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**Undergraduate Thesis
BORROWED WORDS IN ENGLISH**

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ABSTRACT

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This undergraduate thesis is concerned with the topic of borrowed words in English and it consists of three main parts. The first one provides theoretical information needed to understand the terminology related to borrowing, the second one describes briefly the evolution of English language as well as the impact of foreign languages on the lexis throughout history and finally, the third part is dedicated to research of borrowed words in various contemporary literary genres related to different scientific fields, aspects of life or specific desires of readers. Such diversity provides an authentic collection of excerpts necessary for analysing such a broad and complex issue. The aim of this thesis is to demonstrate the impact of foreign languages on English and attempt to describe how are borrowed words typically used in discourse. This aim was completed and the research proved that borrowed words create an immensely important part of English vocabulary and that the most influential source languages are Latin and French. They provided a range of loanwords from many semantic fields, especially science, and the general tendency is that we use more French and Latin words in order to enrich the discourse with formal or learned expressions.

Key words: borrowed words, loanwords, vocabulary, lexicology, English language.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The ability to speak is immensely important to mankind. Using language allows people to interact on such level that is unknown to any other creature in the world, however, any particular language is only usable for those who are familiar with it. This was not an issue until people began discovering the world and meeting foreigners speaking differently, thus their communication level downgraded. In order to understand properly, it was necessary for them to learn from one another. Some expressions found their place in the foreign language and became part of it. This process remains active until today and it will be active for the years to come. Borrowed words are present in almost every language in the world and very frequent in English. The focus of this work is English and the influence of various languages on its lexicon throughout history. This thesis observes and analyses languages from diachronic point of view because borrowed words are items that are largely connected to history and evolution of language. The aim of this work is to demonstrate the impact of borrowed words in English, ascertain the most influential source languages and attempt to establish the stylistic function of borrowed words according to their language of origin.

There are three main parts in this thesis, Theoretical Background, Historical Data and Result and Commentary. In the theoretical part there is an introduction of the topic and terms related to it including explanation of the reason why languages borrow words and which languages have affected English the most. The second part focuses mainly on the historical development of English lexicon and events which led to interaction between English and other languages. The whole history of English is divided to four periods; Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English and Modern English. This thesis describes the periods from the point of view of language as well as the progress of culture, politics, society, and so on, which are important factors in language development. The last part is dedicated to research using methods explained in the preceding chapter Methods of Research. The analysed texts vary in style, register and genre as well as their topic, which ensures authentic results. The main focus of the research is to learn the extent and manner of using borrowed words in contemporary English and prove the information given in the theoretical and historical part.

I reckon that borrowed words are an underappreciated topic and some English speakers probably do not realise how great the part of the English vocabulary formed by loanwords is.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Borrowing

The very first term to focus on is, of course, borrowed words, as it is the main topic of this thesis. The term borrowed word denotes a word that has been transferred from one language to another at some point in the history. The language in which the particular word originates is often referred to as the source language or donor language and the one accepting the word is usually called receiving or borrowing language. Here are some examples of basic everyday words that have been borrowed:

- *garage* (n.) – derived from French *garage* at the beginning of the 20th century
- *cake* (n.) – derived from Old Norse *kaka* in the early 13th century, possibly Middle Dutch *koke* or Dutch *koek*
- *noodle* (n.) – derived from German *Nudel* in the late 18th century.
- *private* (adj.) – the opposite of public, derived from Latin *privatus* in the late 14th century

This definition of a borrowed word is quite clear, however, there is more meaning in the term borrowing. According to Durkin (2014), the term borrowing defines reproducing a certain linguistic feature. Haspelmath (2009) claims that beside lexical borrowing (borrowing words) there are other types of borrowing, (e.g. loan meaning extension, loan translation, borrowing of affixes or stems), which concern borrowing certain patterns of other linguistic fields, such as phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. The process of borrowing does not necessarily operate exclusively with words in the narrow sense. It is possible to borrow for example compounds, which, however, settle in the recipient language usually as a single word, which is unanalysable for the native speakers because the separate morphemes do not exist in their own language. A good example of this phenomenon would be the word *zeitgeist*, which was borrowed from German and a literal translation would be “time spirit”. A native German speaker is well aware that the word is a compound of the separately working words *zeit* and *geist* but a native English speaker has no knowledge of such information.

Many linguists use the term loanwords or lexical borrowings instead of borrowed words. All three of these names are synonyms and all three are, in fact, inaccurate. This thought is supported by Haspelmath (2009), Grant (2014), Durkin (2014) and more. The

problem lies in the literal meaning of the term borrowing because it implies that something has been taken from the source language and it is now missing, which shows that “borrowing” is as a matter of fact a metaphor. The process of so called borrowing is in reality more similar to copying, which is a synonymic term used by Johanson (2002). Nevertheless, loanwords, borrowed words and borrowings are commonly accepted terms, therefore will be sufficient for the purposes of this thesis.

2.1.1 Calques

Although the main focus of this thesis are loanwords, there is a specific kind of borrowing that is worth mentioning as it is easily analysable from the point of view of origin. Also, it was quite a common source of new expressions in the past. Calques (also known as loan translations) are borrowed words which were literally translated into the receiving language part by part. A typical example stated by linguists, e.g., Crystal (2019) is *superman*, which was translated from German *übermensch*. *Masterpiece* was possibly calqued from Dutch *meesterstuk* or German *Meisterstück*. German is a fitting language for creating loan translations because it contains a host of compound words. Calques can also occur as phrases; *marriage of convenience* was calqued from French *mariage de convenance*.

2.2 Motivation for Borrowing

Borrowed words in English are numerous and can be found in almost all forms of written or spoken language. It is possible to say that general tendency shows that using a higher number of borrowings often leads to a more formal register. In other words, to conduct a more educated discourse, it is appropriate to use loanwords. However, many loanwords occur in everyday language without any special attention drawn to them (e.g., *they* – Scandinavian origin). We will focus on this phenomenon later in this chapter because it is related to the reason why languages borrow from other languages, which is the next important question in the theory of borrowed words. Unfortunately, there is no definite answer. As mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the obvious reason for exchanging units of vocabulary among languages is an interaction of their users; the next question that should be answered is “Why did they need to borrow?”. According to Clark (1982), lexical borrowing can be divided into necessary borrowings, which denote an item that did not exist in the particular language until it was brought along with the new word, and unnecessary borrowings, which already had a synonym existing in the receiving language. A similar idea of division was titled by Myers-Scotton (2002) - cultural borrowings (they entitle new concepts) and core borrowings (create synonyms for existing words). It is hard to say which

terms are more suitable for the fact as there are flaws in both alternatives. Clark says himself that his term is imperfect because, in fact, no borrowing is necessary. He claims that every language has means to create its own new terms or names for new concepts. The second pair of terms was questioned by Haspelmath (2009), specifically the core borrowings, as it implies that only core vocabulary¹ is involved in this part of the dichotomy. As a matter of fact, words from core vocabulary are rarely a subject of borrowing given their specific nature, function and emplacement in speech or text.

2.2.1 Necessary Borrowing

The reason behind necessary borrowing can be explained very easily. During contact with foreign culture, English gained a previously unknown concept together with a native name for it, which was kept, e.g., *potato* (from Spanish *patata*). However, not all the necessary borrowings stay current in English (or any other language). Clark (1982) argues that some loanwords become obsolete over time and are replaced by neologisms native for the particular language. This fact represents that no borrowing is actually necessary. The reason borrowed words come and stay in languages in such great number was proposed by Haspelmath (2009). He claims that using loanwords is convenient because they are globally more comprehensible than newly constructed expressions. Potato is *batata* in Haiti, *patate* in France, *patates* in Turkey, *patáta* in Greece and *patata* in Italy. Why change something that works well and is beneficial too? There can be some political or cultural issues that lead to producing new words instead of using borrowings. It was occurring in the area of current Czech Republic in the fifteenth through almost twentieth century, when there was a general effort to clear the language of any external (mostly German) influences on the Czech lexis due to the desire to be autonomous. This phenomenon is called linguistic purism and we will talk about its occurrence in English in part 3 of this thesis.

2.2.2 Unnecessary Borrowing

Motivation behind unnecessary borrowing is more difficult to grasp as there is no new element to be titled, moreover, the receiving language already contains a synonymic expression to the loanword. Haspelmath (2009) argues that the purpose of such action is mainly to bring some of the prestige of the source language into the receiving one. It is possible to find evidence of such tendency in present day English. If we take three examples of languages that were superior to English in the past; Latin, Greek and French and use them

¹ Vocabulary used greatly in everyday conversation describing everyday activities (e.g., you, can, now, in, some, open etc.).

to demonstrate the level of prestige by establishing their usage, we discover that native English expressions are mostly neutral in register, words adopted from French tend to be formal and those of Latin or Greek origin are mainly learned (terms). In example the word *asleep* (origin in Old English) is neutral and the word *dormant* (originally Latin, later adopted from French) appears very formal and is often used in biology as a term describing organisms that are inactive during winter.

2.3 Recognizing Borrowed Words

From the point of view of a person outside the linguistic field of study it might appear as though borrowed words were easily detectable. Some may suppose that a borrowed word would seem foreign, unfortunately, this is not always true. For example, such a word as *they*, is, in fact, a loanword, too, however, it is so well rooted in English that few people would mark it as a borrowing. Moreover, the borrowed expression is often completely different from the source word, therefore trying to find these without any academic publications would rarely yield complete results. First of all, we have to understand the fact that borrowed words are not always supported by steady foundations, sometimes the journey of a word is unclear and some blind spaces may occur at some point of its evolutionary process. As Durkin (2014) says, there are more hypotheses than facts. It is impossible to trace every single loanword and all its forms but fortunately, there are some criteria which might help identify them. These are according to Durkin's (2014) point of view as follows:

1. The first discovery of the presumed borrowed word dates after the presumed source word (if the source word is available).
2. The presumed borrowed word's forms should be completely intelligible from the forms of the presumed source word.
3. The presumed borrowed word's connotation should be completely intelligible from the connotation of the presumed source.
4. There must be a historical evidence of some influence between the two languages from which the borrowed word could have risen.
5. There is no other clarification (or not as credible) for the existence of the presumed borrowed word.

Burrow (1946) states four basic criteria based on different linguistic fields:

1. If the given expression can be analysed from the morphological point of view in language A but not B (e.g., there is a suffix that originates in language A but is unrecognizable in B), the source language must be A.
2. If the given expression has phonological signs typical for language A but not B, the source language must be A.
3. If the given expression has been affirmed in a sister language of language B that has had no connection with language A, the source language must be B.
4. Meaning in cooperation with historical facts can also serve as a tool that helps establish the origin of a word (i.e. a word denoting a fact that does not exist in the presupposed source language most certainly does not originate in the said language).

These points serve to guide etymologists through the process of establishing loanwords, not to limit their effort. There is often some personal point of view and subjective knowledge of the linguists involved in their work and the historical sources they work with are not always reliable. To locate the origin of any word requires experience, training and determination. Borrowed word as a term is the counterpart to native word, which is a fact that supports the common definition and help people understand the system, but there is a major flaw in this division. According to Haspelmath (2009), every individual has a relative notion of whether a word is originally English or has been borrowed. This opinion often depends on several factors, such as age, education, social class and so on. Some words “feel” native because they are used massively in everyday conversations and even a person with a great knowledge of etymology cannot be fully certain whether a non-loanword is in fact native. If a word is marked as non-loanword, it simply means there is no data of it being borrowed.

