of native raw material: the result is a loan-translation.

The first condition need not detain us long. Our reference must be to apparent rather than genuine understanding, because in many known instances there is really some measure of misunderstanding.

The second is more difficult. We cannot profit from idle speculation about the psychology of borrowers, but must confine ourselves to such overt evidence as is at hand. This may lead us to miss some motives of importance, but we can be much surer of those which we do discern. These are two in number: prestige and need-filling.

The examples of borrowing given involve in most cases the development of an idiom be it word in one language or dialect on the basis of one already current in another. There are several different ways in which this can come about, also known or suspected cases of borrowing of other than lexical items. In this section we shall sort these out, and also specify the kinds of phylogenetic change that can be brought about, directly or indirectly, by the different kinds of borrowing. Whenever the need-filling motive plays a part, the borrower is being confronted with some new object or practice for which he needs words. Under these conditions three rather distinct things may happen, giving rise respectively to loanwords, loanshifts, and loanblends. The borrower may adopt the donor's word along with the object or practice; the new form in the borrower's speech is then a loanword.

Whenever two idiolects come into contact, one or both may be modified. In face-to-face communication, either speaker may imitate some feature of the other's speech; when the contact is indirect, as in reading, the influence can of course pass

only in one direction. The feature which is imitated is called the model; the idiolect (or language) in which the model occurs, or the speaker of that idiolect, is called the donor; the idiolect (or language) which acquires something new in the process is the borrowing idiolect (or language). The process itself is called "borrowing", but this term requires some caution. Thus, that which is "borrowed" does not have to be paid back; the donor makes no sacrifice and does not have to be asked for permission. Indeed, nothing changes hands: the donor goes on speaking as before, and only the borrower's speech is altered [56,79].

With regard to compounding, prefixing, and suffixing, word-formation proceeds either on a native or on a foreign basis of coining. The term 'native basis of coining' means that a derivative must be analyzable as consisting of two independent morphemes (in the event of a compound as rain-bow) or of a combination of independent and dependent morpheme (in the case of prefixal and suffixal).

### **3.2 Loan words integrated into English Vocabulary**

The English vocabulary development activities and resources in this and related sites are based primarily on Latin and Greek elements that are included in thousands of English terms and expressions. A very small number of schools currently provide learning situations and activities that include vocabulary etymology and histories; therefore, it is advantageous for students to learn more about English development, as well as, **oxymora** (a.k.a. oxymorons), stories, **pleonasms** (redundancies), and other related terms that are provided online with this Focusing on Words site.

To know the origin of words is to know how men think, how they have fashioned their civilizations. Word history traces the paths of human relationships, the bridges from mind to mind, and from nation to nation [36,274].

Some of the words in English can be traced to a remote past; some have histories that began yesterday or are even beginning today. Slow changes, swift new coinages of science or slang, ancient or recent borrowing from many tongues;



together they give flexibility, power, and beauty to English, the richest and most widespread language of all time.

Remember, words are the tools with which you think, communicate, and learn. The more words you know, the better you can think, communicate, and absorb knowledge; not just about English, but about everything that is important to you.

The more limited your vocabulary is, the harder survival is in our global-economic society; and certainly you want more than just to survive. It is an indisputable fact that your chances for success increase with the size and applications of your vocabulary.

Building a larger vocabulary doesn't require you to spend hours memorizing definitions; however, it does require that you become word-conscious, that you have a curiosity about words, not only about their meanings but especially about their origins.

Without considering the immense number of words that we have constantly borrowed from every language with which English-speaking people have been in contact, we owe a large volume of our words to the period that we call "Modern English", beginning, roughly, with the sixteenth century.

Scholarship, previously limited largely to the clergy, was opened to just about every one, and the study of classical learning became the ultimate way to be educated.

Writers and thinkers sprang up from every walk of life, and did not hesitate to select, or to choose, their words from the Latin of Cicero, or Horace, or Ovid, or Seneca.

