The background of the entire cover is a repeating pattern of small, teal-colored, eight-pointed stars or snowflakes arranged in a grid-like fashion.

English Vocabulary Elements

Keith Denning
William R. Leben

New York Oxford
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Preface

INTENDED AUDIENCE FOR THIS BOOK

This book is intended for use either independently or in courses at the advanced high school and college levels. It is especially recommended for those interested in preparing for educational aptitude tests and other postsecondary admissions tests (including the PSAT, SAT, ACT, GRE, LSAT, MCAT, MAT) that test vocabulary skills. Part or all of the text may also be used to good effect in English for Foreign Students (EFS) and English as a Second Language (ESL) courses. The book may provide preparation for those considering majors in the natural sciences (e.g., biology, chemistry, engineering, premedical study, and physics), the social sciences (e.g., psychology, sociology, and linguistics), and the humanities (e.g., literature, classics, modern languages, philosophy, and history). If this list seems broad, it is because we feel that the skills one may acquire through the study of these materials are valuable for nearly every field of study or work which requires a facility for comprehension or expression in the English language. This list is, of course, not meant to exclude those who are merely afflicted with the kind of curiosity about language that has motivated many an amateur and professional linguist in the course of a lifetime of joyful pursuit.

The book is designed primarily to expand vocabulary skills by teaching the basic units of written English vocabulary. It also touches on a number of other areas equally important to an effective understanding of learned, specialized, and scientific vocabulary, and to the explanation of many otherwise puzzling or problematic aspects of the structure of the English language. Included here are introductions to important facets of the history of English and language

change and basic phonetics. This material is intended to facilitate, supplement, and enrich the study of vocabulary elements.

The book is structured to allow for flexibility in its application to any of several kinds of curriculums with differing time constraints and differing degrees of intensiveness and scope. It may serve as the core for courses in English vocabulary (either specialized, scientific, or general), verbal aptitude examination preparation, the history of English, English grammar (for native speakers or ESL students), or scientific writing.

USING THIS BOOK

In reading each chapter, the student should focus on the key concepts and, in particular, on terminology (shown in boldface type, e.g. **morpheme**, **gloss**) and definitions.

After each assigned reading (or on some kind of periodic basis), the student should memorize any associated list of morphemes (i.e. meaningful word elements) and their glosses (i.e. the thumbnail definitions of their meanings) and complete the exercises assigned by the instructor. The exercises for each chapter will assume a knowledge of the morphemes, glosses, and skills covered up to that point. It is therefore advisable for students to master the material as it is encountered rather than to save memorization until the end. The following abbreviations are used throughout the text:

A = adjective **N** = noun **V** = verb

Different typefaces are used to distinguish various levels:

- Cited morphemes, words, and phrases are ordinarily written in italics (e.g. *pre-*, *invasion*, *Angela sings beautifully*).
- When the discussion deals with spelling alone, letters, words, and phrases are underlined (e.g. the letter *s*, *traveller* vs. *traveler*, *cat's-paw* and *catspaw*).
- If meaning (rather than sound or spelling) is the focus, a word or phrase appears within single quotes (e.g. Greek *cosmos* 'order', Old English *tunge* 'tongue').
- When it is necessary to focus the reader's attention on part of a cited form, it may be written in boldface (e.g. *Angela sings beautifully*).

VOCABULARY-BUILDING TECHNIQUES

Mnemonics. As a mnemonic device (i.e. an aid to memorization), each **morpheme** (i.e. word element) assigned in the course is accompanied by one or more simple or familiar English words containing that morpheme and illustrating its meaning. For *narco* 'sleep', for example, one possible mnemonic is *narcotic* (i.e. a drug that causes sleep or dreaminess). It is not necessary to memorize these mnemonic words. They are intended only to allow students to put the morpheme in a frame rather than requiring them to learn an abstract, unassociated form. Sometimes the student will think of a better alternative to the mnemonic supplied and should certainly use it if it helps in learning the morpheme.

Flashcards and similar devices. Although each individual must find the most effective way to learn morphemes and their meanings, several of our students have found it helpful to create flashcards for each morpheme with the morpheme on one side and the gloss on the other, just as they would in foreign language study.

Another method (which saves some writing) is to cover one side of the list of morphemes and glosses and, going from top to bottom and then from bottom to top, to try to recall the morpheme for each gloss and then the gloss for each morpheme. Other approaches to the task of self-drilling for memorization include repeating morphemes and glosses to yourself until you cannot internally "hear" one without the other, or finding a rhyme or mental "picture" which helps to associate morphemes and their glosses (e.g. "*aster* reminds me of the flower having the same name, which looks like a *star*," or "*viv* reminds me of my friend Vivian, who is very *lively*").

