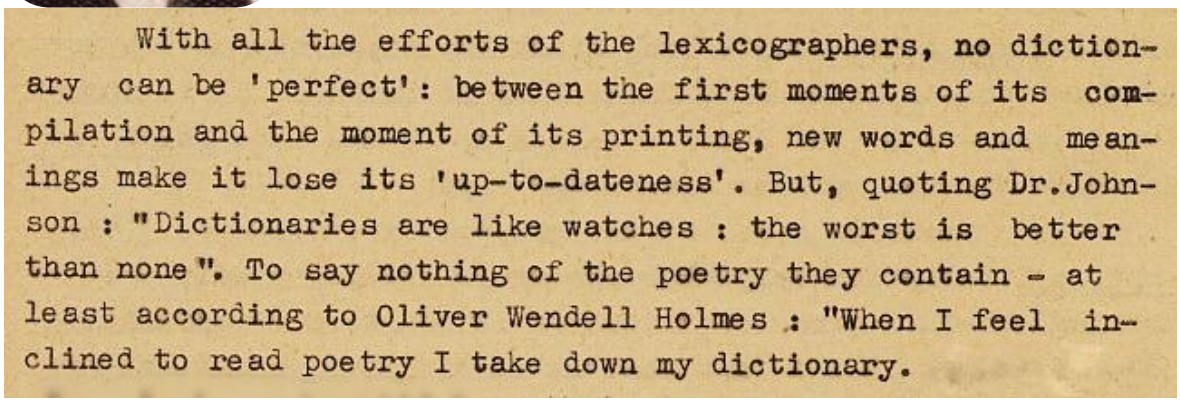
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A Course in English Lexicology
1963

Ediție facsimil în 3 volume
Volumul 1



With all the efforts of the lexicographers, no dictionary can be 'perfect': between the first moments of its compilation and the moment of its printing, new words and meanings make it lose its 'up-to-dateness'. But, quoting Dr.Johnson : "Dictionaries are like watches : the worst is better than none". To say nothing of the poetry they contain - at least according to Oliver Wendell Holmes : "When I feel inclined to read poetry I take down my dictionary.

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A Course in English Lexicology

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Editat de C. George Sandulescu şi Lidia Vianu

Anul acesta se împlinesc 100 de ani bătuți pe muchie de la naşterea Profesorului de limbă şi literatură engleză Leon D. Levițchi. ESTE CENTENARUL LEVIȚCHI.

*

Nu există grămătic mai însemnat decât Leon Levițchi pentru profesorul de limba engleză din România. A scris gramatici din care toți urmaşii lui au învățat structura limbii engleze, şi cum poate ea fi predată vorbitorului de limba română. A făcut cele mai bune dicționare dintre câte avem. A tradus integral William Shakespeare. A predat lexicologie. A scris „Învățați limba engleză fără profesor". A scris istoria literaturii engleze şi americane.

Leon Levițchi [Radio România, 1973]

"Well—you see—quite, quite accidentally, I belong to an older generation; and quite, quite accidentally, for twenty years on end I taught English grammar to our students; and I taught them in the spirit of Charles Bally and Harold Palmer, not in that of Chomsky.... I do not in the least believe in the idea that the history of linguistics should be divided into two: the pre- and the post-Chomsky period. I should rather say: I believe in things that can be demonstrated and I do not believe in things that cannot be demonstrated. If—if!—the new achievements of linguistics can prove that we have been in the wrong, and the new achievements are in the right, all the better—

we shall surrender to them: but, if they cannot justify themselves, all the worse—we shall not surrender, and we shall go on saying that it is much much better to speak of subject and predicate than of subject and predicate group (SG, or PG)."

Leon Levițchi [Radio România, 1972]

L.L: "...an Austrian professor invited me to join an international society of lexicographers."

Announcer: "Does that imply practical or theoretical activity?"

L.L: I don't know yet; I only hope it will be applied linguistics—a discipline which I personally like very much. Of course, I like theory as well, but only if it is based on applied linguistics."

C. George Sandulescu

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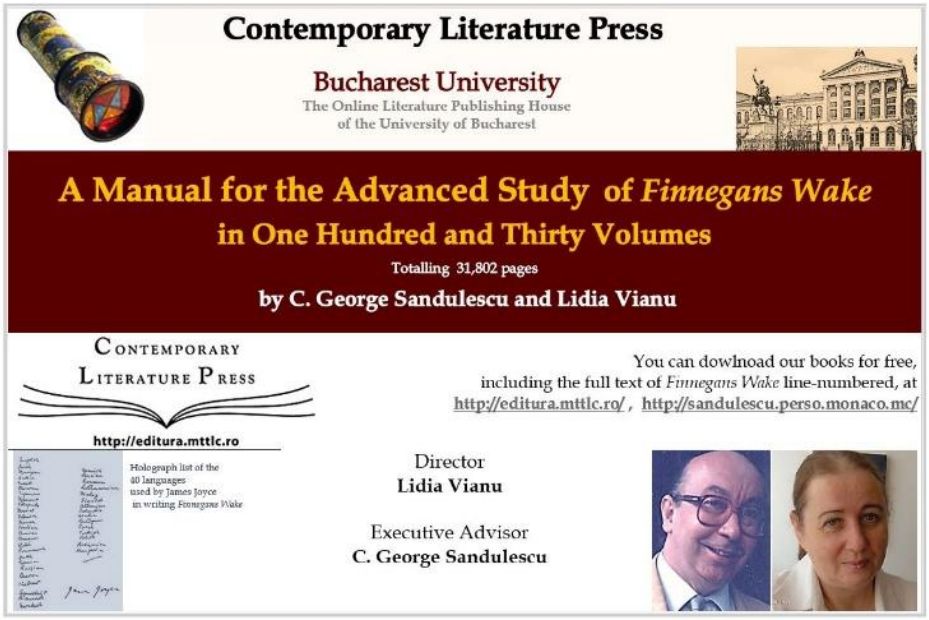
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From your father.

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A COURSE IN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Lexicology, as may be inferred from the etymology of the term (Gk lexikon - 'lexicon', or lexikos - 'word', and logos - 'teaching'), is a branch of linguistics which studies the vocabulary of a language.

The present course of lectures is devoted to the study of Contemporary English lexicology from a descriptive point of view. In other words it will be dealing with the various problems of the English vocabulary at a g i v e n (present) moment of its development, i.e. synchronically; but since most synchronical aspects cannot be understood without the explanations offered by a historical approach, it will of necessity include certain chapters in which the diachronical element will prevail. At any moment of its evolution, the vocabulary of a language is a constantly growing accumulation of words and meanings recording different facets of the development of human society, the founder and carrier of the language; and the loss of this perspective - be it for a moment - would mean the loss of the really scientific perspective.

The inevitable alternation between the synchronical and the diachronical plane in a descriptive lexicology is reflected in the sections of which it is usually made up : essential lexical units; sources of the vocabulary; word-formation; words and meanings; changes of meaning; semantic relations between words; phraseology; lexical strata; lexicography. Semasiology (Gk semasia - 'meaning', and logos - 'teaching') or semantics (Gk semantikos - 'significant'), the most important branch of lexicology, studies the meanings of

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words, the laws governing the evolution of word-meanings, and the classification of the types of changes occurring in the meanings of words.

The fact that the synchronical and diachronical elements are so closely interwoven, largely accounts for the great differences existing in the internal arrangement of the main sections in various books of descriptive lexicology.

