

Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

Fakulta filozofická

Bakalářská práce
The Type of Old English and Modern English

Karolína Machová

Plzeň 2012

Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

Fakulta filozofická

Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Studijní program Filologie

Studijní obor Cizí jazyky pro komerční praxi

angličtina - němčina

Bakalářská práce

**THE TYPE OF OLD ENGLISH AND MODERN
ENGLISH**

Karolína Machová

Vedoucí práce:

PhDr. Robert Vorel CSc.

Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Fakulta filozofická Západočeské univerzity v Plzni

Plzeň 2012

Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracovala samostatně a použila jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

Plzeň, duben 2012

.....

Acknowledgement

I take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to my supervisor, PhDr. Vorel Robert, CSc., for her helpfulness and kind attitude as well as for good advice on every issue.

Contents:

1.Introduction	1
History of English	3
2. Old English	4
2.1.The Jutes, Saxons, and Angles	4
2.2.Old English Grammar	5
2.3.Vocabulary	7
2.3.1.The effect of Latin	8
2.3.2.The effect of Norse	10
3.Middle English	11
3.1.Middle English Grammar	13
3.2.Vocabulary – the rise of French	14
4. Norman English	17
5. English during the Renaissance	12
5.1. Some Renaissance loan words in English	13
5.2.The main influences on the development of the language	20
5.2.1.William Shakespeare	20
6. Modern English	23
6b..Lexical structure – Word formation	24
6.1. Affixation/Derivation	24
6.2. Compounding or Composition	26
6.3.Conversion	28
6.4.Coinage	28
6.5. Borrowing or Loan Words	29
6.6.Abbreviations	30
6.6.1.Initialism	30
6.6.2.Acronyms	30
6.6.3.Facetious forms	30
6.6.4.Blending	31
6.5.5.Clipping or shortening	21
7.Lexical dimension	32
7.1.Jargon	32
7.2.Slang	33
7.2.1.1Rhyming slang	35
7.2.1.2.Cockney Rhyming Slang	36
7.3.Argot	40
8.English spelling system	27
8.1.Long and short vowels and consonant in Old English	42
8.1.1.The Great Vowel Shift	43
9. Part II: Practical Part	45
10. Conclusion	54
11. Abstrakt	56
12. References	58
13. Bibliography	60

1. INTRODUCTION

This bachelor thesis is concerned with the differences between Old and Modern English as seen in the title. The history of English is a fascinating field of study on its own, but it also provides a perspective for the contemporary study of the language. The historical account of English enables us to find coherence in many of the fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language use. The aim of this work is to map particular periods of the English language, to approach this issue on the basis of given examples taken from Old and present-day English and to provide readers with brief theory.

The thesis is divided into two main sections. The first section is more or less a theoretical introduction of the topic but there are also some examples of words which had to be looked up in a dictionary, concerning with origins of loan words of particular periods in English history. The first section begins with a general outline of brief historical facts of particular periods in evolution of English language where the attention is drawn to the evolution of English language during the period of Old English (Anglo-Saxons English), Middle English, Norman English, and English during the Renaissance, especially in the field of lexicology and grammar. Further the lexical structure-word formation, which is an integral part of speech, comes into focus. Followed by chapter dealing with lexical dimension where the issue of use of jargon, slang, and argot has been discussed. In this section is also a subchapter concerned with Cockney Rhyming Slang, which is generally believed to have originated in the underworld of London in the middle of the nineteenth century to outwit the inquisitive eavesdropper. And the last chapter deals with the issue of English spelling system, where also the Great Vowel Shift has been described.

In total the first main section has eight chapters and various subchapters.

The second main section, the practical part, concerns with the everyday Cockney Rhyming Slang use. The author tries to approach

everyday use of Cockney by examples which had been found in several newspapers published in the UK. For better understanding readers can find a glossary of used expressions bellow particular articels, extracts from newspapers which were found by means of background research.

The thesis contains the sort of information provided by printed and internet sources.

The findings of the thesis - to map particular periods of the English language, to approach this issue on the basis of given examples taken from Old and present-day English and to provide with brief theory.

The history of English

The Anglo-Saxon corpus of poetry and prose provides the first opportunity to examine the linguistic evidence. The first texts, dating from around 700, are glossaries of Latin words translated into OE, and a few early inscriptions and poems. But very little material remains from this period. The chief literary work that survives in a single copy, made around 1000, is the heroic poem Beowulf - there are number od short poems, again almost entirely preserved in late manuscripts, over half of them concerned with Christian subjects – legends of the saints and extracts from the Bible. Several others reflects the germanic tradition, dealing with such topics as war, travelling, patriotism, and celebration. Most extant OE texts were written in the period following the reign King Alfred, who arraged for many Latin works to be translated.

The works give a brief account of the sounds, spellings, grammar, and vocabulary which they display. A similar account is given of the Middle English period, beginning with the effects on the language of the French invasion and concluding with a discussion of the origins of Standard English.

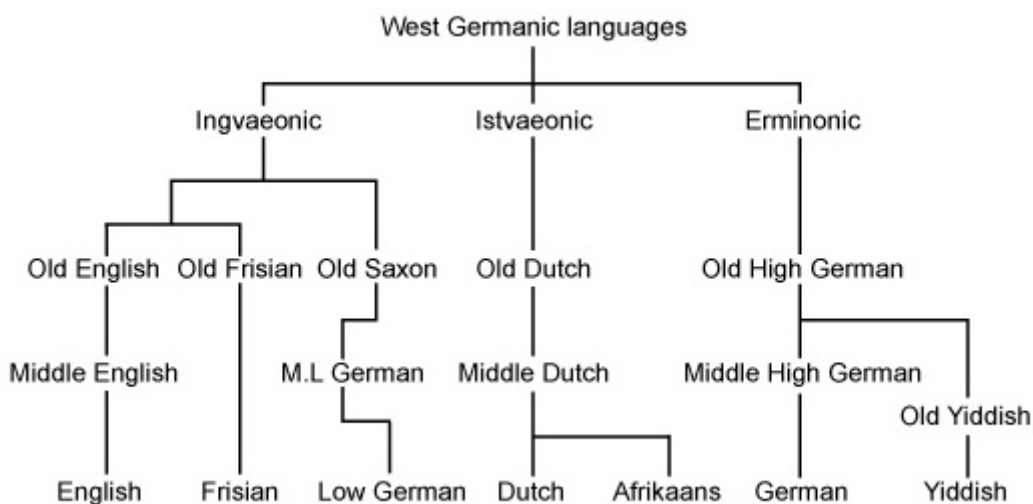
The Early Modern English period begins with the English of Caxton and the Renaissance, continues with that of Shakespeare and the King James Bible, and ends with landmark publication of Johnson's Dictionary. A reccuring theme is the extend and variety of language change during this period.

Then Modern English, follow futher language changes, has been influenced by new attitudes in the English speaking countries.

2. OLD ENGLISH

Old English(OE) or Anglo-Saxon is an early form of the English language that was spoken and written by the Anglo-Saxons and their descendants in parts of what are now England and southern and eastern Scotland between at least the mid-5th century and the mid-12th century. What survives through writing represents primarily the literary register of Anglo-Saxon. Although the name Anglo-Saxon was changed for OE and this term has been preferred since the 19th century.

It is a West Germanic language closely related to Old Frisian. West Germanic language is a subcategory of Germanic languages including English, Dutch, Frisian, German, the Scandinavian languages (Danish, Faroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish), and a number of derived languages (Yiddish from German, Afrikaans from Dutch).¹



2.1. The Jutes, Saxons, and Angles

“**The Jutes** were a Germanic people who, according to Bede, were one of the three most powerful Germanic peoples of their time. They are believed to have originated from Jutland in modern Denmark Southern

Schleswig and part of the East Frisian coast. The Jutes, along with some Angles, Saxons and Frisians, sailed across the North Sea to raid and eventually invade Great Britain from the late 4th century onwards, either displacing, absorbing, or destroying the native Celtic peoples there. According to Bede, they finally settled in Kent, Hampshire and the Isle of Wight (where they became known as the *Uictuarii*). There are a number of toponyms that attest to the presence of the Jutes in the area, such as *Ytene*, which Florence of Worcester states was the contemporary English name for the New Forest. The culture of the Jutes of Kent shows more signs of Roman, Frankish, and Christian influence than that of the Angles or Saxons. Right angles and Saxons were other Germanic peoples.

Saxons were a confederation of Germanic tribes on the North German plain, who during the Middle Ages migrated to the British Isles and formed part of the Anglo-Saxons. Saxons participated in the Germanic settlement of Britain during and after the fifth century. It is unknown how many migrated from the continent to Britain, though estimates for the total number of Anglo-Saxon settlers are around two hundred thousand. During the Middle Ages Saxons mixed with and had strong influences upon the languages and cultures of the North Germanic and Baltic and Finnic peoples, and also upon the Polabian Slavs and Pomeranian West Slavic people.

Angles is a modern English term for a Germanic people who took their name from the ancestral cultural region of Angeln, a district located in Schleswig-Holstein, Germany. The Angles were one of the main groups that settled in Britain in the post-Roman period, founding several of the kingdoms of Anglo-Saxon England, and their name is the root of the name England"

2.2. Old English Grammar

OE had a grammar similar in many ways to Classical Latin, and was much closer to modern German and Icelandic than modern English in

most respects, including its grammar. It was fully inflected with five grammatical cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and instrumental), two grammatical numbers (singular and plural) and three grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter). First and second person personal pronouns also had dual forms for referring to groups of two persons, in addition to the usual singular and plural forms.