USING A DICTIONARY

We strongly recommend that every student following the course of study outlined in this book have on hand as a supplement a dictionary designed for the collegiate level or above (i.e. one containing 150,000 or more entries), such as *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* or *Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (10th ed.). It may also be necessary to consult a larger dictionary like the *Oxford English Dictionary*, (OED) or *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*, or such specialized dictionaries as *Dorland's Illustrated Medical Dictionary*. Many of these are available in high school, college, and public libraries, as well as at bookstores selling new and used books.

Using a dictionary effectively is a skill which must be learned. It is important

to become familiar with the basic layout of any dictionary you use. Most good dictionaries make this task easier by presenting explanations of entries, lists of abbreviations, and so forth, in the introductory pages. We recommend that students take the time to read this material before trying to use a new dictionary, thereby avoiding frustration later on.

One of the best ways to attack the sometimes bewildering variety of English vocabulary is to refer to a collegiate-level dictionary when you confront unfamiliar, difficult, or interesting words. When you come across an unfamiliar word or morpheme, it is a good idea either to make a note of it for later reference or to take a moment to look it up. Learning to look for and recognize the morphemes and words you learn in the course (as well as those you acquire on your own) will eventually minimize the time you will spend with a dictionary—unless, of course, you enjoy reading dictionaries, in which case you may find yourself spending more time on other words than on the one you originally meant to look up!

MOVING BEYOND THE FINAL CHAPTER

More comprehensive lists of Latin and Greek word elements than those provided in the glossary can be found in the works by Smith, Borror, and Hogben listed at the end of this book. These works list morphemes according to different principles, but the student can, with a little searching, use them to find and identify many less frequently used word elements not found in our glossary. Through the use of such guides, inquisitive exploration, and acquisition of the principles presented here, students may continue to expand their vocabulary-analysis skills far beyond their current capabilities.

We are indebted to our students and teaching assistants over the years for their many helpful and insightful suggestions relating to this book as well as the course upon which it was based. In particular, we are grateful to R. M. R. Hall, John J. Ohala, J. David Placek, and Robert Vago for reading an earlier version of this text and for providing extremely valuable comments and recommendations.

Ypsilanti, Mich.
Stanford, Calif.
July 1994

K. D.
W. R. L.

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Pronunciation Guide

The following symbols are used in the text when a pronunciation must be precisely described. The words beside each symbol illustrate the current English pronunciation. The phonetic symbols used here are widely employed by American linguists. (Some alternative symbols not used in this book but employed elsewhere are shown in parentheses.)

VOWELS*		CONSONANTS	
symbol	as in	symbol	as in
a	father	b	boy
æ	cat	č (tʃ)	chip
ai (aʲ, aʲ)	ride	d	dog
au (aʷ, aʷ)	town	ð	they
e (eʲ, eʲ)	fiancé, raid, made	f	fat
ʌ	cut	g	go
ə	about	h	hot
ɛ	pet	j (dʒ)	jump
i	machine	k	kiss
ɪ (ɪ)	pit	l	left
o (ɔʷ, ɔʷ)	rose	m	mark
ɔ	call, court	n	new

ɔɪ (ɔʔ, ɔɪ)	noise	ŋ	singer
u	prune	p	pot
ʊ (ʊ)	put	r	run
		s	sit
		ʃ (ʃ)	shape
		t	top
		θ	thigh
		v	vote
		w	worm
		ɹ (j)	yell
		x	yech! (German: Bach)
		z	zoo
		ʒ (ʒ)	azure

English Vocabulary Elements

*Many Americans do not distinguish between certain pairs of vowel sounds. For example, the words *hock* and *hawk* may sound identical to you, or you may only barely distinguish the vowels of *cut* and *about* or those of *court* and *rose*.

When the precise pronunciation of a sound or word must be indicated, that sound or word will be enclosed in square brackets. For example, 'the word *bathe* is pronounced [beð]' or 'the sound [ʒ] occurs at the end of the *rouge*'.

Note that at some points it will be necessary to indicate a sound's length, and this will be done by writing a colon (:) immediately after a long sound. This might be the case, for example, when we wish to carefully contrast the vowel sounds in *pit* and *Pete* (i.e. [pɪt] and [pi:t], respectively). In the second of these words the vowel is not only different in sound but also takes approximately twice as long to pronounce.)

When it is necessary to indicate where the primary stress in a word's pronunciation occurs, the stressed syllable will be printed in bold face. For example, *inter* and *converse* have different meanings from *inter-* and *converse*; and the pronunciation of *hasidim* is [xa si dɪm].

