

# [Table of content](https://assignbuster.com/table-of-content-3/)

Table of Content | Introduction | 3 | | Chapter I Ways and means of enriching the vocabulary | 5 | | Productive word formation | 5 | | Borrowing | 9 | | Chapter II Classification of borrowings | 13 | | 2. 1 Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspects | 13 | | 2. 2 Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation | 14 | | 2. 3 Classification of borrowings according to the language form which they were borrowed | | | 2. 3. 1 Romanic borrowing | 17 | | 2. 3. 2 Germanic borrowing | 17 | | 2. 4 Etymological doublets | 20 | | | 22 | | Conclusion | 24 | | List of literature | 26 | Introduction There are two ways of enriching the vocabulary: A. vocabulary extension – the appearance of new lexical items. New vocabulary units appear mainly as a result of: 1. productive or patterned ways of word-formation; 2. non-patterned ways of word-creation; 3. borrowing from other languages. B. semantic extension – the appearance of new meanings of existing words which may result in homonyms. A loanword (or loan word) is a word directly taken into one language from another with little or no translation. By contrast, a calque or loan translation is a related concept whereby it is the meaning or idiom that is borrowed rather than the lexical item itself. The word loanword is itself a calque of the German Lehnwort and/or the Dutch Leenwoord. Loanwords can also be called, " borrowings." Words which a language inherits from an ancestral language from which it develops are not borrowed words. Inherited words usually constitute most of the vocabulary of a language. Although loanwords are typically far fewer than the native words of most languages (creoles and pidgins being exceptions), they are often widely known and used, since their borrowing served a certain purpose, for example to provide a name for a new invention. Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characterisitic of borrowings to be non- motivated semantically. English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words. Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria: a) according to the aspect which is borrowed, b) according to the degree of assimilation, c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed. CHAPTER I WAYS AND MEANS OF ENRICHING THE VOCABULARY There are two ways of enriching the vocabulary: A. vocabulary extension – the appearance of new lexical items. New vocabulary units appear mainly as a result of: 1. productive or patterned ways of word-formation; 2. non-patterned ways of word-creation; 3. borrowing from other languages. B. semantic extension – the appearance of new meanings of existing words which may result in homonyms. 1. 1 Productive Word-Formation Productive word-formation is the most effective means of enriching the vocabulary. The most widely used means are affixation (prefixation mainly for verbs and adjectives, suffixation for nouns and adjectives), conversion (giving the greatest number of new words in verbs and nouns) and composition (most productive in nouns and adjectives). 'New’ words that appear as a result of productive word-formation are not entirely new as they are all made up of elements already available in the language. The newness of these words resides in the particular combination of the items previously familiar to the language speaker. As has already been mentioned productivity of derivative devices that give rise to novel vocabulary units is fundamentally relative and it follows that there are no patterns which can be called ‘ fully’ productive. Productive patterns in each part of speech, with a set of individual structural and semantic constraints, serve as a formal expression of the regular semantic relationship between different classes or semantic groupings of words. Thus the types of new words that may appear in this or that lexical-grammatical class of words can be predicted with a high degree of probability. The regularity of expression of the underlying semantic relations, firmly rooted in the minds of the speakers, make the derivational patterns bidirectional rules, that is, the existence of one class of words presupposes the possibility of appearance of the other which stands in regular semantic relations with it. This can be clearly observed in the high degree of productivity of conversion. For instance the existence and frequent use of the noun denoting an object presupposes the possibility of the verb denoting an action connected with it, e. g. the nouns stream, sardine, hi-fi, timetable, lead to the appearance of verbs to stream – ‘ to divide students into separate classes according to level of intelligence’, to sardine – ‘ to pack closely’; to hi-fi – ‘ to listen to hi-fi recordings’; to timetable – ‘ to set a timetable’. Similarly a verb denoting an action presupposes a noun denoting an act, result, or instance of this action as in the new words, e. g. a holdup, a breakdown, a layout, etc. The clarity and stability of the structural and semantic relations underlying productive patterns allows of certain stretching of individual constraints on the structure and meaning of the derivational bases making the pattern highly productive. Highly productive patterns of this type are not many. The derivational affixes which are the ICs of these patterns such as -ness, -er, mini-, over- become unusually active and are felt according to some scholars “ productive as individual units" as compared to affixes “ productive in a certain pattern, but not in another. " The suffixal nominal patterns with suffixes -ness and -er deserve special mention. The suffix -ness is associated with names of abstract qualities and states. Though it is regularly added to adjectival bases, practically the range of bases the suffix can be collocated with is both structurally and semantically almost unlimited, e. g. otherness, alone-ness, thingness, oneness, well-to-doness, out-of-the-placeness, etc. The