

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС  
ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ  
ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ  
ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ СТИЛИСТИКАСИ КАФЕДРАСИ**

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**ETYMOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK AND  
THE ROLE OF WORDS IN THE LANGUAGE**

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## Introduction

English vocabulary is very rich. Are all English words really English. In reality, they are — if we regard them in the light of present-day English. If, however, their origins are looked into, the picture may seem somewhat bewildering. A person who does not know English but knows French (Italian, Latin, Spanish) is certain to recognise a great number of familiar-looking words when skipping through an English book.

The most characteristic feature of English is usually said to be its mixed character. Many linguists consider foreign influence, especially that of French, to be the most important factor in the history of English. This wide-spread viewpoint is supported only by the evidence of the English word-stock, as its grammar and phonetic system are very stable and not easily influenced by other languages. While it is altogether wrong to speak of the mixed character of the language as a whole, the composite nature of the English vocabulary cannot be denied.

To comprehend the nature of the English vocabulary and its historical development it is necessary to examine the etymology of its different layers, the historical causes of their appearance, their volume and role and the comparative importance of native and borrowed elements in replenishing the English vocabulary.

The actuality of this course paper is that one can have the possibility to know the etymological survey of the English word-stock and extra- linguistic factors to the borrowing words.

2. The main aim of the work is to study, analyze the origin of the English words.
3. The scientific decision of set aims and purposes will maintain the easiest way for better learning and knowing English vocabulary history.

4. The scientific novelty of the work. As we know, there aren't enough manuals which study the origin of the English words. The novelty of the work is that in the work one can find new approaches of researching of English words' origins.

#### 5. The practical value

Work can be useful for all who interested in English. At the university information which taken from the work can be used as a ready – materials at the lectures of Lexicology, History of the Language and Comparative Typology. Moreover, this course work can also be useful for other students who are interested in the origins of the words.

#### 6. Sources

Basic information of the course work is given from the manuals, articles, researches of the great scholars such as: by I.V. Arnold, “A Course in modern English Lexicology” , by R.S. Ginzburg, “The English Word” and others. The information which is taken from Internet sites, World Book Encyclopedia and many other dictionaries also served as a source of information.

#### 7. The structure of the work

Work consists of Introduction, Main part, Conclusion and the list of used literatures.

The introduction is the brief plot of the qualification paper theme, and also it gives us information about the structure of the course work.

The main part consists of two chapters.

Chapter one has two paragraphs: History of Etymology, The Influence of other nations on the English language.

Chapter two includes three paragraphs which deal with the problems of Native and borrowed words, Assimilation of the borrowings.

Etymological Doublets, International words.

Conclusion deals with the theoretical and practical result of the work.

The list of used literature directs us to the list of literatures that have been used in carrying out the work.

## **Chapter I. Etymology as a branch of Lexicology.**

Etymology is the study of the history of words, their origins, and how their form and meaning have changed over time. By an extension, the term "etymology (of a word)" means the origin of a particular word. For languages with a long written history, etymologists make use of texts in these languages and texts about the languages to gather knowledge about how words were used during earlier periods of their history and when they entered the languages in question. Etymologists also apply the methods of comparative linguistics to reconstruct information about languages that are too old for any direct information to be available. By analyzing related languages with a technique known as the comparative method, linguists can make inferences about their shared parent language and its vocabulary. In this way, word roots have been found that can be traced all the way back to the origin of, for instance, the Indo-European language family. Even though etymological research originally grew from the philological tradition, currently much etymological research is done on language families where little or no early documentation is available, such as Uralic and Austronesian.

### **1 History of Etymology**

The search for meaningful origins for familiar or strange words is far older than the modern understanding of linguistic evolution and the relationships of languages, which began no earlier than the 18th century. From Antiquity through the 17th century, from Pāṇini to Pindar to Sir Thomas Browne, etymology had been a form of witty wordplay, in which the supposed origins of words were changed to satisfy contemporary requirements.

The Greek poet Pindar (born in approximately 522 BCE) employed creative etymologies to flatter his patrons. Plutarch employed etymologies insecurely based on fancied resemblances in sounds. Isidore of Seville's *Etymologiae* was an encyclopedic tracing of "first things" that remained uncritically in use in Europe until the sixteenth century. .<sup>1</sup> *Etymologicum genuinum* is a grammatical encyclopedia edited at Constantinople in the ninth century, one of several similar Byzantine works. The fourteenth-century *Legenda Aurea* begins each vita of a saint with a fanciful excursus in the form of an etymology.

### Ancient Sanskrit

The Sanskrit linguists and grammarians of ancient India were the first to make a comprehensive analysis of linguistics and etymology. The study of Sanskrit etymology has provided Western scholars with the basis of historical linguistics and modern etymology. Four of the most famous Sanskrit linguists are:

- Yaska (c. 6th-5th centuries BCE)
- Pānini (c. 520-460 BCE)
- Kātyāyana (2nd century BCE)
- Patañjali (2nd century BCE)

These linguists were not the earliest Sanskrit grammarians, however. They followed a line of ancient grammarians of Sanskrit who lived several centuries earlier like Sakatayana of whom very little is known. The earliest of attested etymologies can be found in Vedic literature in the philosophical explanations of the Brahmanas, Aranyakas, and Upanishads.

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Buranov J.B, Muminov A.A. Practical Course in English Lexicology. T. "Ukituvchi" 1990. p. 54.<sup>1</sup>

The analyses of Sanskrit grammar done by the previously mentioned linguists involved extensive studies on the etymology (called Nirukta or Vyutpatti in Sanskrit) of Sanskrit words, because the ancient Indo-Aryans considered sound and speech itself to be sacred and, for them, the words of the sacred Vedas contained deep encoding of the mysteries of the soul and God.

### Ancient Greco-Roman

One of the earliest philosophical texts of the Classical Greek period to address etymology was the Socratic dialogue Cratylus by Plato. During much of the dialogue, Socrates makes guesses as to the origins of many words, including the names of the gods. In his Odes Pindar spins complimentary etymologies to flatter his patrons. Plutarch (Life of Numa Pompilius) spins an etymology for pontifex ("bridge-builder"):

the priests, called Pontifices.... have the name of Pontifices from potens, powerful, because they attend the service of the gods, who have power and command over all. Others make the word refer to exceptions of impossible cases; the priests were to perform all the duties possible to them; if any thing lay beyond their power, the exception was not to be cavilled at. The most common opinion is the most absurd, which derives this word from pons, and assigns the priests the title of bridge-makers. The sacrifices performed on the bridge were amongst the most sacred and ancient, and the keeping and repairing of the bridge attached, like any other public sacred office, to the priesthood.

