G. V. Lashkova, V. T. Talakhadze, I. G. Vrazhnova

NEW READINGS IN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Part I

CONTENTS:

PREFACE:

New Readings in English Lexicology: Part I covers the following domains of lexicology: etymology, morphology, and lexicography. It is aimed at providing students with new reading material which illustrates the main topics addressed at lectures on English lexicology. This course is a part of the curricula of Foreign Languages Departments of universities.

In selecting the texts for this book, the compilers were guided by the necessity to expose students to the newest of theoretical works on linguistics by modern British and American specialists.

The structure of the book follows the order of the course on English lexicology. Each section contains excerpts from different authentic sources and comprehension questions meant to solidify students' knowledge on the topic covered.

The book is provided with a list of recommended reading, a glossary of linguistic terms, and a subject index.

THE SOURCES OF THE LEXICON

CELTIC BORROWINGS [1]

There is, surprisingly, very little Celtic influence – or perhaps it is not so surprising, given the savage way in which the Celtic communities were destroyed or pushed back into the areas we now know as Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria, and the Scottish borders. Some Celts (or Romano-Celts) doubtless remained in the east and south, perhaps as slaves, perhaps intermarrying, but their identity would after a few generations have been lost within Anglo-Saxon Society. Whatever we might expect from such a period of cultural contact, the Celtic language of Roman Britain influenced Old English hardly at all.

Only a handful of Celtic words were borrowed at the time, and a few have survived into Modern English, sometimes in regional dialect use: *crag*, *cumb* 'deep valley', *binn* 'bin', *carr* 'rock', *dunn* 'grey, dun', *brock* 'badger', and *torr* 'peak'. Others include *bannoc* 'piece', *rice* 'rule', *gafeluc* 'small spear', *bratt* 'cloak', *luh* 'lake', *dry* 'sorcerer', and *clucge* 'bell'. A few Celtic words of this period ultimately come from Latin, brought in by the Irish missionaries: these include *asses* 'ass', *ancor* 'hermit', *staer* 'history', and possibly *cross*. But there cannot be more than two dozen loan words in all. And there are even very few Celtic-based place names in what is now southern and eastern England. They include such river names as *Thames*, *Avon* 'river', *Don*, *Exe*, *Usk* and *Wye*. Town names include *Dover* 'water', *Eccles* 'church', *Bray* 'hill', *London* (tribal name), *Kent* (meaning unknown), and the use of *caer* "fortified place' (as in *Carlisle*) and *pen* 'head, top, hill' (as in *Pendle*).

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[1] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 8.*

LATIN LOANS [2]

Latin has been a major influence on English throughout its history, and there is evidence of its role from the earliest moments of contact. The Roman army and merchants gave new names to many local objects and experiences, and introduced several new concepts. About half the new words were to do with plants, animals, food and drink, and household items: Old English *pise* 'pea', *plante* 'plant', *win* 'wine', *cyse* 'cheese', *catte* 'cat', *cetel* 'kettle', *disc* 'dish', *candel* 'candle'. Other important clusters of words related to clothing (*belt* 'belt', *cemes* 'shirt', *sutere* 'shoemaker'), buildings and settlements (*tigle* 'tile', *weall* 'wall', *ceaster* 'city', *straet* 'road'), military and legal institutions (*wic* 'camp', *diht* 'saying', *scrifan* 'decree'), commerce (*mangian* 'trade', *ceapian* 'buy', *pund* 'pound'), and religion (*maesse* 'Mass', *munic* 'monk', *mynster* 'minster').

Whether the Latin words were already used by the Anglo-Saxon tribes on the continent of Europe, or were introduced from within Britain, is not always clear, but the total number of Latin words present in English at the very beginning of the Anglo-Saxon period is not large – less than 200. Although Vulgar Latin (the variety of spoken Latin used throughout the Empire) must have continues in use – at least, as an official language – for some years after the Roman army left, for some reason it did not take root in Britain as it had so readily done in Continental Europe.

> **A few Latin loans...**
>
> abbot, accent alb, aims, anchor, angel, antichrist, ark, cancer, candle, canon, canticle, cap, cedar, celandine, ceil, chalice, chest, cloister, cucumber, cypress, deacon, dirge, elephant, fever, fig, font, giant, ginger, history, idol, laurel, lentil, litany, lobster, lovage, marshmallow, martyr, master, mat, nocturn, noon, oyster, paper, periwinkle, place, plaster, pope, priest, prime, prophet psalm, pumice, purple, radish, relic, rule, scorpion, scrofula, shrine, sock, synagogue, temple, tiger, title, tunic

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[2] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 8.*

THE EFFECT OF LATIN [3]

The history of early English vocabulary is one of repeated invasions, with newcomers to the islands bringing their own language with them, and leaving a fair amount of its vocabulary behind when they left or were assimilated. In the Anglo-Saxon period, there were two major influences of this kind — one to do with this world, the other to do with the next.

The focus on the next world arrived first, in the form of the Christian missionaries from Ireland and Rome. Not only did they introduce literacy, they brought with them a huge Latin vocabulary. The Anglo-Saxons had of course already encountered Latin as used by the Continental Roman armies and the Romano-British, but only a few Vulgar Latin words had come into Old English as a result. By contrast, the missionary influence resulted in hundreds of new words coming into the language, and motivated many derived forms. The new vocabulary was mainly to do with the Church and its services, theology, and learning, but there were also many biological, domestic, and general words, most of which have survived in Modern English. At the same

EARLY LATIN LOANS (BEFORE 1000)

Ecclesiastical
abbadissa > abudesse 'abbess'
altar > alter 'altar'
apostolus > apostol 'apostle'
culpa > cylpe 'fault'
missa > mæsse 'Mass'
nonnus > nonne 'monk'
offerre > offrian 'sacrifice'
praedicare > predician 'preach'
scola > scol 'school'
versus > fers 'verse'

General
calendae > calend 'month'
cavellum > caul 'basket'
epistula > epistol 'tetter'
fenestra > fenester 'window'
lilium > lilia 'lily'
organum > orgel 'organ'
picus > pic 'pike'
planta > plant 'plant'
rosa > rose 'rose'
studere > studdian 'take care of'

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[3] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 24.*

LATE LATIN LOANS (AFTER 1000)

Ecclesiastical

apostata > *apostata* 'apostate'
chrisma > *crisma* 'chrism'
clericus > *cleric* 'clerk'
credo > *creda* 'creed'
crucem > *cruc* 'cross'
daemon > *demon* 'demon'
discipulus > *discipul* 'disciple'
paradisus > *paradis* 'paradise'
prior > *prior* 'prior'
sabbatum > *sabbat* 'sabbath'

General

bibliotheca > *bibliopece* 'library'
chorus > *chor* 'choir, chorus'
declinare > *declinian* 'decline'
delphinus > *delfin* 'dolphin'
grammatica > *grammatic* 'grammar'
hymnus > *ymen* 'hymn'
mechancus > *mechanics* 'mechanical'
persicum > *persic* 'peach'
philosophus > *philosoph* 'philosopher'
scutula > *scutel* 'scuttle, dish'

time, many Old English words were given new, 'Christian' meanings under missionary influence. *Heaven*, *hell*, *God*, *Gospel*, *Easter*, *Holy Ghost*, *sin* and several others were semantically refashioned at the time.

The loans came in over a long time scale, and differed in character. Up to c. 1000, many continued to arrive from spoken Latin, and these tended to relate more to everyday, practical matters. After c. 1000, following the rebirth of learning associated with King Alfred and the 10th-century Benedictine monastic revival, the vocabulary came from classical written sources, and is much more scholarly and technical. Sometimes, even, the Latin ending would be retained in the loan word, instead of being replaced by the relevant Old English ending: an example is *acoluthus* 'acolyte', which first appears in one of fifties works as *acolitus*. Many of these learned words (such as *colkctaneum* and *epactas*) did not survive — though several (*fenestra* and *bibliotheca* are instances) were to be reincarnated some time later in a second stage of classical borrowing.

NORSE LOANS [4]

THE EFFECT OF NORSE

The second big linguistic invasion came as a result of the Viking raids on Britain, which began in AD 787 and continued for some 200 years. Regular settlement began in the mid-9th century, and within a few years the Danes controlled most of eastern England. They were prevented from further gains by their defeat in 878 at Ethandun. By the Treaty of Wedmore (886) the Danes agreed to settle only in the north-east third of the country – east of a line running roughly from Chester to London – an area that was subject to Danish law, and which thus became known as the *Danelaw*. In 991, a further invasion brought a series of victories for the Danish army, and resulted in the English king Æthelred, being forced into exile, and the Danes seizing the throne. England then stayed under Danish rule for 25 years.

> **A few more Norse loans…**
>
> Again, anger, awkward, bag, band, bank, birth, brink, bull, cake, call, clip, crawl, crook, die, dirt, dregs, egg, flat, fog, freckle, gap, gasp, get, guess, happy, husband, ill, keel, kid, knife, law, leg, loan, low, muggy, neck, odd, outlaw, race, raise, ransack, reindeer, rid, root, rugged, scant, scare, scowl, scrap, seat, seem, silver, sister, skill, skirt, sly, smile, snub, sprint, steak, take, thrift, Thursday, tight, trust, want, weak, window

The linguistic result of this prolonged period of contact was threefold. A large number of settlements with Danish names appeared in England. There was also a marked increase in personal names of Scandinavian origin, such as Jackson, Henderson, and Davidson. And many general words entered the language, nearly 1,000 eventually becoming part of Standard English. Only c. 150 of these words appear in Old English manuscripts, the earliest in the treaty between Alfred and Guthrum, and in the northern manuscripts of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. They include *landing*, *score*, *beck*, *fellow*, *take*, *husting*, and *strees-*

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[4] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 25.*

> ### Scandinavian place names
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> There are over 1,500 Scandinavian parish names in England, related to the boundary line of the Danelaw, especially in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. Over 600 end in *–by*, the Scandinavian word for 'farm' or 'town' – *Derby*, *Grimsby*, *Rugby*, *Naseby*, etc. Many of the remainder end in *-thorp* ('village'), as in *Althorp*, *Astonthorpe*, and *Linthorpe*; *-thwaite* ('clearing'), as in *Braithwaite*, *Applethwaite*, and *Storthwaite*; and *-toft* ('homestead'), as in *Lowestoft*, *Eastoft*, and *Sandtoft*. The *–by* ending is almost entirely confined to the area of the Danelaw, supporting a theory of Scandinavian origin, despite the existence of the word *by* 'dwelling' in Old English.

man, as well as many words which did not survive in later English (mostly terms to do with Danish law and culture, which died away after the Norman Conquest). The vast majority of loans words do not begin to appear until the early 12th century. These include many of our modern words which use [sk-] sounds (an Old Norse Feature), such as *skirt*, *sky*, and *skin*, as well as most of the words listed below.