2.4 Integration of Borrowed Words

There are situations that occur during the process of borrowing when source words do not match the system of receiving language. This happens, in fact, more often than not and in order to incorporate a new word into the lexicon of the recipient language, it must undergo the process of integration (adaptation). The discrepancies between two languages lie in the field of orthography, morphology, phonology or syntax. For example, a Swedish city called Göteborg has an English equivalent Gothenburg. This is a phonological problem. Swedish vowel ö does not exist in English so it had to be replaced with a similar one. Adding *h* after *t* and *n* between *e* and *b* created a word that is more suitable to English speakers and

overall more fluent. An example of a morphological issue would be comparing languages with and without the presence of grammatical gender and inflection classes, which would be English vs. French, Spanish, Russian and so on. If these languages borrow from English, they need to create all these grammatical categories for the particular word to include it into the system of their own. Haspelmath (2009) says that the degree of adaptation of a word depends on how old the particular word is, to what extent the receiving language speakers know the donor language and what is their attitude towards the source language. If they know the source language well and/or the borrowed word is relatively new, recipient language speakers can opt to keep the pronunciation and perhaps borrow some other forms from the word's inflectional paradigm. English, for example, borrowed plural forms of Latin and Greek words, such as *phenomenon/phenomena*, *fungus/fungi*, *cactus/cacti*, *crisis/crises*. The less adapted the word or the newer the word, the easier its recognition in the recipient language.

2.5 Source Languages

English lexicon has been influenced by a host of languages and the process still persists nowadays. The languages many people probably mention at first are Latin, French, German, Greek, possibly Scandinavian languages. These are, in fact, the best known and somewhat easily detectable. Of course, it depends on the experience of an individual, nevertheless, if a person is even slightly interested in linguistics, they probably know that expressions of Latin and French origin are regularly used in English. Durkin (2014) worked with the Oxford English Dictionary and brought some interesting outcomes. He focused on the OED3 entries under the letters M, N, O, P, Q, R and A up to ALZ, which counts over 92,000 entries. He discovered that almost 30,000 of them were classified as loanwords, which is ca. 32% of the total. Durkin then listed the languages that recurred the most in descending order. This is the list of top ten source languages from the research:

1. Latin
2. French
3. Greek
4. French and/or Latin
5. German

6. Italian
7. Spanish
8. Dutch
9. Early Scandinavian
10. Japanese

The 10th position might be surprising because English speakers are possibly unaware of any Japanese words in their basic speech. Durkin (2014) states that it is because there are none that could be filed among basic vocabulary. He also notes that these numbers are only valid from the quantitative aspect, they do not reflect the quality of the loanwords and their influence on the English lexicon, so we find such peculiarity as Japanese being listed immediately after early Scandinavian, which gave English multiple words of everyday use, such as the core word *they* we mentioned earlier. Another fact worth mentioning according to the list of source languages above is the gap in total numbers of entries for each language. Latin is clearly the most significant with the number of over 13,000 words which counts almost a half of the total loanwords we have mentioned. The impact of French has been noticeably lower with the number of over 6,000 entries and Greek brought less than 3,000. The total of each of the top three languages is about 50% lower than the previous number. It is clear that Latin and French (sometimes both of them together) have influenced English the most and we shall address the reasons and processes later in the historical part of this thesis. Durkin (2014) did another interesting research, this time using BNC (British National Corpus) and it involved the 1,000 most used English words (he eliminated numbers, proper names, symbols and other problematic items). He discovered that from these 1,000 expressions 529 (almost 53%) were either borrowed or derived from loanwords. 487 of the borrowed words came from French (220), Latin (58) or French/Latin (209), 32 originated in Scandinavia and 4 were originally Italian. There was also 1 single word from languages like Welsh, Middle Low German, Spanish, Italian, and so on. It is obvious from these two researches that although Latin is the leading source language for English, the most used loanwords have a majority of those with French origin.

3. HISTORICAL DATA

The history of the English language is commonly separated into historical periods. In order to understand the influence of foreign languages on English, it is necessary to introduce these periods and learn the historical events that were connected to meeting of different cultures and, of course, language.

3.1 Old English

This era dates approximately from the year 450 until 1066 AD. The Languages of native inhabitants spoken in British Isles since the first century AD belonged mostly to the Celtic language branch. Durkin (2014) argues that these ancient Celtic varieties which were spoken in many areas throughout Europe are not very well recorded and there is also little evidence that Celtic languages were really spoken in England so early, but it is logical that some variants of Celtic languages were spoken by the inhabitants as they were, in fact, Celts. After the Roman invasion in 43 AD, England fell under the reign of Roman Empire and it remained its part until the fifth century AD, so Latin gradually became the prominent language of administration and higher society in the area. What is uncertain is whether Latin was spoken in the country by ordinary people as well.

The evolution of English language was initiated by a number of invasions happening in the second half of the fifth century, which England could not resist very well as their legions were withdrawn from there in order to defend the Empire elsewhere. The invaders were various Germanic tribes mostly from Germany and Southern Scandinavia. According to an Anglo-Saxon historian, the Venerable Bede, they belonged to the nations of the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes, but any more specific information, such as their language/dialect, homeland or precise date of arrival are matters of speculation. According to Crystal (2019), Bede's story *The Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation*, written in 731 AD in Latin, is to this day the most valuable historical source of early English history, however, we cannot fully rely on what is written there as Bede's focus was Christianity, which makes the source biased and fictionalized to some extent. He, for example, believed that the invaders, who were most certainly looking for Roman wealth, were sent as a message by God. His story also describes distinct Anglo-Saxon tribes and states the specific years of their arrival, which we have no other evidence of. The period from the Anglo-Saxon invasions until the Norman Conquest (year 1066) is often called *The Dark Ages* due to lack of written records. The fate of the British inhabitants is unknown but Durkin (2014) offers some possible options, such

as that some Britons were executed, some enslaved, some sold as slaves overseas and some possibly left alone but having an overall disadvantageous status in the society. Part of them was also pushed further north-west, to the land of today's Wales, Ireland and Scotland. What can be said with certainty is that a part of the conquered Britons who stayed in England adapted and began using the language of the invaders, English.

Apart from Celtic, Latin and English, the inhabitants of the British Isles were affected by Old Norse, which is a language that was spoken in the area of today's Nordic countries (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Faroe Islands etc.). It reached the area through Viking raids which began at the end of the eighth century AD. Nordic countries were becoming increasingly more hostile to the spreading population of Viking clans due to rough winters and scarce food, so they sailed the sea in order to find a better life. Raiding eventually became invading and conquest, however the king of the Anglo-Saxons Alfred the Great was in constant disagreement with the Vikings trying to settle in the east, which led to a battle in 886, where Vikings were defeated. Alfred the Great decided to leave a north-eastern part of his land to the invaders forming a treaty with the Viking king who named the newly acquired land The Danelaw. According to Eckersley (1960), the language of the Danes and the language spoken in England were fairly similar, moreover shared a host of expressions that had the same roots, so it was more or less possible for them to communicate, however, the inflectional endings were different, so they were often adapted to one of the languages or dropped completely. Eventually, in 1016 the Danish king Cnut inherited the English crown and combined it with the kingdom of Norway and Denmark, too. The Old English language era formally ends with the Norman Conquest in 1066, which initiated contact between English and French.

3.1.1 Foreign Influences in Old English

There are three major foreign influences in Old English that are obvious from the historical events mentioned above; Celtic, Latin and Norse.

3.1.1.1 Celtic

As we mentioned, Celtic languages were spoken in England since the first century AD and historical evidence is scarce. Crystal (2019) states Celtic did not affect Old English very much given the nature of the contact between the languages. Celtic inhabitants were handled very roughly and perceived as savages, therefore their language was oppressed along with themselves and evolved into Welsh, Gaelic, Manx etc. Despite this fact, there are some borrowings worth mentioning. Durkin (2014) states *brock* (Old English *brocc*) which

meant badger or *bin* (Old English *binn*) which denoted a manger, Crystal (2019) presents for example *dunn* (grey), *luh* (lake), *dry* (sorcerer). Most of the Celtic loanwords do not exist in modern English, but there are a few borrowings appearing in topographic names (place names), such as *eccles* (church), *dover* (water), *kent* (border land) or some parts of words, such as the “Wor” in Worcester, “Ex” in Exeter, “Car” in Carlisle and so on. Direct borrowings from Celtic are not numerous but as Durkin (2014) says, there is a much more significant number of loanwords with Celtic origin which English adopted from French later in the history. Nevertheless, the contribution of Celtic to English is unimportant in comparison to what has Latin or French brought to it.

3.1.1.2 Latin

We already know that Latin is now the dominant source language, from which English has borrowed. The borrowing was happening since the very beginning of English language and, in fact, the original Celtic inhabitants borrowed words from Latin as well. The Roman Empire was very powerful in Europe, and so the language spread very widely. Along with the language came several wholly new concepts, which Old English had no names for, mostly concerning trading or religion, so the new expressions Old English acquired were mostly names of food or drink, animals, religious figures or buildings, plants, medicine, such as *disc* (dish), *catte* (cat), *weall* (wall), *belt* (belt), *munuc* (monk) and many others. Around the time when Anglo-Saxons began to convert to Christianity (ca. sixth century), Latin became even stronger as a source language because it was the language of the Roman Church. Simply said in other words; Latin became very popular. Drouot (2006) says that the Anglo-Saxons translated some important Latin terms into Old English, creating many various neologisms², e.g., trinity became *brynnes* (three-ness), patriarch – *ealdfæder* (old father), evangelist – *godspellere* (teller of good stories). Although there is limited evidence from the Dark Ages, it is possible to linguistically reconstruct the supposed impact of Latin on Old English. Bede’s story we have mentioned may serve as evidence of how important Christianity was for the Anglo-Saxons and also that Latin played its part mostly because the whole story of Ecclesiastical History of the English People (731) was written in Latin as well as any other important records there are from that period. The first Old English writings which come from around 700 are, according to Crystal (2019) glossaries of Latin words translated into Old English. A number of manuscripts were unfortunately destroyed during

² A newly created expression. A word is titled a neologism if it came into a language in the recent years. After that it becomes a regular part of the lexis.

Viking raids, but the most important preserved piece is the large epic poem *Beowulf* (composed around 700 - 1,000). The number of Latin loans are very much a matter of speculation for the reasons above, nevertheless, there are some opinions. Crystal (2019) states that there are less than 200 Latin words in English at the beginning of the Anglo-Saxon era. Durkin (2014) supports the estimate of Mary S. Serjeantson, who studied the topic of foreign influences and presented her findings in *A History of Foreign Words in English* (1935). She has created a list of more than 500 borrowings from Latin in Old English. Durkin thinks there can be found up to 600 loanwords as there are some omissions in the material of Serjeantson. Although her material has aged, the information continues to be useful. Durkin also distinguishes early (before 650) and later (after 650) borrowings from Latin, here are some examples from each group.