### Medieval

Isidore of Seville compiled a volume of etymologies to illuminate the triumph of religion. Each saint's legend in Jacob de Voragine's Legenda Aurea begins with an etymological discourse on the saint's name:

Lucy is said of light, and light is beauty in beholding, after that S. Ambrose saith: The nature of light is such, she is gracious in beholding, she spreadeth over all without

lying down, she passeth in going right without crooking by right long line; and it is without dilation of tarrying, and therefore it is showed the blessed Lucy hath beauty of virginity without any corruption; essence of charity without disordinate love; rightful going and devotion to God, without squaring out of the way; right long line by continual work without negligence of slothful tarrying. In Lucy is said, the way of light <sup>2</sup>

### Modern era

Etymology in the modern sense emerged in the late 18th century European academia, within the context of the wider "Age of Enlightenment," although preceded by 17th century pioneers such as Marcus Zuerius van Boxhorn, Vossius, Stephen Skinner, Elisha Coles, and William Wotton. The first known systematic attempt to prove the relationship between two languages on the basis of similarity of grammar and lexicon was made in 1770 by the Hungarian, János Sajnovics, when he attempted to demonstrate the relationship between Sami and Hungarian (work that was later extended to the whole Finno-Ugric language family in 1799 by his fellow countryman, Samuel Gyarmathi).

The origin of modern historical linguistics is often traced back to Sir William Jones, an English philologist living in India, who in 1782 observed the genetic relationship between Sanskrit, Greek and Latin. Jones published his *The Sanscrit Language* in 1786, laying the foundation for the field of Indo-European linguistics

The study of etymology in Germanic philology was introduced by Rasmus Christian Rask in the early 19th century and elevated to a high standard with the *German Dictionary of the Brothers Grimm*. The successes of the comparative approach culminated in the Neogrammarian school of the late 19th century. Still in the 19th century, the philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche used etymological strategies (principally and most famously in *On the Genealogy of Morals*, but also elsewhere) to argue that

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<sup>2</sup> Т.М. Беляева «Вопросы английского языка в синхронии и диахронии». Л. 1967. стр. 89

moral values have definite historical (specifically, cultural) origins where modulations in meaning regarding certain concepts (such as "good" and "evil") show how these ideas had changed over time—according to which value-system appropriated them. This strategy gained popularity in the 20th century, and philosophers, such as Jacques Derrida, have used etymologies to indicate former meanings of words to de-center the "violent hierarchies" of Western metaphysics.

## **2. THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER NATIONS ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Why Are Words Borrowed? This question partially concerns the historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process. Each time two nations come into close contact, certain borrowings are a natural consequence. The nature of the contact may be different. It may be wars, invasions or conquests when foreign words are in effect imposed upon the reluctant conquered nation. There are also periods of peace when the process of borrowing is due to trade and international cultural relations.

These latter circumstances are certainly more favourable for stimulating the borrowing process, for during invasions and occupations the natural psychological reaction of the oppressed nation is to reject and condemn the language of the oppressor. In this respect the linguistic heritage of the Norman Conquest seems exceptional, especially if compared to the influence of the Mongol-Tartar Yoke on the Russian language. The Mongol-Tartar Yoke also represented a long period of cruel oppression, yet the imprint left by it on the Russian vocabulary is comparatively insignificant.

The difference in the consequences of these evidently similar historical events is usually explained by the divergence in the level of civilisation of the two conflicting nations. Russian civilisation and also the level of its language development at the time of

the Mongol-Tartar invasion were superior to those of the invaders. That is why the Russian language successfully resisted the influence of a less developed language system. On the other hand, the Norman culture of the 11th c. was certainly superior to that of the Saxons. The result was that an immense number of French words forced their way into English vocabulary. Yet, linguistically speaking, this seeming defeat turned into a victory. Instead of being smashed and broken by the powerful intrusion of the foreign element, the English language managed to preserve its essential structure and vastly enriched its expressive resources with the new borrowings.

But all this only serves to explain the conditions which encourage the borrowing process. The question of *why* words are borrowed by one language from another is still unanswered.

Sometimes it is done to fill a gap in vocabulary. When the Saxons borrowed Latin words for "butter", "plum", "beet", they did it because their own vocabularies lacked words for these new objects. For the same reason the words *potato* and *tomato* were borrowed by English from Spanish when these vegetables were first brought to England by the Spaniards.<sup>5</sup>

But there is also a great number of words which are borrowed for other reasons. There may be a word (or even several words) which expresses some particular concept, so that there is no gap in the vocabulary and there does not seem to be any need for borrowing. Yet, one more word is borrowed which means almost the same, — almost, but not exactly. It is borrowed because it represents the same concept in some new aspect, supplies a new shade of meaning or a different emotional colouring (see Ch. 10). This type of borrowing enlarges groups of synonyms and greatly provides to enrich the expressive resources of the vocabulary. That is how the Latin *cordial* was added to the native *friendly*, the French *desire* to *wish*, the Latin *admire* and the French *adore* to *like* and *love*.

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<sup>5</sup>The World Book Encyclopedia. USA. 1994. № G.G. Volume p/ 905/

It is true that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive amongst the world's languages contains an immense number of words of foreign origin. Explanations for this should be sought in the history of the language which is closely connected with the history of the nation speaking the language. In order to have a better understanding of the problem, it will be necessary to go through a brief survey of certain historical facts, relating to different epochs.

*The first century B. C.* Most of the territory now, known to us as Europe is occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of the continent are Germanic tribes, "barbarians" as the arrogant Romans call them. Theirs is really a rather primitive stage of development, especially if compared with the high civilisation and refinement of Rome. They are primitive cattle- breeders and know almost nothing about land cultivation. Their tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements. The latter fact is of some importance for the purposes of our survey. Now comes an event which brings an important change. After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans these two opposing peoples come into peaceful contact. Trade is carried on, and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products known to the Germanic tribes were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them (Lat. *butyrum*, *caseus*). It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these fruits and vegetables enter their vocabularies reflecting this new knowledge: *cherry* (Lat. *cerasum*), *pear* (Lat. *pirum*), *plum* (Lat. *prunus*), *pea* (Lat. *pisum*), *beet* (Lat. *beta*), *pepper* (Lat. *piper*). <sup>4</sup>

(It is interesting to note that the word *plant* is also a Latin borrowing<sup>1</sup> of this period )<sup>4</sup>

Here are some more examples of Latin borrowings of this period: *cup* (Lat. *cuppa*), *kitchen* (Lat. *coquina*), *mill* (Lat. *molina*), *port* (Lat. *portus*), *wine* (Lat. *vinum*).

The fact that all these borrowings occurred is in itself significant. It was certainly important that the Germanic tribal languages gained a considerable number of new words and were thus enriched. What was even more significant was that all these Latin words were destined to become the earliest group of borrowings in the future English language which was — much later — built on the basis of the Germanic tribal languages. Which brings us to another epoch, much closer to the English language as we know it, both in geographical and chronological terms.

*The fifth century A. D.* Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous amongst them being the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea now known as the English Channel to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders, but they were no match for the military-minded Teutons and gradually yielded most of their territory. They retreated to the North and South-West (modern Scotland, Wales and Cornwall). Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words (Mod. E. *bald*, *down*, *glen*, *druid*, *bard*, *cradle*). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc. The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts and features of their territory remained Celtic. For instance, the names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning "river" and "water".

Ironically, even the name of the English capital originates from Celtic *Llyn* + *dun* in which *llyn* is another Celtic word for "river" and *dun* stands for "a fortified hill", the meaning of the whole being "fortress on the hill over the river".

Some Latin words entered the Anglo-Saxon languages through Celtic, among them such widely-used words as *street* (Lat. *strata via*) and *wall* (Lat. *vallum*).