“The instrumental case was somewhat rare and occurred only in the masculine and neuter singular; it could typically be replaced by the dative.

Adjectives, pronouns and (sometimes) participles agreed with their antecedent nouns in case, number and gender. Finite verbs agreed with their subject in person and number.

Old grammar provides a fascinating mixture of the familiar and the unfamiliar. The word order is much more varied than it would be in Modern English, but there are several places where it is strikingly similar. Adjectives usually go before their nouns, as do prepositions, articles, and other grammatical words, just as they today. The main syntactic differences affect the placing of the verb, which quite often appears before the subject, and also at the very end of the clause. In Modern English, word order is relatively fixed. The reason OE order could vary so much is that the relationship between the parts of the sentence were signalled by other means. Like other Germanic languages, Old English was inflected. Today, most of these inflections have died away, leaving the modern reader with the major task of getting used to the word endings, in order to understand.”²

Nouns came in numerous declensions (with deep parallels in Latin, Ancient Greek and Sanskrit). Verbs came in nine main conjugations (seven *strong* and two *weak*), each with numerous subtypes, as well as a few additional smaller conjugations and a handful of irregular verbs. The main difference from other ancient Indo-European languages, such as Latin, is that verbs can be conjugated in only two tenses (vs. the six "tenses" — really tense/aspect combinations — of Latin), and have no synthetic passive voice (although it did still exist in Gothic).

Gender in nouns was grammatical, as opposed to the natural gender that prevails in modern English. That is, the grammatical gender of a given noun did not necessarily correspond to its natural gender, even for nouns referring to people. For example, *sēo sunne* (*the Sun*) was feminine, *se mōna* (*the Moon*) was masculine, and *þat wif* "*the woman/wife*" was neuter. (Compare German cognates *die Sonne*, *der Mond*, *das Weib*.) Pronominal usage could reflect either natural or grammatical gender, when it conflicted.

2.3. Vocabulary

Christian missionaries from Ireland and Rome not only did they introduce literacy, they also brought with them a huge Latin vocabulary. The Anglo-Saxons had already encountered Latin as used by the Continental Roman armies and the Romano-British, but only a few vulgar Latin words had come into OE as a result. The missionary influence resulted in new words coming into the language. The new vocabulary was mainly to do with the Church and its services, theology, and learning, but there were also many biological, domestic, and general words, most of which have survived in Modern English.

The loans came in over a long time scope, and differed in character. Up to c.1000, many continued to arrive from spoken Latin, and these tended to relate more to everyday matters. After c. 1000 the vocabulary

came from classical written sources, and is much more scholarly and technical. Many of these words (such as *collectaneum* and *epactas*³) did not survive – though several were to be reincarnated some time later in a second stage of classical borrowing.

2.3.1. The effect of Latin⁴

Early Latin loans (before 1000)		
<u>Ecclesiastical</u>		
Abbadissa	>	abudesse ,abbess‘
Altar	>	alter ,altar‘
Apostolus	>	apostol ,apostle‘
Culpa	>	cylpe ,fault‘
Missa	>	maesse ,Mass‘
Nonnus	>	nonne ,monk‘
Offerre	>	offrian ,sacrifice‘
Praedicare	>	predician ,preach‘
Scole	>	scol ,school‘
Versus	>	fers ,verse‘
<u>General</u>		
Calendae	>	calend ,month‘
Cavellum	>	caul ,basket‘
Epistula	>	epistol ,letter‘
Fenestra	>	fenester ,window‘
Lilium	>	lile ,lily‘
Organum	>	orgel ,organ‘
Picus	>	pic ,pike‘
Planta	>	plant ,plant‘
Rosa	>	rose ,rose‘
Studere	>	studdian ,take care of‘

Late Latin loans (after 1000)		
<u>Ecclesiastical</u>		
Apostata	>	apostata ,apostate‘
Chrisma	>	crisma ,chrism‘
Clericus	>	cleric ,clerk‘
Credo	>	creda ,creed‘
Crucem	>	cruc ,cross‘
Daemon	>	demon ,demon‘
Discipulus	>	discipul ,disciple‘
Paradisus	>	paradis ,paradise‘
Prior	>	prior ,prior‘
Sabbatum	>	sabbat ,sabbath‘
<u>General</u>		
Bibliotheca	>	bibliopece ,library‘
Chorus	>	chor ,choir‘
Delphinus	>	delfin ,dolphin‘
Grammatica	>	grammatic ,grammar‘
Hymnus	>	ymen ,hymn‘
Mechanicus	>	mechanisc ,mechanical‘
Persicum	>	persic ,peach‘
Philosophus	>	philosph ,philosopher‘
Scultula	>	scutel ,scuttle, dish‘

And a few more Latin Loans

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

2.3.2. The effect of Norse

The second big linguistic invasion came as a result of the Viking raids on Britain, that began in AD 787 and continued at intervals for some 200 years. Regular settlement began in the mid-9th century, and within a few years the Danes controlled most of eastern England. By the Treaty of Wedmore the Danes agreed to settle only in the north-east third of the country.

The linguistic result had heavy influence from Old Norse, a member of the related North Germanic group of languages. Anglo-Saxons and Norse were getting along very well and right that caused the huge impact on use of Norse words and pronouns. As a result there is a large number of settlements with Danish names that appeared in England. There are over 1.500 such place names, especially in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire.

“Over 600 end in *-by* such as *Derby, Rugny, Naseby, Grimsby*, etc. Many of the remainder end in *-thorp* (‘village’), as in *Althorp, Astonthorpe, and Linthorpe*. *-thwaite* (‘clearing’), as in *Braithwaite, Applethwaite, and Storthwaite*; and *-toft* (‘homestead’), as in *Lowwerstoft, Eastoft, and Sandtoft*.”⁵

There was also a marked increase in personal names of Scandinavian origin, such as *Jackson, Henderson, and Davidson*. And many general words entered the language, eventually becoming part of Standard English. Only 150 of these words appear in OE manuscripts, and in the northern manuscripts of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. They include *landing, score, beck, fellow, system, husting, and streesman*, as well as many other words which did not survive in later English. The majority of loan words do not begin to appear until the early 12th century. These include many of our modern words which use [sk-] sounds (an Old Norse Feature), such as *skirt, sky, and skin*. Some of the commonest words in Modern English came into the language at the time, such as *both, same, get, and give*. Even the personal pronoun system was

affected with *they*, *them* and *their* replacing the earlier forms. And the most remarkable invasion of all – Old Norse influenced the verb *to be*. The replacement of *sindon* by *are* is almost certainly the result of Scandinavian influence, as in the spread of the 3rd person singular –s ending in the present tense in other verbs.⁶

Few more Norse Loans

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

3. MIDDLE ENGLISH

The year 1066 marks the beginning of a new social and linguistic era in Britain, but it does not actually identify the boundary between Old and Middle English.

“It was a long time before the effects of the Norman invasion worked their way into the language, and OE continued to be used meanwhile. Even a century later, texts were still being composed in the West Saxon variety that had developed in the years following the reign of King Alfred*.

This period is called Middle English and runs from the beginning of the 12th century until the middle of the 15th. It is a difficult period to define because of the changes taking place between the much more distinctive and identifiable worlds of OE and Modern English. The manuscripts give an impression of considerable linguistic variety and rapid transition. The gradual decay of Anglo-Saxon traditions and literary practices, overlapping with the sudden emergence of

French and Latin literacy, gives much of this period an elusive and unfocused character. It is not until 1400 that a clear focus emerges, in the work of Chaucer, but by then the period is almost over. Chaucer himself is more often seen as a forerunner of Modern English poetry than as a climax to Middle English.“⁷

During the 11th and 12th centuries a fundamental change in the structure of English took place. Grammatical relationship in OE had been expressed by the use of inflectional endings. In Middle English, they came to be expressed chiefly by word order. Why did this change take place?

About one fact there is no doubt. There are clear signs during the OE period of the decay of the inflectional system. When several of the old endings are still present in the 12th-century text of the Peterborough Chronicle opposite, but they are not used with much consistency, and they no longer seem to play an important role in meaning.

But the most obvious explanation of decaying of the inflectional endings is that it became difficult to hear them, because of the way words were stressed during the evolution of the Germanic languages.

Because of the main stress at the beginning of a word it could be an auditory problem at the end. This is especially so when there are several endings which are phonetically very similar, such as *-en*, *-on*, and *-an*. In rapid conversational speech it would be difficult to distinguish them and this “neutralization“ of vowel qualities undoubtedly affected the OE system.

Other Germanic languages also had a strong initial stress, but the greatest change was in English.. During the period of the Danelaw*, they argued that the contact between English and Scandinavian would have

led to the emergence of a pidgin-like variety of speech between the two cultures. As with pidgins everywhere, there would have been a loss of words endings, and greater reliance on word order.

The Peterborough Chronicle extract of the OE tendency to put the object before the verb. The subject-Verb-Object order has become firmly established by the beginning of the Middle English period.

3.1. Middle English Grammar

The loss of inflections was not a sudden process. Their disappearance could be seen throughout the whole of the Middle English period, affecting different parts of the country at different times. Moreover, the switch from a synthetic to an analytic type of grammar is not the whole story of Middle English. There were also other changes taking place in other parts of the grammatical system.