Many also went to the Greek of Aeschylus, or Plato, or Plutarch to derive their words. It is thus chiefly through these writers and their unceasing stream of successors that the great bulk of words derived directly from Latin and Greek ancestry and meanings have entered our language.

From this practice also has descended our present custom of looking to one or another of those languages for the formation of new words, especially those of scientific nature.

As stated earlier, words are the building blocks of thought. They are the means by which we understand the ideas of others and express our own opinions. It is only logical then that people who know how to use words concisely and accurately find it easier to achieve their aims.

In fact, you should realize that formal education has less relationship to vocabulary achievement than you might expect, indicating that people This and the related linking sites will show you how to expand and to improve your English vocabulary skills.

The Renaissance arrived to England in around 1500 with a burst of literary works being published in Early Modern English thanks to the developments in mass printing. It was only at this time that some initial consolidation was beginning to occur in the language's vocabulary. After centuries of the church dictating religious guidelines for the cultural and spiritual life of Europeans, an increased nostalgic interest in the humanistic values of ancient Greece and Rome produced a torrent of unparalleled creativity.

Scholarly research was written in Latin, as English was considered poor in vocabulary and too crude for expressing abstract ideas. A large portion of such words were originally Latin but entered English through their French manifestation. The education of children, however, was now being carried out in English. This entailed the use of new words from Greek, while Latin continued to be a steady source of vocabulary.

from Greek	democracy, hexagon, monogamy, physics, rhythm,theory
from Latin	client, conviction, index, library, medicine, orbit, recipe

Key cultural achievements of this period were the first official publication of the Bible in English (the Saint James Bible) and the immense corpus of William

Shakespeare's literary enterprise, and that of other writers. Shakespeare contributed a wealth of newly coined and/or borrowed English words.

from William Shakespeare	courtship, bedroom, discontent, accused, addiction, amazement, assassination, critic, employer, engagements, savagery, transcendence, urging, watchdog, zany
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The word set for naming a person riding a horse provides an illustrative interim summary for the development of **English vocabulary** up to this point. The simplest option is *rider* (from the Anglo-Saxon *ritter*, *horseman* entered through the influence of the Vikings' Old Norse *\*hross*. *Knight*, originally Old English *\*cniht*, began being used around 1300. *Cavalier* (from French *chevalier*), or the elegantly elevated *equestrian*, directly derived from Latin, comprise the more elevated choices here.

With more published material in English, England's rise to power under Elizabeth 1, and increased English influence on international **business** and trade, diplomacy, and colonialism, English was brought to the fore as the national language of England, proudly used by all the English people. The year 1650 marks the transition into the Modern English period. Further factors contributed to the growth of English as a powerful language. Political upheavals led to the rise of port towns and former lower classes that further strengthened common English usage. The publication of the first comprehensive and official **dictionary** of the English language by Samuel Johnson in 1755 began the process of canonizing the **written language**. As education in English was now being offered to the masses, who also enjoyed access to libraries in English, more and more people could enrich their vocabularies and improve their English language aptitude. The scientific revolution and renewed interest in the classics during the 19th century have opened the gate for yet another wave of scientific and technical terms for newly found concepts and discoveries – all derived from Greek and Latin roots, prefixes and suffixes. The current proportion of Latin words in English is 29%,

while Greek contributes about 6%.

from Latin	aquarium, binoculars, radioactive, ambiguous, intermission, itinerary, rejuvenate, supersonic, quadrangle, submarine, multitude, linguistic
from Greek	Zoology, philanthropy, bacteria, chlorophyll, psychosis, cholesterol, cyanide, chromosome, metamorphosis, thermometer, trauma, xenophobia, telegraph, telephone, polymer, orthodoxy

The British colonization of North America, Australia and parts of Asia and Africa has resulted in the creation of whole continents speaking English, which in turn has been enriched by the mother tongues of locals and immigrants. In 1828, Noah Webster published the first official **dictionary** of American English, which established differences in spelling between **British** and American English and further paved the way to differences in vocabulary between these two language varieties. The rise of the mass media during the 20th century: newspapers, cinema, radio, television and The Internet have given the latest push to English in becoming a global language, as English is the main language used. This in turn brings more words into English from just about any other language on the planet but also has the potential to disintegrate English itself to new emerging local English varieties.