1

Introduction: The Wealth of English

WORD POWER AND A WORLD POWER

In the number of speakers who learn it as a first or second language, and in its range of uses and adaptability to general and specific tasks, English is the world's most important language today. It is the mother tongue of several hundred million people. Its rich verbal art, great works in science and scholarship, and major role in international commerce and culture have made English the most frequently taught second language in the world.

English is not the first language of as many individuals as Mandarin Chinese. But it is spoken over a much vaster area. In North America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and elsewhere, it is the official language of many nations, including some where English is not most people's first language.

A history of political importance as well as a certain linguistic suppleness have endowed English with an enormous vocabulary. *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* contains 460,000 words, and these do not include the many technical terms that appear only in specialized dictionaries for particular fields, or recent **neologisms** (new words), not to mention all the regular plural forms of nouns, the different present and past tense forms of verbs, and other words derived from these words. No other language comes close to English in a count of general vocabulary. German runs a poor second with under 200,000 words. According to Robert Claiborne, in *Our Marvelous Native Tongue: The Life and Times of the English Language* (New York: Times Books, 1983), the largest dictionary of French has about 150,000 words, and a Russian dictionary maybe 130,000.

The size of the English vocabulary has some wonderful advantages. While it

may be true that any concept can be expressed in any language, a language can make the process easier or harder by providing or not providing appropriate words. Thanks to the well-developed word stock of English, English speakers have a head start over speakers of other languages in being able to express themselves clearly and concisely.

Whether one uses this head start to advantage or not is, of course, up to the individual, but speakers with a good command of vocabulary can say things in more subtly different (and, hence, often more effective) ways than others can, and this ability is noticed.

- We refer to our friends and acquaintances as good talkers, fast talkers, boring conversationalists, etc.
- College board and aptitude test scores depend very heavily on vocabulary knowledge.
- A job or school application or interview often turns on how adept at using language the interviewee is.
- We find that we can overcome many sorts of individual and group handicaps to the extent that we become established as a "good communicator."

In cases like these, the difference between success and failure often amounts to how well we have mastered the ability to speak and comprehend speech, and to read and write. The expressive power of language is enormous, and every time a word acquires a new shade of meaning—a common development, as we will see—the richness of the language is enhanced. This may make you wonder why people complain so much about novel uses of language. Some seem to react to each new twist that comes into the language as a sign of decline, but a view of language change as growth deserves serious consideration.

The enormous size of the English vocabulary also has its disadvantages, as we are reminded each time we have to use a dictionary to look up a word we don't know, or because we were tricked by the alluring picture on the front cover of a book into thinking that the language inside would be easily within our grasp. A language as rich in its vocabulary as English is full of surprises, and however wonderful it may be in some ways that this richness is always increasing, it places a potentially painful burden on us when we first learn words and their meanings.

To sum up, English is extraordinarily well endowed with words. As versatile as the language already is, the supply of words is ever on the rise, with their meanings shifting in time to reflect new uses. These are the facts that we will deal with in this book.

ON THE ATTACK

In the face of a challenge of such large proportions, a well-organized attack is called for. While we cannot expect the language always to oblige us in our quest for shortcuts to an enhanced vocabulary, we fortunately will uncover signs that some of the work has already been done for us. This is mainly due to the fact that most of the complex words in the language have similar structures. If we learn the rules that reveal the structure of a certain kind of word, it will relieve us of some of the burden (and, perhaps, boredom) of learning all the words of this type individually.

We must divide and then conquer. We will find that some aspects of the study of word structure (known as **morphology**) are helpful in analyzing words into their parts and in understanding how the parts contribute to the meaning of the whole. It will also come in handy to understand how English came to be the way it is and to learn some of the linguistic characteristics of the principal languages that English has drawn on to reach its present position.

PRECISION AND ADAPTABILITY

One significant result of the size of the English vocabulary is the degree of precision it allows. The wealth of words that are nearly synonymous but yet embody subtle shades of difference in meaning makes English the only major language which often requires the use of a thesaurus—an organized listing of words that helps a writer capture a precise tone and sense by providing exactly the right word. Most languages get by with a single word, whereas the skillful use of English requires special consideration to make the appropriate choice between two or more similar words (what the French call *le mot juste* 'the precise word'). For example, deciding between the words *paternal* and *fatherly* in the following sentences involves sensitivity to a distinction few other languages make.

paternal or *fatherly*?

- a. The judge's decision restricted Tom's _____ rights.
- b. George gave Kim a _____ smile and then went back to reading.