“There was already tendency towards Subject-Verb-Object order in OE and this was now consolidates in some constructions and extended to others.

Prepositions became particularly critical when a noun endings were lost. For example, where OE would have said *pæm scipum*, with a ‚dative‘ ending on both the words for ‘the’ and ‘ship’, Middle English came to say *to the shippes*, using a preposition and the common plural ending. The only noun case survive into Modern English was the genitive (‘s or s’ in writing) and some of the personal pronouns also kept the old accusative form: he vs him, she vs her, etc.

The endings of the verb remained close to those of OE during this period. Most verbs would have had the following forms (Chaucer’s English for turnen ‚turn‘), ignoring certain dialect differences, such as the northern use of –es instead of –eth.“

	Present tense	Past tense
(I)	turn(e)	turned(e)
(thou)	turnest	turnedest
(he/she/it)	turneth	turned(e)
(we/you/they)	turne(n)	turned(en)

“The final simplification to the modern system, where we have only *turn* and *turns* in the present tense, and *turned* throughout the past, took place after the Middle English period.”⁸

3.2. Vocabulary - the rise of French

The main influence on English was French – strictly, Norman French, the language that was introduced to Britain by invader.

“Following William of Normandy’s accession, French was rapidly established in corridors of power. French-speaking barons were appointed, who brought over their own retinues. Soon after, French speaking abbots and bishops were in place. Lanfranc, Abbot of St Stephen’s at Caen, was made Archbishop of Canterbury as early as 1070. And almost within 20 years all the religious houses were under French-speaking superiors.”⁹

During the 12th century, English became more used among the upper classes, and there was an enormous amount of intermarriage with English people.

By the end of the 12th century some children spoke English as a mother tongue, and had to learn French in school. French continued to be used in Parliament, in public proceedings, and the courts.

“From 1204 the political climate change a lot. King John of England came into conflict with King Philip of France, and was obliged to give up control of Normandy. The English nobility lost their estates in France, and the antagonism grew between the two countries, leading ultimately to the Hundred Years War*. The status of French diminished and English was used for the first time at the opening of Parliament.

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

Administration

Authority, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council, court, crown, duke, empire, government, liberty, maesty, manor, mayor, messenger, minister, palace, parliament, prince, reign,royal, servant, statute, tax

Law

Accuse, advocate, arrest, assize, bail, bar, blame, convict, crime, depose, estate, evidence, executor, fine, inquest, jail, judge, legacy, pardon, plea, prison, punishment

Religion

Abbey, baptism, cardinal, chaplain, charity, clergy, communion, confess, convent, faith, immortality, incense, mercy, miracle, penance, prayer, priory, religion

Military

Ambush, archer, army, barbican, battle, captain, defend, enemy, guard, navy, peace, retreat, soldier, spy

Food and drink

Appetite, bacon, beef, biscuit, clove, confection, cream, date, dinner, fruit, grape, gravy, herb, jelly, limon, lettuce, mince, mustard, olive, orange oyster, plate, pork, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, spice

Leisure and the arts

Art, beauty, carol, colour, conversation, dance, fool, image, jollity, juggler, lay, melody, poet, prose, revel, rhyme, romance, sculpture, stable, stallion, story, tabor, title, tournament, tragedy, volume

Science and learning

Anatomy, calendar, copy, gender, geometry, grammar, logic, medicine, metal, noun, pain, physician, poison, sphere, square, stomach, study

The home

Basin, blanket, cellar, chair, chamber, chimney, couch, curtain, lamp, latch, lattice, pillar, porch, towel, tower

General nouns

Action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage, courtesy, debt, dozen, error, face, fault, flower, forest, honour, joy, labour, manner, marriage, mischief, mountain, noise, number, ocean, opinion, people, poverty, power, reason, river, scandal, season, sound

General adjectives

Active, amorous, blue, brown, calm, certain, cruel, curious, easy, final, foreign, gay, gentle, honest, horrible, large, mean, nice, original, perfect, poor, real, safe, second, simple, single, solid, strange, sure

General verbs

Advise, allow, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy, enter, form, grant, inform, join, marry, move, pass, please, prefer, prove, quit, receive, refuse, reply, save, suppose, travel

Turns of phrase

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

4. NORMAN ENGLISH

Anglo-Norman, also known as Anglo-Norman French, is the name given to the dialect of the Old Norman language used in England, and in the British Isles, during the Anglo-Norman period in which the Anglo-Normans were mainly the descendants of the Normans who ruled England following the Norman conquest by William the Conqueror in 1066.

A small number of Normans were already settled in England prior to the conquest. But then following the Battle of Hastings, the invading Normans formed a different population in Britain, parts of Wales and, after 1169, in Ireland. Over time their language evolved from the continental Old Norman to the distinct Anglo-Norman language.

A new Norman influence was brought into the English Court by the election of the Anglo-Norman Edward the Confessor as king, but both French and Scandinavian influences still appeared for a while with several Danes holding senior court positions. Despite the extensive period of settlement and Danish becoming the language of power for a

generation, the huge impact of Scandinavian words on Old English vocabulary continued to be slight during the eleventh century. When all the Scandinavian words that entered OE between the ninth and the twelfth centuries are counted, there is a small total – about 150 words. And only some twenty-five words from this period survived into Modern English.

5. ENGLISH DURING THE RENAISSANCE

During the 16th century there was a flood of new publications in English, bustled by a renewed interest in the classical languages and literatures, and in the rapidly developing fields of science, medicine, and the arts. This period was to be called the ‚Renaissance‘, and it included the Reformation, the discoveries of Copernicus, and the European exploration of Africa and the Americas.

The focus of interest was vocabulary. There were no words in the language to talk about the new concepts, techniques, and inventions which were coming from Europe, and so writers began to borrow them from other languages; especially from Greek, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese.

“Then, as the period of World-wide exploration got under way, words came into English from over 50 other languages, including several indigenous languages of North America, Africa, and Asia. Some words came into English directly; others came by way of intermediate language. Many came indirectly from Latin or Italian via French.

Some writers went out of their way to find new words, in order to ‚enrich‘ the language. They saw their role as enabling the new learning to be brought within the reach of the English public. There were many translations of classical works during the 16th century, and thousands of Latin or Greek terms were introduced, as translators searched for an

English equivalent and could not find one. English was felt as an anopropriate vehicle for the expressions of the new learning.“¹

The increase in foreign borrowings is the most distinctive linguistic sign of Renaissance in English. Purist opinion did not, in the event, stem the influx of new words – nor has it ever, in the history of this language.

5.1..Some Renaissance loan words in English¹²

From Latin and Greek

Absurdity, adapt, agile, alienace, allusion, anachronism, anonymous, appropriate, assassinate, atmosphere, autograph, benefit, capsule, catastrophe, chaos, conscipicouus, contradictory, crisis, criterion, critic, delirium, denunciation, disability, disrespect, emancipate, emphasis, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, epilepsy, eradicate, exact, exaggerate, excavate, excursion, exist, expectation, expensive, explain, external, extinguish, fact, glottis, habitus, halo, immaturity, impersonal, inclemency, jocular, lexicon, lunar, monopoly, monosyllable, necessitate, obctruction, pankreas, parasite, parenthesis, pathetic, pneumonia, relaxation, relevant, scheme, skeleton, soda, species, system, temperature, thermometer, tonic, transcribe, utopian,vacuum, virus

From or via French

Alloy, anatomy, battery, bayonet, bigot, bizzare, chocolate, colonel, comrade, detail, docility, duel, entrance, equip, explore, grotesque, invite, moustache, muscle, naturalize, pasport, pioneer, probability, progress, shock, surpass, ticket, tomato, vase, vogue, volunteer

From or via Italian

Argosy, balcony, ballot, cameo, carnival, concreto, cupola, design, fuse, giraffe, grotto, lottery, macaroni, opera, piazza, portico, rocket, solo, sonata, sonnet, strano,violin, volcano

From or via Spanish and Portuguese

Alligator, anchovy, apricot, armada, banana, barricade, bravado, cannibal, canoe, cockroach, cocoa, corral, depserado, embargo, guitar, hammock, hurricane, maize, mosquito, mulatto, negro, potato, port (wine); rusk, sombrero, tank, Tobago, yam

From other languages

Bamboo (Malay), bazaar (Persian), caravan (Persian), coffee (Turkish), cruise (Dutch), curry (Tamil), flannel (Welsh), guru (Hindi), harem (Arabic), ketchup (Malay), kiosk (Turkish), landscape (Dutch), rouble (Russian), sago (Malay), shekel (Hebrew), shogun (japanese), troll (Norwegian), trousers (Irish Gaelic), turban (Persian), yacht (Dutch)

5.2. The main influences on the development of the language

All textbooks of the English history agree that the two most important influences on the development of the language during the final decades of the Renaissance are the works of William Shakespeare (1564-1616) and the King James Bible of 1611.

The Shakespearean impact on the language was chiefly in the area of the lexicon. His work also provides countless instances of the way English was developing at the time, and illustrations from his poems and plays are unavoidable in any discussion of contemporary pronunciation, word formation, syntax or language use. In return, the studies of Renaissance language in general have contributed many insights into Shakespeare's own use of language.

5.2.1. William Shakespeare (1546-1616)

Shakespeare's reputation as dramatist and poet actor is unique and he is considered by many to be the greatest playwright of all time, although many of the facts of his life remain mysterious.