*The seventh century A. D.* This century was significant for the christianisation of England. Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings. These no longer came from spoken Latin as they did eight centuries earlier, but from church Latin. Also, these new Latin borrowings were very different in meaning from the earlier ones. They mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals. E. g. *priest* (*Lai. presbyter*), *bishop* (*Lai. episcopus*), *monk* (*Lat. monachus*), *nun* (*Lai. nonna*), *candle* (*Lai. candela*).<sup>6</sup>

Additionally, in a class of their own were educational terms. It was quite natural that these were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers priests and monks. So, the very word *school* is a Latin borrowing (*Lat. schola*, of Greek origin) and so are such words as *scholar* (*Lai. scholar(-is)*) and *magister* (*Lat. magister*).

*From the end of the 8th c. to the middle of the 11th c.* England underwent several Scandinavian invasions which inevitably left their trace on English vocabulary. Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call*, v., *take*, v., *cast*, v., *die*, v., *law*, n., *husband*, n. (< Sc. *hus* + *bondi*, i. e. "inhabitant of the house"), *window* n. (< Sc. *vindauga*, i. e. "the eye of the wind"), *ill*, adj., *loose*, adj., *low*, adj., *weak*, adj.

Some of the words of this group are easily recognisable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-* combination. E. g. *sky*, *skill*, *skin*, *ski*, *skirt*.

Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the O. E. *bread* which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian *brand*.

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<sup>6</sup>The World Book Encyclopedia. USA. 1994. № G.G. Volume p/ 905/

The O. E. *dream* which meant "joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian *draumr*(*cf.* with the Germ. *Traum* "dream" and the R. *òpëma*).

1066. With the famous Battle of Hastings, when the English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror, we come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. The epoch can well be called eventful not only in national, social, political and human terms, but also in linguistic terms. England became a bi-lingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense: French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Here is a very brief list of examples of *Norman French borrowings*.

Administrative words: *state, government, parliament, council, power.*

Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.*

Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*

Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*

Everyday life was not unaffected by the powerful influence of French words. Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. *table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle, etc.*<sup>8</sup>

***The Renaissance Period.*** In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings, the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e. g. *major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create*).

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<sup>8</sup>Buranov J.B, Muminov A.A. Practical Course in English Lexicology. T. "Ukituvchi" 1990. p. 54.

There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms (*datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music*).<sup>1</sup> The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (e. g. *atom, cycle, ethics, esthete*).

The Renaissance was a period of extensive cultural contacts between the major European states. Therefore, it was only natural that new words also entered the English vocabulary from other European languages. The most significant once more were French borrowings. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as *Parisian borrowings*. Examples: *regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeois*, etc. (One should note that these words of French origin sound and "look" very different from their Norman predecessors. We shall return to this question later (see Ch. 4).)

Italian also contributed a considerable number of words to English, e. g. *piano, violin, opera, alarm, colone*

## **Chapter II. Etymological survey of the English word-stock and the role of words in the language**

Before embarking upon a description of the English word-stock from this point of view we must make special mention of some terms.

1. In linguistic literature the term *native* is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes — the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. Practically, however, the term is often applied to words whose origin cannot be traced to any other language. Thus, the word **path** is classified as native just because its origin has not yet been established with any degree of certainty. It is possible to conjecture that further progress of linguistic science may throw some light upon its origin and it may prove to

have been borrowed at some earlier period. It is for this reason that Professor A. I. Smirnitsky relying on the earliest manuscripts of the English language available suggested another interpretation of the term *n a t i v e* — as words which may be presumed to have existed in the English word-stock of the 7th century. This interpretation may have somewhat more reliable criteria behind it, but it seems to have the same drawback — both viewpoints present the native element in English as static.

2. The term *b o r r o w i n g* is used in linguistics to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself. It has already been stated that not only words, but also word-building affixes were borrowed into English (as is the case with **-able, -ment, -ity**, etc.).<sup>1</sup> It must be mentioned that some word-groups, too, were borrowed in their foreign form (e.g. **coup d'état, vis-à-vis**)

In its second meaning the term *b o r r o w i n g* is sometimes used in a wider sense. It is extended onto the so-called *t r a n s l a t i o n - l o a n s* (or *l o a n - t r a n s l a t i o n s*) and *s e m a n t i c* borrowing. *T r a n s l a t i o n - l o a n s* are words and expressions formed from the material available in the language after the patterns characteristic of the given language, but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions (e. g. **mother tongue** < *L. lingua materna*; **it goes without saying** < *Fr. cela va sans dire*; **wall newspaper** < *Russ. стенгазета*). **Semantic borrowing** is the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language (e.g. the word **propaganda** and **reaction** acquired their political meanings under the influence of French, **deviation** and **bureau** entered political vocabulary, as in **right and left deviations, Political bureau**, under the influence of Russian).

Distinction should be made between true borrowings and words formed out of morphemes borrowed from Latin and Greek, e.g. **telephone, phonogram**. Such words were never part of Latin or Greek and they do not reflect any contacts with the peoples speaking those languages.

It is of importance to note that the term *b o r r o w i n g* belongs to diachronic description of the word-stock. Thus the words **wine, cheap, pound** introduced by the

Romans into all Germanic dialects long before the Angles and the Saxons settled on the British Isles, and such late Latin loans as **alibi**, **memorandum**, **stratum** may all be referred to borrowings from the same language in describing their origin, though in modern English they constitute distinctly different groups of words.

There is also certain confusion between the terms *s o u r c e o f b o r r o w i n g s* and *o r i g i n o f t h e w o r d*. This confusion may be seen in contradictory marking of one and the same word as, say, a French borrowing in one dictionary and Latin borrowing in another. It is suggested here that the term *s o u r c e o f b o r r o w i n g s* should be applied to the language from which this or that particular word was taken into English. So when describing words as Latin, French or Scandinavian borrowings we point out their source but not their origin. The term *o r i g i n o f t h e w o r d* should be applied to the language the word may be traced to. Thus, the French borrowing **table** is Latin by origin (*L. tabula*), the Latin borrowing **school** came into Latin from the Greek language (*Gr. schole*), so **it** may be described as Greek by origin.

It should be remembered, however, that whereas the immediate source of borrowing is as a rule known and can be stated with some certainty, the actual origin of the word may be rather doubtful. For example, the word **ink** was borrowed from Old French, but it may be traced back to Latin and still further to Greek (cf. *Gr. kaio*), and it is quite possible that it was borrowed into Greek from some other language.

The immediate source of borrowing is naturally of greater importance for language students because it reveals the extra-linguistic factors responsible for the act of borrowing, and also because the borrowed words bear, as a rule, the imprint of the sound and graphic form, the morphological and semantic structure characteristic of the language they were borrowed from.

## 1. NATIVE AND BORROWED WORDS

### WORDS OF NATIVE ORIGIN

Words of native origin consist for the most part of very ancient elements—Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates. The bulk of the Old English word-stock has been preserved, although some words have passed out of existence. When speaking about the role of the native element in the English language linguists usually confine themselves to the small Anglo-Saxon stock of words, which is estimated to make 25—30% of the English vocabulary.

To assign the native element its true place it is not so important to count the number of Anglo-Saxon words that have survived up to our days, as to study their semantic and stylistic character, their word-building ability, frequency value, collocability.