You would probably choose to use *paternal* in the first sentence and *fatherly* in the second. Certainly *fatherly* and *paternal* share the same basic meaning or **denotation**, and we could have used *fatherly* in the first sentence and *paternal* in the second, but the opposite choice is preferred because of matters of **con-**

notation, the subtler secondary associations of a word. Connotation includes factors like style, mood, and level of familiarity. *Paternal* is a more stylistically formal choice (and therefore appropriate to a legal context like that in the first sentence) while *fatherly* is less formal in style. *Fatherly* strongly connotes the idealized qualities of fatherhood (especially those of personal warmth and love); *paternal* does not.

Not only does the wealth of choices offered by English vocabulary make such subtle distinctions possible, but its adaptability provides a ready means for creating new words as they are needed. Even if the dictionary does not list an appropriate word, we often create one to fill the need for, say, a verb meaning 'correct in advance' (which we may form by adding the **word element** *pre-*, which means 'before', to the existing verb *edit*,) and then use it in a sentence: The author must *pre-edit* the manuscript.

Similarly, the element *-like* (either with or without a preceding hyphen, as in *childlike* or *tree-like*) may be affixed to a huge number of nouns to create such new words as *tentacle-like*, *cup-like*, and so on. If we invent a device for examining veins and recognize that in many words *ven* means 'vein' (as in *venopuncture* 'the use of a needle to inject liquids into or draw blood from a vein') and that *scope* means 'a viewing device' (as in *microscope* 'a device for examining very small things'), we may call the new device a *venoscope*, a word never before recorded in the dictionary. The creation (or **coining**) of neologisms is commonplace in English; almost any new idea can be expressed by combining English words or their parts in new ways.

Such adaptability means that even the largest dictionaries can't capture every possible word in the language. The number of possible combinations of word elements like *pre-*, *veno*, and *scope*, and the immeasurable amount of speaking and writing done in English requires that dictionary editors restrict themselves to listing only the most frequent words in a language, and even then, only those used over a substantial period of time. Dictionaries are therefore always at least slightly out of date and inaccurate in their descriptions of the language's stock of words. In addition, the use of many words is restricted to specific domains. For example, medical terminology involves a tremendous number of words unfamiliar to those outside the medical community. Many of these terms never enter general dictionaries of the language and can only be found in specialized medical dictionaries.

THE CONSTANTLY EVOLVING NATURE OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Change and innovation are integral to English, as they are to every living language. The productivity of the language has brought in new words using the

element *-ize* meaning roughly 'to make' as *finalize*, *standardize*, and *prioritize*. Although some of these words have been singled out as 'corruptions' by certain writers and teachers of English, all of them have established firm footholds in the language and are unlikely to be the subject of debate in coming generations.

Taste and style are often matters of personal discretion and are also subject to change. In the course of this book we hope to build a greater sense of security about language use. We all like to think of ourselves as making informed decisions about the acceptability of particular words or usages for particular circumstances. We all would like to move freely between the informal, formal, and technical domains of spoken and written English.

WHY ENGLISH IS SO RICH

Modern English is the product of a long and complex process of historical development. Consequently, we can expect to find clues to its character in the past. Indeed, English has a history as rich as its vocabulary. The most important historical factor in the growth of the English vocabulary has been the ease with which it has **borrowed** words from other languages and adapted them to its own uses. The word *clique*, which is partially synonymous with the **native** (i.e. nonborrowed, inherited) English word *group*, for example, was taken into English from French around the year 1700. Since that time, *clique* has become a familiar English word. It has been incorporated into the language to such an extent that it participates in processes which originally applied only to native vocabulary, with the result that today we have many words that have been **derived** from *clique*. (One word is derived from another by adding other word elements to it and/or by changing its part of speech—e.g. from noun to verb or from adjective to noun.) These include *cliquish*, *cliquishness*, *cliquy*, *cliqueless*, the verb *to clique* and others, as Otto Jespersen notes in *Growth and Structure of the English Language*. (Compare this to the way words which were not borrowed from other languages, such as *red*, are the basis for derived forms like *reddish*, *reddishness*, *redde*, etc.)

English has been so ready to take words from foreign sources that more than seventy-five percent of modern English vocabulary has either been borrowed or formed from borrowed elements. Understanding why English vocabulary is as rich and diverse as it is gives us an important aid in learning to master it. (Chapter 2 will deal in depth with the historical development of English vocabulary.) The reason that English has two words with such similar meanings as *fatherly* and *paternal* is that it retained a native word (*fatherly*) while borrowing from Latin a near synonym (*paternal*). This in a sense

allowed *fatherly* to 'share' its duties with *paternal*. This is the general pattern with native and borrowed synonyms: the native word is more familiar or more basic and (usually) shorter while the borrowed word is more formal or more technical and longer. A few additional synonym pairs serve to illustrate this point.

native	borrowed
tell	inform
spin	rotate
pretty	attractive

In each of these pairs the first member is more appropriate for everyday use, more conversational, and less formal or technical than the second. The first member of each pair is native while the second is borrowed.