William Shakespeare was born in Stratford-upon-Avon in Warwickshire and was baptised on 26 April 1564. His father was a glovemaking and wool merchant and his mother, Mary Arden, the daughter of a well-to-do local landowner.

Shakespeare was probably educated in Stratford's grammar school. The next documented event in Shakespeare's life is his marriage in 1582 to Anne Hathaway, daughter of a farmer. The couple had a daughter the following year and twins in 1585.

In about 1591 he moved to London and became an actor. The first evidence of his association with the stage is in 1594, when he was acting with the Lord Chamberlain's company of players, later 'the King's Men'. When the company built the Globe theatre, he became a partner and lived modestly in his own house. Then he returned to Stratford, where he spent the last five years of his life in Stratford, by now a wealthy man. He died on 23 April 1616 and was buried in Holy Trinity Church in Stratford. The first collected edition of his works was published in 1623 and is known as 'the First Folio'.

Idiomatic expressions:

The jump from quotation to everyday idiom is sometimes not great, as the following examples illustrate. All were introduced by Shakespeare and have become part of the idiomatic expression of the modern language. Here are some examples that can be found in the Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English language by David Crystal.

- “what the dickens (The Merry Wives of Windsor, III,ii)
- beggars all description (Antony and Cleopatra, II. ii)
- a foregone conclusion (Othello, III.iii)
- hoist with its own petard (Hamlet, III.iv)
- in my mind's eye (Hamlet, I.ii)
- caviare to the general (Hamlet, II.ii)
- it's Greek to me (Julius caesar, I.ii)

salad says (Antony and Cleopatra, I.v)
 play fast and loose (Anthony and Cleopatra, IV.xii)
 a tower of strength (Richard III,V.iii)
 make a virtue of necessity (Pericles, I.iii)
 dance attendance (Henry VIII, V.ii)
 cold comfort (King John, V.vii)
 at one fell swoop (Macbeth, IV.iii)
 to the manner born (Hamlet, I.iv)
 brevity is the soul of wit (Hamlet, II.ii)
 I must be cruel only to be kind (Hamlet, III.iv)
 our yesterdays (Macbeth, V.v)‘

5.2.2.The King James Bible

In the year that Shakespeare retired from writing for the stage, 1611, the ‘Authorized Version‘ or King James Bible was published. It was never in fact authorized by any parliamentary process, but its title-page states that it was appointed to be read in churches throughout the kingdom, and in this way its influence on the population, and on the language at large, was to be far-reaching.

Biblical Idiom:

There are many phrases in the King James Bible which have entered the general idiom of the language (sometimes with minor changes in grammar or emphasis. Here are some examples that can be found in the Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English language by David Criystal.

“My brother’s keeper
 A good old age
 Eye for eye
 To spy out the land
 The apple of his eye
 The people arose as one man

A man after his own heart
 A still small voice
 The root of the matter
 The skin of my teeth
 His enemies shall lick the dust
 Go from strength to strength
 A lamb brought to the slaughter
 Can the leopard change his spots?
 Cast your pearls before swine
 The straight and narrow
 If the blind lead the blind
 New wine in old bottles
 The signs of the time
 All things to all men
 Money is the root of all evil
 To the pure all things are pure“

“The style of the King James Bible is much more conservative than that found in Shakespeare. The text does not contain large numbers of new words, as Shakespeare’s plays did. One estimate finds in it only about 8,000 different words, which is less than half of the Shakespearean total.”¹³

6. MODERN ENGLISH

During the 18th century, English loses the most noticeable remaining features of structural difference which distance the Early Modern English period from us. By the end of that century, with but a few exceptions, the spelling, punctuation, and grammar are very close to what they are today.

6b. LEXICAL STRUCTURE- WORD FORMATION

Most English vocabulary arises by making new lexemes out of old ones - either by adding an affix to previously existing forms, altering their word class, or combining them to produce compounds. Almost any lexeme, whether Anglosaxon or foreign, can be given an affix, change its word class, or help make a compound.

“Word formation is a particular process of creating a new word. It is a general term for the creation of new lexemes. A lexeme is an abstract category which may be manifested as one or more word-forms.”¹⁴

There are various theories of word formation.

There are several types of forming words:

Affixation, conversion, and compounding are the three major type of word-formation.

6.1. Affixation/ Derivation

Affixation is far the most common class of word formation. There are three possible types of affix; those which occur before the root or stem of a word (prefixes), those which occur after (suffixes), and those which occur within (infixes). English does not have affixes in large numbers – but only about 50 common prefixes, somewhat fler common suffixes, and no clear instance sof infixes. Not all affixes have a strong creative potential: the OE – *th* ending, for example (found in *warmth*, *length*, *depth*, *width*, *sixth*, and a few other terms), is hardly ever used to create new words – though *zeroth* and *coolth* are interesting exceptions.

The commonly occurring English suffixes are : *-tion*, *-ship*, *-ness*, *-able*, *-ery*, *-ese*, *-ling*, *-like*, *-let*, *-esque*, *-ette*, *-ess*, *-ism*, *-ite*, *-ish*

Number of them have a meaning which is not easy to state: -ess, for example means 'female of' (*lioness*). Some have several meanings: -ette can mean 'female of' (*usherette*), 'small version of' (*kitchenette*), or 'substitute for' (*leatherette*).

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

57 varieties of Prefix – all the common prefixes in English are:

Negation: *a-, dis-, in-, non-, un-*

Reversal: *de-, dis-, un-*

Disparaging: *mal-, mis-, pseudo-*

Size or degree: *arch-, co-, hyper-, mega-, mini-, out-, over-,*

out-, sub-, super-, sur-, ultra-, under-, vice

Orientation: *anti-, auto-, contra-, counter-, pro-,*

Location and distance: *extra-, fore-, inter-, intra-, pan-, super-*

tele-, trans-

Time and order: *ex-, fore-, neo-, paleo-, post-, pre-, proto-,*

re-

Number: *bi-, demi-, di-, mono-, multi-, poly-, semi-, tri-, uni-*

Grammatical conversion (Verb to Adjective) *a-*, (Noun to Verb) *be-*, *en-*¹⁵

“English has no system of infixes, but people do from time to time change words into which other forms have been inserted. This happens quite commonly while sparing or being emphatic, as in *absobloominglutely* and *kangabloodyroo*.”¹⁶

6.2. Compounding or Composition

Compounding is very common way of creating new words in English and the kinds of combinations that occur in English are nearly limitless. It is joining of two separate words to produce a single form. In other words, it is a combination of two or more lexemes, but in the fact the parts are functioning as a single item, which has its own meaning and grammar. For example *flower-pot* does not refer to a flower and a pot, but to a single object. The result is called a **compound word**. Another example when the meaning of a compound is not always the sum of the meanings of its parts; For instance blackboard can be also white.

Compounds are most readily classified into types based on the kind of grammatical meaning they represent. *Earthquake*, for example, can be paraphrased as ‘the earth quakes’ and the relation of earth to quake is that of subject to verb. Similarly, a crybaby is also subject + verb (‘the baby cries’), despite to its back form appearance.

According to The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language we can generally distinguish these **types of compounds**:

‘ - noun + noun compounds: *flower-pot*

- common noun + common noun, i.e. *skinhead*, *jazz-rock*

- gerund + noun, i.e. *holding pattern, parking orbit*
- proper noun + noun, i.e. *Wellington airport, Mao flu-* verb + noun compounds (the determined item + the determining item)
- gerund + noun, i.e. *holding pattern, parking orbit*
- stem + noun, i.e. *killjoy, pickpocket*
- noun + verb compounds, i.e. *nosebleed, sunshine*
- verb + verb compounds, i.e. *make-believe, pass-fail.*
- adjective + noun, i.e. *fast-food, software*
- noun + adjective, i.e. *leadfree*
- adjective/adverb + verb, i.e. *double-book, fine-tune*
- verb + adjective, i.e. *fail safe*. This pattern is rare
- adjective + adjective. i.e. *bittersweet, ready-made*
- particle + noun, i.e. *overkill, in-depth*
- particle + verb, i.e. *overeducate*
- verb + particle, i.e. *see-through (blouse), wrap-around (skirt)*
- adverb + noun, i.e. *now generation*. This pattern is also rare
- verb + particle, i.e. *drawback, throughput*
- phrase compounds, i.e. *son-in-law, forget-me-not*
- quotational compounds, i.e. *a boys-will-be-boys attitude, a*

bring-your-own party

- reduplication (often combined with rhyme) or 'rhyme-motivated compounds', i.e. *heebie-jeebies*, *razzle-dazzle*, *culture-vulture*
- ablaut-motivated compounds (similar to rhyme-motivated compounds, but involving vowel change or alternation between the two elements.), i.e. *flip-flop*
- intensifying noun modifier, i.e. *brand-new*, *stone Delf*

6.3. Conversion

Conversion is known also as a category chase. Conversion applies only to full words and is understood as a term for a process when lexemes can be made to change their word class without the addition of an affix. The items particularly produced in this way are nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Not all the senses of a lexeme are usually carried through into the derived form. The noun *papers* has several meanings, such as 'newspaper', 'wallpaper', and 'academic article'. The verb *to paper* relates only to the second of these.. Noun can start to be used as a verb (or vice versa) without any change in the word itself. Sometimes the converted forms shift in meaning. The conversion process is particularly productive in modern English, with new uses occurring frequently.