Lexicology is a comparatively new linguistical discipline, set on scientific bases and developed amply by Marxist investigators, especially in the Soviet Union. This applies wholly to English lexicology, which gained its right to independence alongside the other branches of linguistics only after many of its specific problems had been dealt with by more or less cognate disciplines.

Even today most British and American linguists continue to treat the lexicological problems of their language either in books of grammar or in various histories of the English language. On the other hand, there are many works which, without being entitled lexicologies, deal with its specific problems (e.g. Words and Their Ways in English by J.B. Greenough and G.L. Kittredge, New-York, 1929; English Words and Their Background by G.H. McKnight, New-York - London, 1931; The World of Words by E.Partridge, 1948; The Words We Use by J.A. Sheard, London, 1954, etc.) - an indirect recognition of the idea that lexicology has its own domain of research (the vocabulary).

The first important studies of English lexicology may be traced back to the middle of the XIX-th century, when Richard Chenevix Trench (1807 - 1886) delivered a series of lectures known as On the Study of Words (1851) and English, Past and Present (1855). Trench was mainly interested in what is now termed the semantic evolution of English words, applying himself to this difficult task with an enthusiasm which often made his conclusions inaccurate (e.g. he supposed that lass was a contraction of laddess, the 'feminine' of lad, etc.). In spite of the many shortcomings of his lectures, Trench has made a valuable contribution to the scientific study of English words,

especially by underlining the connection between words and social history, as in the following excerpt, summing up an important part of Trench's linguistical conception:

"A popular American author has somewhere characterized language as 'fossil poetry'. He evidently means that just as in some fossil, curious and beautiful shapes of vegetable or animal life, the graceful fern or the finely vertebrated lizard, such as now, it may be, have been extinct for thousands of years are permanently bound up with the stone, and rescued from that perishing which would have otherwise been theirs - so in words are beautiful thoughts and images, the imagination and the feeling of past ages... The phrase is a striking one; the only fault which one might be tempted to find with it is that it is too narrow. Language may be, and indeed is, this 'fossil poetry'; but it may be affirmed of it with exactly the same truth that it is fossil ethics, or fossil history. Words quite as often and as effectually embody facts of history..."[1]

Lexicology and the Other Linguistic Branches

Although lexicology has its own definite range of problems, these are far from being its exclusive object of study. Besides, there is a close dialectical interdependence and mutual conditioning of the lexical, phonetical, grammatical and stylistical aspects of words. Here are a few illustrations.

Any single word, for example book, may be studied both by lexicology, phonetics, grammar, and stylistics.

Lexicology may be interested in the etymology of this word (ME. boke, book; OE. boc, with the same base as the English beech - probably so called as runes were first carved on beech), in its polysemy as a noun or verb (1. carte; 2. cărțulie; 3. registru; condică; listă; 4. caiet, etc.; 1. a înregistra; 2. a reține bilete, etc.), in a number of phrases (e.g. to bring to book - 1. a sili să explice; 2. a certa; by

1 R. Ch. Trench, On the Study of Words: English Past and Present, London, Everyman's Library, 1936. p.11.

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the book - ca la carte etc.), in the compounds of book (e.g. book-binder, book-binding, book-case, book-maker, etc.), in the affixes it may take (bookish, booklet, bookie, etc.).

Phonetics considers the word in point of pronunciation [buk] , analyses the sounds of which it is made up (b, u, k), etc.

Grammar views it morphologically and syntactically, combining it with its possible determinatives. Thus, as a noun, the word book - belonging to the category of individual nouns - must be determined in the singular by such specific determinatives as the definite or indefinite article, determinative adjectives, etc., e.g.

a book, this book, my book, to the book

This is absolutely necessary, for in its 'primary' or 'dictionary' form, book cannot be declined correctly - Nom. book, Gen. of book, Dat. to book, Acc. book are just 'theoretical' forms, which do not occur in the actual practice of the language. Compare with such 'grammaticalized' forms as :

N.	the book	his book	these books	five books
G.	of the book	of his book	of these books	of five books
D.	(to)the book	(to)his book	(to)these books	(to)five books
A.	the book	his book	these books	five books

On the other hand, the very classification of book as an individual noun is lexical-morphological-syntactical - it is based on the lexical idea of number, on the morphological category of number (singular and plural), on determination (which is a morphological-lexical category), on agreement with the verb (which is a syntactical category).

Book actually becomes a verb when it is accompanied by specific verbal determinatives, e.g. to book (to is the specific determinative of the infinitive), I shall book the seats (subject, auxiliary, direct object), etc.

Stylisticaly, book is neutral; but in such a sentence as 'It is written in the book' ('It is according to the regulations', etc.) the book is used as a colloquialism.

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Grammatical changes in the form of a word, its different syntactical placing, etc. sometimes involve change of meaning. Thus the indefinite pronoun anybody means "oricine, oricare" in an affirmative sentence and "cineva" in an interrogative one, e.g.

Anybody can show you the way to the museum.
Is anybody missing today ?

The noun ash means "scrum" ; its plural form ashes means "cenușă" . Commodity is "obiect, articol de uz" ; commodities is either "obiecte, articole de uz" , ori "marfă" . Energy is "energie" (in all senses), and energies is "energie, forță" (mai ales fizică). Province is "provincie", and provinces is either "provincii" , ori "țară" (countryside). With an indefinite infinitive the verb must expresses either the idea of necessity, or that of probability, as in:

You must ("trebuie") do that !
He must [mst] come now, ("Trebuie să vină"-"probabil că va veni").

but when it is used with a perfect infinitive, it implies only the idea of probability, as in:

He must [mst] have returned already . ("Probabil că s-a și înapoiat, trebuie să se fi înapoiat".)

The verb shall has no meaning of its own when it is used to form the simple future in the 1st person singular and plural, but it has modal force in the 2nd and 3rd persons singular and plural, and so it has in the 1st person singular and plural in interrogative sentences, e.g.

You shall come earlier. ("Vei veni mai devreme"-"trebuie să vii mai devreme".)
Shall we start at once ? ("Să plecăm chiar acum?" "Trebuie să plecăm chiar acum ?")

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The adverb still means "încă" in affirmative and interrogative sentences. In an interrogative-negative sentence, however, it may lend it a shade of irritation or anger, e.g.

Hasn't he come still ? ("Cum, n-a venit încă ?") Compare with : Hasn't he come yet ? ("N-a venit încă ?")

Change of stress in the pronunciation of a word or even of a whole sentence may determine change of meaning. Compare:

mankind ['mæn'kaind] - omenire, umanitate
['mænkaind] - bărbaţii
record ['rekɒ:d] - s. însemnare, etc.
[ri'kɒ:d] - v. a înregistra, etc.
'What are you taking about ? - "Despre ce vorbeşti"?
What are you talking about ? -"Ce tot vorbeşti ?!"

Stylistics, "the study of various aspects assumed by the language of the whole people according to the speaker and to the aim of the communication" [1] deals with numerous problems that affect lexicology too.

Thus, the semantic evolution of many words is based on the metaphorical use of their basic meaning or meanings. The noun shelf, for instance, originally meant 'story of a building' (in the OE form sclife); later on it came to mean 'a thin flat length of wood or other material set horizontally at right angles', 'a support built into a frame, as in a bookcase or cupboard', etc., then anything like a shelf, as a flat ledge jutting out from a cliff,' etc. The figurative senses of bitter, as in a bitter remark, bitter words, bitter tears, a bitter wind, are all metaphorical transfers of the basic sense of the adjective ('acrid.') The depth of a forest, the depth of a thought, the depth of a dye, etc., are to be traced back me-

1 Al. Graur, Introducere în lingvistică, Bucureşti, Ed. ştiinţifică, 1958, p.258.

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taphorically to the original depth - "the quality of being deep," etc.