Early borrowings

- *dīofol* – devil (Lat. *diabulus*)
- *mynster* – monastery (Lat. *monasterium*)
- *scōl* – school (Lat. *schola*)
- *coccel* – corn (Lat. *coccum*)
- *humele* – hop plant (Lat. *humulus*)
- *porr* – leek (Lat. *porrum*)
- *cocc* – cock, rooster (Lat. *coccus*)
- *olfend* – camel (Lat. *elephant, elephans* – semantic confusion)
- *senap* – mustard (Lat. *sinapis*)
- *wīn* – wine (Lat. *vinium*)

Later borrowings

- *altare* – altar (Lat. *altare*)
- *capitol* – chapter (Lat. *capitulum*)
- *circul* – circle, cycle (Lat. *circulus*)
- *balsam* – balm (Lat. *balsamum*)
- *petersilie* – parsley (Lat. *petrosilenum, petrosilium*)

- *camel, camell* – camel (Lat. *camelus*)
- *ultur* – vulture (Lat. *vulture*)
- *cancer* – ulcerous sore (Lat. *cancer*)
- *paper* – (probably) wick (Lat. *papyrus, papyrus*)
- *castel* – small village, later castle (Lat. *castellum*)

3.1.1.3 Norse

During the time of Viking raids and their gradual settling in England many Nordic names of places (mostly ending with *-by*, e.g., *Selby, Skewsby*) or names and surnames (ending with *-son*, e.g., *Davidson, Johnson*) have appeared as well as a number of general expressions, even core words. Some existing names were even changed to better fit the Scandinavian language system. Crystal (2019) states that there were almost 1,000 Nordic expressions in Old English but only a fragment could be found in the handful of manuscripts we have from the era. The earliest record of the impact of Norse would be the treaty Between Anglo-Saxons and Vikings (Danes) which established the Danelaw. The most significant evidence of the very close contact between Old English and Old Norse is the pronoun *they*, which is an unnecessary core borrowing replacing the Old English pronoun *hē* and also a plural of the verb *to be*, *syndon* in Old English, was replaced with the originally Nordic expression *are* we use today. An enormous impact of Scandinavian is visible from the inflectional system. Old English was a fully inflectional language, which meant that words changed their suffixes depending on the syntactic function they were supposed to express in the specific utterance, so although English and Norse had a host of words in common, the synthetic³ Old English was difficult to comprehend for the Nordic people. Therefore, the sensible solution was to reduce the inflection system and adapt to Old Norse. Unlike Latin, loanwords from Old Norse do not belong to a few specific semantic categories, they managed to spread throughout the whole language, so it is obvious that the impact of Norse was superior to the impact of Latin. As Drout (2006) says, the Scandinavian influence was the first step in the future evolution of English and that the revolutionary changes come after the Norman Conquest in 1066, which we shall look at in the next section. Unfortunately, it is not certain whether the lexical borrowings entered the language in the Old English or Middle English period, so we cannot very well separate the loanwords into two groups as it

³ A synthetic language uses inflection to express the grammatical relations between words, while an analytic language depends mostly on word order.

was possible with Latin, but the huge impact of Norse is undeniable, which can best be seen on the core borrowings including e.g., *they, them, their, both, get, take, want, give, call, flat, low, dump, egg, scrap, steak, thrive, ill, kid, odd, raise, window, ugly, weak, Thursday, law, loan* and many more. Durkin (2014) mentions that the native words replaced with the examples above might have been very similar, so the term lexical borrowing might be rather limited in sense.

3.2 Middle English

The period of Middle English is considered to be framed by the year 1066 and the late fifteenth century. This is the commonly accepted periodization but some scholars rather use the year 1150 as the initial year perhaps because it makes more sense from the point of view of language. For example, the OED states that the period lasted from 1150 to 1500. The year 1066 when Norman Conquest happened initiated the contact between English and French (Norman) but Old English was still spoken in England for around 150 years, slowly developing into what can be called Middle English. This thesis has finished the Old English era before the Norman Conquest, therefore we shall count from the year 1066 in this chapter.

The Scandinavian King Cnut mentioned earlier ensured peace and prosperity for many years and was appropriately valued for it by his people. When he died, his son Harthacnut became a king of England after him and when he died after only two years of reign, the throne fell into the hands of his half-brother Edward the Confessor, who allegedly promised the crown to William of Normandy. The throne, however, went to Harold Godwinson, so the Norman king did not hesitate and invaded England in 1066. He defeated Harold at Hastings with little casualties along his way as his aim was not to kill ordinary people in the country but to conquer the kingdom by removing people from higher posts (aristocrats and church) and bringing some of his own (Drout, 2006). So England and France formed one kingdom and French became the language of power. However, even the noble needed to learn some English due to various reasons, for example, intermarriage, communication concerning property owning and so on, which opened the door for bilingualism. Many of the Norman kings who reigned during the period, on the other hand, were entirely unable to communicate in English or had limited skills, like Henry II (1154 – 1189) who could understand the language but could not speak it. The language situation in the kingdom was as follows. French was used in court, government, law, administration, church and literature. Latin was, too, used in administration, also education and church. The status of English is not perfectly clear until the thirteenth century, since when there are some

findings of English prayers, songs, sermons and other written records (Crystal, 2019). Until then English was mostly used by regular inhabitants, which allowed it to evolve primarily through spoken form. Not being restricted by written materials hastened the process of evolution and overall simplified (grammatically) the tongue as it was continuously adapting to the Scandinavian languages still spoken in the territory of Danelaw, which was one of the steps that led to the birth of Middle English (Drout, 2006).

In 1204 King of England, John, found himself in a disagreement with the French king Phillip over a woman named Isabel, who was engaged to somebody else. Her fiancé complained to Phillip and when John refused to attend trial, Phillip decided to conquer Normandy, which was a part of England and belonged to King John. After losing the land, England and France became politically separated once again and English gained its place in all social and political spheres. During the many years of oppression Old English changed into Middle English, which can almost be understood by Modern English speakers and is almost a fully analytic language. Here is an excerpt from the Canterbury Tales' *The Summoner's Tale* by Geoffrey Chaucer (1345 – 1400), thanks to whom we know a lot about Middle English and also the period itself.

MIDDLE ENGLISH

Ther as divine servyce is honoured,
Nat ther as it is wasted and devoured,
Ne ther it nedeth nat for to be yive,
As to possessioners, that mowen lyve,
Thanked be God, in wele and habundaunce.

MODERN ENGLISH

Where divine service is honored,
Not where it is wasted and devoured,
Nor where it needs not to be given,
As to beneficed clergymen, that may live,
Thanked be God, in prosperity and abundance.

This excerpt was retrieved from Harvard's Geoffrey Chaucer Website (n.d.).⁴

⁴ <https://chaucer.fas.harvard.edu/pages/summoners-prologue-and-tale>

Middle English was widespread and commonly used in speech as well as in writing around 1425 (Crystal, 2019).

3.2.1 Foreign Influences in Middle English

3.2.1.1 French (Norman)

After the Norman Conquest English and French were living next to each other with the obvious superiority of French and many people were becoming bilingual or even trilingual (French, English and Latin). The French were learning English mostly through listening to native English people, so later when they needed to write in their second tongue without knowing the correct Old English spelling, they adapted their writing to the French system they knew well, for example, *cwen* to queen (Crystal, 2019). Durkin (2014) proposes that the host of French (and Latin) words probably entered English via the trilingual speakers, who were possibly confusing some expressions among the three languages. Most of the loanwords were, according to Drout (2006), borrowed after the English and the French kingdoms separated, but that opinion might not be so clear as between the years 1066 and 1204 very limited amount of texts were formed. Some even call it the Dark Ages (similar to those in Old English period), so the precise years in dictionaries must be handled carefully. In fact, the most words were borrowed during the second half of the fourteenth century, which is easily observable in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. Crystal (2019) states there are almost 500 French loans in the total of 858 lines.

It is interesting that although the impact of French was enormous, English borrowed quite few everyday expressions. In fact, Durkin (2014) analysed the hundred most frequently used English words from the point of view of origin and learnt that there are mostly Scandinavian, but otherwise, Latin and French are always in the lead. French enriched English mostly in semantic groups such as law, administration, medicine, art, fashion, cuisine, science, religion and so on. Here are some examples.

- Administration: authority, chancellor, coroner, empire, government, majesty, noble, parliament, peasant, prince, reign, royal, sir, treason, treaty.
- Arts: art, beauty, chess, colour, dance, image, literature, melody, music, painting, poet, rhyme, romance, title, tragedy, volume
- Cuisine: appetite, beef, biscuit, cream, dinner, fruit, jelly, mince, mustard, plate, poultry, salad, sausage, stew, sugar, toast, venison.

- Fashion: boots, button, cloak, dress, fashion, gown, jewel, lace, robe, satin, veil, wardrobe.
- Law: advocate, arrest, attorney, crime, evidence, executor, heir, justice, prison, punishment, sue.
- Medicine: medicine, ointment, pain, physician, poison, pulse, stomach, surgeon.
- Religion: abbey, baptism, cathedral, charity, crucifix, faith, miracle, prayer, religion, saint, sermon, theology, vicar.
- Science: anatomy, arsenic, geometry, grammar, logic, metal, noun, sphere, square, study, sulphur.

Crystal (2019) states that most (70%) of the loanwords were nouns and some of them were even of everyday use but as we have already learnt, it was noticeably less comparing to the impact of Scandinavian languages. In Middle English, French together with Latin were so impactful they made 39% of the vocabulary according to Durkin's (2014) work with online Middle English Vocabulary. Only French entries make 8,6%. French widened the semantic range of English but also brought some expressions that had already existed, so the two synonyms stood next to each other for some time, however, the reason every English noun does not necessarily have a full synonym is that either one of the expressions became extinct or that one or both of them slightly changed meaning (hearty – cordial, house - mansion). Durkin (2014) says that the most frequently occurring semantic change of native English words was narrowing of meaning. We can often observe the differences in style, where native words are mostly neutral and French (and Latin) rather formal, poetic or scientific (wordbook - dictionary, ghost – spirit, buy – purchase, freedom – liberty). France was a prominent European culture of that time, so many of the French native words were considered fashionable or fancy. Another interesting fact is that during the Middle English period foreign adjectives started being used, for example, father - paternal. There is also a similar incompatibility in meat names. English usually uses a native word for the animal but the final product is mostly labelled using a French name, e.g., pig – pork, sheep – mutton, cow – beef.

3.2.1.2 Latin

In the period of Middle English Latin was mostly a secondary source language. Loanwords from Latin belonged mostly to a technical or professional sphere and Crystal

(2019) states that some words were adopted deliberately by poets in order to create a more poetic high style in their works. It is often very challenging to ascertain whether the origin of a particular word is originally Latin or French as they are very similar. French, in fact, developed from Latin and during its evolution changed some expressions but then began accepting some words from Latin, which led to duality (a similar thing happened in English) and eventually semantic distinction or extinction of the native word (Durkin, 2014). Such close relationship created some confusion in etymology and also made study of words' origin more difficult. Of course, there are ways to distinguish the original language of certain words, e.g., comparing specific patterns and observing the most productive years of borrowing from each language, but in many cases it is a matter of speculation. Durkin (2014) offers three examples of words where their Latin origin is certain; produce (Lat. *prōdūcere*), provide (Lat. *prōvidēre*) and idea, ideal (Lat. *idea*). A noteworthy phenomenon is the trichotomy of expressions denoting the same concepts, but being of different style according to what is their origin. English words are mostly neutral, French usually formal (as we already mentioned above) and Latin often learned. Some examples of the trichotomy are:

to ask – to question – to interrogate/inquire

to end – to finish – to terminate

belly – stomach – abdomen

to rise – to mount – to ascend

kingly – royal – regal

3.3 Early Modern English

This era is said to last approximately from around 1500 to 1700 but the opinions vary as well as with the Middle English era. Some scholars do not even consider it an independent period but this thesis talks about it briefly as it is too much of a leap from Middle English to Modern English. The reason Middle English and Modern English are so different is mostly the Great Vowel Shift, which is more of a phonetic issue but it changed language drastically. In a simplistic way, the shift caused long vowels to be pronounced in a different manner, so, e.g., *mus*, which was pronounced “moose” became *mouse* (Drout, 2006). One of the most important events of Early Modern English era is the establishment of press in 1476 by William Carton in Westminster. Texts were no longer restricted to handwriting and the time

of work reduced remarkably. It also indirectly initiated the idea of standardizing language and supported interest in language itself. The sixteenth century is sometimes marked as the Age of Bibles as many translations of the holy text were created with a variety of styles and manners of presentation (Crystal, 2019). The most influential translation is probably the King James Bible (1611) which was written for the purposes of churches all over England, where, at that time, Latin was still the leading tongue of religion. English was gradually gaining more functions in written form and slowly replacing the classical Latin. The sixteenth century was also the climax of Renaissance with its main principle of returning back to the classical and antique. It supported interest in studying and development of arts, sciences, medicine, literature and so on, which brought new items and concepts that English had inaccurate or no terms for. This evidently led to the need of borrowing words from the classical languages, which were Latin and Greek, and also French, but from various languages all over the world as well. Many loanwords were somewhat restricted in usage (e.g., register or specific field), especially those borrowed from Romance languages, but other European languages brought new concepts along with the word, which were eventually incorporated into everyday vocabulary, e.g., *potato* from Spanish (Durkin, 2014). English received thousands of new words during the Early Modern period, mainly from Latin, but it should be noted that it started forming its own words through affixation, word-class conversion, creation of compounds, which was a specialty of William Shakespeare (1564 – 1616), an incredibly creative and brilliant writer. Bolton (1992) presents some famous Shakespearean hyphenated words, e.g., *baby-eyes*, *faire-play*, *ill-tuned*, *pell-mell*, *widow-comfort*. Shakespeare also invented various idioms, a very popular feature of language even today, e.g., *we have seen better days*, *a good riddance*, *love is blind*, *break the ice* (Crystal, 2019). A number of idioms can be found in the King James Bible we mentioned earlier; *good old age*, *the apple of his eye*, *money is the root of all evil* (Crystal, 2011).