Examples: *paper* => *to paper*, *Google* => *to google*

6.4. Coinage

Coinage is one of the least common processes of word-formation in English. A coinage is a neologism, that means a new word or word combination that is created deliberately. It is an invention of totally new terms. Sometimes people create new words outright to fit some purpose.

And societies often require new words to describe changes in technology, sports, entertainment, and so on.

Coinage of new words often occurs in advertising and it adds many words to English. The most typical sources are invented trade names for one company's product which become general terms (without initial capital letters) for any version of that product.

After all, most coinages are no more than 'nonce' terms, meant only for a single occasion and a couple of laughs. At best, they end up in funny collections. In other words, some coinages never become anything more than nonceformations.

6.5. Borrowing or Loan Words

Borrowing occurs when one language adds a word or morpheme from another language to its own lexicon. Borrowing is one of the most common sources of new words in English. Borrowed words are pronounced according to the phonological rules of the borrowing language. Throughout its history, the English language has adopted a vast number of loanwords from other languages. And so has it been that by far the greater part of the present-day English vocabulary which is made up of borrowed rather than native words. Of the 20,000 or so words in common use, about three-fifths are borrowed.

English borrowed frequently from Latin (*wine, cheese*), French (*chase, guardian*). Also Scandinavian languages (*egg, ugly*), Celtic (*shamrock, loch*), languages of Middle East and Far East (*lemon, algebra, alcohol*), languages of New World (*potato, woodchuck, tomato*) and European languages as Russian (*vodka*), Czech (*robot*), Polish (*polka*), Hungarian (*goulash*) or Finnish (*sauna*) enriched English vocabulary.

6.6. Abbreviations

Abbreviations is one of the most noticeable features of present-day English. The fashionable use of abbreviation comes and goes in waves. In the present it has been eclipsed by the findings of abbreviation in science, technology, and other special fields, such as cricket, baseball, the armed forces, the media, and others.

The reason for using abbreviation is obvious. One reason is linguistic economy, when we try to use one word instead of two. And they also helped to convey a sense of social identity.

Types of abbreviation:

6.6.1. Initialism

The vast majority of abbreviations fall into this category. Initialisms are items which are spoken as individual letters, such as

BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), *DJ* (Disc jockey), *NBA* (National Basketball Association), *NHL* (National Hockey League)

6.6.2. Acronyms

Such words would never have periods separating the letters. Acronyms are initialisms which are pronounced as single words, such as *NATO*, *laser* (Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation)

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization)

UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund)

6.6.3. Facetious forms

ASAP – As Soon As Possible

FYI – For Your Information

TGIF – Thank God It's Friday

6.6.4. Blending

Blending is a very frequent process of combining of two separate forms to produce a single new term. The result is called a blend. The process of blending is similar to the process of compounding, but blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word.

motor+hotel=motel

breakfast+lunch=brunch

smoke+fog=smog

Channel+Tunnel=Chunnel

Oxford+Cambridge=Oxbridge

slang+langue=slanguage

Toys+cartoons=toytoons

breath+analyser=breathalyser

information+commercials=infomercials

6.6.5. Clipping or Shortening

‘Clipping refers to the process whereby a lexeme is shortened, while still retaining the same meaning and still being a member of the same form class. It is a type of reduction (a short word is made from a longer one). Clipping occurs when a word or more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form. That often happens in casual speech. Frequently clipping results in a change of stylistic level.’

Examples: *fries* (from French fried potatoes), *Betty* (from Elizabeth), *Bill* (from William), and several clippings which retain material from more than one part of the word, such as *maths*(UK), *gents*, and *specs*.

7. LEXICAL DIMENSION

7.1. Jargon

According to the The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English language:“Jargon is technical vocabulary or idiom of a special activity or group, but this sense is almost completely overshadowed by another obscure and often pretentious language marked by a roundabout way of expression and use of long. By no means jargon is only modern phenomenon. For most people, it is this second sense which is at the front of their minds when they think about jargon.

Jargon is said to be a bad use of language, something to be avoided at all costs. No one ever describes it in positive terms. Nor does one usually admit to using it oneself: the myth is that jargon is something only other people employ.“

The reality is that everyone uses jargon. It is an essential part of the network of occupations and pursuits which make up society. All jobs present an element of jargon, which workers learn as they develop their expertise. All hobbies require mastery of a jargon. All sports and games have their jargon. Each society grouping has its jargon. The phenomenon turns out to be universal – and valuable. It is the jargon element which, in job, can promote economy and precision of expression. Sometimes it can take a role of euphemism. For example, in 1991 following expressions were used by businessess which were having to ‘let people go’.

Presumably they felt that the jargon would somehow provide justification for their policy, or perhaps it would reduce the trauma for the ex-workforce.

30 ways of getting the sack¹⁷

Career chase opportunity	chemismy chase
Coerced transitiv	decruitment
Degrowing	dehiring
Deselection	destaffing
Downsizing	executive curling
Force reduction	indefinite idling
Involuntary separation	negotiated departure
Outplacement	personal surplus reduction
Redeployment	reducing headcount
Redundancy	elimination
Repase	rightsizing
Schedule adjustment	selective separation
Skill-mix adjustment	transitioned
Vocational relocation	voluntary severance
Voluntary termination	work force adjustment
Work force imbalance	correction

7.2. Slang

Slang, according to the American poet, Carl Sandburg is ,language which *'takes off its coat', 'spits on its hands' –,and goes to work'*. The Oxford English Dictionary provides a more judicious account:

“Language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of educated standard speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.

In a related definition, it also describes slang as, language of a low or vulgar type‘ and ,the special vocabulary or phraseology of a particular calling or profession.“

This sums up the paradox of slang very well. People look down on it, but can hardly avoid using it, for every one has some calling or profession', even if ,the call' is only to watch football, collect stamps, or go drinking.

The use of slang, or colloquial language, introduces many new words into the language by recombining old words into new meanings. Examples are *spaced out*, *hang-up* and *so on*.

Words like these ones are often invented to keep on with new facts, ideas and customs or to "represent 'in' attitudes better than the more conservative items of the vocabulary. Slang also introduces entirely new words such as *barf*, *flub* and *pooped*.

"According to the British lexicographer, Eric Partridge, people use slang for any at least 15 reasons:

- In sheer high spirits, by the young in heart as well as by the young in years; just for the fun of the thing.
- As an exercise either in wit and ingenuity or in humour.
- To be ,different', to be novel.
- To be picturesque (either positively or negatively)
- To be unmistakably arresting, even startling.
- To escape from clichés, or to be brief and concise.
- To enrich the language.
- To lend a pair of solidity, concreteness, to the abstract; of earthiness to the idealistic, of immediacy and appositeness to the remote.

- To lessen the sting of, or on other hand to give an additional point to, a refusal , a rejection, a recantation.
- To soften the tragedy, to lighten or to ,prettify' the inevitability of death or madness, or to mask the ugliness or the pity of profound turpitude
- To speak or write down to an inferior, or to amuse a superior public.
- For ease of social intercourse
- To induce either friendliness or intimacy of a deep or a durable kind.
- To show that one belongs to a certain school, trade or profession, artistic or intellectual set, or social class; in brief, to be ,in the swim' or to establish contact.
- Hence, to show or prove that someone is not ; in the swim'.
- To be secret - not understood by those around one. (Children, students, members of political secret societies, and criminals in or out of prison, innocent persons in prison, are the chief exponents).“

7.2.1.1. Rhyming slang

Rhyming slang is generally believed to have originated in the underworld of London in the middle of the nineteenth century to outwit the inquisitive eavesdropper – policeman or stranger. It's a slang in which word is replaced by another word or phrase that rhymes with it, for example, *apples and pears* meaning *stairs*.

“There are three characteristics which make the study of rhyming slang fascinating and exciting. The first and most obvious is that as a living language it changes constantly with

new words and phrases being added, meanings changed and some words falling into disuse. Secondly, when the rhyming slang is a phrase, the rhyming part is often dropped leaving those who do not know the idiom in the dark. Thus, for *plates of meat* (feet), the usual rhyming slang is *plates: these canoes 'ain't'arf'urting me plates. [Canoes – shoes]*.¹⁹

7.2.1.2. Cockney Rhyming Slang:

“The earliest recorded use of the term is 1362 in The vision of William concerning Piers Plowman by William Langland and it is used to mean a small, misshapen egg, from Middle English *coken* (of cocks) and *ey* (egg) so literally “a cock's egg“.

The region in which ‘Cockneys’ are thought to reside is not clearly defined. A common view is that in order to be a Cockney, one must have been born within earshot of the Bow Bells. However, the church of St Mary-le-Bow was destroyed in 1666 by the Great Fire of London and rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren.

‘Cockney rhyming slang traces back to the fourteenth/fifteenth century. But it came into its own in the 1800s when street traders and criminals both used it as a means of covert communication. According to Kossack flagpole it was used in Stalags during WWII as a way of communicating under the guards noses. Nowadays, it has a life of its own.“²⁰

Much of Cockney rhyming slang relies on word pairs; like “Adam and Eve“ or “Apples and Pears“. Sometimes the pair is stripped down to only one of the words (usually the first).

Cockney expressions can vary in their construction, and it is simply a matter of convention which version is used.

Some slang expressions have escaped from London and are in popular use throughout the rest of Britain. For example “use your loaf“ is an everyday phrase for the British, but not too many people realize it is Cockney Rhyming Slang (loaf of bread=head).