But the choice between familiar and formal words is only one small part of the picture. With its wealth of native and foreign resources, English vocabulary has tremendous freedom to expand. Specialized and technical terminology, which generally involve the use of elements borrowed from Latin and Greek, are the most frequent sites of vocabulary innovation.

PNEUMONOLTRAMICROSCOPICSILICOVOLCANOCONIOSIS

This forty-five letter word is listed in the *Guinness Book of World Records* as the longest word in English. It is the name of a lung disease caused by the inhalation of extremely fine particles of volcanic silicon dust. Admittedly an extreme case, it illustrates the lengths to which innovation using foreign word elements may be taken. Although perhaps bewildering at first, this monstrous word is not as difficult to handle as it might seem. It is made up a number of elements, many of which are already familiar to you by themselves or as they appear as parts of other words. These include *pneumon* (which is also part of the name for the lung disease *pneumonia*), *ultra* 'extremely' (as in *ultraconservative*), *microscopic*, *silic* (as in the word *silicon*), *volcan*, and *-osis* (as in *tuberculosis* or *neurosis*) meaning 'medical condition' or 'disease'. The most unfamiliar element of the word is *coni*, which is found in two other specialized words in which it also means 'dust': *conidium* and *koniology*. (It is also related to the element *cin* 'ashes' in *incinerate*.) So *pneumon/o/ultra/microscopic/silic/o/volcan/o/coni/osis* literally means 'lung-microscopic-silicon-volcanic-dust-disease' or (to rearrange things a bit more sensibly) 'lung disease (caused by) microscopic (i.e. extremely small or fine) volcanic silicon dust'. (Incidentally, *microscopic* could itself be broken down into three elements: *micro* 'small', *scop* 'view', and *ic*, which

makes the word an adjective.) Notice that the meaning 'caused by' is not carried by any particular elements in the word but must be inferred from the relationship of the other meanings.

To approach such special words, we thus need the ability to **parse** (i.e. analyze, break down, or take apart) the word into its proper components, and we need to know the meanings of the components. The same system that we use to parse and interpret words also applies to the coining of words.

The remainder of this book deals with specific methods and rules that will put this ability and knowledge into our hands. Long words need not be intimidating. (In fact, the longer a word, the more likely it is that we can take it apart and figure out its meaning from the sum of its parts.) You may or may not want to use your new-found skills to impress your family and friends, but you will definitely find that you have some powerful tools that will open up the worlds of technical and specialized vocabulary.

THE HISTORY HIDDEN IN WORDS

English words encode interesting and useful historical information. For example, compare the words

captain
chief
chef

These three words all derive historically from *caput*, which is the Latin word for 'head'. (It is also found in a slightly different form in the words *capital*, *capitol*, *decapitate*, and others). It is easy to see this if you consider the three words to mean 'the head of a vessel or military unit', 'the leader or head of a group', and 'the head of a kitchen', respectively.

They were borrowed into English during three successive periods in the evolution of Latin's linguistic descendant, French. Between the first and the second of these periods, certain [k] sounds (spelled with a *c*) and [p] sounds (as in *captain*) became [č] and [f] sounds, respectively (as in *chief*). Between the second and third periods, [č] sounds further changed to become [š] sounds (as in *chef*).

Two other 'word triplets' which follow the same [k] to [č] to [š] pattern are *candle*–*chandler* ('candle maker')–*chandelier* (originally an elaborate *candle* holder) and *cant* ('singsong intonation', 'jargon'; also visible in *incantation*)–*chant*–*chantey* (as in *sea chantey*).

The history and relationship is diagramed in table 1.1.

Table 1.1. Changes in Sound Over Time in Latin and French and Their Results in Borrowings

Latin or French sound		English borrowings with these sounds		
Period 1	[k], [p]	captain	candle	cant
Period 2	↓			
	[č], [f]	chief	chandler	chant
Period 3	↓			
	[š], [f]	chef	chandelier	chantey

Another example of a historical correspondence of sounds can be seen by comparing the originally Latin form *semi-* (as in *semicircle*) and the Greek *hemi-* (as in *hemisphere*). Both *semi-* and *hemi-* mean 'half'. This correspondence of *h* in one to *s* in the other results from the fact that Greek and Latin are **related** languages, that is, they share a common ancient vocabulary (including a single morpheme meaning 'half'). Over a long period of time, the two languages came to differ in certain respects, including the pronunciation of the first sound of this morpheme. (We will discuss the nature of language relationships and sound changes in detail in later chapters.)