With the plethora of new words, Barber (1997) states up to 95 new borrowings per decade during the Early Modern period, English was becoming gradually more chaotic and unorganized, therefore speakers began to criticize the language situation. Some called for standardization and stabilization and some reached to methods of language purism creating native artificial equivalents of foreign words or reintroducing some older expressions from the past. Fortunately, as it usually happens, purist efforts were not particularly successful and at the end of the seventeenth century first attempts on creating dictionaries and

grammars, which were supposed to ensure the protection and stability of English, started to appear.

3.3.1 Foreign Influences in Early Modern English

With the invention of press there is a vastly higher number of written record to be analysed, so some may worry that the enormous increase in loanwords in the Early Modern era is caused simply due to the existence of texts, however, the overall expansion is doubtless (Durkin, 2014).

3.3.1.1 Latin and Greek

As we mentioned, classical languages were considered prestigious during Early Modern period. Especially Latin was incredibly favourite as a donor language. Some earlier borrowings were even replaced by more obviously Latinate forms in order to gain the desired level of prestige. Greek was not nearly so favourite but the semantic and stylistic value of Greek loanwords were fairly similar. These borrowings were mostly technical or scientific terms and/or possessing rather formal style, which did not affect everyday vocabulary at all (Greek) or only in a very limited manner (e.g., *delinquish*, *transcendence*, *parenthesis*). Many loans also became obsolete or extinct. Latin borrowings reached their peak around 1650, when Latin covered up to 30% (around 2,000 items) of all new words borrowed around that year, whereas French borrowings only around 5% - data from Oxford English Dictionary (Durkin, 2014). Such popularity continued until the eighteenth century, when English finally became somewhat standardized. Some examples of somewhat common loanwords from this period follow. *Absurdity*, *anonymous*, *climax*, *encyclopedia*, *exaggerate*, *immature*, *scheme*, *skeleton*, *system*, *tactics*, *temperature*, *offensive*, *sporadic*, *virus*, *frequent*, *relevant*.

3.3.1.2 French

French was the second large influence, however, the difference between the number of Latin and French loans is enormous. The situation with French was quite similar to the one with Latin, just the extent was noticeably smaller as French had already reached its peak number of loanwords in the previous period. Durkin (2014) states that the cause might be that French no longer served as an exclusive mediator of European innovations and new concepts along with their names were being borrowed directly from other languages as well. Many borrowed words from French became, of course, obsolete or disappeared from the language entirely. Here is a random selection of French loans adopted to Early Modern English: *entrance*, *prejudice*, *delicatessen*, *muscat*, *muscle*, *bayonet*, *docility*, *passport*, *pioneer*, *equip*.

3.3.1.3 Other European Languages

Although the total of loanwords from other European languages is not as extensive as those mentioned above, they are definitely worth looking at because it is the first time in history they can even form a group at all. Barber (1997) argues that most of the European influences come from Roman languages and distinguishing which language provided which word is sometimes particularly challenging as English often changed a word from one European source language, which then appeared as if it has come from a different one.

Spanish and Portuguese

First loanwords from Portuguese began to appear around 1500, Spanish borrowings approximately fifty years later, when they also reached their peak numbers due to the Golden Age of Spain (Durkin, 2014). The Portuguese ones are considerably less numerous; therefore, they can share a category. From the semantic point of view, they mainly reflect new concepts gained through colonialism, such as plants, animals, food, drink, culture etc. Examples with Spanish origin: *mosquito*, *tobacco*, *alligator*, *guitar*, *plaza* and some Portuguese loans: *mango*, *monsoon*, *piranha*.

Italian

During Renaissance period, which is an originally Italian creation, Italian loanwords increased rapidly. The highest number of words was borrowed around 1550 – 1600 and the most common semantic groups were following: plants, social groups, behaviour, architecture, warfare, finance. Pinnavaia (2001) offers a more detailed analysis on semantics of Italian loanwords in English. Examples of Italian loanwords: *archipelago*, *arsenal*, *percent*, *ballot*, *manage*, *post* (job position), *pistachio*, *macaroni*, *opera*, *balcony*, *miniature*, *umbrella*, *volcano*. A smaller number of Italian words were brought to English via French, such as *race* (ethnicity), *concert*, *to attack*, *pedal*, *parasol*, *risk*, *attitude*.

Dutch

Although Dutch had almost no impact on a high-frequency vocabulary, it still provided an overall higher number of loans than Celtic, which we mentioned in Old English period (Durkin, 2014). There are, however, some quite well-known words in Modern English worth introducing: *cruise*, *landscape*, *yacht*, *easel*, *reef*, *to split*, *slim*, *smuggler*, *kink* (knot).

3.4 Modern English

This period begins around the eighteenth century and still continues today. The eighteenth century is in the name of losing distinctive features of Early Modern English and reaching the English we know and use now. Written materials may still give a notion of formality, nobility and entail some archaic expressions but there is no need for the reader to study extensively. Although the language is fully comprehensible, there is some diversity in semantics and spelling. Crystal (2019) mentions narrowing and widening of meaning between then and now, e.g., Jane Austen uses the word *lounging* as *strolling* but nowadays we know *lounging* means a very different thing, however, it possessed both meanings when Jane Austen used it. This is an example of narrowing. The eighteenth century also showed a decline in borrowing words overall as the efforts to organize and standardize language were culminating (Durkin, 2014). Over 200 grammars were written during the second half of the century and many advanced dictionaries too, from which the most important at the time was Samuel Johnson's *A Dictionary of the English Language* (1775). Later, in 1828 Noah Webster created *An American Dictionary of the English language*, which was a two volume piece containing around 70,000 headings. The fact that Webster was an American brings us to the results of colonialism of the British Empire. Thanks to enormous expansion of British colonies English language reached all around the world creating a great variety of dialects and accents with developing distinctive features and of course, two national standards; American English and British English. Due to such diversity, the gap between standard and real spoken language was becoming gradually wider (Crystal, 2019). Latin was still the most generous donor of loanwords, however, loanwords began to be increasingly more distinguished in style and register or usage; especially professional discourse (Durkin, 2014).

After the limitation in accepting words from foreign languages in eighteenth century, nineteenth century brings an enormous spike in total of borrowed words due to Industrial Revolution, which suggest that the most loanwords were concerning evolving modern sciences, technology and novelty methods in various aspects of life. Latin served yet again as the top source language (around 1,000 – 2,000 words) leaving French far behind (around 500 words). Nevertheless, the total numbers of borrowings escalated rapidly during the Industrial Revolution. Durkin (2014) states that French borrowings from the nineteenth century are generally more specific and less influential, moreover, for the twentieth and twenty-first century may be classified among “other European Languages”. Examples of French loanwords: *chlorophyll*, *ampere*, *taxonomy*, *bauxite*. Latin, on the other hand,

affected not only the technological and scientific field (*symbiosis, diatom, gastritis*), but some loans were incorporated in vernacular discourse as well, e.g., *platinum, cocaine, bacterium, objectivity*. We will now introduce some other less generous yet important influences. The number of Dutch loans increased during the eighteenth century although the total number was in tens of words, which compared to Latin or French, seems rather negligible, nevertheless, the loans interpret the close relation of the Netherlands and England. The semantics include Dutch ways of life and thinking plus trading and colonialism, e.g., *walrus, soya* (through Japanese and Malay), *cookie, coleslaw* and *boss*. German began to evidently influence English in the eighteenth century and the most loanwords were borrowed in the second half of the nineteenth century (over 500 words). Pfeffer and Canon (1994) offer an extensive study on specific semantic groups of German loanwords, which suggests that the most productive fields are in descending order mineralogy (*cobalt, quartz*), chemistry, biology, geology, botany and so on. Some general terms with German origin are, e.g., *Zeitgeist, rucksack, doppelganger, kindergarten*. Of course, after the World Wars, many German words concerning the events and situations were spread worldwide, including *diktat, Nazi, Gestapo, Blitzkrieg* etc. Spanish and Portuguese were continuing in the way that was explained in the part 3.3.1.3 with a couple noticeable additions such as *canyon, tuna, oregano, rodeo, gazpacho, salsa, mojito, guacamole, fajita* and other words expressing newly learnt concepts from abroad. And last but not least, Italian borrowings do not increase any further since the Early Modern period, but the categories of food, drink and musical arts spike during the nineteenth century (*pesto, salami, pizza, pasta, risotto, cappuccino, spaghetti, soprano, duet, libretto, studio*). For further detail on Italian borrowed words in OED, see Pinnavaia (2001) and for extensive study on foreign influences in English throughout history see Durkin (2014).

4. METHODS OF RESEARCH

In the following chapter we analyse various text from the point of view of borrowed words. There is a number of different contemporary excerpts belonging to different genres and fields possessing different functions. They are divided to following categories: Poetry, Prose – fiction, Prose – Nonfiction. Each category includes texts from various semantic fields containing topical vocabulary, which is the main focus of the analysis. The aim is to present a spectrum of diverse both popular and professionally specific content in order to demonstrate the distinction in using borrowed words from different languages. We have already established the prevalent functions of some languages, so we know that some of them are inclined to be used in more formal register, some often belong to specific field of science or aspect of life. In the next chapter, we shall attempt to prove some of the general descriptions, however, the texts were selected more or less randomly to ensure an authentic result, therefore we might stumble upon some discrepancy from the main functions of the specific language, which only proves that no theory can be completely generalized.

The chosen texts were written mostly in the twenty-first century; some are older but were included on purpose due to their impact on our society or due to their specific vocabulary which is worth analysing. We will describe the loanwords' probable century (or more specific data if available) of entering English lexicon, language of origin, the form of the original word in comparison with the current form, meaning (if necessary) and any other interesting facts the borrowing may include, such as circumstances of adopting the particular word. Borrowings from Old English will be considered native English as they are mostly deeply rooted in the English lexicon and the result would be somewhat distorted if we were to analyse every item of basic vocabulary. We shall state up to 2 languages the particular word has visited, e.g., a word came from French to English and from Latin to French. The aim of the research is to detect and analyse words which have specific stylistic or lexical value. They may or may not be easily recognizable in the text at the first glance since such opinion is quite subjective and depends on many factors, e.g., level of experience of the reader. See part 2.3 of this thesis for more information on recognizing borrowed words. Each analysed text will be provided with a short commentary to summarize the result of the analysis. Eventually, we will comment on all the source languages occurring in the whole sample and establish the most influential ones within the analysed texts. The main sources of information for the analysis are Oxford Dictionary of Foreign Words & Phrases and Online Etymology Dictionary.