The very definition of irony points out its semantic implications : it is a figure of speech by means of which a word, a word - group or a whole sentence are used to denote a notion or an idea that, in a given context, acquire a meaning contrary to the one usually conveyed by them, e.g.

> How could you have made such a blunder ! You're a clever fellow, aren't you ? (clever here actually means stupid.)
> I wish him joy of it !
> That is a nice thing to be told.
> Much good may it do him !

Repetition may bring about more or less important semantic modifications. Thus the word merry ("vesel", "voios") assumes the force of a superlative in the following excerpt :

> So, we the workers blow a bugle on May Day morning; blow long, blow loud for all to hear; a merry, merry sound (Sean O'Casey, The Day the Worker Blows a Bugle).

I. LEXICAL UNITS, THEIR STRUCTURE AND CLASSIFICATION

1. Words

The basic linguistic unit with which lexicology operates is the word - "an element of human speech, to which a meaning is attached, which is apt to be used grammatically, and which can be understood by a human collectivity constituted in a historical community." (Dicționarul limbii romîne literare contemporane, vol.I, 1955.)

As specified already, each word has its phonetics (phonation), its meaning or meanings, its grammatical form or forms, as well as its stylistic value or values; therefore, although the linguistic unit is specifically a lexical category, it may be defined from several points of view, each of them corresponding to the main branches of linguistics.

Phonetically, a word is expressed by one or more phonemes (a phoneme is the minimal unit of distinctive sound-feature), e.g. in the word a, the phoneme is [ə] , in the word glitter, the phonemes are ['glit ə] .

Lexically (or semantically), a word is expressed by one or more semantemes (a semanteme is the ultimate, irreducible element or unit of meaning), e.g. the word house is expressed by one semanteme (the notion of 'house'); the word classroom is made up of two semantemes ('class' and 'room').

Grammatically, a word is expressed by one or more morphemes (a morpheme is the minimal grammatically significant unit), e.g. in the word house there is only one morpheme,which, in a context, will be used either as a noun, a verb, or an adjective; in houses there are two morphemes : house + s (s being the ending characteristic either of the plural noun house,

or of the third person singular present tense of the verb to house).

At once lexically and grammatically, the structure of a world may be analysed in connection with such categories as roots, stems, and affixes (prefixes and suffixes). The root is the ultimate constituent element common to all cognate words (or "association-groups" -"familii de cuvinte"), i.e. that element of a word which remains after the removal of all endings, formatives, etc., e.g. the root of the word boundlessness is bound (cf. boundary, bounded, bounds, boundless). The stem is a word (or one of its forms) which serves as a kernel of a new word, e.g. in boundlessness, the stem is boundless; in boundless, the stem (and the root) is bound. Affixes are lexical-grammatical elements placed either at the beginning of a word (prefixes) or at the end of it (suffixes) so as to form with these new words. (See also the chapter dealing with Affixation, page 43).

N o t e . Roots, stems and affixes belong both to lexicology and grammar (morphology) : to lexicology, because they are elements making up a word and lending it a certain meaning; to grammar, because (very frequently at least) they involve morphological changes (e.g. bound is a noun, boundless is an adjective, boundlessness - a noun).

Words are either simple or compound. Simple words cannot be decomposed into other words (grammatically, they cannot be decomposed into parts of speech), e.g. man, go, by, beauty, peace, open, ready. Compound words are made up of two or more words (grammatically, of two or more homogeneous or non-homogeneous parts of speech), e.g. classroom (class+room), thereupon (there + upon), singing(-)bird (singing + bird), stick-in-the-mud (stick + in + the + mud).

2. Other Lexical Units

But words are not the only lexical units with which lexicology operates; it also operates with word-groups or word-combinations, structures which are intermediate between words

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and sentences, e.g. not at all, by all means, to take a walk, as busy as a bee, now and then, to do one's best, etc.

Grammar (morphology), operating with the help of criteria which are not always the same and which cannot be always the same because of the specific character of each part of speech, classifies word-groups or word-combinations as a)complex parts of speech, and b) phrases.

a. Complex Parts of Speech

A complex verb of the type to give up, to take in, to take off, to bring out, although a variety of compound verbs proper (to broadcast, to whitewash), differs from the latter in that it behaves differently in a sentence (the verb may be separated from its adverbial particle by a direct object,etc.).

A complex verb of the type to break loose, to drive home, to let/leave alone behaves like the foregoing category but it differs from it in that loose, home, alone, etc. are no longer adverbial particles, but adverbs or adjectives, bearers of a far greater semantic weight than adverbial particles (sometimes completely devoid of semantic value), although as indissolubly linked with the verb proper.

A complex adverb (now and then, far and wide, one by one), a complex preposition (out of, from behind,because of), a complex conjunction (as if, as though, so that), all of them characterized either by the semantic independence of the component elements (e.g.from behind, because of, now and then, so that) or, on the contrary, by their semantic "fusion" (e.g. as if, as though), differ from compound adverbs (e.g. heretofore), prepositions (e.g. into), and conjunctions (e.g. however -"oricît de") mostly formally[1] - in that they are never written in one word, etc.

---

1 "Mostly", for there are cases when the presence in the respective part of speech of such conjunctions as and, or, etc. operates semantically on it in the sense of disjunction,etc. and thus involves content.

b. P h r a s e s

From the strictly grammatical point of view, a phrase is a word-combination standing for a part of speech whose grammatical functions it discharges. It must necessarily contain a noun (or noun-equivalent), a verb, a modifying adjective or adverb in its structure - i.e. one or more words of full lexical value, e.g. in the middle of (prepositional-phrase), to do one's utmost (verbal phrase), in the distance (adverbial phrase), side by side (adverbial phrase), no matter how (conjunctional phrase), etc.

In lexicology there is no such category as "complex words" and the term 'phrase' has another meaning than it has in grammar, including all the word-combinations that are not compounds, which they, however, resemble in that they imply a more or less marked unity of meaning. Complex verbs are sometimes referred to as 'compound words', and sometimes as 'phrases'; though it seems more adequate to call 'compounds' only complex verbs formed with the help of adverbial particles.

N o t e . The interpretation of the term phrase in various works by English and American authors is often misleading, e.g. "An idiomatic expression ; small group of words, usually without predicate, especially preposition with the word it governs, equivalent to adjective, adverb, or noun." (COD) ; "A group of words, without a finite verb, forming part of a sentence." (A. S. H o r n b y et alt. An Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English) ; "A group of words not containing a subject or predicate." (M. P e i & F.G a y n o r, Dictionary of Linguistics, New-York, 1954); "Phrases are in the nature of conversational formulas, sayings, proverbs, etc." (H. P a l m e r , Grammar of English Words, London, 1938), etc.