Such correspondences between the sounds of words borrowed from related languages such as French, Latin, and Greek give us a way to organize information about English words. Knowing something about their historical development can provide useful cues to meanings and word relationships. In later chapters we will show exactly how to use sound correspondences to learn new word elements.

ADDITIONAL GOALS

While the main goal of the book is to teach new word elements, we should keep in mind an important secondary aim: to develop a set of powerful techniques and concepts that will place the student on a path of vocabulary growth which will continue for a lifetime.

The book should serve other purposes as well. As we come across examples in which English pronunciations and words have changed over time, we will also run into reactions that may involve resistance to change and will have to consider whether change in general or in specific cases amounts to linguistic enrichment, linguistic corruption, or something between these two poles. We will also note that usage varies greatly between one geographical area and another, and even between different speakers in the same area, and we will

become aware of attitudes and prejudices (others' and our own) based on this variation. We will confront the issue of how to use sophisticated vocabulary properly for effective communication and understanding.

In the process of developing techniques for word analysis, we also introduce some of the principal areas of modern linguistics. We will treat phonetics and phonology (the study of speech sounds and how they function in language), morphology (the study of word structure), diachronic linguistics (the study of language history and change over time), lexical semantics (the study of word meaning), and sociolinguistics (the study of social factors in language variation and change).

A final goal is spelling improvement. Word structure often correlates with standard spelling. For example, if you realize the words *pyromaniac* and *antipyretic* both contain the word element *pyr* 'fire, fever', you will automatically know that there is a *y* (rather than an *i*) between *p* and *r*. Similarly, if you know that *consensus* contains the root *sens* 'feel, think', you will remember that it has an *s* where many people mistakenly put a *c*. Even though *accommodate* is one of the most frequently misspelled words in the language (often found misspelled in government documents, magazines, memos from college administrators, and in other professional writing, you will have no problem remembering that this word has two *cs* and two *ms* once you know that it has the structure *ac/com/mod/ate*, with each of its elements contributing to its meaning.

See appendix II for Morpheme (i.e. word element) set 1. Do the exercises after memorizing the list of word elements for this chapter.

EXERCISES

1. Go through the following list of borrowed words and for each one try to give a native synonym—in a single word, if possible; in a phrase, if not. (The native word will generally be less formal.) If there are words here with which you are not familiar, use the dictionary to help you find the native synonyms.

a. inter	_____	g. terminate	_____
b. depart	_____	h. converse	_____
c. velocity	_____	i. donate	_____
d. rapid	_____	j. injure	_____
e. decay	_____	k. prevaricate	_____
f. illumination	_____	l. rotate	_____

2. a. Indicate which is the native English word and which is the borrowed word in each of the following pairs marked a through m.

b. Besides the etymological information (i.e. facts on the historical sources of the words) contained in your dictionary, what kinds of clues to their origins do the form and structure of the words themselves provide?

a.	wordy	_____	verbose	_____
b.	chew	_____	masticate	_____
c.	vend	_____	sell	_____
d.	malady	_____	sickness	_____
e.	answer	_____	respond	_____
f.	old	_____	antique	_____
g.	tell	_____	inform	_____
h.	watch	_____	observe	_____
i.	durable	_____	hardy	_____
j.	eat	_____	consume	_____
k.	emancipate	_____	free	_____
l.	deadly	_____	mortal	_____
m.	sad	_____	dejected	_____

3. Following and expanding on the discussion in this chapter of the words *fatherly* and *paternal*, suggest when and why one might choose to use *pyromaniac* rather than *firebug*.

4. What are the characteristics (if any) that differentiate a *chronometer* from a *watch*?

5. Given what you've learned from Morpheme set 1, what do you think the word *nomize* might mean? (You won't find this word in a dictionary.) Explain your answer.

6. What are the denotational and connotational differences between the words used in the following pairs of sentences? (Use specific information from the dictionary as well as your own sense of the meanings of individual word choices in your response.)

- 1.a. Whenever I ingest crustaceans I am nauseated.
- 1.b. Whenever I eat shellfish I am sick to my stomach

2.a. Paul reported that Jill injured Mark rather severely.

2.b. Paul said that Jill hurt Mark pretty badly.

3.a. Discovering a new species of insect invariably disconcerted Jean.

3.b. Finding a new kind of bug always bothered Jean.