5. RESULTS AND COMMENTARY

In this part we present the results of an analysis of excerpts from various sources of various fields people encounter in everyday life, as well as in search for very specific information according to the methods mentioned in the previous chapter. For the full detailed description of individual loan words and expressions in every excerpt see the Appendix.

POETRY

1. *From Blossoms* by Li-Young Lee (*Rose*)

From laden boughs, from hands,
from sweet fellowship in the bins,
comes nectar at the roadside, succulent
peaches we devour, dusty skin and all,
comes the familiar dust of summer, dust we eat.

There are expressions that may be considered archaic (*boughs, laden*), which reach to the Old English era. Names related to plants (*nectar, succulent, peach*) are mostly of Latin origin and were borrowed either directly from Latin or via French. *Devour* is a rather poetic word with a similar meaning like *eat*, possibly borrowed in order to enrich English with a prestigious foreign word. *Skin* entered through Scandinavian influences with the original meaning of animal hide, which relates to hunting.

2. *Litany in Which Certain Things Are Crossed Out* by Richard Siken (*Crush*)⁵

I arrived in the city and you met me at the station,
smiling in a way
that made me frightened. Down the alley, around the arcade,
up the stairs of the building
to the little room with the broken faucets, your drawings, all your things,
I looked out the window and said
This doesn't look that much different from home,

⁵ This poem has been formally edited in order to suit the format of this thesis. The text remains the same.

because it didn't,
but then I noticed the black sky and all those lights.

This text contains mostly vocabulary related to everyday life in modern civilization (*station, alley, faucet, window*). Vocabulary concerning architecture (*arcade, alley*) was borrowed from French, with mostly Latin origin. *Arcade* has an interesting Italian form which created the basis for the word as we know it. Three everyday concepts (*window, sky, smile*) were borrowed from Scandinavian languages. *City* comes from the concept of citizenship and was borrowed from French, which borrowed it from Latin.

3. *Our Blue Bodies* by Warsan Shire (*Her Blue Body*)

I have dreamt of you suspended
in amniotic fluid, your hair fanned
out and alive, long again, before the cancer.
Undying, our movements synchronised,
us, tied together at the navel,
umbilical cord and all its length tugging
at me, far as it might extend.

This excerpt contains medical terms (*umbilical cord, cancer, amniotic*), which are all originally Latin or Greek. Many have entered English through French. *Cancer* was borrowed into Old English, which we do not consider a borrowing for this analysis but an interesting fact about the word is that the first original meaning was “crab” – an animal and “malignant tumour” came later but persisted until now. The first meaning “crab” is only used in astrology, where it describes a zodiac sign depicted by a crab. The only two words borrowed from a different language than Latin, French and Greek are *dream*, and *die* and entered via Scandinavian languages.

4. *Dunt: A Poem for a Dried up River* by Alice Oswald (*Falling Awake*)

Very small and damaged and quite dry,
a Roman water nymph made of bone
tries to summon a river out of limestone
very eroded faded

her left arm missing and both legs from the knee down
a Roman water nymph made of bones
tries to summon a river out of limestone

In the text there are some more formal equivalents of native English vocabulary (*damage – break, summon – call*), which illustrate unnecessary borrowing from French in order to gain prestige of the language. There is also a very basic piece of vocabulary coming from Scandinavian influence, *leg*. On the other hand, there is also an originally French word, which found its place in English core vocabulary, *very*, which shows that French provided formal and learned vocabulary as well as some basic lexical items.

5. *Milk and Honey* by Rupi Kaur

you look just like your mother
i guess i do carry her tenderness well
you both have the same eyes
cause we are both exhausted
and the hands
we share the same wilting fingers
but that rage your mother doesn't wear that anger
you're right
this rage is the one thing
i get from my father

This text is quite basic in vocabulary, therefore we encounter more influences apart from Latin and French, such as Dutch or German (*wilt*), Old Norse (*get, anger*) and Scandinavian (*guess*). An interesting finding may be that *rage* originally developed from Latin *rabies*, which now denotes an infectious disease. A basic expression which came from Latin is *carry*.

PROSE

Fiction

6. *The Fault in Our Stars* by John Green

And his eyes were the problem. He had some fantastically improbable eye cancer. One eye had been cut out when he was a kid, and now he wore the kind of thick glasses that made his eyes (both the real one and the glass one) preternaturally huge, like his whole head was basically just this fake eye and this real eye staring at you.

The majority of borrowed words in this text is, yet again, Latin or French (*basically, real, improbable, fantastic, preternatural*). These expressions are quite commonly used but one is rather specific - *preternatural* is not greatly used and there is probably no good synonym for it in this context. *Supernatural* would work but the connotation with this one is rather positive whereas *preternatural* here means rather *atypical* or *anomalous*. *Kid* is an informal and basic word coming from Old Norse and its only meaning used to be “young goat”. *Fake* is an interesting example of a word with unknown origin with a rich evolutionary process. It was first attested in London criminal slang in 1775 as “counterfeit” and almost forty years later as “to rob”. Its possible source is German (*fegen*) or Latin (*facere*) but since it developed on the edge of society, it is difficult to trace the origin.

7. *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban* by J. K. Rowling.

But the dementor didn't move, so Lupin muttered something, and a silvery thing shot out of his wand at it, and it turned around and sort of glided away. . . .”

“It was horrible,” said Neville, in a higher voice than usual. “Did you feel how cold it got when it came in?”

“I felt weird,” said Ron, shifting his shoulders uncomfortably.

“Like I'd never be cheerful again. . . .” (...)

Malfoy gave Professor Lupin an insolent stare, which took in the patches on his robes and the dilapidated suitcase.

J. K. Rowling uses names that are often derived from Latin and possess a meaning that is specific for the object or character which they belong to. We have *dementor* and *Lupin* here. *Malfoy* is a proper name belonging to a negative character, which is represented by *mal-*, which in Latin means *bad*. *Mutter* is a word, which is supposedly common for many Indo-European languages as it comes from Proto-Indo-European, a common ancestor of them. And again, the majority of all borrowed words are from French

and/or Latin, including *move*, *voice*, *usual*, *suitcase*, *around*, which are all basic. Old Norse brought *wand* and *get*. An interesting fact is that the word *dilapidate* comes from Latin words *lapis*, which means stone and the original meaning was “to throw stones at something or destroy with stones”.

8. *Martian* by Andy Weir

I awoke to the oxygen alarm in my suit. A steady, obnoxious beeping that eventually roused me from a deep and profound desire to just fucking die.

The storm had abated; I was facedown, almost totally buried in sand. As I groggily came to, I wondered why I wasn't more dead.

The antenna had enough force to punch through the suit and my side, but it had been stopped by my pelvis. (...)

After a while, the CO₂ (carbon dioxide) absorbers in the suit were expended.

This sample contains some scientific terms from chemistry (*carbon*, *oxygen*), which are new terms coined by a French scientist Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier and were based on Greek and Latin terms and also biology (*pelvis*, *antenna*), which entered English directly from Latin. There is also a vulgarism (*fucking*), which has an obscure origin as it was taboo for a long time. Some possible sources may be Scandinavian (*fukka*), Swedish (*focka*), Latin (*fuccant*), Dutch (*fokken*) or German (*ficken*).

9. *Midnight's Children* by Salman Rushdie

Now, looking out of his window, he sees it echoed on a wall opposite; and there, on the minaret of a mosque; and in the large black type of newsprint under a hawker's arm. Leaflet newspaper mosque and wall are crying: Hartal! Which is to say, literally speaking, a day of mourning, of stillness, of silence. But this is India in the heyday of the Mahatma, when even language obeys the instructions of Gandhiji, and the word has acquired, under his influence, new resonances.

As this excerpt belongs to the genre of magic realism, there are some examples of oriental culture vocabulary (*minaret*, *mosque*, *Hartal*, *Mahatma*). *Minaret* was borrowed from French but originates in Arabic and was influenced by Turkish before it arrived into English. *Mahatma* is a very interesting word as it came from Sanskrit, the classical Indian

literary language, and ultimately based on PIE⁶ prefix (**meg-*⁷) meaning a person with supernatural powers. *Mosque* was borrowed from French (*mosquée*), which comes from Italian (*moschea, moscheta*) and Spanish (*mosquita*) and ultimately from Arabic (*masjid*). *Hartal* was borrowed from Hindi (*hartal*) meaning “locking shops” and the original comes from Sanskrit (*hatta* = shop, *tala* = lock). There are two examples of borrowings from Latin without the help of French (*echo, type*). *Hey* in *heyday* is an interjection which probably evolved in English alongside other “*hey*” forms in other languages, e.g., Greek *eia*, German *hei*, Old French *hay*, French *eh*.

10. *1984* by George Orwell

You believed that three men, three one-time Party members named Jones, Aaronson, and Rutherford – men who were executed for treachery and sabotage after making the fullest possible confession – were not guilty of the crimes they were charged with. You believed that you had seen unmistakable documentary evidence proving that their confessions were false. There was a certain photograph about which you had a hallucination.

This text contains some vocabulary related to crime, law and its breaking (*execute, treachery, sabotage, confession, crime*), which were all borrowed from French. The basic word *mistake* comes from a Germanic or Scandinavian source. *Photograph* was created in England but has Greek origins which reach to the Proto-Indo-European language. *Hallucination* was directly borrowed from Latin. The rest of the borrowings come from French.

Nonfiction

11. *Sapiens: A Brief History of Humankind* by Yuval Noah Harari

Biologists classify organisms into species. Animals are said to belong to the same species if they tend to mate with each other, giving birth to fertile offspring. Horses and donkeys have a recent common ancestor and share many physical traits. But they show little sexual interest

⁶ Proto-Indo-European language

⁷ Words written with an asterisk (*) are not attested in any written source, the word is only a reconstruction of its probable form.

in one another. They will mate if induced to do so – but their offspring, called mules, are sterile. Mutations in donkey DNA can therefore never cross over to horses, or vice versa.

Most of this text's vocabulary concerns biology, which itself is an originally Greek term which entered English not too long ago (1819) in comparison with other borrowings. *Organism, species, fertile, animal, physical, sexual, sterile, mutation* are all originally Latin, however, some of them entered English via French (*organism, fertile, sterile*). As we can see, very basic words, such as names of animals are originally English (*horse, donkey, mule*). *Call* and *birth* are both from Old Norse and belong to core vocabulary. *Mate* came from Middle Low German.

12. *Into the Wild* by John Krakauer

Gallien thought the hitchhiker's scheme was foolhardy and tried repeatedly to dissuade him: "I said the hunting wasn't easy where he was going, that he could go for days without killing any game. When that didn't work, I tried to scare him with bear stories. I told him that a twenty-two probably wouldn't do anything to a grizzly except make him mad. Alex didn't seem too worried. 'I'll climb a tree' is all he said. So I explained that trees don't grow real big in that part of the state, that a bear could knock down one of them skinny little black spruce without even trying.

We can observe that this text is not particularly formal, which also ensures relatively small amount of borrowed words overall. There is also a higher number of expressions with Scandinavian origin, *skinny, seem, scare*, which belong to everyday vocabulary. *Scheme* is originally a Greek word. Of course, there is still a majority of French and Latin loanwords (*foolhardy, repeat, dissuade, easy, story, probably, grizzly, except, explain* etc.) as they are the main source languages for English, but the general observation is that the more colloquial the text, the more native or Scandinavian words are present. An interesting fact is hidden behind the word *spruce*, which comes from French and was named after *Prussia* – a region in Germany and the literal sense used to be “from Prussia”.