Almost all words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. They include most of the auxiliary and modal verbs (**shall, will, must, can, may**, etc.), pronouns (**I, you, he, my, his, who**, etc.), prepositions (**in, out, on, under**, etc.), numerals (**one, two, three, four**, etc.) and conjunctions (**and, but, till, as**, etc.). Notional words of Anglo-Saxon origin include such groups as words denoting parts of the body (**head, hand, arm, back**, etc.), members of the family and closest relatives (**father, mother, brother, son, wife**), natural phenomena and planets (**snow, rain, wind, sun, moon, star**, etc.), animals (**horse, cow, sheep, cat**), qualities and properties (**old, young, cold, hot, light, dark, long**), common actions (**do, make, go, come, see, hear, eat**, etc.), etc.

Most of the native words have undergone great changes in their semantic structure, and as a result are nowadays polysemantic, e.g. the word **finger** does not only denote a part of a hand as in Old English, but also 1) the part of a glove covering one of the fingers, 2) a finger-like part in various machines, 3) a hand of a clock, 4) an index, 5) a unit of measurement. Highly polysemantic are the words **man, head, hand, go**, etc.

Most native words possess a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency. Many of them enter a number of phraseological units, e.g. the word **heel** enters the following units: **heel over head** or **head over heels**— 'upside down'; **cool one's heel**— 'be kept waiting'; **show a clean pair of heels, take to one's heels**— 'run away', **turn on one's heels**— 'turn sharply round', etc.

The great stability and semantic peculiarities of Anglo-Saxon words account for their great derivational potential. Most words of native origin make up large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language, e.g. the word **wood** is the basis for the formation of the following words: **wooden, woody, wooded, woodcraft, woodcutter, woodwork** and many others. The formation of new words is greatly facilitated by the fact that most Anglo-Saxon words are root-words,

New words have been coined from Anglo-Saxon simple word-stems mainly by means of affixation, word-composition and conversion.

Some linguists contend that due to the large additions to its vocabulary from different languages, English lost much of its old faculty to form new words. The great number of compound and derived words in modern English, the diversity of their patterns, the stability and productivity of the patterns and the appearance of new ones testify to the contrary. Such affixes of native origin as **-ness, -ish, -ed, un-, mis-** make part of the patterns widely used to build numerous new words throughout the whole history of English, though some of them have changed their collocability or have become polysemantic, e.g. the agent-forming suffix **-er**, which was in Old English mostly added to noun-stems, is now most often combined with verb-stems, besides it has come to form also names of instruments, persons in a certain state or doing something at the moment.

Some native words were used as components of compounds so often that they have acquired the status of derivational affixes (e. g. **-dom, -hood, -ly, over-, out-, under-**), others are now semi-affixational morphemes.<sup>1</sup>

It is noteworthy that to the native element in English we must also refer some new simple words based on words of Anglo-Saxon origin. Words with a new non-derived stem branch off from primary simple words as a result of simplification of some derivatives in a cluster of words and their semantic isolation, as in **king, kind n, kind a** and **kin n**, from which all of them were derived (cp. *OE.* **cynin3, cynd, cynde, cyn**), or **bless** and **bleed** derived from **blood** (cp. *OE.* **bledsian, blēdan, blōd**). Sometimes a word split into two or more words with different forms and meanings (i.e. etymological doublets) due to the difference in function and stress, as is the case with **off** and **of** (from *OE.* of which was

stressed as an adverb and unstressed as a preposition). Dialectal forms of a word may develop into independent words, as in **one** and **an** (< *OE. an*), **whole** and **hale** (< *OE. hāl*). New root-words based on Anglo-Saxon words also came into being with the rise of homonyms owing to the split of polysemy.<sup>2</sup> The semantic characteristics, stability and wide collocability of native words account for their frequency in speech. However there are some words among them which are now archaic or poetic (e.g. **lore**, **methinks**, **quoth**, **whilom**, **ere**, **welkin**, etc.), or used only as historical terms (e.g. **thane**, **yeoman** denoting ranks, **stocks** — ‘an instrument of torture’, etc.).<sup>9</sup>

What has been said above shows that the native element, has been playing a significant role in the English language. To fully estimate the importance of the native element in English, it is essential to study the role of English derivational means and semantic development in the life of borrowings, which will be dwelt upon in the sections below.

1. The native element comprises not only the ancient Anglo-Saxon core but also words which appeared later as a result of word-formation, split of polysemy and other processes operative in English.

2. Though not numerous in Modern English, words of Anglo-Saxon origin must be considered very important due to their marked stability, specific semantic characteristics, wide collocability, great derivational potential, wide spheres of application and high frequency value.

## **BORROWINGS**

The English vocabulary is very rich. From the point of view of etymology, English vocabulary can be divided into 2 parts: 70% of borrowings in English language, 30% of native words. Borrowings usually take place under 2 circumstances: 1) when people have a direct contact with another people;

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<sup>9</sup>Мешков А.Д. Словообразование современного английского языка. М. 1976. стр. 33.

2) when there is a cultural need to borrow a word from another languages.

ROMANIC BORROWINGS. Latin borrowings: they are divided into 3 periods: 1) 5 century, words are connected with trade (pound, inch, kitchen, wall, port); 2) the time of Christianity, words are connected with religion (Latin words: alter, cross, dean; Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem); 3) time of renaissance, words were borrowed after great vowel shift (17 century) (item, superior, zoology, memorandum, vice versa, AM, PM). French: the largest group of borrowings is French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman Conquest. Normans belong to the race of Scandinavian origin but during their residence in Normandy they had given up the native language and adopted the French dialect. During 3 centuries after the Norman Conquest French was the language of the court, of the nobility. There are following semantic groups of French borrowings: 1) words relating to government (administer, empire, state); 2) ~military affairs (army, war, battle); 3) ~jurisprudence (advocate, petition, sentence); 4) ~fashion (luxury, coat, collar); 5)~jewelry (topaz, pearl); 6)~ food and cooking (lunch, cuisine, menu); 7)~literature and music (pirouette, ballet). Italian: cultural and trade relations between England and Italy in the epoch of renaissance brought in many Italian words: 1) musical terms: concert, solo, opera, piano, trio; 2) political terms: manifesto; 3) geological terms: volcano, lava. Among the 20th century Italian borrowings, we can mention: incognito, fiasco, and graffiti. Spanish: a large number of such words was penetrated in English vocabulary in 1588 when Phillip 2 sent a fleet of armed ships against England (armada, ambushade); trade terms: cargo, embargo; names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, guitar; names of vegetables and fruits: tomato, tobacco, banana, ananas. GERMANIC BORROWINGS: Scandinavian: By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. As a result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English (pronouns: they, them, their; verbs: to call, to want, to die; adj: flat, ill, happy; noun: cake, egg, knife, window. German: in the period of Second World War such words were borrowed as: luftwaffe (возд. авиация); bundeswehr