only exception is the verbal bases and the sphere of the derivational pattern a + -ity -> N. The nominal suffix -er denoting an active doer may serve as another example. The suffix gives numerous suffixal and compound nouns and though it is largely a deverbal suffix as in brain-washer, a double-talker, a sit-inner new nouns are freely formed from bases of other parts of speech, e. g. a roomer, a YCLer, a one-winger, a ganger, etc. Yet the bulk of productive patterns giving rise to freely-formed and easily predictable lexical classes of new words have a set of rigid structural and semantic constraints such as the lexical-grammatical class and structural type of bases, 2 the semantic nature of the base, etc. The degree of productivity is also connected with a certain power of analogy attached to each pattern. The following productive types giving the greatest number of new vocabulary items may be mentioned: deverbal suffixal adjectives denoting passive possibility of the action (v + -able -> A), e. g. attachable, acceptable, livable-in, likeable, etc.; prefixal negative adjectives formed after two patterns: 1) (un- + part I/II -> A), e. g. unguarded, unheard-of, unbinding, etc., 2) (un- + a -> A), e. g. unsound, uncool, especially with deverbal adjectival bases as in unthinkable, unquantifiable, unavoidable, unanswerable, etc.; prefixal verbs of repetitive meaning (re- + + v -> V), e. g. rearrange, re-train, remap, etc.; prefixal verbs of reversative meaning (un- + v -> V), e. g. uncap, unbundle, unhook, undock, etc.; derivational compound adjectives denoting possession [(a/n + n) + + -ed -> A], e. g. flat-bottomed, long-handled, heavy-lidded, etc. The greater part of new compound nouns are formed after n + n -> N pattern, e. g. wave-length, sound-track, etc. The bidirectional nature of productive derivational patterns is of special interest in connection with back-derivation as a source of new verbs. The pattern of semantic relationship of the action and its active doer, the action and the name of the process of this action are regularly represented in Modern English by highly productive nominal patterns with suffixes -er and -ing (v + -er -> N, v + -ing -> N). Hence the noun whose structure contains this suffix or may be interpreted as having it is understood as a secondary unit motivated by a verb even if the verb does not actually exist. This was the case with editor, baby-sitter, housekeeping, a new “ simpler" verb was formed to fill the gap. The noun was felt as derived and the “ corresponding" verb was formed by taking the suffix or the suffix-like sound-cluster away. The following verbs, e. g. to beg, to edit, to stage-manage, to babysit, to dress-make are the results of back-formation. Back-derivation as a re-interpretation of the derivational structure is now growing in productivity but it functions only within the framework of highly productive patterns with regular and transparent derivative relations associated formally with a certain suffix. Many new backderived verbs are often stylistically marked as colloquial, e. g. enthuse from enthusiasm, playact from play-acting, tongue-tie from tongue-tied, sight-see from sight-seeing. The correct appraisal of the role of productive word-formation and its power to give analogic creations would be incomplete if one does not take into account the so-called occasional or potential wÐ¾rds. Built on analogy with the most productive types of derived and compound words, easily understood and never striking one as “ un-" usual" or “ new" they are so numerous that it is virtually impossible to make conversation to-day, to hear a speech or to read a newspaper with- out coming across a number of words which are new to the language. Occasional words are especially connected with the force of analogous creations based on productive word-formation patterns. It often happens that one or another word becomes, sometimes due to social and political reasons, especially prominent and frequent. One of its components ac-quires an additional derivative force and becomes the centre of a series of lexical items. It can be best illustrated by new words formed on analogy with the compound noun sit-in which according to A Dictionary of New English gave three sets of analogic units. The noun sit-in is traced back to 1960 when it was formed from the verb sit-in introduced by the Negro civil-rights movement. In the first series of analogic creations the -in was associated with a public protest demonstration and gave rise to sit-in and sit-inner, kneel-in, ride-in, all motivated by the underlying verbal units. The original meaning was soon extended to the staging of any kind of public demonstration and resulted in a new series of nouns like a teach-in, study-in, talk-in, read-in, etc. which became independent of the existence of the corresponding phrasal verbs. A third development was the weakening of the earlier meanings to cover any kind of social gathering by a group, e. g. think-in, sing-in, fish-in, laugh-in, etc. The second components of compound nouns often become such centres of creations by analogy as for instance the component -sick- in seasick and homesick gave on analogy car-sick, air-sick, space-sick. The compound noun earthquake led to birthquake (= population explosion), youthquake (= a world-wide agitation caused by student uprisings), starquake (= a series of rapid changes in the shape of the star). The noun teenager led to golden-ager, skyscraper to thighscraper (= a mini-skirt), house-wife to house-husband. The derivative component -proof gave sound-proof, bullet-proof, fool-proof, kiss-proof, love-proof, etc. Productive word-formation has a specific distribution in relation to different spheres of communication, thematic and lexical stylistic groups of new words. New terminological vocabulary units appear mainly as a result of composition making extensive use of borrowed root-morphemes, and affixation with sets of affixes of peculiar stylistic reference, often of Latin-Greek origin which are scarcely ever used outside this group of words, for example suffixes -ite, -ine- -tron, etc. The suffixes -in, -gen, -ogen are productive in the field of chemistry and biochemistry, e. g. citrin, penicillin, carcinogen; -ics in the naming of sciences as in radionics, bionics; the prefixes non-, pan-, suffixes -ism, -ist are most productive in political vocabulary, e. g. Nixonomics, Nixonomist, etc. In comparison with specialised vocabulary items, lexical units of standard-colloquial layer are more often created by affixes of neutral stylistic reference, by conversion and composition. 