7. Fill in the blank spaces with the forms of the appropriate **morphemes** (i.e. word elements) and **all glosses** (i.e. thumbnail definitions) you have memorized. In the example below you'd write pseud and 'color'. Then spell out the **full** word you have written, including any 'extra' letters (like the o and e you are given for pseudochrome).

MORPHEMES	<u>pseud</u>	o	ch	rom	e
GLOSSES	'false'			'color'	
full word	<u>pseudochrome</u>				

a. MORPHEMES	_____	ph	a	g	e
GLOSSES	'long, large'			'eat'	
full word	_____				

b. MORPHEMES	th	eo	gam	-ous	
GLOSSES	_____	_____		A	
full word	_____				

c. MORPHEMES	_____	o	met	r	_____
GLOSSES	'mind, spirit'			'measure, meter'	N
full word	_____				

d. MORPHEMES _____ anthrop e

GLOSSES 'hate' _____

full word: _____

e. MORPHEMES de- port

GLOSSES _____ 'carry'

full word _____

f. MORPHEMES _____ o _____ - y

GLOSSES 'bad' sound, speech sound _____

full word _____

2

History of English and Sources of English Vocabulary

This chapter looks at the major historical events that have shaped the English language, paying special attention to the forces that introduced massive numbers of foreign elements. This will help to explain some of the diversity of our language, particularly the words of Latin and Greek origin that have been entering the language nonstop since its beginnings. It should also serve to dispel some unsophisticated notions about why English is unusual and clarify vague ideas about the hybrid ('melting-pot'-like) character of the language.

When we use the phrase 'English language' we are really referring to something that is at the same time 'the American language', 'the Australian language', 'the Canadian language', 'the language of England, Scotland, and Wales', and so on. English today is the native tongue of more than 350 million people in many independent nations. It is also a major second language, primary, or alternative official language for an even larger number of people in places as distant and diverse as India, Nigeria, China, Germany, Singapore, South Africa, and Japan. So, what is it that's 'English' about this major world language? Certainly not its vocabulary, since as we shall see, most of this was borrowed from other languages. What is most English about the language is its history, because for almost a thousand years it was spoken almost only in England.

As we look at historical events, we will see that they have had a variety of linguistic repercussions, and we may ask what English would have been like if its history had been even slightly different.

MAJOR STAGES IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

Continental Germanic (Before the Sixth Century c.e.)

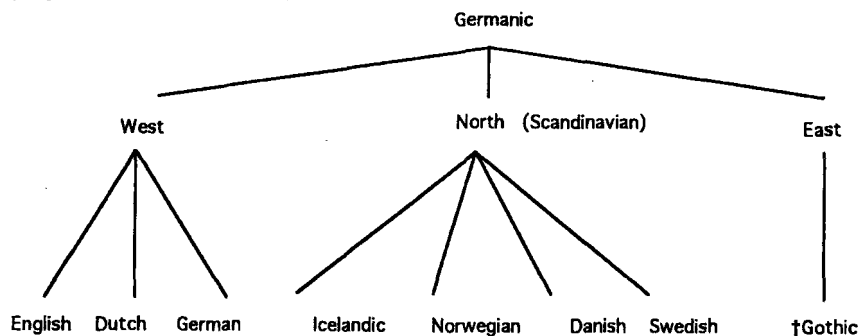
The immediate ancestor of what we call English was a member of the **Germanic language family**. The languages in this family were originally spoken only on the European continent, not in the British Isles. Because these languages were typically not written, some of the earliest information about them comes from foreigners, especially a Roman historian of the first century B.C.E. named Tacitus, who tells of customs and tribal subdivisions of Germanic (also called **Teutonic**) peoples and a few words of their language (e.g. *glesum* meaning 'amber', source of the modern words *glass* and *glaze*). English is part of the **West Germanic** division of the Germanic languages, as shown in figure 2.1.

During much of the time (from approximately 1000 B.C.E. to 449 C.E.) which we will call the **Continental Germanic** period, Germanic peoples were influenced linguistically by their powerful Roman neighbors, who spoke **Latin**, a language from which many words were borrowed over these centuries. Among the earliest words borrowed from Latin are the practical, familiar terms *wine*, *street*, *mile*, *cheese*, *chalk*, *candle*, *kitchen*, and *mint* (both the plant and the place money is coined), all words for things or concepts new to the Germanic peoples.

Early History in Britain

Meanwhile, from the reign of Julius Caesar until about 449 C.E., what we now know as England was ruled by the Romans and inhabited by **Celts** or **Britons**,

Figure 2.1. Branches of the Germanic Language Family and Major Modern Languages in Each († = extinct).



who spoke non-Germanic **Celtic** languages that leave descendants in modern **Welsh**, **Irish (Scots)**, **Gaelic**, and **Breton** (spoken in Brittany in France). With the dissolution of the Roman Empire in the fifth century, the Romans withdrew, leaving Britain. But self-rule did not last for long.