The closeness of the contact between the Anglo-Saxons and the Danish settlers is clearly shown by the extensive borrowings. Some of the commonest words in Modern English came into the language at the time, such as *both*, *same*, *get*, and *give*. Even the personal pronoun system was affected with *they*, *them*, and *their* replacing the earlier forms. And – the most remarkable invasion of all — Old Norse influenced the verb *to be*. The replacement of *sindon* by *are* is almost certainly the result of Scandinavian influence, as in the spread of the 3rd person singular *-s* ending in the present tense in other verbs.

The French Factor [5]

French influence became increasingly evident in English manuscripts of the 13th century. It has been estimated that some 10,000 French words came into English at that time — many previously borrowed from more distant sources (such as *alkali* from Arabic). These words were largely to do with the mechanisms of law and administration, but they also included words from such fields as medicine, art, and fashion. Many of the new words were quite ordinary, everyday terms. Over 70 per cent were nouns. A large number were abstract terms, constructed using such new French affixes as *con-*, *trans-*, *pre-*, *-ance*, *-tion*, and *-ment*. About three-quarters of all these French loans are still in the language today.

Some French loans in Middle English [1]

Administration: authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council, court, crown, duke, empire, exchequer, government, liberty, majesty, manor, mayor, messenger, minister, noble, palace, parliament, peasant, prince, realm, reign, revenue, royal, servant, sir, sovereign, squire, statute, tax, traitor, treason, treasurer, treaty, tyrant, vassal, warden

Law: accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar, blame, chattels, convict, crime, decree, depose, estate, evidence, executor, felon, fine, fraud, heir, indictment, inquest, jail, judge, jury, justice, larceny, legacy, libel, pardon, perjury, plaintiff, plea, prison, punishment, sue, summons, trespass, verdict, warrant

Religion: abbey, anoint, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant chaplain, charity, clergy, communion, confess, convent, creator, crucifix, divine, faith, friar, heresy, homily, immortality, incense, mercy, miracle, novice, ordain, parson, penance, prayer, prelate, priory, religion, repent, sacrament, sacrilege, saint, salvation, saviour, schism, sermon, solemn, temptation, theology, trinity, vicar, virgin, virtue

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[5] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 46.*

Military: ambush, archer, army, barbican, battle, besiege, captain, combat, defend, enemy, garrison, guard, hauberk, lance, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, portcullis, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier, spy, vanquish

Science and learning: alkali, anatomy, arsenic, calendar, clause, copy, gender, geometry, gout, grammar, jaundice, leper, logic, medicine, metal, noun, ointment, pain, physician, plague, pleurisy, poison, pulse, sphere, square, stomach, study, sulphur, surgeon, treatise

Food and drink: appetite, bacon, beef, biscuit, clove, confection, cream, cruet, date, dinner, feast, fig, fruit, fry, grape, gravy, gruel, herb, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mackerel, mince, mustard, mutton, olive, orange, oyster, pigeon, plate, pork, poultry, raisin, repast, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, saucer, sausage, sole, spice, stew, sturgeon, sugar, supper, tart, taste, toast, treacle, tripe, veal, venison, vinegar

The home: basin, blanket, bucket, ceiling, cellar, chair, chamber, chandelier, chimney, closet, couch, counterpane, curtain, cushion, garret, joist kennel, lamp, lantern, latch, lattice, pantry, parlour, pillar, porch, quilt, scullery, towel, tower, turret

Fashion: apparel, attire, boots, brooch, buckle, button, cape, chemise, cloak, collar, diamond, dress, embroidery, emerald, ermine, fashion, frock, fur, garment, garter, gown, jewel, lace, mitten, ornament, pearl, petticoat, pleat, robe, satin, taffeta, tassel, train, veil, wardrobe

As new words arrived, there were many cases where they duplicated words that had already existed in English from Anglo-Saxon times. In such cases, there were two outcomes. Either one word would supplant the other; or both would co-exist, but develop slighdy different meanings. The first outcome was very common, in most cases the French word replacing an Old English equivalent; for example, *leod* gave way to *people*, *wlitig* to *beautiful*, and *stow* to *place*. Hundreds of Old English words were lost in this way. But at the same time, Old English and French words often both survived with different senses or connotations, such as *doom* (OE) and *judgment* (F), *hearty* (OE) and *cordial* (F), and *house* (OE) and *mansion* (F). Sometimes pairs of words were used, one glossing the other: *for routhe and for pitie* is a Chaucerian example, and legal terminology often

developed coordinations of this kind. Bilingual word lists were compiled as early as the mid- 13th century to aid intelligibility between English and French.

COURTLY FRENCH LOANS

The words from French which would have been entering the language during Chaucer's lifetime were rather different in character from those which arrived in the early Middle English period. The French of the Norman conquerors was a northern dialect of the lanuage, and this dominated the English scene for 200 years. By the 12th century, however, Paris had come to be established as the centre of influence in France, and new loan words began to arrive from the dialect of that area.

As the Parisian court grew in prestige, so Parisian French became the prestige dialect. It is this variety of French which in due course would have been taught in quality schools in England, with the earlier English- influenced varieties of French considered uneducated and perhaps a bit of a joke.

From a lexical point of view, it is important to note these dialect differences, as otherwise it is not possible to explain certain spelling variants. There are several pairs of loan words affected (though not all have survived in Modem English):

Norman French	Parisian French
calange (1225)	challenge (1300)
canchelers (1066)	chanceleres (1300)
wile (1154)	guile (1225)
warrant (1225)	guarantee (1624)
warden (1225)	guardian (1466)
reward (1315)	regard (1430)
convele (1375)	convoy (1425)
lealte(1300)	loialte (1400)
prisun(1121)	prison (1225)
gaol (1163)	jail (1209)

The central French spellings post-date the Norman ones. The situation is not always clear, partly because of the uncertainties of English spelling practices at the time; but there is enough evidence to show that there were two distinct stages of borrowing from French in early Middle English. (After p. Burnley, 1992.)

General nouns: action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage, courtesy, cruelty, debt, deceit dozen, envy, error, face, fault, flower, forest, grief, honour, hour, joy, labour, manner, marriage, mischief, mountain, noise, number, ocean, opinion, order, pair, people, person, piece, point, poverty, power, quality, rage, reason, river, scandal, season, sign, sound, spirit substance, task, tavern, unity, vision

General adjectives: active, amorous, blue, brown, calm, certain, clear, common, cruel, curious, eager, easy, final, foreign, gay, gentle, honest, horrible, large, mean, natural, nice, original, perfect, poor, precious, probable, real, rude, safe, scarce, scarlet second, simple, single, solid, special, strange, sudden, sure, usual

General verbs: advise, allow, arrange, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy, enter, form, grant, inform, join, marry, move, obey, pass, pay, please, prefer, prove, push, quit, receive, refuse, remember, reply, satisfy, save, serve, suppose, travel, trip, wait, waste

Turns of phrase: by heart, come to a head, do homage, do justice to, have mercy on, hold one's peace, make complaint, on the point of, take leave, take pity on

Almost all the English words to do with the aristocracy and their servants are of French origin (though the meaning of these words in medieval times was often rather different from what it is today). The chief examples are *baron*, *count(ess)*, *courtier*, *duchess*, *duke*, *marchioness*, *marquis*, *noble*, *page*, *peer*, *prince*, *princess*, *squire*, and *viscount(ess)*. *King*, *queen*, *lord*, *lady*, *knight*, and *earl* are the Anglo-Saxon exceptions.

Similarly, the names of all the best-known precious stones are French: *amethyst*, *diamond*, *emerald*, *garnet*, *pearl*, *ruby*, *sapphire*, *topaz*, *turquoise*.

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[6] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 47.*

NATIVE VOCABULARY [7]

Many lexemes have always been there — in the sense that they arrived with the Germanic invaders, and have never fallen out of use. The Anglo-Saxon lexical character continues to dominate everyday conversation, whether it be grammatical words (*in*, *on*, *be*, *that*), lexical words (*father*, *love*, *name*), or affixes (*mis-*, *un-*, *-ness*, *-less*). Although Anglo-Saxon lexemes comprise only a relatively small part of the total modern lexicon, they provide almost all the most frequently used words in the language. In the million-word Brown University corpus of written American English, the 100 most frequently used items are almost all Anglo-Saxon. The exceptions are a few Scandinavian loans (such as *they* and *are*); there is nothing from Romance sources until items 105 (*just*) and 107 (*people*).

LEXICAL TWINS AND TRIPLETS

A good way of developing a feel for the Anglo-Saxon element in the lexicon is to place Old English lexemes alongside later French or Latin borrowings. Disregarding any differences of meaning, the later forms are usually more formal, careful, bookish, or polite.

Old English	French	Latin
guts	courage	
clothes	attire	
climb		ascend
sweat	perspire	
happiness		felicity
house	mansion	
wish	desire	
weariness		lassitude

There are also several 'lexical triplets', in which French and Latin forms have both joined an original Old English item. The readiness of English to acquire near-synonyms has been an important factor in the development of the stylistic versatility of the modern language.

Old English	French	Latin
rise	mount	ascend
ask	question	interrogate
fast	firm	secure
kingly	royal	regal
holy	sacred	consecrated
fire	flame	conflagration

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[7] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 124.*

The diagram used by the first editor of the *Oxford English Dictionary*, James Murray, in the section called 'General Explanations' which preceded Volume 1 (1888): 'the English Vocabulary contains a nucleus or central mass of many thousand words whose "Anglicity" is unquestioned; some of them only literary, some of them only colloquial, the great majority at once literary and colloquial, — they are the *Common Words* of the language'. Just how common they are can be judged from this list of examples:

Parts of the body: hand, foot, arm, eye, heart, chin, bone.
Natural landscape: land, field, meadow, hedge, hill, wood, oak.
Domestic life: house, home, stool, door, floor, weave, knit.
Calendar: sun, moon, day, month, year.
Animals: horse, cow, sheep, dog, hen, goat, swine, fish.
Common adjectives: black, white, wide, long, good, dark.
Common verbs: fly, drink, swim, help, come, see, eat, sit, send, sell, think, love, say, be, do, go, shove, kiss, have, live.