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Summarizing Table

Grammatical Units	Examples	Lexical Units
simple parts of speech	man, table, chalk	simple words
compound parts of speech	classroom, short-sleeved, to broadcast, nevertheless	compound words
complex parts of speech	to take off, to put up,	
	to break loose, to fall short, out of, because of, before long	phrases
phrases	to take a walk, in the midst of, in the distance	

3. Semantic Classification of Words

All the words in a language are significant in the sense that they denote something : objects, qualities, actions, states, relations, etc. Words thus have meanings or lexical values; but - as has already been pointed out - the nature and force of these lexical values differ very much from one type of word to another. Roughly, words may be divided into two categories : words that have full lexical values (pen, bird, air, beauty, to write, handsome, fine, clearly, etc.) and words that have incomplete lexical values since they only establish relations or merely determine other words (as, for, at, a, etc.) but between these the most varied degrees of "semantic concentration" may be found.

Up to a certain extent the grammatical classification of words is also a semantic classification : nouns denote notions (e.g. book, window, class, eye, idea, etc.); adjectives denote qualities (e.g. beautiful, bad, right, wrong, etc.); verbs denote actions or states (e.g. to go, to do, to be, to think,

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etc.); prepositions denote relations of specific types (e.g. at, in, for, through, etc.) and so on.

Words may be classified in accordance with various notional spheres. Such a classification is exhaustingly drawn up in some of Pierre Roget's Thesauruses of English Words and Phrases, though it is often objectionable. Here are a few examples from the Thesaurus published in 1942 (Longmans) :

Part of Synopsis of Categories:

Dimensions		
	Size	Littleness
General	Expansion	Contraction
	Distance	Nearness
	Interval	Contiguity
	Length	Shortness
Linear	Breadth	Narrowness
	Thickness	Thinness
	Layer	Filament
	Height	Lowness
	Depth	Shallowness

Under Size we read:

N. Size, magnitude, dimension, bulk, volume ; largeness; greatness; expanse; amplitude; mass; proportions; capacity; tonnage; tunnage; calibre, scantling; turgidity; corpulence, obesity; plumpness; embonpoint; corporation, flesh and blood, lustihood; hugeness; enormity, immensity, monstrosity, etc.

Another classification refers words to different spheres of human activities, e.g. words connected with teaching, with arts, with seafaring, etc.

Words may be concrete (table, window, tree, etc.), or abstract (idea, importance, neighbourhood, etc.), used in a direct meaning (house - casă, head - cap, depth - adîncime, etc.), or in a figurative meaning (house - familie; dinastie; head - căpetenie, şef; depth - toi; adînc - al pădurii, etc.).

Last but not least, words may be classified as monosemantic, viz. having one meaning only (matchbox, resection, telegraphist, etc.) and polysemantic, viz. having two or more meanings (book - carte; caiet; registru; listă, catalog, etc.).

A great number of polysemantic words belong to the basic word stock of the English language, being characterized

a/ by their being used in the language of the whole people (e.g. the word HOUSE);

b/ by their great stability (house is a very old word, it comes from OE hus, ME hous);

c/ by providing the language with a basis for the formation of new words or of an 'association group' (houseful, household, housekeeper, House of Commons, housewife, etc.);

d/ by entering into a number of phrases (to bring down the house, - "a sări rampa, a stîrni o furtună de aplauze", to keep house - "a se ocupa cu gospodăria", "a duce gospodăria", to set/put one's house in order - "a-şi pune treburile în rînduială", etc.);

e/ by being apt to be converted, fully or partially (a house, to house, house-keeper).

In a polysemantic word there is generally a basic meaning (house - casă) which is usually understood without a context, and a number of 'secondary' meanings, usually 'contextual' or 'connotative' (casă, familie; sală; locuinţă, etc.). Interesting examples are the following :

HILL n. basic meaning: deal; secondary meanings: moviliţă; muşuroi; movilă; dîmb; ridicătură de pămînt; munte.

BOX n. basic meaning: cutie; secondary meanings: ladă; capră (de vizitiu); lojă; casă de vînătoare; vagonetă, etc.

BOAT n. basic meaning: barcă; secondary meanings: luntre; şalupă, vas, corabie, navă; torpilor, submarin, etc.

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4. Semantic Classification of Phrases

The most scientific semantic classification of phraseological units is that of the Soviet Academician V.V.Vinogradov, who worked it out in connection with the Russian language, although it successfully applies to other languages, English included.

V.V.Vinogradov distinguishes between:

a) Phraseological Fusions (sometimes called idioms - although the word idiom is variously interpreted by English and American authors) - indivisible and indecomposable phrases in whose general meaning one cannot detect any connection with the words of which the phrase is made up. The lexical(semantic) connection between the components of this type of phrases is not always justifiable from the standpoint of contemporary English. Examples:

to give somebody the needle (slang) - "a pune pe cineva pe jar", "a face pe cineva să fiarbă" , "a scoate pe cineva din sărite";
to a hair - "întocmai", "exact"; "leit" , "aidoma";
what cheer ? (coll.) - "ce mai faci ?""cum o duci ?""cum merge ?"
to make a balk of good ground - "a scăpa prilejul".

Phraseological fusions sometimes contain unintelligible words, old grammatical forms, dialectal peculiarities, etc., e.g.

yannep a time (back slang) - "cîte un penny de fiecare";
far ben (Scotch) - "în relații strînse"; "în grațiile cuiva";
fair do's ! (coll.) - "jumătate-jumătate", "juma -juma".

b) Phraseological Unities - stable phrases, which, like idioms, have a meaning of their own, distinct from the meaning of the component elements, although these are connected logically. Phraseological unities are often considered to be figurative phrases. Examples :

as fresh as a daisy - "înfloritor", "plin de sănătate şi tinereţe", "verde ca bradul";
to give somebody a lesson - fig. "a da cuiva o lecţie", "a-l învăţa minte";
neither here nor there - "nici în clin, nici în mînecă", "fără nici o legătură".

Phraseological unities are also represented by proverbs, e.g.

the (a) cat in gloves catches no mice - "cine se boiereşte treabă nu face";
make hay while the sun shines -"bate fierul cît e cald" (şi: strike the iron while 'tis hot');

by sayings, e.g.

to carry coals to Newcastle - "a vinde castraveţi grădinarului", "a căra apă la puţ";
to put a spoke in somebody's wheel - "a-i pune cuiva beţe în roate".

c) Traditional Combinations - made up of such words as may be combined only with certain other words; sometimes, the component elements of the phrase may be replaced by synonyms. In a traditional combination, one or more words are used in their direct, non-figurative sense, e.g.

to break silence - "a întrerupe tăcerea";
to pay a visit to someone -"a face o vizită cuiva";
to lend assistance - "a da ajutor";
to strike/inflict/deal a blow - "a lovi", "a da o lovitură".

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Although phraseological units, traditional combinations should not be listed by special phraseological dictionaries, unless it is the author's deliberate aim to do so. Phraseological dictionaries should only include phraseological fusions and unities, for it is they alone which offer real difficulties to the student of a foreign language. On the other hand, from the theoretical point of view, the question still remains open whether in a traditional combination the graphical word is used figuratively, or whether this figurative meaning has already become part and parcel of the group of meanings which a polysemantic word may have (of such compounds as: the depth of a well, the depth of a forest, the depth of somebody's insight, etc. in which depth - as it so frequently happens - is several times used stylistically , shifting from the direct sense of the title-word depth: so much so that it has become just another meaning of the word.

N o t e . The most complex scientific phraseological English dictionary - with Russian translations and explanations - is Anglo-russkij frazeologhicheskij slovari by A.V.Kunin, Moscow, 1955.

Not unlike words, phrases may be also classified in accordance with the domains to which the phraseological material may be referred (domains of human activity, etc.) - as does, for example, L o g a n P. S m i t h in his English Idioms, London, 1922, e.g.