13. *The Subtle Art of Not Giving a F*ck: A Counterintuitive Approach to Living a Good Life* by Mark Manson

Give a fuck about a new TV. Give a fuck about having a better vacation than your coworkers. Give a fuck about buying that new lawn ornament. Give a fuck about having the right kind of selfie stick. Why? My guess: because giving a fuck about more stuff is good for business. And while there's nothing wrong with good business, the problem is that giving too many fucks is bad for your mental health. It causes you to become overly attached to the superficial and fake, to dedicate your life to chasing a mirage of happiness and satisfaction.

This excerpt is even more informal than the previous one and the vocabulary is rather basic, therefore relatively small amount of borrowed words is present, however, the last sentence allows us to see the contrast between formal and informal register. In a single sentence there is almost as many borrowed words as in the rest of the text, mostly borrowed from French or via French from Latin (*cause, attach, chase, mirage, satisfaction*) or directly from Latin (*superficial, delicate*). *Fake* is a word of unknown origin but there is some speculation about its source as we have already mentioned in excerpt number six.

14. *Astrophysics for People in a Hurry* by Neil deGrasse Tyson

Dark energy, a fundamental property of the cosmos, will, in the end, undermine the ability of future generations to comprehend the universe they've been dealt. Unless contemporary astrophysicists across the galaxy keep remarkable records and bury an awesome, trillion-year time capsule, future scientists will know nothing of galaxies—the principal form of organization for matter in our cosmos—and will thus be denied access to key pages from the cosmic drama that is our universe.

This excerpt contains many examples of topical vocabulary concerning astrophysics (*energy, cosmos, universe, astrophysicist, galaxy, matter*), which are mostly from French, Latin or ultimately from Greek (*astrophysicist* is a compound of *astro-*, which is Greek and *physicist*, which was coined by Rev. William Whewell in 1836) as well as the rest of the borrowed words except for one. *Awesome* comes from Old Norse and the original meaning was scary or frightful. The register of this text is very formal and the style learned, therefore it contains many borrowings mostly of French, Latin or Greek origin.

15. *A System of Mineralogy* by James Dwight Dana

To the Iron group of elements belong calcium, magnesium, aluminium, beryllium, copper, cobalt, nickel, zinc, chromium (in part), manganese (in part), lead (in part), etc. Among oxyds, the atomic ratio 2 : 2 occurs in the ordinary protoxyds, having the formula RO, as ordinarily written (...).

We have already learnt that German provided English vocabulary with many terms from the field of mineralogy and this excerpt is a good example (*cobalt, zinc*). There is also one term from Swedish, which, however, was created by translating a German word (*nickel*). Some terms were created by English scientists, therefore cannot be marked exactly as borrowed words but their origin is foreign, so I decided to include them (*calcium, magnesium, aluminium, oxyd*). *Manganese* was borrowed from French which borrowed it from Italian as well as the word *group*.

6. CONCLUSION

At the end of this thesis we must admit that it is surprising how great a part of English vocabulary borrowed words make. Some are easily recognizable but other were surprisingly foreign and although the percentage of borrowings had been known before analysing the excerpted texts it was overwhelming. This thesis has demonstrated properly the enormous impact of foreign languages on the English lexis. Although we focused on the main and most important issues related to borrowing, the topic is so broad and complex that we could not describe everything there is to say as the process of borrowing continues and most probably always will. Languages evolve alongside people and new concepts that need to be named are being created possibly every day.

The research proved that the most influential source languages are French and Latin. The results show that not only learned and scientific vocabulary was borrowed from these two languages, but also quite basic everyday items, however, there was a noticeable difference between the number and the origin of loanwords in formal and informal register. We tend to use more French, Latin or Greek terms in formal discourse, which proves that the prestige of French and Latin we described in the historical part of this thesis, is still rooted in English. Many items of core vocabulary were either native English or borrowed from Old Norse as the two languages co-existed on the same land for many years. Some languages provided more expressions from specific semantic fields, such as German, which enriched English lexicon with many terms related to mineralogy. The analysis shows that the vast majority of borrowed words came from French, but in many cases the borrowing was originally Latin or Greek. We discovered some loanwords from Italian, which belong to the semantic group of architecture and science (mathematics and chemistry). Some quite specific cultural vocabulary, which became a part of English lexicon, was found in the excerpt by Salman Rushdie. Latin, Greek and French borrowings cover many semantic groups. The analysis shows, e.g., law and crime, biology, chemistry, astrophysics and medicine. Another finding the research shows is that the majority of borrowed words in all analysed texts entered English in the fourteenth century or around the year 1300. This group makes almost a third of all analysed loanwords. The second most numerous group is thirteenth century and around the year 1200 with roughly half of the fourteenth century group total. The general observation is that the more scientific or specific an expression is, the later its entrance into English, which is logical since the new expressions come with the new concept they denote.

Finally, I would like to say that studying borrowed words in depth was challenging but I am satisfied to say that I understand English language and its journey much better than before and I am looking forward to learning more about this extensive linguistic phenomenon, which will always be topical.

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APPENDIX

Texts and a detailed analysis:

POETRY

1. *From Blossoms* by Li-Young Lee (*Rose*)

From laden boughs, from hands,
 from sweet fellowship in the bins,
 comes nectar at the roadside, succulent
peaches we devour, dusty skin and all,
 comes the familiar dust of summer, dust we eat.

nectar – 1550s, Latin (*nectar*), a drink of gods, c. 1600 meaning sweet liquid in flowers.

succulent – c. 1600, French (*succulent*), Latin (*succulentus*) juicy, having juice.

peach – c. 1400 (*peche*), French (*pesche*), fruit of the peach tree, Medieval Latin (*pesca*).

devour – early 14c. (*devouren*), to eat up entirely, Old French (*devorer*), Latin (*devorare*).

skin – c. 1200 Old Norse (*skinn*), animal hide, fur, German (*schinden*), skin.

familiar – mid 14c. Old French (*famelier*) friendly, Latin (*familiaris*) private, friendly.

2. *Litany in Which Certain Things Are Crossed Out* by Richard Siken (*Crush*)⁸

I arrived in the city and you met me at the station,
smiling in a way
 that made me frightened. Down the alley, around the arcade,
 up the stairs of the building
 to the little room with the broken faucets, your drawings, all your things,
 I looked out the window and said
This doesn't look that much different from home,
because it didn't,
 but then I noticed the black sky and all those lights.

⁸ This poem has been formally edited in order to suit the format of this thesis. The text remains the same.

arrive – c. 1200, Anglo-French (*ariver*), to come to land.

city – c. 1200, Old French (*cite*), Latin (*civitas*), originally citizenship, later community of citizens.

station – late 13c., Old French (*stacion, estacion*), site, location, Latin (*statio*), a standing. The meaning regular stopping place in 1797 related to buses, 1830 related to trains.

smile – c. 1300, Scandinavian source (Danish *smile*, Swedish *smila*) or perhaps Middle Low German (**smilen*)⁹.

alley – mid 14c. Old French (*alee*), passage between buildings, *ale* = past participle of *aler* (to go)

arcade – 1731 (*arcado* from 1640) via French (*arcade*), which probably comes from Italian (*arcata*), arch of a bridge, from Latin (*arcus*), arch.

faucet – c. 1400, Old French (*fausset*), peg of a barrel.

window – c. 1200, Old Norse (*vindauga*), literally “wind eye”.

different – late 14c. Old French (*different*), Latin (*differens*).

because – late 14c. Modeled on French *per cause*, literally “by cause”. cause – c. 1200 from Old French (*cause*), Latin (*causa*).

notice – early 15c. Old French (*notece*), Latin (*notitia*).

sky – c. 1200, Old Norse (*sky*), meaning cloud.

3. *Our Blue Bodies* by Warsan Shire (*Her Blue Body*)

I have dreamt of you suspended
 in amniotic fluid, your hair fanned
 out and alive, long again, before the cancer.
Undying, our movements synchronised,
 us, tied together at the navel,
umbilical cord and all its length tugging
 at me, far as it might extend.

⁹ Words written with an asterisk (*) are not attested in any written source, the word is only a reconstruction of its probable form.

dream – mid 13c. probably Old Norse (*draumr*), Swedish (*dröm*).

suspend – c. 1300, Old French (*suspendre*), remove from office, or directly from Latin (*suspendere*), to kill by hanging.

amniotic – 1822 from amnion – 1660s, Modern Latin, from Greek (*amnion*), membrane around fetus.

fluid – 1660s from fluid (adj.) – early 15c. Old French (*fluide*), Latin (*fluidus*), liquid capable of flowing.

cancer – Old English *cancer*, from Latin (*cancer*) meaning crab, later malignant tumour. Greek (*karkinos*).

undying – c. 1300 from die – mid. 12c. Old Danish (*døja*) or Old Norse (*deyja*).

movement – 14c. Old French (movement), Medieval Latin (movimentum).

synchronize – 1620s from Greek (*synkhronizein*), be of the same time.

umbilical – 1540s, Medieval Latin (*umbilicalis*), “of the navel”.

cord – c. 1300, Old French (*corde*), Latin (*chorda*).

umbilical cord – first attested around 1753, the native term is *navel string*, from umbilical – 1540s, Medieval Latin (*umbilicalis*) meaning “of the navel” and cord – c. 1300, Old French (*corde*), Latin (*chorda*).

extend – early 14c. Old French (*estendre*), Latin (*extendere*).

4. *Dunt: A Poem for a Dried up River* by Alice Oswald (*Falling Awake*)

Very small and damaged and quite dry,
a Roman water nymph made of bone
tries to summon a river out of limestone
very eroded faded

her left arm missing and both legs from the knee down
a Roman water nymph made of bones
tries to summon a river out of limestone

very – late 13c. Anglo French (*verrai*), Old French (*verai*).

damage – early 14c. Old French (*damagier*).

nymph – late 14c. Old French (*nimphe*), directly from Latin (*nympha*), demi-goddess, bride, young woman.

summon – c. 1200, directly from Old French (*somonre*), Latin (*summonere*).

river – early 13c., Anglo-French (*rivere*) Old French (*riviere*).

erode – 1610s, back-formation from erosion – 1540s, French (*erosion*), Latin (*erosion*).

fade – early 14c. Old French (*fader*), become weak or (*fade*, adj.), pale, weak.

leg – late 13c., Scandinavian influence, probably Old Norse (*leggr*).

5. *Milk and Honey* by Rupi Kaur

you look just like your mother
 i guess i do carry her tenderness well
 you both have the same eyes
cause we are both exhausted
 and the hands
 we share the same wilting fingers
 but that rage your mother doesn't wear that anger
 you're right
 this rage is the one thing
 i get from my father

guess – c. 1300, perhaps Scandinavian (Danish *gitse*, Old Norse *geta*) or Middle Dutch (*gessen*).

carry – early 14c., Anglo-French (*carier*), Late Latin (*carricare*).

tender – early 13c. Old French (*tender*), Latin (*tener*).

cause – short for because – late 14c. Modelled on French *per cause*, literally “by cause”.

cause – c. 1200 from Old French (*cause*), Latin (*causa*).

exhausted – mid 17c. from (*exhaust*) – 1530s, Latin.

wilt – 1960s, probably Middle Dutch or Middle Low German (*welken*).

rage – c. 1300, Old French (*rage*), Latin (*rabies*), madness, fury.

anger – mid 13c., Old Norse (*angr*) distress, grief, sorrow.

get – c. 1200, Old Norse (*geta*), to obtain.