The fact that most of these words are short and concrete has often been noted as a major stylistic feature of the Anglo-Saxon lexicon. Some may be surprised that the 'four-letter words' do not figure in the list; but neither *fuck* nor *cunt* are recorded in Old English (though *shit*, *turd*, and *arse* are).

Saxomania [8]

Many writers — among them, Charles Dickens, Thomas Hardy, Gerard Maniey Hopkins, and George Orwell — have enthused about the supposed 'purity' of Angto-Saxon vocabulary, but never was this enthusiasm so strong as in the 19th century, as part of the English Romantic movement. In the case of the Dorsetshire poet, William Barnes (1801-86), the concern became an obsession.

Barnes left school at 15, then studied Classics privately, developing a fascination with philology. He opened a school, and in his 40s became a country parson. He is best known for his several books of poems written in the Dorset dialect, but his other writing includes an Anglo-Saxon primer. *An Outline of English*

Anglish

What would have happened to the lexicon had William the Conqueror been conquered? A possible answer was given by British humorist Paul Jennings in a 1966 edition of *Punch* celebrating the 900th anniversary of the Norman Conquest. Here are the opening lines of a famous soliloquy, turned (apart from *outrageous*) into 'Anglish':

To be, or not to be: that is the ask-thing:
Is't higher-thinking in the brain to bear
The slings and arrows of outrageous dooming
Or to take weapons 'gainst a sea of bothers
And by agarnstwork end them?

Barnes himself created thousands of neologisms. The following dozen examples captures their flavour:

bookiore	literature
breaksome	fragile
folkdom	democracy
forewit	prudence
gleeman	musician
hareling	leveret
hearsomeness	obedience
loreless	ignorant
outgate	exit
soothfastness	veracity
water-giver	reservoir
yeartide	anniversary

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[8] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 125.*

THE LEXICAL CONQUEST

The Norman invasion of England was the most significant change of direction in the history of English vocabulary. By 1400 about 10,000 new lexemes had come into the language from French, and several thousand more had entered from Latin. By the end of the Middle English period, the surviving Old English lexicon was already in the minority.

Barnes' aim was to promote a kind of English purified of alien (that is, non-Germanic) borrowings. In particular, the removal of French, Latin, and Greek words would, he felt, make the language more accessible and intelligible, there would be a psychological benefit too, as English came to reassert its identity with its Germanic origins.

What made his approach so distinctive was his creativity. Not only did he use surviving Anglo-Saxon lexemes in place of foreign ones, he did not hesitate to resuscitate long-dead Anglo-Saxonisms, or to devise completely new lexemes using Anglo-Saxon roots. Thus, he resurrected Old English *inwit* for *conscience*, and coined such forms as *birdlore* for *ornithology* and *matewording* for *synonym*. Contemporary lexicographers, however, paid him little attention, A tiny number of his coinages found their way into the *Oxford English Dictionary* (such as *speech-craft* for *grammar*, and *starlore* for *astronomy*), but the vast majority were ignored, and are now likely to be encountered only in the pages of wordbooks.

FOREIGN BORROWINGS [9]

When one language takes lexemes from another, the new items are usually called *loan words* or *borrowings* — though neither term is really appropriate, as the receiving language does not give them back. English, perhaps more than any other language, is an insatiable borrower. Whereas the speakers of some languages take pains to exclude foreign words from their lexicons, English seems always to have welcomed them. Over 120 languages are on record as sources of its present-day vocabulary, and the locations of contact are found all over the world.

The borrowing began soon after the Anglo-Saxons arrived. There are very few Celtic loans during that period, but the influence of Latin is strong, especially after the arrival of Christianity (e.g. *bishop*, *church*, *priest*, *school*, *giant*, *lobster*, *purple*, *plant*). The Viking invasions alone resulted in about 2,000 Scandinavian words coming into English (e.g. *dirt*, *egg*, *kid*, *leg*, *skin*, *sky*, *window*). After the Norman Conquest, the influx of words from the continent of Europe, especially French, doubled the size of the lexicon to over 100,000 items. By the end of the Renaissance, the growth in classically-derived vocabulary, especially from Latin, had doubled the size of the lexicon again. While these periods represent the peaks of borrowing activity in the history of English, there was no reduction in the underlying trend during later centuries.

Since the 1950s, a fresh wave of borrowing has been taking place, which eventually may exceed the totals encountered in the Middle English period. The emergence of English as a world language has promoted regular contact with an unprecedented number of languages and cultures, and the borrowings have shown an immediate and dramatic upturn. New fauna and flora, political groups and institutions, landscape features, industrial products, foodstuffs, inventions, leisure activities, and other forms of behaviour have all generated thousands of new lexemes — and continue to do so. The growth of local nationalism has had its effect, too, with people seeking fresh lexical ways of showing their local identity within the undifferentiated domain of international Standard English.

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[9] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 126.*

Of course, not all the new items will be widely intelligible. In the late 1980s, alongside *intifada*, *perestroika*, and *glasnost* we find *pryzhok* (Russian, 'leap'), *visagiste* (French, 'beautician'), and *zaitech* (Japanese, 'large-scale company financial speculation') — all found in English newspapers and periodicals. Several of the items in the world map are of this kind, requiring an up-to-date dictionary before one can be sure what they mean. But that is always the way of it, with loan words.

Comprehension questions:

1) What Celtic words were borrowed and which have survived in modern English?
2) What kind of influence has Latin had on English throughout its history?
3) What semantic fields did the new Latin vocabulary cover?
4) What were the main sources of Latin borrowings?
5) What was the second big linguistic invasion which contributed to the formation of the English lexicon?
6) What were the linguistic results of this invasion?

ETYMOLOGY

ETYMOLOGY [10]

Etymology is the study of lexical history. It investigates the origins of individual lexemes, the affinities they have had to each other, and how they have changed in meaning and in form to reach their present state. The subject exercises a remarkable popular fascination. People readily ask where a word comes from, and are prepared to speculate at length about its origins. Why is the drink *punch* so-called? How could *silly* once have meant 'blessed', or *sly* have meant 'wise', or *treacle* have meant 'wild animal'? There is also an inevitable curiosity when it is known that two apparently unrelated words have the same origins. How can it be that *glamour* and *grammar* were once the same word, or *salary* and *sausage*? Etymology has important links with questions of folklore: why, for example, is it the stork which brings babies? And the continuing popularity of books on 'Naming your Child' suggests the decision-making role that the subject can play. People, in short, like to know where words come from, whether they be personal names, place names, common nouns, idioms, abbreviations, proverbs, or any other recognized lexical domain.

ETYMOLOGICAL ANSWERS

• *punch*: Despite a widely held view to the contrary, the name of the drink has nothing to do with the effect that the mixture can have on the drinker. The recipe originated in India, and the name comes from the Hindi word for 'five', because there were five ingredients involved (spirit, water, lemon-juice, sugar, and spice).

• *sly*: The word came into Middle English from Scandinavian, where the dominant meaning was 'cunning', with its implication of special knowledge or wisdom. *Sly* is also related to *sleight* 'dexterity' and *slay* (originally, 'dexterous with the hammer').

• *salary* and *sausage*: *Salary* came into English via French from Latin, where *salarium* meant 'salt-money' (given to the soldiers to buy salt). *Sausage* also came via French from Latin, where *salsicium* was

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[10] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 136.*

something made from salted meat. Salt is the common element seen also in *sauce* and *salad*.

• *grammar* and *glamour*. *Grammar* is the older form, recorded since the early 14th century, coming into English via Old French and Latin, and ultimately from Greek, where *grammata* meant 'letters'. To the illiterate, *grammar* quickly came to be identified with the mysterious domain of the scholar, and thus developed the sense of 'learning' (in general), and then of 'the incomprehensible', and even of 'black magic'. Much later, in 18th-century Scottish English, a form appears which is spelled with an *l* (a common sound change), and which retains its magical sense. Robert Burns links the two words, referring to gypsies who 'deal in glamour' and those who are 'deep-read in hell's black grammar' (1781). Soon after, *glamour* developed the sense of 'enchantment' or 'charm', and by the mid-19th century we find its current sense of 'alluring charm' — an association which for most people is missing from the modern term, *grammar*.

• *treacle*: The term was formerly used for a medicinal compound widely used as an antidote against poisoning. It came into Middle English as *triacle* from French, and ultimately via Latin from Greek, where *theriake* had the meaning of 'antidote against the bite of a wild beast'. *Theriake*, in turn, is derived from *therion*, a diminutive form of *ther*, the word for 'wild animal'. The modern substance was called *treacle* in the UK (US molasses) because of its similar appearance to the original medicinal compound.

• *storks* and *babies*: In Middle High German, the related term *Storch* had the basic meaning of 'stick', specifically referring to such objects as a fishing rod, a tree stump, and — in a 15th-century Austrian medical treatise — the male appendage (*des Mannes Storch*). Once the bird was nicknamed 'a stick', it would not have taken long for the *double entendre* to have generated the now familiar piece of folklore. (After W. Lockwood, 1976.)

NAMES [11]

One of the most popular aspects of etymology is the history of names — those words or phrases which uniquely identify persons, animals, places, concepts, or things. A 'proper name', as grammar books often call it, presents an entity as an individual instance, and not as an anonymous member of a class (a 'common noun'). *The Beatles*, *Llanfairpwllgwyngyll*, *A Clockwork Orange*, and *Peter Rabbit* are uniquely located in space and time, and are thus names, in this sense; whereas group, village, novel, and rabbit have multiple and open-ended reference, and are thus common nouns. In English, names are generally identified by being printed with an initial capital letter; but this convention cannot always be trusted: should we write *the church* or *the Church*? *the president* or *the President*?

There seems to be a universal and deep-rooted drive to give individual names to things. People, places, pets, and houses are among the most obvious categories, but anything with which we have a special relationship is likely to be named. In a 1990 edition of the BBC Radio 4 series *English Now*, over 1,000 listeners sent in information about the things they named at home: the list included cars, yachts, word proces-

PLACE NAMES

The names people give to the countries, districts, topographical features, settlements, streets, and houses in which they live constitute one of the most established domains of onomastics. It is not difficult to see why this should be so. Place names can provide a unique source of information about a society s history, structure, customs, and values. Often, a place name is the only record of a person's existence or of a historical event. Pada, Gippa, Cynehild, and Gip are known only from their linguistic memorials in (respectively) Paddington, Chippenham, Kenilworth, and Ipswich. Gallowtree Gate in Leicester and Pillory Lane in London are toponymic reminders of the sanctions of a previous age.