(вооруженные силы ФРГ). After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkswagen, berufsverbot (запрет на профессию (в ФРГ)), and some other words (cobalt, wolfram, iceberg, rucksack). Dutch: Holland and England have had constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Dutch words were borrowed into English. Many of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14th century, such as: skipper, pump, keel, dock; and some words from everyday life: luck, brandy, boss. Russian: Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: ruble, kopeck, sterlet, vodka, and words relating to nature: taiga, tundra, steppe. After the October revolution many new words appeared in Russia, connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English: collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol and also translation loans: five-year plan, collective farm. One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: glasnost, nomenclature, and apparatchik. Native words are divided into 3 basic groups: 1) the words which have cognates (words of the same etymological root, of common origin) in many Indo-European languages. For ex: family relations: father (Vater), mother, daughter, son; parts of human body: foot, heart, nose; wolf, cow, cat; numerous verbs: stand, sit; the numerals from 1 to 100; heavenly bodies: sun, moon, star. 2) the words, which have cognates with words of the language of the Germanic group. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the I-E group/ For ex: parts of human body: head, hand, arm, finger; animals: bear, fox; natural phenomena: rain, frost; human dwellings and furniture: house, bench; adj: green, blue, old, good, small, high; verbs: see, hear, tell, say, drink, give. 3) the English element proper. Ex.: bird, boy, girl, woman, lord, always. Assimilation – the process of adaptation phonetic, gram. and semantic features of language. 3 basic types: phonetical – sounds are adopted; grammatical – when a borrowed word occurs (спутник); semantic – connected with the meaning of the word.

International words. It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts, which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences

are international, e.g. philosophy, chemistry, biology; sports terms: football, baseball, tennis; foodstuffs and fruits imported from exotic countries: coffee, chocolate, banana, grapefruit; clothing: pullover, shorts.

Etymological doublets – are pairs of words, which have one and the same original form, but which have acquired different forms and even different meanings during the course of linguistic development. Ex: the words shirt and skirt etymologically descend from the same root. Shirt is a native word, skirt is a Scandinavian borrowings. Their phonetic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance, which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing. Etymological triplets (groups of three words of common root) – hospital (Lat) – hostel (Norm. Fr) – hotel (Par. Fr).

Translation-Loans. This term is equivalent to borrowing. They are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonetic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation. It is obvious that it is only compound words, which can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately. Ex: collective farm (колхоз); wonder child (Wunderkind); five-year plan (пятилетка).

In some cases the pronunciation of the word (strange sounds, sound combinations, position of stress, etc.), its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters are an indication of the foreign origin of the word. This is the case with **waltz** (G.), *psychology* (Gr.), **soufflé** (Fr.), etc. The initial position of the sounds [v], [dʒ], [ʒ] or of the letters x, j, z is a sure sign that the word has been borrowed, e.g. **volcano** (It.), **vase** (Fr.), **vaccine** (L.), **jungle** (Hindi), **gesture** (L.), **giant** (OFr.), **zeal** (L.), **zero** (Fr.), **zinc** (G.), etc.

The morphological structure of the word and its grammatical forms may also bear witness to the word being adopted from another language. Thus the suffixes in the words *neurosis* (Gr.) and *violoncello* (It.) betray the foreign origin of the words. The same is true of the irregular plural forms *papyra* (from *papyrus*, Gr.), *pastorali* (from *pastorale*, It.), *beaux* (from *beau*, Fr.), *bacteria*, (from *bacterium*, L.) and the like.

Last but not least is the lexical meaning of the word. Thus the concept denoted by the words **ricksha(w)**, **pagoda** (*Chin.*) make us suppose that we deal with borrowings.

These criteria are not always helpful. Some early borrowings have become so thoroughly assimilated that they are unrecognisable without a historical analysis, e.g. **chalk**, **mile** (L.), **ill**, **ugly** (*Scand.*), **enemy**, **car** (*Fr.*), etc. It must also be taken into consideration that the closer the relation between the languages, the more difficult it is to distinguish borrowings.

Sometimes the form of the word and its meaning in Modern English enable us to tell the immediate source of borrowing. Thus if the digraph **ch** is sounded as [ʃ], the word is a late French borrowing (as in *echelon*, *chauffeur*, *chef*); if it stands for [k], it came through Greek (*archaic*, *architect*, *chronology*); if it is pronounced as [tʃ], it is either an early-borrowing (*chase*, *OFr.*; *cherry*, L., *OFr.*; *chime*, L.), or a word of Anglo-Saxon origin (*choose*, *child*, *chin*).

## 2. ASSIMILATION OF Loan Words

It is now essential to analyse the changes that borrowings have undergone in the English language and how they have adapted themselves to its peculiarities.

All the changes that borrowed elements undergo may be divided into two large groups.

On the one hand there are changes specific of borrowed words only. These changes aim at adapting words of foreign origin to the norms of the borrowing language, e.g. the consonant combinations [pn], [ps], [pt] in the words *pneumatics*, *psychology*, **Ptolemy** of Greek origin were simplified into [n], [s], [t], since the consonant combinations [ps], [pt], [pn], very frequent at the end of English words (as in **sleeps**, **stopped**, etc.), were never used in the initial position. For the same reason the initial [ks] was changed into [z] (as in *Gr.* **xylophone**).

The suffixes **-ar**, **-or**, **-ator** in early Latin borrowings were replaced by the highly productive Old English suffix **-ere**, as in L. **Caesar**>OE. **Casere**, L. *sutor*>OE. *sūtere*.

By analogy with the great majority of nouns that form their plural in **-s**, borrowings, even very recent ones, have assumed this inflection instead of their original plural endings. The forms Soviets, bolsheviks, kolkhozes, sputniks illustrate the process.

On the other hand we observe changes that are characteristic of both borrowed and native words. These changes are due to the development of the word according to the laws of the given language. When the highly inflected Old English system of declension changed into the simpler system of Middle English, early borrowings conformed with the general rule. Under the influence of the so-called inflexional levelling borrowings like **la3u**, (*MnE.* law), **fēōlaza** (*MnE.* fellow), **stræt** (*MnE.* street), **disc** (*MnE.* dish) that had a number of grammatical forms in Old English acquired only three forms in Middle English: common case and possessive case singular and plural (fellow, fellowes, fellowes).

It is very important to discriminate between the two processes — the adaptation of borrowed material to the norms of the language and the development of these words according to the laws of the language.

This differentiation is not always easily discernible. In most cases we must resort to historical analysis before we can draw any definite conclusions. There is nothing in the form of the words **procession** and, **progression** to show that the former was already used in England in the 11th century, the latter not till the 15th century. The history of these words reveals that the word **procession** has undergone a number of changes alongside with other English words (change in declension, accentuation, structure, sounds), whereas the word **progression** underwent some changes by analogy with the word **procession** and other similar words already at the time of its appearance in the language.

Since the process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in sound-form, morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage Soviet linguists distinguish phonetic, grammatical and lexical assimilation of borrowings.

**Phonetic assimilation** comprising changes in sound-form and stress is perhaps the most conspicuous.

Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds. For instance, the long [e] and [ɛ] in recent French borrowings, alien to English speech, are rendered with the help of [ei] (as in the words **communiqué, chaussée, café**).

Familiar sounds or sound combinations the position of which was strange to the English language, were replaced by other sounds or sound combinations to make the words conform to the norms of the language, e.g. German **spitz** [ʃpits] was turned into English [spits]. Substitution of native sounds for foreign ones usually takes place in the very act of borrowing. But some words retain their foreign pronunciation for a long time before the unfamiliar sounds are replaced by similar native sounds.