Phrases connected with trades:

to bring grist to the mill - "a aduce cîştig";
a aduce apă la moară ;
to have too many irons in the fire - "a se apuca de prea multe", "a ţine prea mulţi iepuri într-o mînă";
between hammer and anvil - "între ciocan şi nicovală";
in full blast - "în toi", "în plin avînt";

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a chip of the old block - "leit firea lui tai-că-său";
to screw up one's courage - "a-şi lua inima în dinţi";
one nail drives another - "cui pe cui se scoate".

Phrases connected with Medicine :

to swallow the pill - "a îngniţi hapul";
to take the temperature of - "a aprecia situaţia", "a simţi pulsul";
a dose of his own medicine - "păcăliciul păcălit"; "nu săpa groapa altuia, ca să nu cazi singur în ea";
a fly in the ointment - (aprox.) "un pic de fiere strică multă miere".

Phrases connected with rivers, etc. :

to shiver on the brink - "a dîrdîi", "a-i fi frică", "a nu mai putea de frică";
to go in at the deep end - "a se arunca în apă"; "a se apuca cu curaj de o treabă";
to make a splash - "a face senzaţie";
on thin ice - "în primejdie", "la strîmtoare".

Phrases are also monosemantic and polysemantic : in full blast is a monosemantic phrase; but to be in abeyance is polysemantic for it has more meanings than one : 1. a aştepta; a fi în aşteptare; 2. a nu se manifesta, a nu apărea; 3. a nu avea stăpîn sau pretendent; 4. a fi abrogat provizoriu.

5. Lexical Units (Words, Phrases) and Context

Dictionaries - regardless of their structure (descriptive, monolingual, bilingual, encyclopaedical, of synomys, picture vocabularies, etc.) - are the proper repositories of lexical units - words and phrases; but however well written, however circumstantial in their descriptions of the meanings of

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different words, however scientific in their conception and technical arrangement, however large-sized, they cannot cover the great multitude of meanings and shades of meanings which a word or a phrase - particularly a word - may acquire in the usage of a language, spoken or written. This can only be revealed by context, an extremely important element both for lexicology and the other linguistic disciplines, all the more so when we think of an analytical language like contemporary English.

The notion of context may be interpreted in at least two senses : either in a limited linguistic sense, or in a broader sense, involving extra-linguistic factors (gestures, concrete situations in which somebody speaks, psychology, history, etc.). In the present course of lectures we shall interpret it in its limited sense, in accordance with the definition given to it by the Soviet investigator B.M.Leikina : "Context is a fragment of speech, within which are effected the linguistical conditions necessary to the revealing and making more precise the meanings of a word or of a group of words."[1]

The linguistical context varies as to length.

One of the briefest forms of context is that in which a word is accompanied by significant determinatives. Thus the word people, which in this 'primary' form is polysemantic : popor; lume, oameni; familie; a popula etc. As soon as we attach certain determinatives to it, this plurality of meanings decreases, e.g.:

people (with zero article) - oameni, lume; many people - mulți oameni; these people - acești oameni;
two people - doi oameni, două persoane; three people - trei oameni, trei persoane etc.
this people - acest popor; that people - poporul acela;

1 K voprosu o grammaticheskom kontekste, in Voprosy sintaksisa romano-ghermanskih yazykov, Leningrad, 1961, page 55.

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the people - 1. poporul; 2. oamenii(aceia,despre care s-a mai vorbit) ;
my people - 1. poporul meu; 2. ai mei, familia mea;
your people - 1. poporul tău; 2. ai tăi, familia ta etc.

In other words, the use of certain determinatives gives a certain meaning to the word, selecting it from the great number of meanings implied in the potential form of the word (people).

A lengthy context, a sentence above all, fixes the exact meaning of a word, so that - if the sentence is built properly- no confusion with the other meanings is possible. Examples:

The Rumanian people (poporul romîn) are struggling for peace.
People say (se spune) that he is a very gifted artist.
My people (ai mei) haven't yet returned from the pictures.
There were very many people (foarte mulți oameni) at the meeting condemning racial discrimination in South Africa.

It stands to reason that not all the words of the English vocabulary must necessarily be placed within a context in order to be identified as to their exact meaning or meanings.

N o t e . Here are a couple of words which may be profitably analysed in connection with context: work,folk,bright, man, table, leaf, family, content, ban, light, page, through, glass.

Also depending on context,the force of the lexical value of words (and phrases) may change to a large extent, so that words of full lexical values become less important, and words of reduced lexical values become very important from the semantic point of view. This may be proved by the following illustration. In such a sentence as

Peter is a hardworking boy,

the words Peter, hardworking, and boy have full lexical values in that they represent the important elements of the communication; while is has a diminished lexical value, it being but a linking element, and so has a, a mere grammatical determinative. On a closer examination we find that the word boy, although enjoying a full lexical value, is less significant than Peter and hardworking, because the qualification boy may be understood from previous statements, from 'anaphorical' elements,etc. (Compare with: Peter is hardworking, which as fully expresses the idea.)

Now let us enlarge the context a little and place the above sentence within the framework of a dialogue,for example:

A. 'John is a hardworking boy.
B. (No,)'Peter is a hardworking boy.

The stress on Peter makes it the most prominent (important) word in the sentence, while it diminishes the significance of other words: B. might have only said:

'Peter is.

Or, let us imagine the following form of the dialogue :

A. Peter is not a hardworking boy.
B. Peter 'is a hardworking boy.

In this new context, although the verb is preserves its function of a linking element, it is stressed, and therefore it acquires new lexical 'force.'

There are quite frequent cases when one and the same part of speech, discharging different functions in different contexts, changes its lexical values, as may be seen in the following examples:

a/ The verb TO BE :
To be or not to be, that is the question (full lexical value : "to exist").

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Shakespeare <u>is</u> the greatest English playwright (diminished lexical value - just a link-verb).
The children <u>are</u> playing in the garden (no lexical value, mere grammatical function).
<u>Am</u> I to start right now ? (full lexical value, yet subordinated to that of the principal verb 'to start'; a modal verb, the equivalent of 'must' or 'shall').

b/ The preposition TO :

They went <u>to</u> the river <u>to</u> bathe (diminished lexical values in both cases: <u>to</u> expresses relation).
I gave the book <u>to</u> Mary (a still more diminished lexical value; compare with 'I gave Mary the book').

c/ The article A, AN :

It was <u>a</u> very tall tree (diminished lexical value; a determinative).
<u>A</u> map, two pens, and three books ('increased' lexical value, since it is used numerically - like 'one').

In other words, <u>polyfunctionalism</u> is closely connected with the lexical value of words, which it increases or decreases, depending on the given context.

II. SOURCES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

English words, like words in any other language, come into existence in numberless ways; but despite the variety of the latter, one trait is common to all of them: every new word is created not out of nothing, but out of elements already existing in some form or other: beautiful comes from beauty + ful(l); sea-fever - from sea + fever; a-coming - from a(on)+ coming; morocco - from Morocco; whiche'er - from whichever; box ('cutie') - from the Latin buxus; smog - from smoke + fog; such words as marsh, mire, moor, murder, to mar, mill, martyr, mare (sea), murk, etc. can all be traced back to an Indo-European root, mar (to destroy , to break, etc.) as happens to many words in different other European languages (e.g. mare, moară, moarte, a omorî, maree, etc. in Rumanian).