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[11] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 140.*

sors, wheelbarrows, washing machines, kitchen implements, house plants, and toothbrushes. Institutions also readily name their products, most obviously for purposes of identification and marketing (as in the case of brand names, book titles, paint colours, and roses), but also as a way of maintaining a tradition (as in the case of British locomotives, many of which are identified by name as well as number).

The science which studies names is called *onomastics* (also *onomatology*). Among its branches are the study of personal names (*anthroponomastics*) and place names (*toponomastics*, or *toponymy*). These days the subject deals with far more than etymology, and investigates a wide range of social, psychological, and legal questions. Why do names come into fashion and go out of fashion? What factors affect the success of a name? What controls limit the use of a name? Why are people so sensitive about their names? Names research is an open-ended and complex domain, and one which is particularly greedy of the researcher's time — as anyone can quickly discover, simply by asking people why they gave their house the name it has. But few other areas of linguistic study prove to be so riveting, or focus so directly on the personal and emotional aspects of language.

FOLK ETYMOLOGY [12]

When people hear a foreign or unfamiliar word for the first time, they try to make sense of it by relating it to words they know well. They guess what it must mean—and often guess wrongly. However, if enough people make the same wrong guess, the error can become part of the language. Such erroneous forms are called folk or popular etymologies.

Bridegroom provides a good example. What has a groom got to do with getting married? Is he going to 'groom' the bride, in some way? Or perhaps he is responsible for horses to carry him and his bride off into the sunset? The true explanation is more prosaic. The Middle English form was *bridgome*, which goes back to Old English *brydguma*, from 'bride' + *guma* 'man'. However, *gome* died out during the Middle English period. By the 16th century its meaning was no longer apparent, and it came to be popularly replaced by a similar-sounding word, *grome*, 'serving lad'. This later developed the sense of 'servant having the care of horses', which is the dominant sense today. But *bridegroom* never meant anything more than 'bride's man'.

Here are a few other folk etymologies:

• *Sparrow-grass*: A popular name for *asparagus* — though this vegetable has nothing to do with sparrows.

• *Cockroach*: The name came from Spanish *cucaracha*, the first part of which must have been particularly obscure to English ears. There is no connection with *cock*.

• *Helpmate*: The form comes from a Bible translation of Genesis 2.18, when God said 'I will make him a help meet for him'. *Meet* in this context means 'suitable'. But the popular view preferred to take the word as a form of *mate*.

• *Salt-cellar*: In Old French, a *salier* was a salt-box. When the word came into English, the connection with salt was evidently not clear, and people started calling the object a *salt-saler*. The modern form has no connection with a cellar.

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[12] Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 139.

Comprehension questions:

1) What is etymology?
2) How is etymology linked with folklore?
3) What is folk etymology? Give examples.
4) What is onomastics? What layers of vocabulary does it study?
5) What kind of insights can etymology and onomastics give about a society's history?

PRODUCTIVE MEANS OF WORD-FORMATION

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD [13]

Morphology, the study of the structure of words, cuts across lexicon and grammar. For English, it means devising ways of describing the properties of such disparate items as *a*, *horses*, *took*, *indescribable*, *washing machine*, and *antidisestablishmentarianism*. A widely-recognized approach divides the field into two domains: *lexical* or *derivational morphology* studies the way in which new items of vocabulary can be built up out of combinations of elements (as in the case of *in-describable*); *inflectional morphology* studies the way words vary in their form in order to express a grammatical contrast (as in the case of *horses*, where the ending marks plurality).

An essential first step is to be able to describe the elements (or *morphemes*) out of which words can be constructed.

- Many words cannot be broken down into grammatical parts: *boy*, *a*, *yes*, *person*, *elephant*, *problem*. These words are said to consist only of a *base* form (some grammars refer to this as the *root* or *stem*). All we can do, in such cases, is describe what the words mean and how they are pronounced or spelled — such as the number of syllables they have, or the pattern of vowels and consonants they display.

TYPES OF SUFFIX

This table shows the commonest English suffixes, though not all the variant forms (e,g. *-ible* for *-able*). The list of inflectional categories is complete; the list of derivational suffixes has been limited to 50.

Inflectional suffixes
noun plural, e.g. *-s*
genitive case, e.g. *–'s*
3rd person singular, e.g. *-s*
past tense, e.g. *-ed*
contracted negative *–n't*
contracted verbs, e.g. *'re*
objective pronoun, e.g. *him*
-ing form or present participle
-ed form or past participle
-er comparison
-est comparison

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[13] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 198.*

Derivational suffixes

Abstract-noun-makers
-*age* frontage, mileage
-*dom* officialdom, stardom
-*ery* drudgery, slavery
-*ful* cupful, spoonful
-*hood* brotherhood, girlhood
-*ing* farming, panelling
-*ism* idealism, racism
-*ocracy* aristocracy
-*ship* friendship, membership

Concrete-noun-makers
-*eer* engineer, racketeer
-*er* teenager, cooker
-*ess* waitress, lioness
-*ette* kitchenette, usherette
-let booklet, piglet
-ling duckling, underling
-*ster* gangster, gamester

Adverb-makers
-*ly* quickly, happily
-*ward(s)* northwards, onwards
-*wise* clockwise, lengthwise

Verb-makers
-*ate* orchestrate, chlorinate
-*en* deafen, ripen
-*ify* beautify, certify
-*ize*/-*ise* modernize, advertise

Adjective-/noun-makers
-*ese* Chinese, Portuguese
-*(i)an* republican, Parisian
-*ist* socialist, loyalist
-*ite* socialite, Luddite

• English permits the addition of meaningful, dependent elements both before and after the base form: these are called *affixes*. Affixes which precede the base are *prefixes*; those which follow it are *suffixes*. Affixes occurring within the base are *infixes*.

• Prefixes in English have a purely lexical role, allowing the construction of a large number of new words: *un-*, *de-*, *anti-*, *super-*, etc.

• Suffixes in English are of two kinds. Most are purely lexical, their primary function being to change the meaning of the base form: examples of these *derivational suffixes* include -*ness*, -*ship*, and -*able*. A few are purely grammatical, their role being to show how the word must be used in a sentence: examples here include plural -*s*, past tense -*ed*, and comparative -*er*. Elements of this second type, which have no lexical meaning, are the *inflectional suffixes* (or simply, *inflections*) of the language.

The derivational field of a single word (from J.Tournier, 1985).
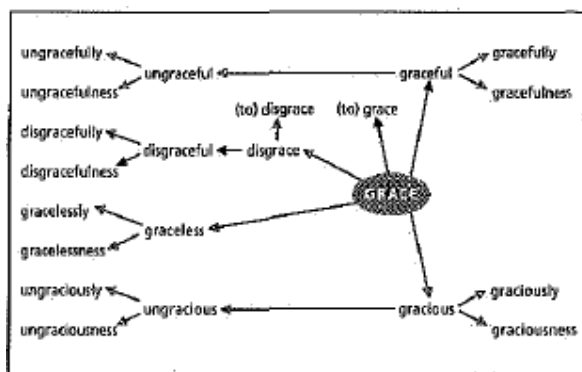
stances of *gracelessness* to be talked about, we could say (admittedly, not with any great elegance) *gracelessnesses*.

Tournier's detailed study also includes extremely full listings of the derivational affixes in English. There are a surprisingly large number of them: excluding variant forms, he gives 386 prefixes and 322 suffixes. The latter total includes dozens of forms which are rare in everyday conversation (except among specialists), such as *–acea*, -*ectomy*, -*gynous*, -*mancy*, and -*ploid*.

Affixes of this kind come and go: -*nik*, for example, is a development in English which became highly productive in the late 1950s, following the launch of *Sputnik 1*, and such subsequent operations as the launch of a dog into space (*pupnik*, *woofnik*, *muttnik*, etc.) and the failure of a US satellite (*Yanknik*, *dudnik*, *stallnik*, etc.). This usage seems to have died out in the early 1960s. A related suffix, with citations since the 1940s, and

Inflections are a quite distinct group, always occurring at the very end of a word (*graces*, *disgraced*), and following the derivational suffixes if there are any. If there .were several in-

Nouns from verbs
-*age* breakage, wastage
-*al* refusal, revival
-*ant* informant, lubricant
-*ation* exploration, education
-*ee* payee, absentee
-*er* writer, driver
-*ing* building, clothing
-*ment* amazement, equipment
-*or* actor, supervisor

Nouns from adjectives
-*ity* rapidity, falsity
-*ness* happiness, kindness

Adjectives from nouns
-*ed* pointed, blue-eyed
-*esque* Kafkaesque
-*ful* useful, successful
-*ic* atomic, Celtic
-*(i)al* editorial, accidental
-*ish* foolish, Swedish
-*tess* careless, childless
-*ly* friendly, cowardly
-*ous* ambitious, desirous
-*y* sandy, hairy

Adjectives from verbs
-*able* drinkable, washable
-*ive* attractive, explosive

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seen in *beatnik* and similar uses (*beachnik*, *filmnik*, *jazznik*, etc.), was productive into the early 1970s, but seems to have since died out (after L. Bauer, 1983).

Inflectional suffixes, by contrast, do not come and go. There have been no changes in the system since the Early Modern English period.

LEXICAL STRUCTURE [14]

Most English vocabulary arises by making new lexemes out of old ones — either by adding an affix to previously existing forms, altering their word class, or combining them to produce compounds. These processes of construction are of interest to grammarians as well as lexicologists. But the importance of word-formation to the development of the lexicon is second to none. After all, almost *any* lexeme, whether Anglo-Saxon or foreign, can be given an affix, change its word class, or help make a compound. Alongside the Anglo-Saxon root in *kingly*, for example, we have the French root in *royally* and the Latin root in *regally*. There is no elitism here. The processes of affixation, conversion, and compounding are all great levellers.