PROSE

Fiction

6. *The Fault in Our Stars* by John Green

And his eyes were the problem. He had some fantastically improbable eye cancer. One eye had been cut out when he was a kid, and now he wore the kind of thick glasses that made his eyes (both the real one and the glass one) preternaturally huge, like his whole head was basically just this fake eye and this real eye staring at you.

problem – late 14c. Old French (*problème*), directly from Latin (*problema*).

fantastic – late 14c. Old French (*fantastique*), Medieval Latin (*fantasticus*).

improbable – 1590s, from probable – late 14c. Old French (*probable*), Latin (*probabilis*).

kid – c. 1200, Old Norse (*kið*), young goat. Meaning “child” first as slang in 1590s, then in informal usage by 1840s.

real – 14c. Old French (*reel*), Latin (*realis*).

preternatural – 1570s, from Medieval Latin (*preternaturalis*), meaning beyond nature

huge – mid 12c. Old French (*ahuge*, *ahoge*).

basically – 1930s from basic – 1832, originally in chemistry, from base – early 14c. Old French (*bas*), meaning depth, Latin (*basis*).

just – c. 1400, Old French (*juste*), directly from Latin (*iustus*).

fake – unknown origin, attested in London criminal slang 1775 as *counterfeit*, in 1812 as *rob*. A likely source is German (*fegen*), polish, plunder or Latin (*facere*), to do.

7. *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban* by J. K. Rowling.

But the dementor didn't move, so Lupin muttered something, and a silvery thing shot out of his wand at it, and it turned around and sort of glided away. . . .”

“It was horrible,” said Neville, in a higher voice than usual. “Did you feel how cold it got when it came in?”

“I felt weird,” said Ron, shifting his shoulders uncomfortably.

“Like I’d never be cheerful again. . . .” (...)

Malfoy gave Professor Lupin an insolent stare, which took in the patches on his robes and the dilapidated suitcase.

dementor – referring to an evil creature, probably from Latin (*demens*), insane.

move – late 13c. Anglo-French (*mover*), Old French (*mouvoir*).

Lupin – proper name probably from Latin (*lupus*), wolf.

mutter – early 14c. Proto-Indo-European (**mut-*), to grunt, also Old Norse (*muðla*).

wand – c. 1200, Old Norse (*vondr*), rod.

around – c. 1300, from round – Anglo-French (*rounde*), Old French (*roont*).

sort – late 14c., Old French (*sorte*), Latin (*sortem*).

horrible – c. 1300, Old French (*horrible, orrible*), Latin (*horribilis*).

voice – late 13c., Old French (*voiz*), Latin (*vocem*).

usual – late 14c. Old French (*usuel*), Late Latin (*usualis*), Latin (*usus*).

get – c. 1200, Old Norse (*geta*), to obtain.

uncomfortable – early 15c., from comfortable – mid 14c., Anglo-French and Old French (*confortable*).

cheerful – c. 1400, from cheer – c. 1200, Anglo French (*chere*), Old French (*chiere*), face, Late Latin (*cara*), face.

professor – late 14c., Old French (*professeur*), directly from Latin (*professor*).

insolent – late 14c. Latin (*insolens*), arrogant.

patch – late 14c. Old North French (*pieche*) or Old English (*cladflyhte*). The origin of this word is uncertain.

robe – late 13c. Old French (*robe*), Germanic source (*rouba*).

dilapidated – 1806 from dilapidate – 1560s, Latin (*dilapidatus*) to waste, originally to throw stones (*lapis* – stone).

suitcase – 1898, from suit – c. 1300, Anglo-French (*suit*), Old French (*suite*) and case – early 14c., Anglo-French (*casse*), Latin (*capsa*).

8. *Martian* by Andy Weir

I awoke to the oxygen alarm in my suit. A steady, obnoxious beeping that eventually roused me from a deep and profound desire to just fucking die.

The storm had abated; I was facedown, almost totally buried in sand. As I groggily came to, I wondered why I wasn't more dead.

The antenna had enough force to punch through the suit and my side, but it had been stopped by my pelvis. (...)

After a while, the CO2 (carbon dioxide) absorbers in the suit were expended.

oxygen – 1790 from French (*oxygène*) coined in 1777 by chemist Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier, Greek (*oxys*), sharp, acid.

alarm – late 14c., Old French (*alarme*), Italian (*all'arme*), “to arms!”.

suit – c. 1300, Anglo-French (*suit*), Old French (*suite*).

obnoxious – 1580s, Latin (*obnoxiosus*), hurtful.

eventually – 1670s, from eventual – 1610s, French (*éventuel*), Latin (*event-*, stem of *evenire*), to come out. Meaning “ultimately resulting” by 1823.

rouse – mid 15c. Anglo-French or Old French (*reuser*, *ruser*), Latin (*recusare*), refuse.

profound – c. 1300, Old French (*profont*, *profund*), Latin (*profundus*), deep, vast.

desire – c. 1300, Old French (*desir*).

just – c. 1400, Old French (*juste*), directly from Latin (*iustus*).

fucking – 1893, probably older, from fuck – 16c. or older, uncertain origin, perhaps Scottish - Scandinavian origin (*fukka*) or Swedish (*focka*), to copulate and *fock*, penis. Other theories propose Latin origin (*fuccant*) or Dutch (*fokken*), German (*ficken*), etc.

die – mid 12c. probably Old Danish (*døja*) or Old Norse (*deyja*).

abate – c. 1300, Old French (*abatre*), beat down, destroy.

facedown – from face – c. 1300, Old French (*face*), Latin (*facies*).

totally – c. 1500, from total – late 14c., Old French (*total*), Medieval Latin (*totalis*).

antenna – 1640s, Latin (*antenna, antemna*), perhaps Proto-Indo-European root *temp-, to stretch.

force – c. 1300, Old French (*force*).

punch – late 14c., Old French (*ponchonner*).

pelvis – 1610s, Latin (*pelvis*).

carbon dioxide – 1869, from carbon – 1789, coined in 1787 by Lavoisier, Latin (*carbo*) and oxygen (see above).

absorb – early 15c. Old French (*absorbir*), Latin (*absorbere*)

expend – early 15c., Latin (*expendere*), pay out.

9. *Midnight's Children* by Salman Rushdie

Now, looking out of his window, he sees it echoed on a wall opposite; and there, on the minaret of a mosque; and in the large black type of newsprint under a hawker's arm. Leaflet newspaper mosque and wall are crying: Hartal! Which is to say, literally speaking, a day of mourning, of stillness, of silence. But this is India in the heyday of the Mahatma, when even language obeys the instructions of Gandhiji, and the word has acquired, under his influence, new resonances.

window – c. 1200, Old Norse (*vindauga*), literally “wind eye”.

echo – mid 14c., Latin (*echo*), Greek (*echo*).

opposite – late 14c. Old French (*opposite*), Latin (*oppositus*).

minaret – 1680s, French (*minaret*), Turkish pronunciation of Arabic (*manarah, manarat*).

mosque – 1717, earlier *moseak* c. 1400, from French (*mosquée*), Italian (*moschea, moscheta*), Spanish (*mesquita*).

large – c. 1200, Old French (*large*), Latin (*largus*).

type – late 15c., Latin (*typus*), Greek (*typos*).

newsprint – 1903 from news - late 14c. after French (*nouvelles*) from new (Old English), and print – c. 1300, Old French (*preinte*), Latin (*premere*).

newspaper – 1660s, from news (see above) and paper - mid 14c., Anglo-French (*paper*), Old French (*papier*), directly from Latin (*papyrus*).

cry – mid 13c., Old French (*crier*).

Hartal – early 20c. Hindi (*hartal*), locking of shops, Sanskrit (*hatta* = shop, *tala* = lock).

literally – 1530s, from literal - late 14c., Late Latin (*literalis*), belonging to letters or writing.

silence – c. 1200, Old French (*silence*), Latin (*silentium*).

heyday – late 16c. as exclamation, from hey - c. 1200, possibly a natural expression, also in other languages (Greek *eia*, German *hei*, Old French *hay*, French *eh*).

Mahatma – 19 – 20c. from Sanskrit (*mahatman*), maha = great, from PIE (**meg-*). Meaning a person with supernatural powers, here personal name.

language – late 13c., Old French (*langage*), Latin (*lingua*).

obey – c. 1300, Old French (*obeir*), Latin (*obedire*).

instruction – c. 1400, Old French (*instruccion*), Latin (*instructionem*)

acquire – mid 15c., Old French (*aquerre*).

influence – late 14c. Old French (*influence*), power from the stars that guides our destiny. Medieval Latin (*influentia*).

resonance – mid 15c., Old French (*resonance*), directly from Latin (*resonantia*).

10. *1984* by George Orwell

You believed that three men, three one-time Party members named Jones, Aaronson, and Rutherford – men who were executed for treachery and sabotage after making the fullest possible confession – were not guilty of the crimes they were charged with. You believed that you had seen unmistakable documentary evidence proving that their confessions were false. There was a certain photograph about which you had a hallucination.

party – c. 1300, Old French (*partie*), side, part, division, Latin (*partire/partiri*)

member – c. 1300 Old French (*membre*), body part or organ, Latin (*membrum*), meaning belonging to a group from mid 14c.

execute – late 14c. Old French (*executer*), Medieval Latin (*executare*), meaning to perform capital punishment from late 15c.

treachery – c. 1200, Old French (*trecherie, tricherie*) from trick – early 15c., Old North French (*trique*), probably Vulgar Latin (**tricare*).

sabotage – 1907, from French (*sabotage*) from sabot = wooden shoe worn by peasants

possible – mid 14c., Old French (*possible*), directly from Latin (*possibilis*), from posse = be able.

confession – late 14c., Old French (*confesion*), Latin (*confessio*).

crime – mid 13c. Old French (*crimne*), Latin (*crimen*).

charge – c. 1200, Old French (*charge*), Late Latin (*carricare*).

unmistakable – 1660s, from mistake – mid 14c. from Germanic prefix mis- or Scandinavian source – Old Norse (*mistaka*).

documentary – 1788, from document – early 15c., Old French (*document*), written evidence, directly from Latin (*documentum*), example, proof, lesson.

evidence – c. 1300, Old French (*evidence*), Late Latin (*evidentia*).

prove – c. 1200, Old French (*prover*), Latin (*probare*).

certain – c. 1300, Old French (*certain*).

photograph – 1839 coined by English photography pioneer Sir John Herschel. From Greek (*photo-*), light, from PIE (**bha-*), to shine, and Greek (*-graphos*), -writing, -writer.

hallucination – 1640 from Latin (*hallucinatio*), seeing or hearing something which is not there.

Nonfiction

11. *Sapiens: A Brief History of Humankind* by Yuval Noah Harari

Biologists classify organisms into species. Animals are said to belong to the same species if they tend to mate with each other, giving birth to fertile offspring. Horses and donkeys have a recent common ancestor and share many physical traits. But they show little sexual interest

in one another. They will mate if induced to do so – but their offspring, called mules, are sterile. Mutations in donkey DNA can therefore never cross over to horses, or vice versa.

biologist – 1813, from biology – 1819 from Greek (*bios*), life.

classify – 1782, from French (*classifier*) from class – 1600 from French (*classe*) meaning a group of student.

organism – 1660s from organize – early 15c., Old French (*organiser*), directly from Medieval Latin (*organizare*).

species – late 14c. from Latin (*species*), a kind, type.

animal – early 14c. Latin (*animale*).

tend – early 14c., Old French (*tender*), Latin (*tendere*), to stretch, extend.

mate – c. 1500 from mate (n.) – mid 14c., Middle Low German (*mate, gemate*).

birth – mid 13c. in the sense of giving birth, Old Norse (**byrðr*).

fertile – mid 15c., Old French (*fertil*), directly from Latin (*fertilis*).

recent – early 15c., Latin (*recens*).

common – c. 1300, Old French (*comun*), general, Latin (*communis*), public, general, familiar.

ancestor – c. 1300, Old French (*ancestre, ancessor*), Late Latin (*antecessor*).

physical – early 15c., Medieval Latin (*physicalis*) from Latin (*physica*), study of nature.

trait – late 15c., French (*trait*), stroke, line, Latin (*tractus*), drawing, pulling. Meaning particular feature first in 1752.

sexual – 1650s, Late Latin (*sexualis*), Latin (*sexus*).

interest – mid 15c., Old French (*interest*), Latin (*interest*).

induce – late 14c., Latin (*inducere*).

call – mid 13c., Old Norse (*kalla*), to cry loudly, call by name, name

sterile – mid 15c., Old French (*stérile*), Latin (*sterilis*).

mutation – late 14c., Old French (*mutacion*), directly from Latin (*mutatio*).

vice versa – c. 1600, Latin *vice* = change, alternation and *versa* (*versus*) = to turn.