The space of time between a contemporary word and its far-off original source is generally very great, as is the case of the words ultimately derived from the root mar. It is etymology that generally deals with such problems; for in its strict sense etymology (Gr. etymologia, from etymon, "literal sense of a word" and -logy, from logos) studies the "origin of a word, its initial form, its oldest known meaning, as well as its connection with the corresponding words in other languages." (E.F.Vorno et alt., Lexikologhia anglijskovo iazyka, Leningrad, 1955, p.14). Etymology is a more or less independent linguistic branch, although, of course, problems of etymology may affect lexicology (and the 'history of language') as well.

Consequently, the lexicological chapter dealing with Sources of the English Vocabulary "must of necessity confine itself to briefer spans of time, dwelling on immediate deri-

vations or on such 'series' of derivations as are specially required for a better understanding of this or that lexicological problem. The whole of the material included in it may be divided into borrowings (words, forms, or meanings borrowed from other languages), and word-formation (i.e.the creation of new words by means offered by the language under study). Special analyses show that word-formation, even while the influx of foreign words was at its height (e.g. in the XIIIth and XIVth centuries), prevailed over the other process.

A. BORROWINGS

1. Native and Foreign Elements

The Old English Element

Old English words form the foundation of modern and contemporary English, being widely represented in the basic word stock. Most of the Old English words belonging to the basic word stock have preserved their original meaning or meanings, while developing new meanings in course of time. Other Old English words have been either lost (e.g. ceorl in the sense of 'peasant', witan etc.), or preserved only in certain phrases and idioms (e.g. trice in the phrase 'in a trice', nonce in 'for the nonce', etc.).

In the general mass of vocabulary, the words of Old English origin are now far outnumbered by those derived from other languages; only 35 per cent may be traced back to Old English. And yet, a scientific computation must be based on the principle of frequency and circulation, which offers an altogether different image. According to this principle, native words occupy the first place - 70-80 per cent. It will be interesting to note that Bogdan P.Hașdeu, in Cuvente den bătrîni dealt with the problem of word circulation in English, pointing out its importance:

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"Almost all the words of Germanic origin enjoy a double, triple, tenfold circulation in comparison with the words of Romance origin... By their continuous use, the words of Germanic origin have been used up and generally reduced to monosyllables (while most Romance words are long words); also, on the one hand, they have branched out into numerous etymological families, and, on the other, they have acquired a multitude of meanings, for example the verb to get has more than forty different meanings, that is to say it corresponds to more than forty different words. Is it not strange to put the Germanic word to get, which is repeated every minute, in the same balance with such a rare word as disembarrassment, or imprescriptibility, or jactitation (bragging), as if they were 1 = 1, since in a dictionary they appear as equal units ?"

N o t e . As a practical conclusion to the foregoing, words of Old English origin should be, in general, given priority in textbooks, dictionaries, translations, etc.

The French Element

There are two main waves of penetration of the French element into English :

a) the old borrowings (approximately between 1100 - 1400);
b) the new borrowings (after 1500).

The oldest borrowings have been entirely assimilated by the English language and are not felt as 'aliens'- in contrast to a number of new borrowings, e.g.

proud (ab.1000) - OFr.prud (valiant), very, during, minute, second, etc.;
distingué, négligé, ennui, gaucherie, naive, au revoir, raison d'être etc.

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Prevailing among the old borrowings from the French language[1] are nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Many of them belong to specific notional spheres: state administration (state, reign, rule, to govern, government, power); law (court, justice, judge, to acquit, to condemn, to accuse); war (war, battle, victory, defeat, glory); art (art, design, to paint, statue, literature); family relations (uncle, aunt, cousin, nephew); nature (nature, summit, mountain, plain, flower, lake, river); words of a more general character (place, size, large, necessary). The number of form-words is rather small: because, during, etc.

Many of the French words borrowed after 1500, and especially after the Restoration (1660), belong to the domain of feudal-aristocratic culture and to entertainments (ballet, coquette, etc.)

In the main, French borrowings :

a/ have replaced certain Old English words, e.g.

Old E eām uncle; OE aethele, aetheling - noble;
OE wlite - beauty.

This refers particularly to OE compounds, e.g.:

arithmetic for rimecraft, suspicion for wantrust, treasure for goldhoard, agriculture for earth-tilth, library for book-hoard, etc.

b/ have formed hybrids, e.g.:

shepherdess, beautiful, hindrance, leakage, readable.

c/ have modified (limited) the meanings of certain Old English words, e.g.:

OE dēman ('to judge, to give a doom').
Mod E to deem ('to think, to consider').

d/ have contributed to meaning differentiation, e.g.

1 Words used in official language and reflecting, as a whole, feudal organization and mentality.

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OE calf; Fr.veau - veal, etc. Synonymic doublets have thus been created with vast consequences in the field of specialized terms.

In contrast with Old English words, French words introduced into English are frequently :

a/ many-syllabled, e.g. importance, natural, to aggrandize, technique, etc.

b/ abstract in meaning, e.g. - forcible, impetuous, naturalness, deliverance, etc.

c/ official or formal (compare to marry with OE to wed; infant - OE child, etc.).

A number of French borrowings have gone into the basic word stock of the English language, e.g. beauty, art, power, etc. Many of them have given rise to synonymic series, both ideographical (Fr.river - OE stream, etc.) and stylistical (Fr. desire - OE wish, etc.).

In point of style:

a/ Generally, old French borrowings do not affect the 'raciness' of an English text, e.g.

Cassius : Then, Brutus, I have much mistook your passion,
By means whereof, this breast of mine hath buried
Thoughts of great value, worthy cogitations.
Tell me, good Brutus, can you see your face ?
(S h a k e s p e a r e , J.Caesar, I,1.)

b/ Abstract French words are often blended felicitously with words of OE origin, e.g.

even-handed justice
to prick the spurs of ambition (S h a k e s p e a r e)

c/ French words which have not been assimilated by the English language are frequently used to express mannerism, pedantry, etc. They are not used by the whole people, but only by limited social groups, e.g.

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We had drifted into a ridiculous situation, and were like characters in one of those tiresome plays where misunderstandings are so carefully sustained that the audience are too bored to wait for the dénouement. You can do that on the stage; but we wanted our dénouement.

(E. C h i l d e r s.)

N o t e . As a practical conclusion to the foregoing, French borrowings should be used carefully by the non-English speaking student. Distinction must be made between French words that have become part and parcel of the English language and French words that are still felt as 'aliens'.

The Latin Element

Latin influenced the English vocabulary in several historical periods. Latin borrowings are generally grouped as follows :

a) Latin words borrowed by the Anglo-Saxons before their landing in Britain. Most of them denoted articles of consumption or referred to trade, e.g. pear (OE pere, L pirum), cheese (OE ciese, L caseus), butter (OE butere, L butyrum), cup (OE cuppe, L cuppa), copper (OE copor, L cuprum), inch (OE ynce, L uncia - 'the 12th part'), etc.

b/ Latin words borrowed by the Britons and taken over by the Anglo-Saxons, e.g. port (OE port, L portus), street (OE straet, L strata via - 'paved road'), wall (OE weal, L vallum), kitchen (OE cycene, L cōquina), etc.

c/ Latin words introduced into Old English in the VIIth century (after the Christianization of the Britons), chiefly denoting notions connected with religious practices, e.g. candle (OE candel, L candela), disciple (OE discipul, L discipulus), temple (OE tempel, L templum), shrine (OE scrin, L scrinium - 'chest'), etc.