AFFIXATION

There are three possible types of affix: those which occur before the root or stem of a word (*prefixes*), those which occur after (*suffixes*), and those which occur within (*infixes*). English does not have affixes in large numbers - only

57 varieties of prefix

Negation
a-	-theist, -moral
dis-	-obey, -believe
in-	-complete, -decisive
non-	-smoker, -medical
un-	-wise, -helpful

Reversal
de-	-frost, -fraud
dis-	-connect, -Infect
un-	-do, -mask

Disparaging
mat-	-treat -function
mis-	-hear, -lead
pseudo-	-intellectual

Number
bi-	-cycle, -lingual
demi-	-god, -tasse
di-	-oxide, -graph
mono-	-rail, -plane
multi-	-racial, -purpose
poly-	-technic, -gamy
semi-	-circle, -detached
tri-	-maran, -pod
uni-	-sex, -cycle

Grammatical conversion
Verb to Adjective
a-	-stride, -board

Noun to Verb
be-	-friend, -witch
en-	-flame, -danger

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[14] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 128.*

Orientation

anti-	-clockwise, -social
auto-	-suggestion, -biography
contra-	-indicate, -flow
counter-	-clockwise, -act
pro-	-socialist, -consul

Location and distance

extra-	-terrestrial, -mural
fore-	-shore, -leg
inter-	-marry, -play
intra-	-venous, -national
pan-	-African, -American
super-	-script, -structure
tele-	-scope, -phone
trans-	-plant, -atlantic

Time and order

ex-	-husband, -president
fore-	-warn, -shadow
neo-	-Gothic, -classical
paleo-	-lithic, -botany
post-	-war, -modern
pre-	-school, -marital
proto-	-type, -European
re-	-cycle, -new

Size or degree

arch-	-duke, -enemy
co-	-habit, -pilot
hyper-	-market, -card
mega-	-loan, -merger
mini-	-skirt, -bus
out-	-class, -run
over-	-worked, -flow
sub-	-normal, -conscious
super-	-market, -man
sur-	-tax, -charge
ultra-	-modern, -sound
under-	-charge, -play
vice-	-chair, -president

about 50 common prefixes, somewhat fewer common suffixes, and no clear instances of infixes. But these limited resources are used in a complex and productive way, as older children sense when they play with such forms as *antidisestablishmentarianism*. Not all affixes have a strong creative potential, of course: the Old English *-th* ending, for example (found in *warmth*, *length*, *depth*, *width*, *sixth*, and a few other items), is hardly ever used now to create new words - though *zeroth* and *coolth* are interesting exceptions. On the other hand, there are tens of thousands of lexemes which either exist or are awaiting creation through the use of the ending *-ness*.

PREFIXES

This list gives all the common prefixes in English — though not all the variant forms. The prefix *in-*, for example, becomes *il-* before words beginning with /l/ (as in *illiberal*). Nor does the list include scientific and technical items which are commonly used in compounds, such as *bio-*, *Euro-*, and *techno-*.

Some prefixes appear more than once in the list because they have more than one meaning. There is a difference between *unexpected* (which means simply 'not expected') and *unwrap* (which adds the specific sense of reversing a previous action).

SUFFIXES

These are some of the commonly occurring English suffixes. A number of them have a meaning which is fairly easy to state: *-ess*, for example, means 'female of (*lioness*). Some have severer meanings: *-ette* can mean 'female of (*usherette*), 'small version of' (*kitchenette*), or 'substitute for' (*featherette*). Some have a highly abstract meaning, difficult to define precisely: one of the meanings of *-ery* is 'the quality or state of having a particular trait' (*snobbery*).

Suffixes do more than alter the meaning of the word to which they are attached. Many of them also change the word's grammatical status - for example, the *-ify* ending turns the noun *beauty* into the verb *beautify*, and the *-ing* ending turns the concrete noun *farm* into the abstract one *farming*. In this respect, suffixes differ from prefixes, which rarely cause words to change their class, and are thus best discussed under the heading of grammar.

A sampling of suffixes

-tion,
-ship,
-ness,
-able,
-ery,
-ese,
-ling,
-like,
-let,
-esque,
-ette,
-ess,
-ism,
-ite,
-ish

COMPOUNDING [15]

A compound is a unit of vocabulary which consists of more than one lexical stem. On the surface, there appear to be two (or more) lexemes present but in fact the parts are functioning as a sing le item, which has its own meaning and grammar. So, *flower-pot* does hot refer to a flower and a pot but to a single object, it is pronounced as a unit, with a single main stress, and it is used grammatically as a unit- its plural, for example, is *flower-pots*, and not *flowers-pots.

The unity of *flower-pot* is also signalled by the orthography, but this is not a foolproof criterion, if the two parts are linked by a hyphen, as here, or are printed without a space ('solid'), as in *flowerpot*, then there is no difficulty. But the form *flower pot* will also be found, and in such cases, to be sure we have a compound (and not just a sequence of two independent words), we need to look carefully at the meaning of the sequence and the way it is grammatically used. This question turns up especially in American English, which uses fewer hyphens than does British English.

Compounds are most readily classified into types based on the kind of grammatical meaning they represent. *Earthquake*, for example, can be paraphrased as 'the earth quakes', and the relation of *earth* to *quake* is that of subject to verb. Similarly, a *crybaby* is also subject + verb ('the baby cries'), despite its back-to-front appearance. *Scarecrow* is verb + object ('scares crows'). Some involve slightly trickier grammatical relations, such as *playgoer*, *windmill*, *goldfish*, and *homesick*.

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[15] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 129.*

CONVERSION [16]

Lexemes can be made to change their word class without the addition of an affix — a process known as *conversion*. The items chiefly produced in this way are nouns, adjectives, and verbs -especially the verbs which come from nouns (e.g. *to bottle*) and the nouns which come from verbs (e.g. a *doubt*). Not all the senses of a lexeme are usually carried through into the derived form, however. The noun *paper* has several meanings, such as 'newspaper', 'wallpaper', and 'academic article'. The verb to *paper* relates only to the second of these. Lecturers and editors may paper their rooms, but not their audiences or readers.

THE CONVERTED

Verb to noun
> a swim /hit /cheat/bore/show-off/drive-in

Adjective to noun
> a bitter /natural /final/ monthly/regular/wet

Noun to verb
> to bottle/catalogue/oil/ brake/referee/bicycle

Adjective to verb
> to dirty/empty/dry/calm down/sober up

Noun to adjective
> it's cotton/brick/reproduction

Grammatical word to noun
> too many ifs and buts
> that's a must
> the how and the why

Affix to noun
> ologies and isms

Phrase to noun
> a has-been/free-for-all/also-ran/down-and-out

Grammatical word to verb
> to down tools/to up and do it

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[16] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 129.*

ABBREVIATION [17]

Abbreviations, one of the most noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life, would form a major part of any superdictionary. Often thought to be an exclusively modern habit, the fashion for abbreviations can be traced back over 150 years. In 1839, a writer in the New York *Evening Tatler* comments on what he calls 'the initial language … a species of spoken shorthand, which is getting into very general use among loafers and gendemen of the fancy, besides Editors, to whom it saves much trouble in writing …'. He was referring to *OK* ('all correct'), *PDQ* ('pretty damn quick') — two which have lasted — *GT* ('gone to Texas'), *LL* ('liver loafers'), and many other forms introduced, often with a humorous or satirical intent, by society people.

TYPES OF ABBREVIATION

Initialisms

Items which are spoken as individual letters, such as *BBC*, *DJ*, *MP*, *EEC*, *e.g.*, and *USA*; also called alphabetisms. The vast majority of abbreviations fall into this category. Not all use only the first letters of the constituent words: *PhD*, for example, uses the first two letters of the word *philosophy*, and *GHQ* and *TV* take a letter from the middle of the word.

Acronyms

Initialisms which are pronounced as single words, such as *NATO*, *laser*, *UNESCO*, and *SALT* (talks). Such items would never have periods separating the letters —a contrast with initialisms, where punctuation is often present (especially in older styles of English). However, some linguists do not recognize a sharp distinction between acronyms and initialisms, but use the former term for both.

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[17] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 120.*

Clipping

A part of a word which serves for the whole, such as *ad* and *phone*. These examples illustrate the two chief types; the first part is kept (the commoner type, as in *demo*, *exam*, *pub*, *Gill*), and the last part is kept (as in *bus*, *plane*). Sometimes a middle part is kept, as in *fridge* and *flu*. There are also several clippings which retain material from more than one part of the word, such as *maths* (UK), *gents*, and *specs*. *Turps* is a curiosity, in the way it. adds an *-s*. Several clipped forms also show adaptation, such as *fries* (from *French fried potatoes*), *Betty* (from *Elizabeth*), and *Bill* (from *William*).

Blends

A word which is made out of the shortened forms of two other words, such as *brunch* (*breakfast* + *lunch*), *heliport* (*helicopter* + *airport*), *smog* (*smoke* + *fog*), and *Eurovision* (*European* + *television*). Scientific terms frequently make use of blending (as in the case of *bionic*), as do brand names (a device which cleaned your teeth while you used the phone might be called *Teledent*) and fashionable neologisms.

The fashionable use of abbreviation — a kind of society slang — comes and goes in waves, though it is never totally absent. In the present century, however, it has been eclipsed by the emergence of abbreviations in science, technology, and other special fields, such as cricket, baseball, drug trafficking, the armed forces, and the media. The reasons for using abbreviated forms are obvious enough. One is the desire for linguistic economy — the same motivation which makes us want to criticise someone who uses two words where one will. Succinctness and precision are highly valued, and abbreviations can contribute greatly to a concise style. They also help to convey a sense of social identity: to use an abbreviated form is to be 'in the know' — part of the social group to which the abbreviation belongs. Computer buffs the world over will be recognized by their fluent talk of *ROM* and *RAM*, of *DOS* and *WYSIWYG*. You are no buff if you are unable to use such forms, or need to look them up (respectively, 'read-only memory', 'random-access memory', 'disk operating system', and 'what you see is what you get'). It would only irritate computer-literate colleagues and waste time or space (and thus money) if a computer-literate person pe-

dantically expanded every abbreviated form. And the same applies to those abbreviations which have entered everyday speech. It would be strange indeed to hear someone routinely expanding *BBC*, *NATO*, *USA*, *AIDS*, and all the other common abbreviations of contemporary English. Indeed, sometimes (as with *radar* and *AIDS*), the unabbreviated form may be so specialized that it is unknown to most people — a point not missed by the compilers of quiz games, who regularly catch people out with a well-known (sic) abbreviation. As a test, try *UNESCO* and *UNICEF*, *AAA*, *SAM* and *GI* (context: military), or *DDT* and *TNT* (context: chemistry).

Awkward cases

Abbreviations which do not fall clearly into the above four categories. Some forms can be used either as initialisms or acronyms (UFO — 'U F O' or 'you-foe'). Some mix these types in the one word (*CDROM*, pronounced 'see-dee-rom'). Some can form part of a larger word, using affixes (*ex-JP*, *pro-BBC*, *ICBMs*). Some are used only in writing (*Mr*, *St* - always pronounced in full in speech).