12. *Into the Wild* by John Krakauer

Gallien thought the hitchhiker's scheme was foolhardy and tried repeatedly to dissuade him: "I said the hunting wasn't easy where he was going, that he could go for days without killing any game. When that didn't work, I tried to scare him with bear stories. I told him that a twenty-two probably wouldn't do anything to a grizzly except make him mad. Alex didn't seem too worried. 'I'll climb a tree' is all he said. So I explained that trees don't grow real big in that part of the state, that a bear could knock down one of them skinny little black spruce without even trying.

hitchhiker – 1927, from hitchhike (n.) – 1921, from hitch – mid 15c. probably from Middle English, unknown origin and hike – 1809, to walk vigorously, unknown origin.

scheme – 1550s, Medieval Latin (*schema*), Greek (*skhēma*), the meaning plan of action by 1718.

foolhardy – mid 13c. from fool – early 13c., Old French (*fol*) and hardy – c. 1200, Old French (*hardi*), bold, brave.

try – c. 1300, Anglo-French (*trier*), Old French (*trier*).

repeated – 1610s, from repeat – late 14c., Old French (*repeater*), Latin (*repetere*).

dissuade – 1510s, French (*dissuader*), directly from Latin (*dissuadere*).

easy – c. 1200, Old French (*aisie*) meaning at ease, sense of not difficult from late 13c.,

scare – 1590s, Middle English (*skerren*), Old Norse (*skirra*).

story – c. 1200, Old French (*estorie, estoire*), Late Latin (*storia*) shortened Latin *historia*.

probably – mid 15c., from probable – late 14c., Old French (*probable*), Latin (*probabilis*).

grizzly (bear) – 1806 from grizzle – mid 14c., Old French (*grisel*), gray.

except – late 14c., Old French (*excepter*), Latin (*exceptus* – past participle of *excipere*), to take out.

seem – c. 1200, Old Norse (*soema*).

explain – early 15c., Latin (*explanare*).

real – early 14c., Old French (*reel*), Late Latin (*realis*).

part – mid 13c. Old French (*part*), Latin (*pars*).

state – c. 1300 meaning country, from state – 1200, Old French (*estat*), position, status and directly from Latin (*status*).

skinny – c. 1400 from skin – c. 1200, Old Norse (*skinn*).

spruce – 1660s, Old French (*Prussia* – region in Germany).

13. *The Subtle Art of Not Giving a F*ck: A Counterintuitive Approach to Living a Good Life*
by Mark Manson

Give a fuck about a new TV. Give a fuck about having a better vacation than your coworkers. Give a fuck about buying that new lawn ornament. Give a fuck about having the right kind of selfie stick. Why? My guess: because giving a fuck about more stuff is good for business. And while there's nothing wrong with good business, the problem is that giving too many fucks is bad for your mental health. It causes you to become overly attached to the superficial and fake, to dedicate your life to chasing a mirage of happiness and satisfaction.

fuck – 1893, probably older, from fuck – 16c. or older, uncertain origin, perhaps Scottish - Scandinavian origin (*fukka*) or Swedish (*focka*), to copulate and *fock*, penis. Other theories propose Latin origin (*fuccant*) or Dutch (*fokken*), German (*ficken*), etc.

TV – 1948, from television – 1907 formed in English or borrowed from French television, from vision – c. 1300, Anglo-French (*visioun*), Old French (*vision*).

vacation – late 14c., Old French (*vacacion*), Latin (*vacationem*).

lawn – 1540s, Middle English (*launde*), Old French (*lande*).

ornament – c. 1200, Old French (*ornament*), directly from Latin (*ornamentum*).

guess – c. 1300, perhaps Scandinavian (Danish *gitse*, Old Norse *geta*) or Middle Dutch (*gessen*).

because – late 14c. Modeled on French *per cause*, literally “by cause”. cause – c. 1200 from Old French (*cause*), Latin (*causa*).

stuff – early 14c. Old French (*estoffe*), Old High German (*stopfon*).

problem – late 14c. Old French (*problème*), directly from Latin (*problema*).

mental – early 15c. Late Latin (*mentalis*).

cause – late 14c., Old French (*causer*) and directly from Medieval Latin (*causare*).

attach – mid 14c., Old French (*atachier*).

superficial – late 14c., late Latin (*superficialis*) of or pertaining to the surface. Meaning “without thorough understanding” early 15c.

fake – unknown origin, attested in London criminal slang 1775 as *counterfeit*, in 1812 as *to rob*. A likely source is German (*fegen*), polish, plunder or Latin (*facere*), to do.

delicate – late 14c., Latin (*delicates*).

chase – c. 1300, Old French (*chacier*), Latin (*captare*), to hold.

mirage – 1800 in French works, from *se mirer* = to be reflected. Latin (*mirare*).

satisfaction – early 14c., Old French (*satisfaction*), latin (*satisfactio*).

14. *Astrophysics for People in a Hurry* by Neil deGrasse Tyson

Dark energy, a fundamental property of the cosmos, will, in the end, undermine the ability of future generations to comprehend the universe they’ve been dealt. Unless contemporary astrophysicists across the galaxy keep remarkable records and bury an awesome, trillion-year time capsule, future scientists will know nothing of galaxies—the principal form of organization for matter in our cosmos—and will thus be denied access to key pages from the cosmic drama that is our universe.

energy – 1590s, French (*énergie*), Late Latin (*energia*).

fundamental – mid 15c., modelled on Late Latin (*fundamentalis*), from fundament – late 13c., Old French (*fondement*), foundation, Latin (*fundamentum*).

property – c. 1300, Anglo-French modification of Old French (*proprete*), directly from Latin (*proprietaem*).

cosmos – c. 1200, not popular until 1848, from Latinized form of Greek (*kosmos*).

ability – late 14c. Old French (*ableté*), Latin (*habilitatem*).

future – late 14c., Old French (*future*), Latin (*futurus*).

generation – early 14c., Old French (*generacion*) and directly from Latin (*generatio*).

comprehend – mid 14c., Latin (*comprehendere*).

universe – 1580s, Old French (*univers*), from Latin (*universum*).

contemporary – 1630s, Medieval Latin (*contemporarius*), from temporal – late 14c., Old French (*temporal*), Latin (*temporalis*).

astrophysicist – 1869 from astro – mid 18c., Greek (*astro-*) and physicist – 1836 coined by Rev. William Whewell.

across – c. 1200, Anglo-French (*an cros*), “on cross,” cross – Old English

galaxy – late 14c., French (*galaxie*), directly from Late Latin (*galaxias*).

remarkable – 17c., from remark – 1630s, modelled on French *remarquer*.

record – c. 1300, Old French (*record*), Medieval Latin (*recordum*)

awesome – 1590s, meaning very good by 1961, from awe – c. 1300 from Old Norse (*agi*), fright.

trillion – 1680s, French (*trillion*), Italian (*trilione*), from million – late 14c., Old French (*million*), Italian (*millione*).

capsule – 1650s, French (*capsule*), Latin (*capsula*).

future – late 14c, Old French (*future*), Latin (*futurus*).

scientist – 1834 coined from Latin (*scientia*) by Rev. William Whewell.

principal – c. 1300, Old French (*principal*), directly from Latin (*principalis*).

organization – early 15c., Medieval Latin (*organizatio*), from organ – 12c., Old English + Old French, meaning “constitution” from 1873.

matter – c. 1200, Anglo-French (*matere*), Old French (*matere*), directly from Latin (*materia*).

deny – early 14c., Old French (*denoier*), latin (*denegare*).

access – early 14c., Old French (*accés*), Latin (*accessus*).

page – 1580s, French (*page*), Old French (*pagene*). Earlier *pagine* – c. 1200, Old French or Latin.

drama – 1510s, Late Latin (*drama*), Greek (*drama*).

15. *A System of Mineralogy* by James Dwight Dana

To the Iron group of elements belong calcium, magnesium, aluminium, beryllium, copper, cobalt, nickel, zinc, chromium (in part), manganese (in part), lead (in part), etc. Among oxyds, the atomic ratio 2 : 2 occurs in the ordinary protoxyds, having the formula RO, as ordinarily written (...).

group – 1690s, French (*groupe*), Italian (*gruppo*), meaning assemblage by 1736

element – c. 1300, Old French (*element*), Latin (*elementum*).

calcium – 1808 coined by Sir Humphry Davy, from Latin (*calx*, genitive *calcis*).

magnesium – 1808 coined by Sir Humphry Davy from magnesia – late 14c., Medieval Latin (*magnesia*), Greek (*Magnesia*).

aluminium – 1812 coined by Sir Humphry Davy, from French (*alumina*).

beryllium – 1863, from beryl – c. 1300 Old French (*beryl*), Latin (*beryllus*).

cobalt – 1680s, German (*kobold*), household goblin.

nickel – 1755, coined in 1754 by Swedish mineralogist Axel von Cronstedt who shortened *kopparnickel* = “copper-coloured ore”, from German *Kupfernickel*.

zinc – 1650s, German (*Zink*), Old High German (*zint*).

chromium – 1807, Latinized from French (*chrome*), Greek (*chroma*).

part – mid. 13c., Old French (*part*), Latin (*pars*).

manganese – 1670s, French (*manganese*), Italian (*manganese*).

oxyd – from oxide – 1790, French (*oxide*), coined by Louis-Bernard Guyton de Morveau and Antoine Lavoisier.

atomic – 1670s as philosophical term, 1811 scientific sense, from atom – late 15c., Latin (*atomus*).

ratio – 1630s, Latin (*ratio*).

occur – 1520s, French (*occurrer*), Latin (*occurrere*).

ordinary – c. 1400, Old French (*ordinarie*), Latin (*ordinaries*).

formula – 1630s, Latin (*formula*).

SUMMARY IN CZECH

Tato práce se zabývá tématem přejatých slov v anglickém jazyce a skládá se ze tří hlavních částí. První z nich poskytuje čtenáři teoretické informace potřebné k porozumění terminologie vztahující se k přejímání, druhá část krátce popisuje vývoj anglického jazyka a působení cizích jazyků na slovní zásobu napříč historií a poslední část je věnována výzkumu přejatých slov v různých současných literárních žánrech vztahujících se k různým vědním oborům, aspektům života či specifickým potřebám čtenářů. Tato diverzita poskytuje autentický výběr úryvků, který je k analýze takto širokého a komplexního problému, jakým jsou přejatá slova, potřeba. Cílem práce bylo demonstrovat vliv cizích jazyků na angličtinu a pokusit se rozlišit, jak se přejatá slova z různých jazyků používají v promluvě. Tento cíl byl splněn a výzkum potvrdil, že přejatá slova tvoří velmi důležitou část anglické slovní zásoby a že nejvýznamnější zdrojové jazyky jsou latina a francouzština. Tyto jazyky poskytly angličtině škálu přejatých slov z různých sémantických oblastí, zvláště vědy, a obecná tendence je taková, že používáme více přejatých slov z latiny a francouzštiny za účelem obohatit promluvu o formální a naučné výrazy.