Even when a borrowed word seems at first sight to be identical in form with its immediate etymon as *OE. skill* < *Scand. skil*; *OE. scinn* < < *Scand. skinn*; *OE. ran* < *Scand. ran* the phonetic structure of the word undergoes some changes, since every language as well as every period in the history of a language is characterised by its own peculiarities in the articulation of sounds.

In words that were added to English from foreign sources, especially from French or Latin, the accent was gradually transferred to the first syllable. Thus words like **honour, reason** were accented on the same principle as the native **father, mother**.

**Grammatical Assimilation.** Usually as soon as words from other languages were introduced into English they lost their former grammatical categories and paradigms and acquired new grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words, as in

<i>им.</i> <b>спутник</b>	<i>Com. sing.</i> <b>Sputnik</b>
<i>род.</i> <b>спутника</b>	<i>Poss. sing.</i> <b>Sputnik's</b>
<i>дат.</i> <b>спутнику</b>	<i>Com. pl.</i> <b>Sputniks</b>
<i>вин.</i> <b>спутник</b>	<i>Poss. pl.</i> <b>Sputniks'</b>
<i>вин.</i> <b>спутником</b>	
<i>предл. о</i> <b>спутнике</b>	

However, there are some words in Modern English that have for centuries retained their foreign inflexions. Thus a considerable group of borrowed nouns, all of them terms

or literary words adopted in the 16th century or later, have preserved their original plural inflexion to this day, e.g. **phenomenon** (*L.*) — **phenomena**; **addendum** (*L.*) — **addenda**; **parenthesis** (*Gr.*) — **parentheses**. Other borrowings of the same period have two plural forms — the native and the foreign, e.g. **vacuum** (*L.*) — **vacua**, **vacuums**, **virtuoso** (*It.*) — **virtuosi**, **virtuosos**.

All borrowings that were composite in structure in their native language appeared in English as indivisible simple words, unless there were already words with the same morphemes in it, e.g. in the word **saunter** the French infinitive inflexion **-er** is retained (cf. *OFr.* **s'aunter**), but it has changed its quality, it is preserved in all the other grammatical forms of the word (cf. **saunters**, **sauntered**, **sauntering**), which means that it has become part of the stem in English. The French reflexive pronoun **s-** has become fixed as an inseparable element of the word. The former Italian diminishing suffixes **-etto**, **-otta**, **-ello(a)**, **-cello** in the words **ballot**, **stiletto**, **umbrella** cannot be distinguished without special historical analysis, unless one knows the Italian language. The composite nature of the word **portfolio** is not seen either (cf. *It.* **portafogli** < **porta** — imperative of 'carry' + **fogli** — 'sheets of paper'). This loss of morphological seams in borrowings may be termed simplification by analogy with a similar process in native words.<sup>1</sup>

It must be borne in mind that when there appears in a language a group of borrowed words built on the same pattern or containing the same morphemes, the morphological structure of the words becomes apparent and in the course of time their word-building elements can be employed to form new words. Thus the word **bolshevik** was at first indivisible in English, which is seen from the forms **bolshevikism**, **bolshevikise**, **bolshevikian** entered by some dictionaries. Later on the word came to be divided into the morphological elements **bolshevik**. The new morphological division can be accounted for by the existence of a number of words containing these elements (**bolshevism**, **bolshevist**, **bolshevise**; **sputnik**, **udarnik**, **menshevik**).

Sometimes in borrowed words foreign affixes are replaced by those available in the English language, e.g. the inflexion **-us** in Latin adjectives was replaced in English with

the suffixes **-ous** or **-al**: *L. barbarus* > > *E. barbarous*; *L. botanicus* > *E. botanical*; *L. balneus* > *E. balneal*.

**Lexical Assimilation.** When a word is taken over into another language, its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes.

Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two of their meanings. Thus the word **timbre** that had a number of meanings in French was borrowed into English as a musical term only. The words **cargo** and **cask**, highly polysemantic in Spanish, were adopted only in one of their meanings — ‘the goods carried in a ship’, ‘a barrel for holding liquids’ respectively.

- In some cases we can observe specialisation of meaning, as in the word **hangar**, denoting a building in which aeroplanes are kept (in French it meant simply ‘shed’) and **revue**, which had the meaning of ‘review’ in French and came to denote a kind of theatrical entertainment in English.

In the process of its historical development a borrowing sometimes acquired new meanings that were not to be found in its former semantic structure. For instance, the verb **move** in Modern English has developed the meanings of ‘propose’, ‘change one’s flat’, ‘mix with people’ and others that the French **mouvoir** does not possess. The word **scope**, which originally had the meaning of ‘aim, purpose’, now means ‘ability to understand’, ‘the field within which an activity takes place, sphere’, ‘opportunity, freedom of action’. As a rule the development of new meanings takes place 50 — 100 years after the word is borrowed.

The semantic structure of borrowings changes in other ways as well. Some meanings become more general, others more specialised, etc. For instance, the word **terrorist**, that was taken over from French in the meaning of ‘Jacobin’, widened its meaning to ‘one who governs, or opposes a government by violent means’. The word **umbrella**, borrowed in the meaning of a ‘sunshade’ or ‘parasol’ (from *It. ombrella* <*ombra* — ‘shade’<sup>1</sup>) came to denote similar protection from the rain as well.

Usually the primary meaning of a borrowed word is retained throughout its history, but sometimes it becomes a secondary meaning. Thus the Scandinavian borrowings

**wing, root, take** and many others have retained their primary meanings to the present day, whereas in the *OE. feolaze* (*MnE. fellow*) which was borrowed from the same source in the meaning of ‘comrade, companion’, the primary meaning has receded to the background and was replaced by the meaning that appeared in New English ‘a man or a boy’.

Sometimes change of meaning is the result of associating borrowed words with familiar words which somewhat resemble them in sound but which are not at all related. This process, which is termed *folk etymology*, often changes the form of the word in whole or in part, so as to bring it nearer to the word or words with which it is thought to be connected, e.g. the French verb **sur(o)nder** had the meaning of ‘overflow’. In English **-r(o)nder** was associated by mistake with **round** — *круглый* and the verb was interpreted as meaning ‘enclose on all sides, encircle’ (*MnE. surround*). Old French **estandard** (*L. estendere* — ‘to spread’) had the meaning of ‘a flag, banner’. In English the first part was wrongly associated with the verb **stand** and the word **standard** also acquired the meaning of ‘something stable, officially accepted’.

Folk-etymologisation is a slow process; people first attempt to give the foreign borrowing its foreign pronunciation, but gradually popular use evolves a new pronunciation and spelling.

Another phenomenon which must also receive special attention is the *formation of derivatives* from borrowed word-stems. New derivatives are usually formed with the help of productive affixes, often of Anglo-Saxon origin. For instance: **faintness, closeness, easily, nobly**, etc. As a rule derivatives begin to appear rather soon after the borrowing of the word. Thus almost immediately after the borrowing of the word **sputnik** the words **pre-sputnik, sputnikist, sputnikked, to out-sputnik** were coined in English. Many derivatives were formed by means of conversion, as in **to manifesto** (1748) < **manifesto** (*It.*, 1644); **to encore** (1748) < **encore** (*Fr.*, 1712); **to coach** (1612) < **coach** (*Fr.*, 1556).