Facetious forms

TGIF — Thank God it's Friday
CMG — Call Me God (properly, 'Companion of St Michael and St George')
KCMG — Kindly Call Me God (properly, 'Knight Commander of St Michael and St George')
GCMG — God Calls Me God (properly, 'Grand Cross of St Michael and St George')
AAAAAA — Association for the Alleviation of Asinine Abbreviations and Absurd Acronyms (actually listed in the Gale Dictionary).

BACK-FORMATIONS [18]

It is common in English to form a new lexeme by adding a prefix or a suffix to an old one. From *happy* we get *unhappy*; from *inspect* we get *inspector*. Every so often, however, the process works the other way

[18] Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 130.

round, and a shorter word is derived from a longer one by deleting an imagined affix. *Editor*, for example, looks as if it comes from *edit*, whereas in fact the noun was in the language first. Similarly, *television* gave rise to *televise*, *double-glazing* preceded *double-glaze*, and *baby-sitter* preceded *baby-sit*. Such forms are known as *back-formations*.

Each year sees a new crop of back-formations. Some are coined because they meet a real need, as when a group of speech therapists in Reading in the 1970s felt they needed a new verb to describe what they did — to *therap*. Some are playful formations, as when a tidy person is described as *couth*, *kempt*, or *shevelled*. Back-formations often attract criticism when they first appear, as happened in

PORTMANTEAUX [1]

In *Through the Looking Glass, and What Alice Found There* (1871), Lewis Carroll has the egotistical linguistic philosopher, Humpty Dumpty, deal with the question of blends. He calls them *portmanteau words* — a term which has since achieved some currency in linguistic studies.

'You seem very clever at explaining words, Sir', said Alice. 'Would you kindly tell me the meaning of the poem called "Jabberwocky"?'
'Let's hear it,' said Humpty Dumpty. 'I can explain all the poems that ever were invented — and a good many that haven't been invented just yet.'
This sounded very hopeful, so Alice repeated the first verse:

> 'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
> Did gyre and gimble in the wabe:
> All mimsy were the borogroves,
> And the mome raths outgrabe.

'That's enough to begin with,' Humpty Dumpty interrupted: 'there are plenty of hard words there. "*Brillig*" means four o'clock in the afternoon — the time when you begin *broiling* things for dinner.'
'That'll do very well,' said Alice: 'and "*slithy*"?'
'Well, "*slithy*" means "lithe and slimy." "Lithe" is the same as "active." You see it's like a portmanteau — there are two meanings packed up into one word.'
'I see it now,' Alice remarked thoughtfully: 'and what are "*toves*"? …
'Well, "*toves*" are something like badgers — they're something like lizards — and they're something like corkscrews.'
'They must be very curious-looking creatures.'
'They are that,' said Humpty Dumpty: 'also they make their nests under sundials — also they live on cheese.'

the late 1980s to *explete* (to use an *expletive*) and *accreditate* (from *accreditation*).

BLENDS

A lexical blend, as its name suggests, takes two lexemes which overlap in form, and welds them together to make one. Enough of each lexeme is usually retained so that the elements are recognizable. Here are some long-standing examples, and a few novelties from recent publications.

motor + hotel = motel
breakfast + lunch = brunch
helicopter + airport = heliport
smoke + fog = smog
advertisement +. editorial = advertorial
Channel + Tunnel =a Chunnel
Oxford + Cambridge = Oxbridge
Yale + Harvard = Yarvard
slang + language = slanguage
guess + estimate = guesstimate
square + aerial = squaerial
toys + cartoons = toytoons
breath + analyser = breathalyser
affluence + influenza = affluenza
information + commercials = infomercials
dock + condominium = dockominium

In most cases, the second

Sometimes an abbreviation and an affix combine, producing a lexeme which is highly informal in tone, and often used as part of the slang of a close-knit social group. The most important affixes which work in this way are –*y, -o, -er,* and –*s*.

-*y / ie*: telly, baddy, goalie, auntie, daddy, Julie, Billy, (and other familiar forms of first names)
-*o*: ammo, agro (British English, 'aggravation'), arvo (Australian English, 'afternoon'), weirdo
-*er*: footer ('football'), fresher ('freshman'), boner ('blunder'), rugger (all chiefly found in British English)
-*s*: Moms, Debs, Gramps, bananas ('mad')

The affixes themselves may combine to prduce such forms as *fatso, tootsies, the willies, starkers* ('stark naked'), and *preggers* ('pregnant'). The forms in –*ers* are especially associated with English upper-class slang of the period between the two World Wars: *Pass the champers to Momsie, Daffers old sport* (rough translation: 'Pass the champagne to Mother, Daphne dear').

element is the one which controls the meaning of the whole. So, *brunch* is a kind of lunch, not a kind of breakfast — which is why the lexeme is brunch and not, say, **lunkfast*. Similarly, a *toytoon* is a kind of cartoon (one which generates a series of shop toys), not a kind of toy.

Blending seems to have increased in popularity in the 1980s, being increasingly used in commercial and advertising contexts. Products are *sportsational*, *swimsational*, and *sexsational*. TV provides dramacons, docufantasies, and rockumentaries. The forms are felt to be eye-catching and exciting; but how many of them will still be around in a decade remains an open question.

LEXICAL CREATION (NEOLOGISMS) [19]

Anglo-Saxon forms, borrowings, and the use of affixes account for most of what appears within the English lexicon, but they do not tell the whole story. People do some creative, even bizarre things with vocabulary, from time to time, and a fascinating topic in lexicology is to examine just what they get up to. The general term for a newly-created lexeme is a *coinage*; but in technical usage a distinction can be drawn between *nonce words* and *neologisms*.

A nonce word (from the 16th-century phrase *for the nonce*, meaning 'for the once') is a lexeme created for temporary use, to solve an immediate problem of communication. Someone attempting to describe the excess water on a road after a storm was heard to call it a *fluddle* — she meant something bigger than a puddle but smaller than a flood. The newborn lexeme was forgotten (except by a passing linguist) almost as soon as it was .spoken. It was obvious from the jocularly apologetic way in which the person spoke that she did not consider *fluddle* to be a 'proper' word at all. There was no intention to propose it for inclusion in a dictionary. As far as she was concerned, it was simply that there seemed to be no word in the language for what she wanted to say, so she made one up, for the nonce. In everyday conversation, people create nonce-words like this all the time.

But there is never any way of predicting the future, with language. Who knows, perhaps the English-speaking world has been waiting decades for someone to coin just this lexeme. It would only take a newspaper to seize on it, or for it to be referred to in an encyclopedia, and within days (or months) it could be on everyone's lips. Registers of new words would start referring to it, and within five years or so it would have gathered enough written citations for it to be a serious candidate for inclusion in all the major dictionaries. It would then have become a neologism — literally, a new word' in the language.

A neologism stays new until people start to use it without thinking, or alternatively until it falls out of fashion, and they stop using it altogether. But there is never any way of telling which neologisms will

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[19] *Crystal, David, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000) — p. 132.*

stay and which will go. *Blurb*, coined in 1907 by the American humorist Gelett Burgess (1866-1951), proved to meet a need, and is an established lexeme now. On the other hand, his coinage of *gubble*, 'to indulge in meaningless conversation', never caught on. Lexical history contains thousands of such cases. In the 16th century — a great age of neologisms we find *disaccustom* and *disacquaint* alongside *disabuse* and *disagree*. Why did the first two neologisms disappear and the last two survive? We also find *effectual*, *effectuous*, *effectful*, *effectuating*, and *effective*. Why did only two of the five forms survive, and why those two, in particular? The lexicon is full of such mysteries.

Comprehension questions:

1) What does morphology study?
2) What types of morphemes make up a word?
3) What role do prefixes in English have?
4) What two kinds of suffixes are there in English?
5) How can productivity of affixation as a means of word-formation be proved?
6) How does its orthography signal the unity of a compound word?
7) Why is conversion often called 'zero-derivation'?
8) Is abbreviation a type of word-formation?
9) What is the difference between alphabetisms and acronyms?
10) Give examples of blends (telescope words).
11) What word-formation means is called 'back-formation'?
12) What is the difference between a nonce word and a neologism?

LEXICOGRAPHY

MILESTONES IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

THE PLAN OF AN ENGLISH DICTIONARY [20]

After nine years of work, Johnson's A Dictionary of the English Language was published in 1755. It had a far-reaching effect on Modern English and has been described as one of the greatest single achievements of scholarship. This work brought Johnson popularity and success. Until the completion of the Oxford English Dictionary 150 years later, Johnson's was viewed as the pre-eminent British dictionary.

PART I

I have … attempted a dictionary of the *English language*, which, while it was employed in the cultivation of every species of literature, has itself been hitherto neglected, suffered to spread, under the direction of chance, into wild exuberance, resigned to the tyranny of time and fashion, and exposed to the corruptions of ignorance, and caprices of innovation.

When I took the first survey of my undertaking, I found our speech copious without order, and energetic without rules: wherever I turned my view, there was perplexity to be disentangled, and confusion to be regulated; choice was to be made out of boundless variety, without any established principle of selection; adulterations were to be detected, without a settled test of purity, and modes of expression to be rejected or received, without the suffrages of any writers of classical reputation or acknowledged authority...

…In adjusting the ORTHOGRAPHY, which has been to this time unsettled and fortuitous, I found it necessary to distinguish those irregularities that are inherent in our tongue, and perhaps coeval with it, from others which the ignorance or negligence of later writers has produced. Every language has its anomalies, which, though inconvenient, and in themselves once unnecessary, must be tolerated among the imperfections of human things, and which require only to be register, that they

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[20] *Extracts from The Plan of an English Dictionary by Samuel Johnson;*
http://www.readbookonline.net/readOnLine/30243/ Дата обращения: 06.04.2014

may not be increased, and ascertained, that they may not be confounded: but every language has likewise its improprieties and absurdities, which it is the duty of the lexicographer to correct or proscribe…

…In settling the orthography, I have not wholly neglected the pronunciation, which I have directed, by printing an accent upon the acute or elevated syllable. It will sometimes be found, that the accent is placed by the authour quoted, on a different syllable from that marked in the alphabetical series; it is then to be understood, that custom has varied, or that the authour has, in my opinion, pronounced wrong. Short directions are sometimes given where the sound of letters is irregular; and if they are sometimes omitted, defect in such minute observations will be more easily excused, than superfluity.

In the investigation both of the orthography and signification of words, their ETYMOLOGY was necessarily to be considered, and they were therefore to be divided into primitives and derivatives. A primitive word, is that which can be traced no further to any *English* root; thus *circumspect*, *circumvent*, *circumstance*, *delude*, *concave*, and *complicate*, though compounds in the *Latin*, are to us primitives. Derivatives, are all those that can be referred to any word in *English* of greater simplicity.