2. Borrowing Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characterisitic of borrowings to be non- motivated semantically. English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words. English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundunt as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a « giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century. Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria: a) according to the aspect which is borrowed, b) according to the degree of assimilation, c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed. (In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, German and Russian.) Borrowing as a means of replenishing the vocabulary of present-day English is of much lesser importance and is active mainly in the field of scientific -terminology. It should be noted that many terms are often made up of borrowed morphemes, mostly morphemes from classical languages. 1) The present-day English vocabulary, especially its terminological layers, is constantly enriched by words made up of morphemes of Latin and Greek origin such as words with the morphemes -tron used chiefly in the field of electronics, e. g. mesotron, cyclotron, etc.; tele-, e. g. telecast, telelecture, telediagnosis, -in, e. g. protein, penicillin; -scope, e. g. iconoscope, oscilloscope; meta-, e. g. meta-culture, metaprogram; para- meaning ‘ related to, near’, e. g. paralinguistic, parabiospheric; video-, e. g. videodisk, videophone, etc. But though these words consist of borrowed morphemes they cannot be regarded as true borrowings because these words did not exist either in the Greek or in the Latin word-stock. All of them are actually formed according to patterns of English word-formation, and many function in Modern English as new affixes and semi-affixes. Words with some of them can be found in the vocabulary of various languages and reflect as a rule the general progress in science and technology. It is noteworthy that a number of new affixes appeared in Modern English through different types of borrowing. This can be exemplified by the Russian suffix -nik which came within the words sputnik, lunnik and acquired the meaning of ‘ one who is connected with something’, but which under the influence of beatnik acquired a derogatory flavour and is now a slang suffix. It is used to denote ‘ person who rejects standard social values and becomes a devotee of some fact or idea’, e. g. FOLK-NIK, protestnik, filmnik, etc. The prefix mini- is now currently used with two meanings: a) ‘ of very small size’, e. g. minicomputer, minicar, mini war, ministate, and b) ‘ very short’, as in minidress, minicoat, miniskirt, etc.; the prefix maxi- was borrowed on the analogy of mini- also in two meanings: a)'very large’, e. g. maxi-order, maxi-taxi, and b) ‘ long, reaching down to the ankle’, e. g. maxicoat, maxi-dress, maxilength. The suffix -naut is found in, e. g., astronaut, aquanaut, lunarnaut, etc. Numerous borrowed root-morphemes remain bound in the vocabulary of Modern English but acquire a considerable derivative force and function as components of a specific group of compounds productive mainly in specialised spheres, e. g. acoust(o) – acousto-optic, acousto-electronics; ge(o)-, e. g. geowarfare, geoscientist, multi- e. g. multi-cultural, multi- directional, multispectral, etc.; cosm(o)-, e. g. cosmodrome, cosmonautics, cosmonaut, etc. 2) There are true borrowings from different languages as well. They, as a rule, reflect the way of life, the peculiarities of development of the speech communities from which they come. From the Russian language there came words like kolkhoz, Gosplan, Komsomol, udarnik, sputnik, jak, etc. The words borrowed from the German language at the time of war reflect the aggressive nature of German fascism, e. g. Blitzkrieg, Wehrmacht, Luftwaffe. As most of these words remain unassimilated in present-day English, they are all the time felt as foreign words and tend to drop out from the language. 3) Loan-translations also reflect the peculiarities of the way of life of the countries they come from, and they easily become stable units of the vocabulary, e. g. fellow-traveller, self-criticism, Socialist democracy, Worker’s Faculty, etc. which all come from the Russian language. CHAPTER II CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS 2. 1 Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings. Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc. Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, « to take the bull by the horns» (Latin), « fair sex» (French), « living space» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e. g. Sunday (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: « pipe of peace», « pale-faced», from German « masterpiece», « homesickness», « superman». Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e. g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning « to live» for the word « to dwell’ which in Old English had the meaning « to wander». Or else the meaning « Ð´Ð°Ñ€», « Ð¿Ð¾Ð´Ð°Ñ€Ð¾Ðº» for the word « gift» which in Old English had the meaning « Ð²Ñ‹ÐºÑƒÐ¿ Ð·Ð° Ð¶ÐµÐ½Ñƒ». Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e. g. « brigade» was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning « a working collective«, » Ð±Ñ€Ð¸Ð³Ð°Ð´Ð°». This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word « pioneer». Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e. g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e. g. « goddess», « beautiful» etc. 2. 2 Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors: a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier, b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker, c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated, d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is. Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into: completely assimilated, partly assimilated and non-assimilated (barbarisms). Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word « sport» and the native word « start». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e. g. correct -corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s- inflexion, e. g. gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one. Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, e. g. the Russian borrowing « sputnik» is used in English only in one of its meanings. Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e. g. sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc. b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e. g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon -phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc. c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, e. g. voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ ( loss - lose, life - live ). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e. g. /sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph « sh», e. g. shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized e. g. girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization , e. g. German, child. Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e. g. police, cartoon. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e. g. /a: 3/ in the words : camouflage, bourgeois, some of them retain the combination of sounds /wa:/ in the words: memoir, boulevard. d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e. g. in Greak borrowings « y» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), « ph» denotes the sound /f/ (phoneme, morpheme), « ch» denotes the sound /k/(chemistry, chaos), « ps» denotes the sound /s/ (psychology). Latin borrowings retain their polisyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (accompany, affirmative). French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e. g. consonants « p», « t», « s» are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters « eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussaeu. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: ‘ ch’ is pronounced as /sh/, e. g. chic, parachute, ‘ qu’ is pronounced as /k/ e. g. bouquet, « ou» is pronounced as /u:/, e. g. rouge; some letters retain their French pronunciation, e. g. « i» is pronounced as /i:/, e, g, chic, machine; « g» is pronounced as /3/, e. g. rouge. Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e. g. Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e. g. « a» is pronounced as /a:/ (Dictat), « u» is pronounced as /u:/ (Kuchen), « au» is pronounced as /au/ (Hausfrau), « ei» is pronounced as /ai/ (Reich); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e. g. « s» before a vowel is pronounced as /z/ (Sitskrieg), « v» is pronounced as /f/ (Volkswagen), « w» is pronounced as /v/ , « ch» is pronounced as /h/ (Kuchen). Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e. g. addio (Italian), tete-a-tete (French), dolce vita (Italian), duende (Spanish), an homme a femme (French), gonzo (Italian) etc. 2. 3 Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed 2. 3. 1 Romanic borrowings Latin borrowings Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: alter, cross, dean, and Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem. Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e. g. formula - formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto etc. Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (appendicitis, aspirin), in chemistry (acid, valency, alkali), in technique (engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome), in politics (socialism, militarism), names of sciences (zoology, physics). In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (homonym, archaism, lexicography). French borrowings The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e. g. « v» was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of « f» in the intervocal position /lufian - love/, the digraph « ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter « c» / chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph « sh» was introduced instead of the combination « sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/, the digraph « th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters « 0» and « » /this, thing/, the letter « y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter « 3» to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph « qu» substituted the combination « cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the digraph « ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter « u» before « v», « m», « n» and the digraph « th» by the letter « o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /« sunu» - « son», luvu» - « love»/. Borrowing of French words. There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings: a) words relating to government : administer, empire, state, government; b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle; c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister; d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery; e) words relating to jewelry: topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl; f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew. Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings: a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatorie, brochure, nuance, piruette, vaudeville; b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre; c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau; d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine. Italian borrowings Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word « bank» /from the Italian « banko» - « bench»/. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called « banco rotta» from which the English word « bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed: volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin. But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo- European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin. Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention: gazette, incognitto, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, diletante, grotesque, graffito etc. Spanish borrowings Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them: a) trade terms: cargo, embargo; b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar; c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobbaco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc. 2. 3. 2 Germanic borrowings English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages. Scandinavian borrowings By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English. Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e. g. Modern E ON OE sister syster sweoster fish fiscr fisc fellow felagi felawe However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window etc, such adjectives as: flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others. Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as: same, both, till, fro, though, and pronominal forms with « th»: they, them, their. Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e. g. ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /take off, give in etc/. German borrowings There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e. g. in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc. In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc. Holland borrowings Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others. Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavoninc languages. Russian borrowings There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe etc. There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Rushian literature of the 19-th century, such as : Narodnik, moujik, duma, zemstvo. volost, ukase etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist etc. After the Great October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: collectivization. udarnik, Komsomol etc and also translation loans, such as: shock worker, collective farm, five- year plan etc. One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: glasnost, nomenklatura, apparatchik etc. 2. 4 Etymological doublets Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them: Latino-French doublets. Latin English from Latin English from French uncia inch ounce moneta mint money camera camera chamber Franco-French doublets doublets borrowed from different dialects of French. Norman Paris canal channel captain chieftain catch chaise Scandinavian-English doublets Scandinavian English skirt shirt scabby shabby There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - Ð» ÑŽÐ±ÐµÐ·Ð½Ñ‹Ð¹, Ð±Ð» Ð°Ð³Ð¾Ñ€Ð¾Ð´Ð½Ñ‹Ð¹, etymological doublets are: gentle - Ð¼Ñ�Ð³ÐºÐ¸Ð¹, Ð²ÐµÐ¶Ð» Ð¸Ð²Ñ‹Ð¹ and genteel - Ð±Ð» Ð°Ð³Ð¾Ñ€Ð¾Ð´Ð½Ñ‹Ð¹. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are: ‘ gallant - Ñ…Ñ€Ð°Ð±Ñ€Ñ‹Ð¹ and ga’llant - Ð³Ð°Ð» Ð°Ð½Ñ‚ Ð½Ñ‹Ð¹, Ð²Ð½Ð¸Ð¼Ð°Ñ‚ ÐµÐ» ÑŒÐ½Ñ‹Ð¹. 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. Conclusion English has many loanwords. In 1973, a computerised survey of about 80, 000 words in the old Shorter Oxford Dictionary (3rd edition) was published in Ordered Profusion by Thomas Finkenstaedt and Dieter Wolff. Their estimates for the origin of English words were as follows: - French, including Old French and early Anglo-French: 28. 3% - Latin, including modern scientific and technical Latin: 28. 24% - Germanic languages, including Old and Middle English: 25% - Greek: 5. 32% - No etymology given or unknown: 4. 03% - Derived from proper names: 3. 28% - All other languages contributed less than 1% However, if the frequency of use of words is considered, words from Old and Middle English occupy the vast majority. The reasons for English's vast borrowing include: - (to a relatively small extent) the existence of other languages native to Britain; - the invasion of England by the Vikings and the Normans; - its modern importance; - its being a scientific language; - its development as a trade language in the 18th century; and - the flexibility of its syllable structure. This lack of restrictions makes it comparatively easy for the English language to incorporate new words. Compare this with Japanese, where the English word " club" (itself originally from Old Norse) was turned into " kurabu" because of Japanese's inflexible syllable structure. However, the English pronunciations of loanwords often differ from the original pronunciations to such a degree that a native speaker of the language it was borrowed from is not be able to recognize it as a loanword when spoken. English often borrows words from the cultures and languages of the British Colonies. For example there are at least 20 words from Hindi, including syce/sais, dinghy, chutney, pundit, wallah, pajama/pyjamas, bungalow and jodhpur. Other examples include trek, aardvark, laager and veld from Afrikaans, shirang, amok (Malay) and sjambok (Malay via Afrikaans). List of Literature 1Adams V. Introduction into English Word formation. Lnd., 1983 . 1. Akhmanova O. S. Lexicology: Theory and Method. M. 1972 2. Arnold I. V. The English Word . M. 1986. 3. Burchfield R. W. The English Language. 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