A steady influx of international words has been coming in during the past two centuries. Just think about the words for all food sorts introduced from each origin language! The following table presents some common examples:

from Spanish	aficionado, amigo, burrito, canyon, caramba, cargo, embargo, guacamole, guitar, macho, marijuana, mustang, poncho, pueblo, rodeo, taco, plaza, vanilla
from Modern French	café, lingerie, connoisseur, coup d'état, en route, hors d'œuvre, panache, sabotage, envelope, and avalanche, not to mention chic, vis-à-vis, attaché, and à la carte, bon voyage, rendezvous

from German	kindergarten, poodle, yodel, blitzkrieg, zeitgeist, angst, delicatessen, hamburger, schnitzel
from Dutch	brandy, yacht, waffle, apartheid, boss, cookie, dam, drill, tattoo, cruiser
from Italian	balcony, casino, umbrella, balloon, carnival, ghetto, graffiti, Madonna, Mezzanine, spaghetti, pasticcio, cappuccino, (and many other foods), concert, piano, maestro, soprano, andante, opera (and other musical terms)
from Arabic	alcohol, algebra, candy, lemon, azimuth, elixir, giraffe, gazelle, sugar
from the languages of India	chutney, bandana, curry, amok polo, bungalow, jungle, loot, shampoo, pajamas
from Japanese	futon, tycoon, kimono, Ninja, Karaoke, Zen, karate, sushi, bonsai, origami
from African languages	banana, yam, voodoo, banjo, chimpanzee, zebra
from Native American languages	chipmunk, moccasin, tipi (also spelled teepee), skunk, squash, pecan, persimmon, skunk, totem, quinine, avocado, chocolate, wigwam, raccoon, tomato, hurricane
from languages of the Pacific	boomerang, kangaroo, sarong, ketchup, koala, kiwi

In sum, other languages than Germanic, French, Latin and Greek have contributed 6% to the vocabulary of English, while the 4 % remaining derive from proper names.

The riches of the English vocabulary allow us to use a vast array of word synonyms to express subtle nuances in meaning. Familiarity with the origins of the words and their shades of meaning can help you make the right choice in your English writing. Do you have a *job*, *profession*, *occupation*, *vocation*, or *calling*? Does your boyfriend seem *male*, *manly*, *macho*, *virile* or *masculine*? The **White Smoke** synonym dictionary and **enrichment** database provides an excellent tool for trying to conquer the never-ending English vocabulary [59,60].

### Conclusion on Chapter III

The English vocabulary development activities and resources in this and related sites are based primarily on Latin and Greek elements that are included in thousands of English terms and expressions. A very small number of schools currently provide learning situations and activities that include vocabulary etymology and histories; therefore, it is advantageous for students to learn more about English development, as well as, **oxymora** (a.k.a. oxymorons), stories, **pleonasms** (redundancies), and other related terms that are provided online with this Focusing on Words site. To know the origin of words is to know how men think, how they have fashioned their civilizations. Word history traces the paths of human relationships, the bridges from mind to mind, and from nation to nation.

Some of the words in English can be traced to a remote past; some have histories that began yesterday or are even beginning today. Slow changes, swift new coinages of science or slang, ancient or recent borrowing from many tongues; together they give flexibility, power, and beauty to English, the richest and most widespread language of all time.

The Renaissance arrived to England in around 1500 with a burst of literary works being published in Early Modern English thanks to the developments in mass printing. It was only at this time that some initial consolidation was beginning to occur in the language's vocabulary. After centuries of the church

dictating religious guidelines for the cultural and spiritual life of Europeans, an increased nostalgic interest in the humanistic values of ancient Greece and Rome produced a torrent of unparalleled creativity.