Modern Cockney slang that is being developed today tends to only rhyme words with the names of celebrities or famous people. If your name has become a rhyming slang phrase for something mundane, you have truly arrived. There are very few new Cockney slang expressions that do not follow this trend. The only one that has gained much ground recently that bucks this trend is “Wind and Kite“ meaning “Web site.“ An example of rhyming slang is Cockney Rhyming Slang. The short glossary below is an introduction to the language as it is spoken by the London Cockney. Here are some examples taken from Cockney Rhyming Slang.

Adam and Eve	Believe	Alligator	Later
Apple Cider	Spider	Apple Fritter	Bitter (beer)
Apple Pie	Sky	Apple and Pears	Stairs
April Shower	Flowers	Artful	
Autumn Leaf	Thief		
Back Porch	Torch	Bag of Fruit	Suit (of clothes)
Baked Beans	Jeans	Baked Potato	Waiter
Baker's Dozen	Cousin	Ball of Chalk	Walk
Ball of Fat	Cat	Barnet Fair	Hair
Bath Bun	Son, Sun	Bees and Honey	Money
Bernhard Langer	Banger	Biscuits and Cheese	Knees
Block of Ice	Dice	Bo Peep	Sleep
Bow and Arrow	Sparrow	Brass Tacks	Facts

Bread and Butter	Gutter, Nutter	Bright and Frisky	Whisky
Butcher's Hook	Look		
Cain and Able	Table	Canoe(s)	Shoe(s)
Captain Cook	Book (originally any book but now usually a betting book)		
Cat and Mouse	House	Cellar Flap	Tap
Charlie Dilke	Milk	Chas and Dave	Shave
China Plate	Mate	Clever Mike	Bike
Cock Linnet	Minute	Corn Flake	Fake
Cop a Flower Pot	Get into serious trouble.	Covent Garden	Pardon
Cow and Calf	Laugh	Daffadown Dilly	Silly
Daisy Roots	Boots	Dickory Dock	Clock
Dicky Dirt	Shirt	Dog and Bone	Phone
Duchess of York	Pork	Duck and Dive	Hide
Dunlop Tyre	Liar		
Early Bird	World	Eiffel Tower	Shower
Eighteen Pence	Sense	Elephant;s Trunk	Drunk
Far and Near	Beer	Field of Wheat	Street
Finger and Thumb	Drum	Fireman's Hose	Nose
Fly by Nights	Tights	Funny Face	Lace
Garden Gate	Magistrate	Gert and Daisy	Lazy
Give and take	Cake	Gordon and Gotch	Watch
Hackney Marsh	Glass	Half Past two	Jew
Here and there	Chair	High Stepper	Pepper

Holy Ghost	Post		
Ice-cream Freezer	Geezer	Iron Tank	Bank
I suppose	Nose		
Jack and Dandy	Brandy	Jack and Frost	Lost
Jack and Jones	Alone	Jack the Ripper	Kipper, Slipper
Jamaica Rum	Thumb	Joint of Beef	Chief or Boss
Kidney Punch	Lunch	King and Queen	Bean
Kipper and Plaice	Face	Knotty Ash	Cash
Lady from Bristol	Pistol	Laugh and Joke	Somke
Lemon and Lime	Time	Little and Large	Marge
Loaf and Bread	Head	Luly Locket	Pocket
Marie Corelli	Telly	Meat Pie	Fly (insect)
Mile End	Friend	Mickey Mouse	House
Mother Kelly	Jelly	Mother's Pride	Bride
Nanny Goat	Throat	Nell Gwyn	Gin
Noah's Ark	Dark	Nose and Chin	Win
Oily Rag	fag (cigarette)	Old Oak	Smoke
Oliver Twist	Fist	One and T'other	Brother, Mother
Pat Malone	Alone	Peas in the Pot	Hot
Pen and Ink	Stink	Penny and Mile	Smile
Picadilly	Silly		
Rabit and Pork	Talk	Read and Write	Fight
Ribbon and Curl	Girl (little girl)	Rifle Range	Change
Rolls Royce	Voice	Rosie Lee	Tea
Rub-a-Dub-Dub	Club(night club)	Sad and Sorry	Lorry
Safe and Soung	Ground	Salford Docks	Rocks
Sausage and Mash	Cash		
Tea and Toast	Post	Thick and Thin	Gin
Ugly Sister	Blister	Uncle Ned	Bed

Weeping Willow	Pillow	William Tell	Smell (unpleasant)
You and Me	Tea	Yours and Ours	Flowers

21

7.3. Argot

Argot is a link between slang and jargon, the special language of a secretive social group.

'Our pockets were full of deng, so there was no real need from the point of view of casting any more pretty polly to tolchock some old veck in an alley and viddy him sim in his blood while we counted the takings and dividend by four, nor to do the ultra-violent on some shivering starry grey-haired ptosa in a shop and go smecking off with the till's guts. But, as They say, money is not everything'.²²

8. ENGLISH SPELLING SYSTEM

The English spelling system is the result of a process of development that has been going on for over 1,000 years. The complications encountered today are the consequences of the major linguistic and social events which have taken place over this period.

"The origin of the problem lies in the attempt by Christian missionaries to use their 23-letter alphabet for the 35 or so phonemes of Old English. The addition of four new symbols helped, but it still proved necessary to use some letters (such as *c* and *g*) to represent more than one sound, and to represent some sounds by combination of letters (such as *sc* – the equivalent of present day *sh*)

After the Norman Conquest, French scribes introduced several new spelling conventions. A number of OE forms were replaced, such as *qu* for *cw* (*quick*). The scribes

replaced *h* by *gh* in such words as *might* and *enough*, *c* by *ch* in *church*, and *u* by *ou* in *house*. They began to use *c* before *e* and *i* in such words as *city* and *cell*. Because the letter *u* was written in a very similar way to *v*, *i*, *n*, and *m*, they tried to ease the reading task in some sequences of these letters by replacing *u* with *o* (*come*, *love*, *one*, *son*) – thereby initiating a set of spelling exceptions once the motivation for the change had passed. By the beginning of the 15th century, English spelling was a mixture of two systems – OE and French.

Although spelling was much more stable, pronunciation was not. The vowel sounds of London speech were undergoing the greatest change in their history. The spelling of thousands of words now reflects the pronunciation of vowels as they were in Chaucer's time. *Name*, for example has an *a* because in Middle English it was pronounced with an /ɑ:/ vowel. The change to /e ĩ/ during the 15th century was ignored by the printers. And the same kind of reasoning explains the many 'silent letters' of modern spelling (such as in *knee* and *time*), where the letter ceased to be sounded after the printing conventions had been established.

Another kind of complication entered the language when 16th-century scholars tried to indicate something of the history of a word in its spelling. The *b* in *debt*, for example, was added by people who felt it was important for everyone to know that the word comes from *debitum* in Latin. Similarly, a *b* was added to *doubt* (from *dubitare*), a *g* to *reign* (from *regno*), and an *s* to *island*. Although only some of the proposals became standard, the ones that survived continue to present modern learners with a problem.²³

In the late 16th and early 17th centuries, a new wave of loan words arrived in English from such languages as French, Latin, Greek, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese. They brought with them a host of alien spellings, which greatly complicated the learning of longer words, in particular. Examples include *bizzare*, *brusque*, *caustic*, *cocoa*, *epitome*, *gazette*, *grotto*, *idiosyncrasy*, *intrigue* and *pneumonia*.

The result of this is a system of several traditions, notably Anglo-Saxon, French, and Classical Latin/Greek.

8.1. Long and short vowels and consonant in Old English

OE vowel letters represented both long and short OE vowels, that is, pairs of vowels with similar quality contrasted in quantity, or length.

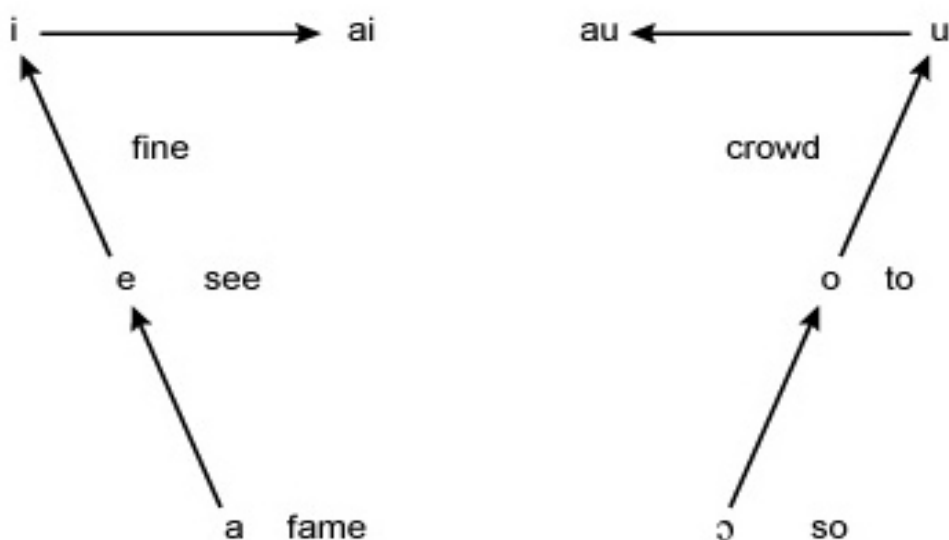
“There are long and short vowels in present-day English pronunciation, but their length is determined by their ‘phonetic environment’- the sounds that precede or follow. For example, the [ɑ] in *cart* is shorter than the [ɑ:] in *card* because the voiceless [t] of *cart* causes the vowel to be cut off, whereas the voiced [d] of *card* does not. But there are no pairs of words in which only the length of the vowel changes meaning. Even between vowels that are very similar, like the [i] of *peat* and the [i] of *pit*, there is always a difference of quality.