Similarly hybrid compounds were formed, e. g. **faint-hearted, ill-tempered, painstaking**.

Even a superficial examination of borrowed words in the English word-stock shows that there are words among them that are easily recognised as foreign (such as **decolleté, façade, Zeitgeist, voile**) and there are others that have become so firmly rooted in the language, so thoroughly assimilated that it is sometimes” extremely difficult to distinguish them from words of Anglo-Saxon origin (these are words like **pupil, master, city, river**, etc.).

Unassimilated words differ from assimilated ones in their pronunciation, spelling, semantic structure, frequency and sphere of application. However, there is no distinct border-line between the two groups. There are also words assimilated in some respects and unassimilated in others, they may be called partially assimilated. Such are **communiqué, détente** not yet assimilated phonetically, **phenomenon (pl. phenomena), graffito (pl. graffiti)** unassimilated grammatically, etc. So far no linguist has been able to suggest more or less comprehensive criteria for determining the degree of assimilation of borrowings.

The degree of assimilation depends in the first place upon the time of borrowing. The general principle is: the older the borrowing, the more thoroughly it tends to follow normal English habits of accentuation, pronunciation, etc. It is natural that the bulk of early borrowings have acquired full English citizenship and that most English speaking people are astonished on first hearing, that such everyday words as **window, chair, dish, box** have not always belonged to their language. Late borrowings often retain their foreign peculiarities.

However mere age is not the sole factor. Not only borrowings long in use, but also those of recent date may be completely made over to conform to English patterns if they are widely and popularly employed. Words that are rarely used in everyday speech, that are known to a small group of people retain their foreign -peculiarities. Thus many 19th century French borrowings have been completely assimilated (e.g. **turbine, clinic, exploitation, diplomat**), whereas the words adopted much earlier **noblesse** [no'bles] (*ME.*), **ennui** [ã:'nwi:] (1667), **eclat** [ei'kla:] (1674) have not been assimilated even in point of pronunciation.

Another factor determining the process of assimilation is the way in which the borrowing was taken over into the language. Words borrowed orally are assimilated more readily, they undergo greater changes, whereas with words adopted through writing the process of assimilation is longer and more laborious.

### 3. ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS, TRANSLATION LOANS AND INTERNATIONAL WORDS

#### TRANSLATION LOANS AND SEMANTIC LOANS

Alongside loan words proper there are translation loans (or calques) and semantic loans.

Translation loans are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the English language, but according to patterns, taken from other languages, by way of literal morpheme-for-morpheme translation. One of the earliest calques in the vocabulary of the English language is 'Gospel' (OE god-spell-'евангелие' literally 'благая весть') which is an exact reproduction of the etymological structure of the Greek euggelion, 'благая весть', borrowed into English through Latin. Other examples are: 'mother tongue\*' from Latin 'lingua materna' (родно язык), 'it goes without saying' from French 'cela va sans dire' (само собо разумеется).

The number of translation loans from German is rather large:

'chain-smoker' from 'Kettenrauchen' (заядлы курильщик);

'world famous' from 'weltberuhmt' (всемирно известны);

'God's acre' from 'Gottesacker' (кладбище literally божье поле);

'masterpiece' from 'Meisterstuk'(шедевр);

'Swan song' from 'Schwanengesang' (лебединая песня);

'superman' from 'Ubermensch' (сверхчеловек);

'wonder child' from 'Wunderkind'.

There are a few calques from the languages of American Indians: 'pale-face' (бледнолицы); 'pipe of peace' (трубка мира); 'Warpath' (тропа войны); 'war-paint' (раскраска тела перед походом).

They are mostly used figuratively.

Calques from Russian are rather numerous. They are names of things and notions reflecting Soviet reality:

'local Soviet' (местны совет);

'self-criticism' (самокритика);  
'Labour-day' (трудодень);  
'individual peasant' (единоличник);  
'voluntary Sunday time' (воскресник).

The last two are considered by N.N. Amosova to be oases of explanatory translation.

Semantic borrowing is the development of a new meaning by a word due to the influence of a related word in another language, e.g. the English word 'pioneer' meant 'первооткрыватель' /now, under the influence of the Russian word 'пионер' it has come to mean 'член детско коммунистическо организации'.

Semantic loans are particularly frequent in related languages. For example, the Old English 'dwellan' (блуждать, медлить) developed into 'dwell' in Modern English and acquired the meaning 'жить' under the influence of the Old Norse 'dwellja' ('жить'). The words 'bread' ('кусоч хлеба' in OE), 'dream' ('радость' in OE), 'plough' ('мера земли' in OE) received their present meanings from Old Norse.

### **1. Etymological Doublets.**

Etymological doublets are two or more words of the same language which were derived by different routes from the same basic word, but differing in meaning and phonemic shape. For example, the word 'fact' ('факт, действительность') and 'feat' ('подвиг') are derived from the same Latin word 'facere' ('делать') but 'fact' was borrowed directly from Latin and 'feat' was borrowed through French.

In modern English there are doublets of Latin, Germanic and native origin. Many Latin doublets are due to the different routes by which they entered the English vocabulary: some of the words are direct borrowings; others came into English through Parisian French or Norman French.

For example, the words 'major', 'pauper', 'senior' are direct borrowings from Latin, while their doublets 'mayor' ('маор'), 'poor' ('бедны'), 'sir' ('сэр') came from French.

The words 'chase' ('гнаться, преследовать'), 'chieftain' ('вождь/клана'), 'guard' ('охрана/стража') were borrowed into Middle English from Parisian French, and their doublets 'catch' ('помать'), 'captain' ('капитан'), 'ward' ('палата/больничная') came from Norman French.

The doublets 'shirt' ('рубашка') - 'skirt' ('юбка'), 'shrew' ('сварливая женщина') - 'screw' ('винт, шуруп'), 'schriek' ('вопить, кричать') - 'screech' ('пронзительно кричать') are of Germanic origin. The first word of the pair comes down from Old English whereas the second one is a Scandinavian borrowing.

Examples of native doublets are 'shadow' ('тень') and 'shade'. Both are derived from the same Old English word 'sceadu'. 'Shade' is developed from the Nominative case, 'sceadu' is derived from oblique case 'sceadwe'. The words 'drag' and 'draw' both come from Old English 'dragan' ('тащить').

Etymological doublets also arise as a result of shortening when both the shortened form and the full form of the word are used:

'defense' - 'защита' - 'fence' - "забор";

'history' - 'история' - 'story' - 'рассказ'.

Examples of ETYMOLOGICAL TRIPLETS (i.e. groups of three words of common root) are few in number:

hospital (Lat.) - hostel (Norm.Fr.) - hotel (Par.. Fr.);

to capture (Lat.) - to catch (Norm. Fr.) - to chase (Par. Fr.).

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: gentle - мягкий, вежливый and genteel - благородный. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are : 'gallant - храбрый and ga'llant - галантный, внимательный.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior»

which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus») in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

### **Morphemic Borrowings**

True borrowings should be distinguished from words made up of morphemes borrowed from Latin and Greek:

E.g. telephone < tele ('far off) and phone ('sound').