A number of Latin borrowings belonging to this period denoted objects of common use, e.g. chest (OE cest, cyst, L cista - 'drawer'), silk (OE seolc, seolȝc, L sericum), etc.;

plants and vegetables, e.g. beet (OE bete, L beta), lily (OE lilie, L lilium), rose (OE rose, L rosa), fennel (OE finuȝle, L foeniculum), etc.; various other notions, e.g. school (OE scol, L schola Gk skhole), fever (OE fefer, L febris), circle (OE circol, L circulus), etc.

d/ The influx of Latin words after the XIIth century was very great, being represented both by direct borrowings and indirect borrowings (through the medium of another language, chiefly French). Here are a few direct Latin borrowings: absent, absolute, acid, to adopt, conception, to describe, to illuminate, margin, memory, medium, vehicle, voluptuous. A large number of these direct borrowings belong to the so-called 'international vocabulary'.

A great number of Latin borrowings have entered into the basic word stock of the English language, e.g. street, wall, cup, etc. (mainly old borrowings).

In contemporary English about one in four words is of Latin origin.

Affixes are well represented: anti-: antiaircraft, anticlerical, anticyclone; dis- : to disable, to disagree, to disarm; -an : republican, European, humane; -ary : antiquary, contemporary, etc.

Words and phrases taken from Latin without change: antenna, bona fide, formula, errata, innuendo, minimum, post mortem, vacuum, veto, via. Abbreviations : a.m. (L ante meridiem); e.g. (L exempli gratia); i.e. (L id est); L.s.d. (L librae, solidii, denarii - pounds, shillings, pence); cf (L conferre); viz (L videlicet - 'that is to say').

The indebtedness of the English language to Latin is hard to measure. Latin has enriched it enormously, particularly in the domain of synonyms. The more abstract Latin words have been an important element for attaining breadth in generalization. Euphony and sonorousness are often the result of a skilful use of the Latin element, e.g.

With their frequent repetitions,
And their wild reverberations,
As of thunder in the mountains...
(L o n g f e l l o w , The Song of Hiawatha.)

Certain words of Latin origin may have an exclusively learned character which, in an English context, is apt to produce humorous efects.

The exagerated use of Latin words makes the style heavy and bookish, very often unintelligible, e.g.

> The young lady home from school was explaining: "Take an egg," she said, "and make a perforation in the base and a corresponding one in the apex. Then apply the lips to the aperture, and by forcibly inhaling the breath the shell is entirely discharged of its contents." An old lady who was listening exclaimed: "It beats me how folks do things nowadays. When I was a gal I made a hole in each end and sucked."
>
> (J e s p e r s e n , Growth and Structure of the English Language.)

Official style (used in documents, at the courts of law, etc.) is characterized by its abundance of Latin borrowings (often with an admixture of Latin words and phrases).The writer Samuel Johnson was a staunch supporter of the Latin element in English. His own style was so peculiar that it has received the distinguishing name of 'Johnsonese'. "Short words had no charm for him. Sonorous Latin derivatives, and carefully elaborated sentences, were marshalled in honour of his thoughts. Whether describing a scene in a tavern, or expatiating on the grandest of moral themes, the same display of language makes his writing monotonous... Goldsmith once declared to his face, 'If you were to write a fable about little fishes,Doctor, you would make the little fishes talk like whales.'"[1]

N o t e . Practical conclusions: be very cautious as to the use of Latin borrowings, distinguishing between older naturalized borrowings and more recent coinages.

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1 S h a w ' s New History of English Literature, New York, p. 271.

The Greek Element

A study of Greek elements in the English language should go hand in hand with the study of the Latin element; with few exceptions, the earliest Greek words introduced into English as well as those introduced in later periods, came through the medium of Latin or were more or less Latinized.

Borrowings from Greek go back to an early period, but before the Revival of Learning their number was small enough (e.g. devil, Gk diabolus; church, Gk kuriakon; dropsy, palsy, etc.). After the Revival of Learning the influx of Greek words was a continuous one. Possessing an almost unlimited power to form compounds and derivatives, Greek is a proper vehicle for terms of a technical and scientific character, medicine, geology, lexicology, etc. being its favourite domains (e.g. epidemy, zymosis, encephalitis, gastritis; lexicology, antonym, synonym, apocope, homograph, metaphor, polysemy, etc.).

It shall be remembered that the modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency (Of Rumanian and English terms: elegie - elegy, botanică - botany, geologie - geology, etc.).

Generally speaking, owing to their strictly scientific or technical character, English words of Greek origin do not belong to the basic word stock; only a few words that have entered into the vocabulary of the whole people have become part of the basic word stock (e.g. fancy, idea, etc.). More often than not, words of Greek origin cannot be converted.

The Scandinavian Element

The extent of the Scandinavian influence upon the English language (as a result of the numerous Scandinavian inroads before 1000 and of the Danish rule in England, 1013 - 1042) is hard to ascertain on account of the great similarity between the language of the Scandinavians (fixed in written form as Old Icelandic) and Old English. Such words as folk, house, life,

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sorrow, can, better, full, under, well, wise were identical in both languages.

The criterion of sound may, in many cases, be applied in distinguishing Scandinavian words from native ones. Thus, since in native English the sk sound had regularly changed to the greater part of English words containing the sk sound,e.g. scare, skill, skirt, sky as well as many words with the k sound before e and i, e.g. kettle, keg, kirk, are to be traced back to Scandinavian words.

According to certain rough computations, the Scandinavian element in contemporary English amounts to 65o words.Generally they denote objects and actions of the most commonplace description, e.g. anger (O.Ic.angr), to die (O.Ic.deyja), fellow (O.Ic.felagi), gate (O.Ic.gata), to hit (O.Ic.hitta - 'to find'), ill (O.Ic.illr), rotten (O.Ic.rottin).

A great number of Scandinavian words have become part of the basic word stock of the English language.

The Celtic Element

The Celtic element is but poorly represented in English. Among the few old borrowings are bin (OE binn - 'chest', C benn - 'cart'), crag (OE crag, C craig), down (OE dūn -'hill', C dun). Modern borrowings : clan (Sc clann), flannel (W gwaanen -'woolen article of dress'), loch (S loch), shamrock (Ir seamrog), slogan (Sc slogan, sluaghgairm - battle-cry, Tory (Ir toraidhe - 'thief'), etc.

General Conclusions

'A marriage of the languages of the North and South', as a linguist put it, the English vocabulary is made up of five principal elements : Anglo-Saxon (Old English), French, Latin, Greek, and Scandinavian. Of these, the Old English element is the most important: an Englishman can express most of what

he wants to say by means of the Old English vocabulary. Yet, it is as true that the vocabulary borrowed from other languages has contributed to what might be termed 'specialization' - shades in meaning, technical terms, synonymy, etc. - to say nothing of rhythm and euphony.

2. Other Elements in the English Vocabulary

Italian Borrowings

Italian borrowings may be divided into three groups :

a/ words connected with art and literature, most of them borrowed in the period of the Renaissance, e.g. niche, bust, soprano, bass, concert, etc.

b/ words connected with the army, introduced into English especially through the medium of French in the XVI-th and XVII-th centuries, e.g. colonel, campaign, infantry, allarm, etc.

c/ different other words, e.g. lagoon, lava, volcano, corridor, influenza, etc.

Spanish Borrowings

It is after 1492 (the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus) that one may speak of a Spanish influence on the English language, materialized in the introduction of such words as Negro, armada, guerilla, chocolate (Sp chocolate, Mex chocolatl), cork (Sp corcho), ranch (Sp rancho), tobacco (Sp tabaco), etc.