The pronunciation of the vowels in MnE has clearly changed considerably, from [ɑ:] [i:] and [o:] in OE, to [əʊ] [ɑi] and [u:] today, so there must have been significant differences in the pronunciation of the OE vowels for some to have changed and not others.”²⁴

The number of OE pure or single vowels was fourteen, twice the number of vowel-letters used in the OE alphabet, for each letter was used to represent both a long and a short vowel.

8.1.1 The Great Vowel Shift

“The changing of long vowels took place gradually over the period from the 14th to the 17th centuries, and has been called the Great Vowel Shift by linguists. It was about changing late middle English long, stressed monophthongs from something like the sounds of mainland European languages to those that they now have: for example, Middle English *fine* had an *i* like Italian *fino*. Words that entered English after the completion of the shift have often retained the original sound, as in *police*: compare *polite*, which entered earlier.



In terms of articulation, the Middle English front vowels raised and fronted and the back vowels raised and backed; vowels already at the top became diphthongs with *ah* as the first element and the old vowel as the second, as in

fine. The shift marked a major change in the transition to Early Modern English, and is one reason why works of Geoffrey Chaucer and his contemporaries sound so unlike present-day English. Chaucer's *a* in *fame* sounded much like the *a* in present day *father*, his *e* in *see* like the *a* in *same*, the *i* in *fine* like the *ee* in *fee*, the *o* in *so* like the *aw* in *saw*, the *o* in *to* like the *oe* in *toe*, and the *ou* or *ow* in *crowd* like the *u* in *crude*.²⁵

10. PRACTICAL PART

“She bought the London house and married the London boyfriend - now Madonna is even taking lessons in the London lingo. News from Madge's tour of the US is that her bass and keyboards player, who hails from the East End, is taking time out on the tour bus to tutor her in cockney rhyming slang. Stuart Price, who usually plays for London band Zoot Woman, said: "We're trying to teach her. So far she's got, 'Take the third party fire and theft' - which is take the third left, 'followed by a terrible fright' - a right. And she also knows, 'Step on it, I'm **in a chicken curry**. I think it's quite impressive. I even got her to admit that she's a septic. You know, **septic tank**. Now to make sure Madonna doesn't make any embarrassing gaffes swapping anecdotes at her next East End pub bash, here's the Standard's simple guide to lead the Queen of Pop through a typical day in London. Waking to the distant sound of Bow Bells, Guy's love and **kisses** is up and out of born and **bred**, down the **apples and pears**. She casts her **mince pies** over the **linen drapers**, has a quick **laugh**, a mug of **Rosie Lee** to calm the **West Ham Reserves** and a round of **Holy Ghost**. She kicks her day **trippers** off her **plates of meat**, and it's on with the **Harpers and Queens**, the **Dicky Dirt**, the **tit for tat** and the **rhythm and blues**. And out the **Roger Moore**. Then she's on the **dog and bone** in the **sherbet dab** going to the **Noah's Ark** with the **bin lids** and the **pot and pan**. After a quick **kidney punch**, it's down the **rub-a-dub**, to **rabbit and pork** with her **china plates**. She orders an **Aristotle of pig's ear**, a **fine and dandy**, a **mother's ruin**, a **Tom Thumb** - but she's on a **Brixton riot**, so for her it's just a **cow and calf** of **fisherman's daughter** with **Vincent Price**. No **Boutros Boutros-Ghali** or **laa-dee-dars** here. But there are **Guy Ritchie** looks from the **mother of pearl** behind the bar. Time to **Scapa Flow**. When the **Jack and Jill** comes it's **German band** in **sky rocket** for some **Ayrton Sennas** and **Lady Godivas**. She is, after all, the **pitch and toss** and hardly **Boracic Lint**. No time for a **Leo Sayer**, so a quick **Ruby Murray** on the way back to her **drum and bass** to check on the currant **bun**, **bricks and mortar** and pot

and pan. Would you **Adam and Eve** it, she's lost the **knobbly knees**. On with the **Posh 'n' Becks**, and they're **Hare and Hound**. In the **Mickey Mouse**, it's **bird lime** for some **wobbly jelly**, **hit 'n' miss** the pot and pan and bin lids, brush the **Hampstead Heath**, comb the **Barnet Fair**, **Chas and Dave** the **ham and eggs** then up the apples and pears, **cream crackered**.

Simpson, Richard. *Evening Standard* [London (UK)] 15 Aug 2001: 17.

in a chicken curry	hurry	Cow and calf	half
septic tank	yank	fisherman's daughter	water
kisses	missus	Vincent Price	ice
Born and Bread	bed	Boutros Boutros-Ghali	Charlie/cocaine
Apple and pears	stairs	laa-dee-dars	cigars
Mince pies	Eyes	Guy Ritchie	bitchy
Linen drapers	papers	mother of pearl	girl
Laugh	bath	Scapa Flow	go
Rosie Lee	tea	Jack and Jill	bill
West Ham Reserves	nerves	German band	hand
Holy Ghost	toast	sky rocket	pocket
trippers	slippers	Ayrton Sennas	tenners
Plates of meet	Feet	Lady Godivas	fivers
Harpers and Queens	jeans	pitch and toss	boss
Dicky dirt	shirt	Boracic Lint	skint
the tit for tat	hat	Leo Sayer	All-dayer
rhythm and blues	shoes	Ruby Murray	curry

Roger Moore	door	drum and bass	place
Dog and bone	telephone	bricks and mortar	daughter
sherbet dab	cab	Adam and Eve	believe
Noah's Ark	park	knobbly knees	keys
bin lids	kids	Posh 'n' Becks	specs
Pot and pan	Old man	Hare and Hound	found
Kidney punch	lunch	Mickey Mouse	house
Rub-a-dub	pub	bird lime	time
Rabbit and pork	talk	wobbly jelly	telly
China plates	mates	hit 'n' miss	kiss
Aristotle of pig's ear	Bottle of beer	Hampstead Heath	teeth
a fine and dandy	brandy	Barnet Fair	hair
Mother's ruin	gin	Chas and Dave	shave
Tom Thumb	rum	ham and eggs	legs
Brixton riot	diet	Cream crackered	knackered

Hard to **Adam and Eve** it, but Bangladeshi starting to influence Cockney English.

National Post [Don Mills, Ont] 22 Aug 2005: A9.

Would you **Adam and Eve** it?

The future of cockney rhyming slang is in deep **Barney Rubble**.

<http://www.metro.co.uk/news/894532-cockney-rhyming-slang-is-brown-bread-thanks-to-reem-towie>

Adam and Eve	Believe
--------------	---------

Barney Rubble	trouble
---------------	---------

Hello, I'm on **the dog and bone**.

<http://www.dailykos.com/story/2011/04/17/966457/-The-Mad-Logophile-Cockney-Rhyming-Slang>

Raquel Welch, Fanny Cradock, Mona Lisa, boracic lint, Sweeney Todd, Brussels sprout, **dog and bone**, whistle and flute, Vera Lynn and (of course) Amos and Andy.

Amos, Mike. *Northern Echo* [Darlington (UK)] 19 Feb 2009: 16.

A barnet, meaning hair, has been in use since 1850 and comes from Barnet Fair. We all know what a tea leaf is, who tells porky pies, and who to call on the **dog and bone**.

Is Cockney slang '**brown bread**' ?

Kilcommons, Denis. *Huddersfield Daily Examiner* [Huddersfield (UK)] 03 A

Dog and bone	telephone
Brown bread	dead

Finally they've found a way to stop Don Cheadle stealing a scene, an impressive feat without recourse to leg irons or the forcible gagging of his chirpy mouth with **oily rags**.

Ferguson, Euan. *The Observer* [London (UK)] 01 Apr 2007: 12.

Oily rags	fags
-----------	------

The stories in *The Bible in Cockney* include Jesus making a **Jim Skinner** for 5000 geezers with just five loaves of **Uncle Fred** and two **Lillian Gish**.

Evening News [Edinburgh (UK)] 16 May 2001: 3.

Jim Skinner	dinner
Uncle Fred	bread
Lillian Gish	fish

It seemed a safe bet to suggest that Sven Goran Eriksson would not be Webby's cup of **Rosie Lee**. "I think it's totally and utterly wrong," he confirmed.

Tongue, Steve. *The Independent* [London (UK)] 10 Dec 2000: 7.

Rosie lee	tea
-----------	-----

Cockney rhyming slang is on its last **bacon and eggs**.

Orr, James. *The Daily Telegraph* [London (UK)] 29 Mar 2012: 11.

Bacon and eggs	legs
----------------	------

It has provided Londoners with a **bubble bath** for **donkey's ears**.

But those who live in the capital are just as baf-fled by cockney rhyming slang as the rest of the country.

The East End slang is dying out as London's diverse, multicultural society grows, research has found.

The survey, which involved 2,000 adults with half from the capital, found that almost 96 per cent of Londoners do not understand phrases such as "donkey's ears" - slang for years.

Others examples which baffled participants included "**Mother Hubbard**", and "**bacon and eggs**".