The scientific revolution and renewed interest in the classics during the 19th century have opened the gate for yet another wave of scientific and technical terms for newly found concepts and discoveries – all derived from Greek and Latin roots, prefixes and suffixes. The current proportion of Latin words in English is 29%, while Greek contributes about 6%. Key cultural achievements of this period were the first official publication of the Bible in English (the Saint James Bible) and the immense corpus of William Shakespeare's literary enterprise, and that of other writers. Shakespeare contributed a wealth of newly coined and/or borrowed English words. The British colonization of North America, Australia and parts of Asia and Africa has resulted in the creation of whole continents speaking English, which in turn has been enriched by the mother tongues of locals and immigrants. In 1828, Noah Webster published the first official **dictionary** of American English, which established differences in spelling between **British** and American English and further paved the way to differences in vocabulary between these two language varieties. The rise of the mass media during the 20th century: newspapers, cinema, radio, television and The Internet have given the latest push to English in becoming a global language, as English is the main language used. This in turn brings more words into English from just about any other language on the planet but also has the potential to disintegrate English itself to new emerging local English varieties.

## CONCLUSION

As we know, throughout the history of the English language since the 5-th century up to 12 modern times the English wordstock has been constantly changed, though at certain times changes took place more rapidly than at other times. These are accepted as the main reasons of its development, but there are also the internal tendencies in the evolution of the English wordstock. The English vocabulary of the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> century had adopted words from more than 50 languages: French, Scandinavian, Germanic, Italian, Indian, etc. Among them we can outline a group of oriental borrowings.

They appeared in the English vocabulary as foreign words, but later were constantly used by the natives, and in this way they were introduced into the English wordstock. The Old English territorial dialects were not a mechanical continuation of the old dialects of the Germans, who had settled in Britain in the fifth century, although the former had originated from the latter. A proof of the independent evolution of dialects in the Old English period is furnished by the recognised difference of the Mercian dialect from the Northumbrian although both come from the Anglian dialect.

In Middle English the development of each of the territorial dialects depends on the historical conditions peculiar to every district. In speaking of the central dialects, which supposedly bridge the extreme points, the growing differentiation of Southern and Northern dialects is of paramount importance. The specific trait of the English language lays in the fact that the forms and causes of bilingualism altered, while at times three languages — English, French and Latin—were in use in the various spheres of communication.

Many valuable writings are out that treat of the Scandinavian contribution to the English language and the forms of adaptation of the Scandinavian material resulting from intercourse with inhabitants speaking almost cognate languages.

The greatest single work of Old English literature is the *Beowulf*. It is a poem of some 3000 lines belonging to the type known as the folk-epic, that is to say, a poem which, whatever it may owe to the individual poet who gave it final form,



embodies material long current among the people.

In linguistic science the study of the formation of literary language and its historical relation with regional dialects has been grounded on the factual data of various languages. At the same time, some prominent figures of the English Renaissance, like Lever, set themselves the task of driving out the Latin words and resorted to individual word coinage. Those attempts were more frequently to be seen in terminology. Borrowing as a means of enriching the vocabulary was assisted by:

1) the large number of translations from various languages into English during which it was at times much easier to take over the word from the original than look for its equivalent in the English language;

2) the existence in the language of an appreciable number of Latin-Roman roots, already assimilated by English which might, to a certain measure, favour new, kindred etymological borrowings;

3) the analytical system of English, already in operation at that time, which helped the morphological assimilation of loan roots since morphological formation was mainly analytical, at times agglutinative in nature, whereas word-building (i. e. the formation of derived roots) was predominantly agglutinative and occasionally analytical in nature (the so-called conversion). Turning to the phonetic level of the language it is easy to reveal that many variants of pronunciation still survive in Modern English.

An important problem in the history of literary languages is the relation of the elemental and conscious factors when selecting the new literary forms. It is reasonable that both terms are taken in their relative sense. The English vocabulary development activities and resources in this and related sites are based primarily on Latin and Greek elements that are included in thousands of English terms and expressions. To know the origin of words is to know how men think, how they have fashioned their civilizations. Word history traces the paths of human relationships, the bridges from mind to mind, and from nation to nation. Some of the words in English can be traced to a remote past; some have histories

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