The peculiar character of the words of this type lies in the fact that they are produced by a word-building process operative in the English language, while the material used for this formation is borrowed from «another language»).

The word phonograph was coined in 1877 by Edison from the Greek morphemes phone ('sound')+grapho ('write\*').

Morphemic borrowings are mostly scientific and technical terms and international in character, the latter fact makes it difficult to determine whether the word was really coined within the vocabulary of English or not.

## **2.INTERNATIONAL WORDS**

As the process of borrowing is mostly connected with the appearance of new notions which the loan words serve to express, it is natural that the borrowing is seldom limited to one language. Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source are called international words.

Expanding global contacts result in the considerable growth of international vocabulary. All languages depend for their changes upon the cultural and social matrix in

which they operate and various contacts between nations are part of this matrix reflected in vocabulary.

International words play an especially prominent part in various terminological systems including the vocabulary of science, industry and art. The etymological sources of this vocabulary reflect the history of world culture. Thus, for example, the mankind's cultural debt to Italy is reflected in the great number of Italian words connected with architecture, painting and especially music that are borrowed into most European languages: *allegro*, *andante*, *aria*, *arioso*, *barcarole*, *baritone* (and other names for voices), *concert*, *duet*, *opera* (and other names for pieces of music), *piano* and many many more.

The rate of change in technology, political, social and artistic life has been greatly accelerated in the 20th century and so has the rate of growth of international wordstock. A few examples of comparatively new words due to the progress of science will suffice to illustrate the importance of international vocabulary: *algorithm*, *antenna*, *antibiotic*, *automation*, *bionics*, *cybernetics*, *entropy*, *gene*, *genetic code*, *graph*, *microelectronics*, *microminiaturisation*, *quant*, *quasars*, *pulsars*, *ribosome*, etc. All these show sufficient likeness in English, French, Russian and several other languages.

The international wordstock is also growing due to the influx of exotic borrowed words like *anaconda*, *bungalow*, *kraal*, *orang-outang*, *sari*, etc. These come from many different sources.

International words should not be mixed with words of the common Indo-European stock that also comprise a sort of common fund of the European languages.

This layer is of great importance for the foreign language teacher not only because many words denoting abstract notions are international but also because he must know the most efficient ways of showing the points of similarity and difference between such words as *control* : : *контроль*; *general* : : *генерал*; *industry* : : *индустрия* or *magazine* : : *магазин*, etc. usually called 'translator's false friends'.

The treatment of international words at English lessons would be one-sided if the teacher did not draw his pupils' attention to the spread of the English vocabulary into other languages. We find numerous English words in the field of sport: *football, out, match, tennis, time*. A large number of English words are to be found in the vocabulary pertaining to clothes: *jersey, pullover, sweater, nylon, tweed*, etc. Cinema and different forms of entertainment are also a source of many international words of English origin: *film, club, cocktail, jazz*.

At least some of the Russian words borrowed into English and many other languages and thus international should also be mentioned: *balalaika, bolshevik, cosmonaut, czar, intelligentsia, Kremlin, mammoth, rouble, sambo, soviet, sputnik, steppe, vodka*.<sup>7</sup>

To sum up this brief treatment of loan words it is necessary to stress that in studying loan words a linguist cannot be content with establishing the source, the date of penetration, the semantic sphere to which the word belonged and the circumstances of the process of borrowing. All these are very important, but one should also be concerned with the changes the new language system into which the loan word penetrates causes in the word itself, and, on the other hand, look for the changes occasioned by the newcomer in the English vocabulary, when in finding its way into the new language it pushed some of its lexical neighbours aside. In the discussion above we have tried to show the importance of the problem of conformity with the patterns typical of the receiving language and its semantic needs.

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<sup>7</sup> Berezin F.M. Lectures on Linguistics. M. Higher school Publishing House. 1969. p. 95

## CONCLUSION

In its 15-century-long history recorded in written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French and Old Norse (or Scandinavian). The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse was the language of the conquerors who were on the same level of social and cultural development and who merged rather easily with the local population in the 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup> and the first half of the 11<sup>th</sup> century. French (to be more exact its Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system—developed feudalism, it was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school instruction from the middle of the 11th century to the end of the 14th century.

In the study of the borrowed element in English the main emphasis is as a rule placed on the Middle English period. Borrowings of later periods became the object of investigation only in recent years. These investigations have shown that the flow of borrowings has been steady and uninterrupted. The greatest number has come from French. They refer to various fields of social-political, scientific and cultural life. A large portion of borrowings (41%) is scientific and technical terms.

The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc. It is for this reason that borrowings have often been called the milestones of history. Thus if we go through the lists of borrowings in English and arrange them in groups according to their meaning, we shall be able to obtain much valuable information with regard to England's contacts with many nations. Some borrowings, however, cannot be explained by the direct influence of certain historical conditions, they do not come along with any new-objects or ideas. Such were for instance the words *air*, *place*, *brave*, *gay* borrowed from French.

It must be pointed out that while the general historical causes of borrowing from different languages have been studied with a considerable degree of thoroughness the purely linguistic reasons for borrowing are still open to investigation.

The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the conditions, on the nature and length of the contacts, but also "on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of languages concerned. The closer the languages, the deeper and more versatile is the influence. This largely accounts for the well-marked contrast between the French and the Scandinavian influence on the English language. Thus under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages (the pronouns *they*, *their*, *them*, for instance); a number of Scandinavian borrowings were felt as 'derived from native words (they were of the same root and the connection between them was easily seen), e.g. *drop* (AS.) — *drip* (Scand.), *true* (AS.) — *tryst* (Scand.); the Scandinavian influence even accelerated to a certain degree the development of the grammatical structure of English.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the peoples) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.).

Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally (e.g. *L.* *inch*, *mill*, *street*) are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (e.g. *Fr.* *communiqué*, *belles-lettres*, *naïveté*) preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form, their assimilation is a long and laborious process.

### **The role of native and borrowed elements**

The number of borrowings in Old English was meager. In the Middle English period there was an influx of loans.

It is often contended that since the Norman Conquest borrowing has been the chief factor in the enrichment of the English vocabulary and as a result there was a sharp decline in the productivity of word-formation. Historical evidence, however, testifies to the fact that throughout its entire history, even in the periods of the mightiest influxes of borrowings, other processes, no less intense, were in operation — word-formation and semantic development, which involved both native and borrowed elements.

If the estimation of the role of borrowings is based on the study of words recorded in the dictionary, it is easy to overestimate the effect of the loan words, as the number of native words is extremely small compared with the number of borrowings recorded. The only true way to estimate the relation of the native to the borrowed element is to consider the two as actually used in speech. If one counts every word used, including repetitions, in some reading matter, the proportion of native to borrowed words will be quite different. On such a count, every writer uses considerably more native words than borrowings. Shakespeare, for example, has 90%, Milton 81 %, Tennyson 88%. This shows how important is the comparatively small nucleus of native words.

Different borrowings are marked by different frequency value. Those well established in the vocabulary may be as frequent in speech as native words, whereas others occur very rarely.

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