German Borrowings

Borrowings from the German language began in Late Middle English, representing an almost continuous influx, e.g. plunder,

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swindler, iceberg, zigzag, waltz, zinc, quartz, wolfram, etc. Translation loans: masterpiece (G Meisterstücke), place in the sun (G Platz in der Sonne), God's acre (G Gottesacker), home-sickness (G Heimweh), etc.

Dutch Borrowings

Dutch words were introduced into English in various periods, e.g. aloof, brandy, buoy, (to) cruise, easel, landscape, to loiter, reef, sled (sledge), skipper, toy, wagon (waggon), yacht, etc.

Russian Borrowings

Russian borrowings fall into two distinct groups:

a/ borrowings before the Great October Socialist Revolution, e.g. astrakhan, verst, rouble, copeck, tsar, voivode, samovar, troika, etc.

b/ borrowings after the Great October Socialist Revolution, most of them expressing social and political notions, N.N.Amosova, in Lexikologhia angliiskovo yazyka (Leningrad, 1955), distinguishes the following categories of borrowings :

- words reflecting state organization and political life, e.g. the Supreme Council of the U.S.S.R., regional Soviet, district Soviet, Leninism, selfcriticism, bolshevik, etc.
- words reflecting class-warfare, e.g. kulak, wrecker, trotzkyite, etc.
- the new attitude towards work, e.g. socialist emulation, shock-worker, etc.
- words reflecting the socialist system of economy, e.g. collective farm, kolkhoz, sovkhoz, state farm, producers' cooperative, etc.
- words reflecting socialist culture, e.g. house of culture, people's actor, pioneers' palace, etc.

From the point of view of their form, these words are represented:

a/ by phonetic borrowings, e.g. Soviet, Komsomol, artel, sovkhoz, kolkhoz, etc.

b/ by translation loans, e.g. labour day, political guide, People's Council, etc.

c/ by explanatory translations, e.g. poor peasant, Young Communist League, etc.

The extraordinary successes scored by the Soviet people in the domain of science and technique are ever more reflected in the English language. An interesting example is supplied by the Russian word спутник, which, after the historic victories of the U.S.S.R. in the conquest of space, gained immediate currency in most languages of the world. In the days of the American scientists' unfruitful attempts at launching a "sputnik", quite a number of English nonce-words were created with the suffix -nik, e.g. phutnik ('the sputnik that went phut'), kaputnik ('the sputnik that went kaput'), if-nik ('the sputnik about which people doubt that it will ever orbit'), etc. The Russian suffix -nik now occurs in various English words, for example in beatnik, 'a member of the literary current that entitles itself beat generation.'

Borrowings from Other Languages

From Persian : bakshish, bashaw, bazaar, caravansary, dervis(h), divan, pasha, shah, etc.

From Turkish: agha (aga), bey, caftan, chibouk, turkey, etc.

From Hebrew: cherub, Satan, seraph, etc.

From Arabic: fellah, emir, harem, sheik, sherbet, simoom, sofa, etc.

From Hindustani: bandanna (a silk handkerchief with white spots), thug (an assassin), wallah (a doer), etc.

From Portuguese: auto-da-fe, molasses, tamk, marmalade, etc.

From Chinese: tea, china, nankeen, etc.

From Australian: boomerang, dingo, kangaroo, etc.

From Malay: bamboo, cassowary, gong, amuck, orangoutang, etc.

From North-American Indian : hominy, moccasin, pemmican, squaw, tomahawk, wigwam, etc.

3. International Words

A special chapter should be devoted to 'international words', that is words which have gained currency in different languages while preserving one and the same meaning. Most of them denote notions referring to science, technique, culture, and politics, as in the following text :

> "Bacteria are minute vegetable organisms possessing no chlorophyl, and multiplying under favourable conditions by repeated bi-partition. The names baccili, microbes, micrococci, micro-organisms, and germs are also popularly applied to the group as a whole, but in scientific classification they are called schizomicetes, etc.
> (Definition of bacteria.)[1]

Most of these words are of Latin or Greek origin; and one of their distinctive traits is the facility with which we understand and translate them into our own language. On the other hand, they are generally characterized by phonetic difficulties (see examples above).

False Friends

That international words are the easiest to translate must not be looked upon as an absolute rule; there are instances when these words are far more difficult than the words we simply do not know and have to look up in a dictionary - more difficult because they are misleading : apparently, they coincide with this or that Rumanian word, while ac-

1 Everyman's Encyclopaedia, London.

tually they mean an altogether different thing. This category of international words, sometimes called 'false friends', may be illustrated by a rather important part of the English international vocabulary. Here is a list of such words that are apt to mislead the Rumanian student:

abstract - 1. abstracţie; termen abstract; 2. rezumat.
abuse - 1. abuz; 2. jignire; vorbe de ocară;
accent - 1. accent; 2. accent; pronunţie. 3. pl. vorbire, limbă.
actual - 1. real, adevărat; autentic; 2.actual.
actuality - 1. realitate; 2. realism(în artă).
actually - 1. într-adevăr, în mod real, realmente; 2. actualmente.
adept - 1. cunoscător, expert; 2. ist.alchimist; adept.
aliment - 1. aliment; 2. întreţinere(a cuiva).
alligator - 1. zool.aligator; 2. tehn. concasor.
amplification - 1. amplificare. 2. răspîndire.
amplitude - 1. amplitudine; 2. abundenţă, belşug; 3. avînt, orizont; 4. spaţiu, întins,lărgime.
to anatomize - 1. a anatomiza; 2. a analiza, a supune unei analize critice.
anatomy - 1. anatomie; 2. anatomizare; 3.vorb. schelet.
antecedence - 1. antecedenţă; 2. prioritate.
apology - 1. apologie; 2. scuze, iertare; 3. vorb. surogat, caricatură.
apt - 1. potrivit, nimerit; 2. to... pasibil de, înclinat să...,avînd tendinţa de a... 3. priceput, capabil; 4. amer. probabil.
argument - 1. argument; 2. argumentare; discuţie; ceartă; 3. conţinut (pe scurt, al unei cărţi).

atrocity - 1. atrocitate; grozăvie. 2. vorb. gafă, lipsă de tact.
brutal - 1. brutal; 2. vorb. scîrbos, respingător.
camera - 1. aparat fotografic; 2. constr. cameră.
capability - 1. capabilitate; 2. pl. posibilități (nefolosite încă).
cataract - 1. cataractă, cascadă; 2. ploaie torențială; 3. med. cataractă.
character - 1. caracter; 2. reputație; 3. recomandare scrisă, caracterizare; 4. personaj; 5. vorb. om original, excentric; 6. calitate; in - of a friend, ca prieten; 7. caracter, literă.
civil - 1. civil, civic; 2. politicos, bine crescut.
class - 1. clasă; 2. curs; lecție; 3. amer. promoție; an; 4. univ. distincție; 5. fel, sort, calitate; it's no - sl. nu e bun de nimic.
comfort - 1. confort; 2. mîngîiere, sprijin; 3. liniște, odihnă.
commodity - articol de uz, pl. marfă.
to complete - 1. a completa; 2. a încheia, a sfîrși.
concert - 1. concert; 2. înțelegere, acord.
consequence - 1. consecință; 2. concluzie, urmare; 3. importanță, semnificație etc.
confident - 1. convins, încrezător; 2- încrezut.



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