The derivatives I have referred to their primitives, with an accuracy sometimes needless; for who does not see that *remoteness* comes from *remote*, *lovely* from *love*, *concavity* from *concave*, and *demonstrative* from *demonstrate*?…

…The etymology, so far as it is yet known, was easily found in the volumes where it is particularly and professedly delivered; and, by proper attention to the rules of derivation, the orthography was soon adjusted. But to COLLECT the WORDS of our language was a task of greater difficulty: the deficiency of dictionaries was immediately apparent; and when they were exhausted, what was yet wanting must be sought by fortuitous and unguided excursions into books, and gleaned as industry should find, or chance should offer it, in the boundless chaos of a living speech. My search, however, has been either skilful or lucky; for I have much augmented the vocabulary…

…Of the terms of art I have received such as could be found either in books of science or technical dictionaries; and have often inserted, from philosophical writers, words which are supported perhaps only by

a single authority, and which being not admitted into general use, stand yet as candidates or probationers, and must depend for their adoption on the suffrage of futurity…

…Compounded or double words I have seldom noted, except when they obtain a signification different from that which the components have in their simple state. Thus *highwayman*, *woodman*, and *horsecourser*, require an explication; but of *thieflike* or *coachdriver* no notice was needed, because the primitives contain the meaning of the compounds.

Words arbitrarily formed by a constant and settled analogy, like diminutive adjectives in *ish*, as *greenish*, *bluish*, adverbs in *ly*, as *dully*, *openly*, substantives in *ness*, as *vileness*, *faultiness*, were less diligently sought, and many sometimes have been omitted, when I had no authority that invited me to insert them; not that they are not genuine and regular offsprings of *English* roots, but because their relation to the primitive being always the same, their signification cannot be mistaken…

…Obsolete words are admitted, when they are found in authours not obsolete, or when they have any force or beauty that may deserve revival…

PART II

That part of my work on which I expect malignity most frequently to fasten, is the *Explanation*; in which I cannot hope to satisfy those, who are perhaps not inclined to be pleased, since I have not always been able to satisfy myself. To interpret a language by itself is very difficult; many words cannot be explained by synonimes, because the idea signified by them has not more than one appellation; nor by paraphrase, because simple ideas cannot be described. When the nature of things is unknown, or the notion unsettled and indefinite, and various in various minds, the words by which such notions are conveyed, or such things denoted, will be ambiguous and perplexed. And such is the fate of hapless lexicography, that not only darkness, but light, impedes and distresses it; things may be not only too little, but too much known, to be happily illustrated. To explain, requires the use of terms less abstruse than that which is to be explained, and such terms cannot always

be found; for as nothing can be proved but by supposing something intuitively known, and evident without proof, so nothing can be defined but by the use of words too plain to admit a definition…

…My labour has likewise been much increased by a class of verbs too frequent in the *English* language, of which the signification is so loose and general, the use so vague and indeterminate, and the senses detorted so widely from the first idea, that it is hard to trace them through the maze of variation, to catch them on the brink of utter inanity, to circumscribe them by any limitations, or interpret them by any words of distinct and settled meaning: such are *bear*, *break*, *come*, *cast*, *full*, *get*, *give*, *do*, *put*, *set*, *go*, *run*, *make*, *take*, *turn*, *throw*. If of these the whole power is not accurately delivered, it must be remembered, that while our language is yet living, and variable by the caprice of every one that speaks it, these words are hourly shifting their relations, and can no more be ascertained in a dictionary, than a grove, in the agitation of a storm, can be accurately delineated from its picture in the water.

The particles are among all nations applied with so great latitude, that they are not easily reducible under any regular scheme of explication: this difficulty is not less, nor perhaps greater, in *English*, than in other languages. I have laboured them with diligence, I hope with success; such at least as can be expected in a task, which no man, however learned or sagacious, has yet been able to perform.

Some words there are which I cannot explain, because I do not understand them; these might have been omitted very often with little inconvenience, but I would not so far indulge my vanity as to decline this confession: for when *Tully* owns himself ignorant whether *lessus*, in the twelve tables, means a *funeral song*, or *mourning garment*; and *Aristotle* doubts whether *oureus* in the Iliad, signifies a *mule*, or *muleteer*, I may freely, without shame, leave some obscurities to happier industry, or future information…

…In every word of extensive use, it was requisite to mark the progress of its meaning, and show by what gradations of intermediate sense it has passed from its primitive to its remote and accidental signification; so that every foregoing explanation should tend to that which follows, and the series be regularly concatenated from the first notion to the last.

This is specious, but not always practicable; kindred senses may be so interwoven, that the perplexity cannot be disentangled, nor-any reason be assigned why one should be ranged before the other. When the radical idea branches out into parallel ramifications, how can a consecutive series be formed of senses in their nature collateral? The shades of meaning sometimes pass imperceptibly into each other; so that though on one side they apparently differ, yet it is impossible to mark the point of contact. Ideas of the same race, though not exactly alike, are sometimes so little different, that no words can express the dissimilitude, though the mind easily perceives it, when they are exhibited together; and sometimes there is such a confusion of acceptations, that discernment is wearied, and distinction puzzled, and perseverance herself hurries to an end, by crouding together what she cannot separate...

...The solution of all difficulties, and the supply of all defects, must be sought in the examples, subjoined to the various senses of each word, and ranged according to the time of their authours.

When first I collected these authorities, I was desirous that every quotation should be useful to some other end than the illustration of a word; I therefore extracted from philosophers principles of science; from historians remarkable facts; from chymists complete processes; from divines striking exhortations; and from poets beautiful descriptions. Such is design, while it is yet at a distance from execution. When the time called upon me to range this accumulation of elegance and wisdom into an alphabetical series, I soon discovered that the bulk of my volumes would fright away the student, and was forced to depart from my scheme of including all that was pleasing or useful in *English* literature...

... But as every language has a time of rudeness antecedent to perfection, as well as of false refinement and declension, I have been cautious lest my zeal for antiquity might drive me into times too remote, and croud my book with words now no longer understood. I have fixed *Sidney's* work for the boundary, beyond which I make few excursions. From the authours which rose in the time of *Elizabeth*, a speech might be formed adequate to all the purposes of use and elegance. If the language of theology were extracted from *Hooker* and the translation of the Bible; the terms of natural knowledge from *Bacon*; the phrases of policy, war, and navigation from *Raleigh*; the dialect of poetry and fiction from

Spenser and *Sidney*; and the diction of common life from *Shakespeare*, few ideas would be lost to mankind, for want of *English* words, in which they might be expressed.

Comprehension questions:

1) What was the main motivating factor that urged S. Johnson to start work on his dictionary?
2) How did he "settle" English orthography?
3) Why, according to S. Johnson, is it important to consider etymology of words while writing a dictionary of the English language?
4) What was the task of great difficulty for S. Johnson? Why?
5) How did he treat the following groups of words in his dictionary: terms, compounds, derivatives, obsolete words?
6) Why is 'explanation' described by S. Johnson as one of the biggest challenges for dictionary-makers?
7) What classes of words does he single out as the most difficult for a dictionary definition?
8) What kind of problems do polysemous words create for dictionary-makers, according to S. Johnson?
9) What does S. Johnson see as the solution of all the difficulties he faced while compiling his dictionary?
10) Why did he give up an idea "of including all that was pleasing or useful in *English* literature" into his dictionary? Which illustrations did he include in his dictionary?

INTRODUCTION TO THE THESAURUS OF ENGLISH WORDS AND PHRASES [21]

Roget's Thesaurus is a widely used English-language thesaurus, created by Dr. Peter Mark Roget (1779–1869) in 1805 and released to the public on 29 April 1852. The original edition had 15,000 words, and each new edition has been larger. Twenty-eight editions of the thesaurus were published during Roget's lifetime. According to the Independent, more than 32 million copies of the thesaurus had been sold by 2002.

The present work is intended to supply, with respect to the English language, a desideratum hitherto unsupplied in any language; namely, a collection of the words it contains and of the idiomatic combinations peculiar to it, arranged, not in alphabetical order, as they are in a dictionary, but according to the *ideas* which they express. The purpose of an ordinary dictionary is simply to explain the meaning of words; and the problem of which it professes to furnish the solution may be stated thus: The word being given, to find its signification, or the idea it is intended to convey. The object aimed at in the present undertaking is exactly the converse of this; namely the idea being given, to find the word, or words, by which that idea may be most fitly and aptly expressed. This purpose, the words and phrases of the language are here classed, not according to their sound or their orthography, but strictly according to their *signification…*

… Every workman in the exercise of his art should be provided with proper implements. For the fabrication of complicated and curious pieces of mechanism the artisan requires a corresponding assortment of various tools and instruments. For giving proper effect to the fictions of the drama, the actor should have at his disposal a well-furnished wardrobe, supplying the costumes best suited to the personage he is to represent. For the perfect delineation of the beauties of nature, the painter should have within reach of his pencil every variety and combination of hues and tints. Now the writer, as well as the orator, employs for the ac-

complishment, of his purposes the instrumentality of words; it is in words that he clothes his thoughts; it is by means of words that he depicts his feelings. It is therefore essential to his success that he be provided with a copious vocabulary, and that he possess an entire command of all the resources and appliances of his language. To the acquisition of this power no procedure appears more directly conducive than the study of a methodized system such as that now offered to his use.

The utility of the present work will be appreciated more especially by those who are engaged in the arduous process of translating into English a work written in another language. Simple as the operation may appear, on a superficial view, of rendering into English each of its sentences, the task of transfusing, with perfect exactness, the sense of the original, preserving at the same time the style and character of its composition, and reflecting with fidelity the mind and the spirit of the author, is a task of extreme difficulty. The cultivation of this useful department of literature was in ancient times strongly recommended both by Cicero and by Quintilian as essential to the formation of a good writer and accomplished orator. Regarded simply as a mental exercise, the practice of translation is the best training for the attainment of that mastery of language and felicity of diction which are the sources of "the highest oratory and are requisite for the possession of a graceful and persuasive eloquence. By rendering ourselves the faithful interpreters of the thoughts and feelings of others, we are rewarded with the acquisition of greater readiness and facility in correctly expressing our own; as he who has best learned to execute the orders of a commander becomes himself best qualified to command…

… In constructing the following system of classification of the ideas which are expressible by language, my chief aim has been to obtain, the greatest amount of practical utility. I have accordingly adopted such principles of arrangement as appeared to me to be the simplest and most natural, and which would not require, either for their comprehension or application, any disciplined acumen, or depth of metaphysical or antiquarian lore. Eschewing all needless refinements and subtleties, I have taken as my guide the more obvious characters of the ideas for which expressions were to be tabulated, arranging them under such classes and categories as reflection and experience had taught me would conduct the inquirer most readily and quickly to the object of his

search. Commencing with the ideas expressing mere abstract relations, I proceed to those which relate to the phenomena of the material world, and lastly to those in which the mind is concerned, and which comprehend intellect, volition, and feeling; thus establishing six primary Classes of Categories.