Just 3.6 per cent of all those surveyed knew what "**rabbit and pork**" means. Only 8.5 per cent knew **Cain and Abel** means table; six per cent knew **Vera Lynn**; and four per cent knew **loop-theloop**.

Orr, James. *The Daily Telegraph* [London (UK)] 29 Mar 2012: 11.

Bubble bath	laugh
Donkey's ears	years

Mother Hubbard	cupboard
Bacon and eggs	legs
Rabbit and pork	talk
Cain and abel	table
Vera Lynn	gin
Loop-theloop	soup

Would you Adam and Eve it, he's got a Gordon on his **George Bush!**

Clark, Pete. *Evening Standard* [London (UK)] 10 Nov 2006: 13.

George Busch	mush (face)
--------------	-------------

Of course, Seamus Heaney isn't the first modern figure of note to be awarded such a tribute. Although most people will be familiar with traditional Cockney rhymes (like "apples and pears" for "stairs", "**china plate**" for "mate" and "**dog and bone**" for "telephone") Radio 1 DJ **Pete Tong's** name is used to denote when things have gone wrong, as in "it's all gone a bit Pete Tong".

Anonymous. *Evening Standard* [London (UK)] 14 Apr 2009: 16.

A **barnet**, meaning hair, has been in use since 1850 and comes from Barnet Fair. We all know what a **tea leaf** is, who tells **porky pies**, and who to call on the **dog and bone**.

Kilcommons, Denis. *Huddersfield Daily Examiner* [Huddersfield (UK)] 03 A

Barnet Fair	hair
Tea leaf	thief
Porky pies	lies

Feeling **Pat Malone** and gravy lumps, or just can't be bothered to go down to the **rub-a dub-dub**?

Jones, Mike. *The Sun* [London (UK)] 12 Mar 1999: 4.

Pat Malone	alone
Rub-a-dub-dub	pub

I've got the **Wilson**s for Saturday, mate. Meet me in the Earl of Wakefield around 12.

<http://www.cockneyrhymingslang.co.uk/slang/W>

Wilson Picket	ticket
---------------	--------

A group of experts from Munich University claim the Queen's voice is getting more and more cockney. The boffins have studied tapes from Her Majesty's Christmas speeches over the last 50 years and say it's slowly being influenced by the famous London drawl. Blimey! Imagine what the Queen's speech will be like in a few years time

Wotcha! Stone me is it 3 o'clock already? I was just 'avin' a quick splash of **rosie lee** after my festive **kidney punch** I hope you're all 'avin' a good Christmas kneesup all I got from the **old man** was some **lousy almond rocks** and an **Auntie Ella**. I best be getting off down the **rub-a-dub-dub** for a **swift pig's ear**. Till next year mind your **Epson races**. Tata.

Holmes, Eamonn. *The People* [London (UK)] 10 Dec 2006: 19.

Rosie lee	tea
Kidney punch	Christmas lunch
Old man	husband
Auntie Ella	socks
Rub-a-dub-dub	pub
Swift pig's ear	beer

Epson races	airs and graces
-------------	-----------------

WHITECHAPEL: Classic moments in political rhetoric as the Cockney Rhyming Slang Society tackles the Collected Works of Tony Blair. Look out for the seminal speech on law and order: "Beggar-my- neighbour is the bloomin' Moriarty of law and order in Britain today. Tough on the causes of **lemon 'n' lime**"

Jones, Mark. *The Times* [London (UK)] 22 Jan 2003: 2.

Lemon 'n' lime	time
----------------	------

And amateur hour! (Mama dressed me up as an Arabian sheik. Ugh!) Some funny passenger skits, including **Picadilly** Jilly who sings a cockney song, and a five-year-old from Texas who looks promising until he backs out with stage fright at the last minute, causing his mother great embarrassment.

Ferguson, Euan. *The Observer* [London (UK)] 01 Apr 2007: 12.

picadilly	silly
-----------	-------

Need **bees and honey**?: BANKING

Anonymous. *The Daily Mirror* [London (UK)] 24 Aug 2009: 28

Bees and honey	money
----------------	-------

Stamp's Wilson spews Cockney rhyming slang as effectively as he sprays lead, but more amusingly for the recipients of his observations about "**tea leaves**" or , "**China plates**".

Walker, Alexander, *Evening Standard* [London (UK)] 09 Dec 1999: 28

Tea leaves	Thieves
China plates	mates

Tomorrow and Sunday, take a **butcher's hook** at the upper promenade which is transformed into Petticoat Lane-by-the-sea with live entertainment by Chucklefoot and Stompie between 10.30am and 4.30pm at the bandstand.

Anonymous. *Isle of Thanet Gazette* [Margate (UK)] 22 July 2011: 24.

Butcher's hook	look
----------------	------

10. CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis dealt with chosen issues of the English language during the period of Old English, Middle English, Norman English, English during the Renaissance and Modern English. Its main focus was to approximate particular aspects of given issues.

The thesis was introduced by a short overview of the historical facts, which had impact on the English language evolution. Apart of these chapters concerned with the historical background of language, and also focusing on the changes which have happened over the past centuries, there is also mentioned the issue of lexical structure, lexical dimension, and English spelling system.

To make the theory well-arranged, not only the thesis was divided into main chapters and their various subchapters but another sort of ordering also is used. The given examples are written in italics for better distinction and comprehension and also two graphs are contained.

Although several printed sources were used for aims of the thesis, not all of them supplied the relevant information. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language, on the contrary, was a great guide and it is one of the most frequently cited sources.

The findings of the thesis – the main aim was to map particular periods of the English language, to approach this issue on the basis of given examples taken from Old and present-day English and to provide with brief theory. The goal was fulfilled. Not only the theory is stated but also several examples of everyday use of English are mentioned. Especially the examples given in particular chapters give readers a genial idea about the changes which have been happening over the last centuries in English language.

The historical account of English enables us to find coherence in many of the fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language

use and we might see the logical way of changes, coherency with the historical facts and also the influence of other languages.

11. ABSTRAKT

This bachelor thesis is concerned with the study of the evolution of English language through the periods of Anglo-Saxons, Middle English, Norman English, English during the Renaissance, and Modern English. The objective of the thesis is to map particular periods of the English language, to approach this issue on the basis of given examples taken from Old and present-day English and to provide with brief theory.

At the beginning readers learn brief historical facts and process of English language evolution during the particular periods, where the changes of vocabulary and grammar are also stated, and also another features of English can be found. The thesis may contribute to revealing the link between English history and English language.

11. RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá studiem vývoje anglického jazyka v průběhu období anglo-sasů, Normanů, renesance a současné moderní angličtiny. Předmětem této práce je důkladně popsat období vývoje anglického jazyka, přiblížit problematiku na základě uvedených příkladů vzatých ze staré a moderní angličtiny a poskytnout tak stručnou teorii na dané téma.

Na začátku se čtenáři mohou dozvědět stručná historická fakta a průběh vývoje anglického jazyka během jednotlivých období, kde jsou také zmíněny změny slovní zásoby a gramatiky, kromě toho také další charakteristické prvky jsou zde ke shlédnutí. Bakalářská práce se tímto snaží přispět k odhalení souvislosti mezi anglickou historií a anglickým jazykem.

12. REFERENCES

1. The Oxford Companion To The English Language, Germanic languages, p. 439
2. Encyklopedi
3. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical invasions p. 24
4. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical invasions p. 24
5. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical invasions p. 25
6. examples taken from The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical invasions p. 25
7. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Middle English, p. 30
8. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, middle English Grammar, p. 44
9. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Middle English vocabulary, p. 46
10. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Middle English vocabulary, p. 46
11. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, English during the renaissance p. 60
12. some examples taken from The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, English during the renaissance p.60
13. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, The influence of Shakespeare, p.63
14. Old English- A historical linguistic companion, p. 191
15. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical structure, p. 128
16. Blooming English, p. 49
17. The Cambridge Encyklopedia of The English Language, Lexical Dimension, p. 174

18. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language, Lexical Dimension, p. 175
19. Cockney Rhyming Slang, p. 3
20. <http://en.wikipedia.org>
21. Cockney Rhyming Slang, p. 3
22. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language, Lexical Dimension p. 182
23. The Stories of English, p.236
24. From Old English to Standard English, p. 32
25. From Old English to Standard English, p. 32

14. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Printed sources:

DAVID CRYSTAL, The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language, by Cambridge University Press, USA, 1995, ISBN 0-521-40179-8

DAVID CRYSTAL, The stories of English, by The Penguin Group, England, 2005

DENNIS FREEBORN, From Old English to Standard English, 3rd ed., by Palgrave Macmillan, New York, 2006, ISBN 1-4039-9880-9

KATE BURRIDGE, Blooming English, by Cambridge University Press, UK, 2004, ISBN 0-521-54832-2

DEREK PERKINS, Cockney Rhyming Slang, by Domino Books, UK, 2006, ISBN 978 185772 125 6

TOM Mc ARTHUR, The Oxford Companion To The English Language, by Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1992, ISBN 0-19-214183-x

TOM MCARTHUR, The English Languages, by Cambridge University Press, UK, 1998, ISBN 0 521 48130 9

ROGER LASS, The Old English – A historical linguistic companion, by Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1998, ISBN 0 521 43087 9

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, by Pearson Ed.Limited, UK, 2003, ISBN 1-405-80673-7

Chambers English Dictionary, 7th ed, W & R Chambers Ltd, NY, 1990, ISBN 1 85296 000

Internet sources:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page

Other sources:

SVK- department of background researches