1. The first of these classes comprehends ideas derived from the more general and **Abstract Relations** among things, such as *Existence, Resemblance, Quantity, Order, Number, Time, Power.*

2. The second class refers to space and its various relations, including *Motion,* or change of place.

3. The third class includes all ideas that relate to the **Material World**; namely, the *Properties of Matter,* such as *Solidity, Fluidity, Heat, Sound, Light,* and the *Phenomena* they present, as well as the simple *Perceptions* to which they give rise.

4. The fourth class embraces all ideas of phenomena relating to the **Intellect** and its operations, comprising the *Acquisition,* the *Retention,* and the *Communication of Ideas.*

5. The fifth class includes the ideas derived from the exercise of volition, embracing the phenomena and results of our *Voluntary and Active Powers,* such as *Choice, Intention. Utility, Action, Antagonism, Authority, Compact, Property,* etc.

6. The sixth and last class comprehends all ideas derived from the operation of our **Sentient and Moral Powers**, including our *Feelings, Emotions, Passions* and *Moral and Religious Sentiments.*

For the purpose of exhibiting with greater distinctness the relations between words expressing opposite and correlative ideas, I have, whenever the subject admitted of such an arrangement, placed them in two parallel columns in the same page, so that each group of expressions may be readily contrasted with those which occupy the adjacent column, and constitute their antitheses. By carrying the eye from the one to the other, the inquirer may often discover forms of expression of which he may avail himself advantageously to diversify and infuse vigour into his phraseology… In many cases, two ideas, which are completely opposed to each other, admit of an intermediate or neutral idea, equidistant from both: all these being expressible by corresponding definite terms. Thus, in the following examples, the words in the first and third columns, which express opposite ideas, admit of the interme-

diate terms contained in the middle column having a neutral sense with reference to the former:

Identity	Different	Contrariety
Beginning	Middle	End
Past	Present	Future

Comprehension questions:

1) How do the purpose of an ordinary dictionary and the purpose of Roget's thesaurus differ?
2) Who is this dictionary aimed at?
3) Why will translators appreciate the thesaurus, according to P. Roget?
4) How is the English vocabulary organized in Roget's thesaurus?
5) How does P. Roget show the semantic relations between words in his dictionary?

HISTORY OF THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY [22]

The *Oxford English Dictionary* has been the last word on words for over a century. But, as with a respected professor or admired parent, we count on its wisdom and authority without thinking much about how it was acquired. What is the history of the *Oxford English Dictionary*? Exploring its origins and development will give new insight into this extraordinary, living document.

How it began. *When the members of the Philological Society of London decided, in 1857, that existing English language dictionaries were incomplete and deficient, and called for a complete re-examination of the language from Anglo-Saxon times onward, they knew they were embarking on an ambitious project. However, even they didn't realize the full extent of the work they initiated, or how long it would take to achieve the final result.*

The project proceeded slowly after the Society's first grand statement of purpose. Eventually, in 1879, the Society made an agreement with the Oxford University Press and James A. H. Murray to begin work on a *New English Dictionary* (as the *Oxford English Dictionary* was then known).

More work than they thought. *Existing English dictionaries were incomplete and deficient. The new dictionary was planned as a four-volume, 6,400-page work that would include all English language vocabulary from the Early Middle English period (1150 AD) onward, plus some earlier words if they had continued to be used into Middle English.*

It was estimated that the project would be finished in approximately ten years. Five years down the road, when Murray and his colleagues had only reached as far as the word 'ant', they realized it was time to reconsider their schedule. It was not surprising that the project was taking longer than anticipated. Not only are the complexities of the English language formidable, but it also never stops evolving. Murray and his Dictionary colleagues had to keep track of new words and new meanings of existing words at the same time that they were trying to examine the previous seven centuries of the language's development.

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[22] *http://public.oed.com/history-of-the-oed/ Дата обращения: 06.04.2014*

Murray and his team did manage to publish the first part (or 'fascicle', to use the technical term) in 1884, but it was clear by this point that a much more comprehensive work was required than had been imagined by the Philological Society almost thirty years earlier.

One step at a time. Over the next four decades work on the Dictionary continued and new editors joined the project. Murray now had a large team directed by himself, Henry Bradley, W.A. Craigie, and C.T. Onions. These men worked steadily, producing fascicle after fascicle until finally, in April, 1928, the last volume was published. Instead of 6,400 pages in four volumes, the Dictionary published under the imposing name A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles - contained over 400,000 words and phrases in ten volumes. Sadly, Murray did not live to see the completion of his great work; he died in 1915. The work to which he had devoted his life represented an achievement unprecedented in the history of publishing anywhere in the world. The Dictionary had taken its place as the ultimate authority on the language.

Keeping it current. An exhilarating aspect of a living language is that it continually changes. This means that no dictionary is ever really finished. After fifty years of work on the first edition, the editors must have found this fact exhausting to contemplate.

Nevertheless, as soon as the original ten volumes of the *New English Dictionary* were completed, Craigie and Onions, the two editors still involved with the project, began updating it. In 1933, a single-volume *Supplement* to the Dictionary was published. Also at this time the original Dictionary was reprinted in twelve volumes and the work was formally given its current title, the *Oxford English Dictionary*.

The twelve-volume *Oxford English Dictionary* and the single-volume *Supplement* represented the final statement from Oxford for many years to come. However, in 1957, Robert Burchfield was appointed Editor for a new *Supplement* that would replace the 1933 volume and include much new information on the language (especially on twentieth century vocabulary) obtained in the intervening years. Modern English was continuously monitored by the Dictionary's celebrated 'reading programme', more scientific and technical terms were added, and the scope of the Dictionary was broadened to include considerably more words from North America, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, South Asia, and the Caribbean. Substantially longer than the 1933 edi-

tion, this new *Supplement* was published in four volumes between 1972 and 1986.

Making it modern. *In 1982, as Burchfield's work on the* Supplement *came within sight of the completion, Oxford University Press debated how to bring this monumental dictionary into the modern age. It soon became clear that the traditional methods of compiling entries would have to be updated, and that the source material should be transferred from paper to an electronic medium. The enterprise must change to deploy project managers and systems engineers as well as lexicographers. The Press duly set about this with the formation of the New Oxford English Dictionary Project in 1984. The team was given the objective of publishing an integrated print edition in 1989 and also of providing a full, electronic text to form the basis of future revision and extension of the Dictionary.*

How do you take a multi-volume, century-old, print-based reference work and turn it into a machine-readable resource? By spending $13.5 million over five years in the most adventurous computerization project seen in the publishing industry at that time. Bespoke computer systems were built for both pre-processing the text and editing it in electronic form; text was marked up in the (then) novel SGML encoding scheme; the pages of the old edition and the *Supplement* were typed again by 120 keyboarders; and more than 50 proofreaders checked the results of their work.

In Oxford John Simpson and Edmund Weiner with a core group of lexicographers reviewed, corrected, and edited this new electronic dictionary, as well as adding 5,000 new words and senses to 400,000 definitions previously expressed in 60,000,000 words. In all, the Project team succeeded in accomplishing around 85 per cent of its work by software, but the remaining 15 per cent required the critical eye of the editors. The culmination of this mammoth task was the setting in type and subsequent printing of the *Oxford English Dictionary*, Second Edition. In 1989 this was published on time, to great acclaim. The finished work, edited by Simpson and Weiner, fills 22,000 pages which are bound in twenty substantial volumes.

Into the electronic age. *In 1992 the* Oxford English Dictionary *again made history when a CD-ROM edition of the work was published. Suddenly a massive, twenty-volume work that takes up four feet of shelf*

space and weighs 150 pounds is reduced to a slim, shiny disk that takes up virtually no space and weighs just a few ounces.

The *Oxford English Dictionary* on CD-ROM has been a great success. The electronic format has revolutionized the way people use the Dictionary to search and retrieve information. Complex investigations into word origins or quotations that would have been impossible to conduct using the print edition now take only a few seconds. Because the electronic format makes the *Oxford English Dictionary* so easy to use, its audience now embraces all kinds of interested readers beyond the confines of the scholarly community.

Comprehension questions:

1) When and why did the Philological Society of London decide to launch this ambitious lexicography project?
2) What was the plan for the new dictionary?
3) Why did the project take much longer than the editors expected?
4) When was *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* finally published, and how many words did it contain?
5) How did the editors try to keep the dictionary up-to-date?

GLOSSARY

abbreviation — сокращение, аббревиация

acronym — акроним

affix — аффикс

alphabetism — алфабетизм

back-formation — обратное словообразование

base — основа слова

blend (=**portmanteau word, telescope word**) — телескопное слово

borrowing — заимствование

bound form (=**bound morpheme**) — связанная форма, связанная морфема

clipping — усечение

coinage — создание новых слов и выражений

compound — сложное слово

compounding — словосложение, образование сложных слов

contraction — стяжение

conversion (=**zero derivation**) — конверсия

derivation — деривация

derivative (=**derived word**) — производное слово

etymology — этимология

folk etymology (=**popular etymology**) — народная этимология, ложная этимология

free form (=**free morpheme**)— свободная форма, свободная морфема

inflection / inflexion (=**functional morpheme**) — окончания, флексии, словоизменительные морфемы

initialism — инициальная аббревиатура (=алфабетизм)

lexeme (=**lexical item**, **lexical unit**) — лексема, лексическая единица

lexicon (=**lexis**, **word-stock**, **vocabulary**) — словарный состав (языка), словарь, лексика

loan translation — калька

loan word — заимствование

morpheme — морфема

morpheme variant — вариант морфемы

morphology — морфология

native word — исконное слово

neologism — неологизм

nonce word — окказионализм

onomastics (=**onomatology**) — ономастика, ономатология

paradigmatic — парадигматический

prefix — префикс

proper name / **noun** — имя собственное

reduplication — редупликация, удвоение

root — корень слова, корневая морфема

stem — основа слова

suffix — суффикс

syllable — слог

word-formation — словообразование