The Anglo-Saxon Invasions

Internal struggles followed, with northerners and westerners attacking the Romanized Celts in the east, who called for help from the **Saxons**, a Germanic tribe on the European mainland. The Saxons actually invaded, either conquering or pushing Celtic-speaking peoples to the extreme north and western edges of Britain. Saxons were joined by others from what is today northwestern Germany and Denmark, the best known being **Angles**, **Frisians**, and **Jutes**. These confederated groups are often called the **Anglo-Saxons**.

This onslaught from the East was a huge success (at least for the Anglo-Saxons). In a short time the invaders had settled and established themselves as the major ethnic and linguistic group on the island. The island came to be called **England** (from *Engla land*, meaning 'land of the Angles'). The distinct language which had developed there as of the late seventh century is known as **Old English**.

Old English (Seventh to Eleventh Centuries c.e.)

Old English is the direct ancestor of the English spoken today and serves as the source of some of the most basic elements of English vocabulary. While it may at first appear quite alien to the modern reader, closer examination shows its deep resemblance to modern English.

In Old English the sentence *He has a white tongue* would have been written *He hafap hwite tungan* and pronounced, roughly, [he ha-vaθ hwi-te tʊŋ-gan] (Refer to the pronunciation guide for the sound values of these symbols.) We see that some things haven't changed much since Old English, while others are rather different. Alongside the obvious differences in pronunciation are differences in spelling—e.g. Old English *f* for the *v* sound, *ƿ* for the *th* (i.e. [θ]) sound. Note also the Old English **inflectional endings** *-ap*, *-e*, and *-an* on these words. All of these disappeared on the way to twentieth-century English. These endings marked such things as the **grammatical function** of nouns, so that for example the ending *-an* on the word *tungan* 'tongue' indicated that it was the direct object of the verb *hafap* 'has'. Only one of these endings is likely to seem familiar to a speaker of modern English. It is *-ap*, which is an

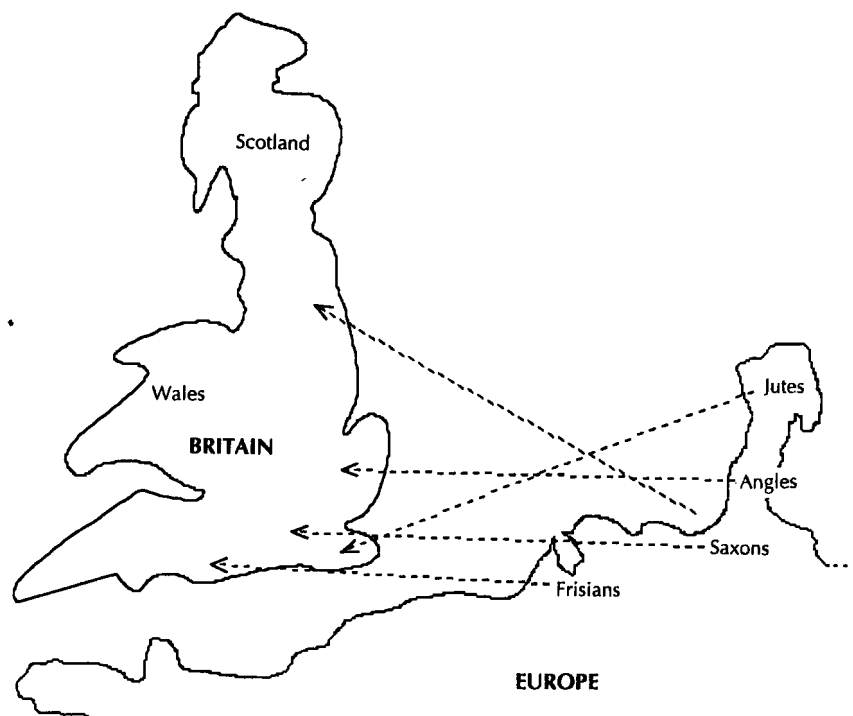


Figure 2.2. Paths of the Anglo-Saxon Invasion of Britain

earlier form of the ending *-eth* in words like Shakespearean *holdeth* 'holds'. The *-aþ* verb ending marked the **person** and **number** of the subject of the verb, which in our sentence is the third person singular pronoun *he* 'he'. In Present-Day English the ending *-s* has replaced *-eth* to mark the third person singular subject of a verb like *sings* in the sentence *Angela sings beautifully*.

One of the most important periods in the development of Old English was the reign of Alfred the Great in the ninth century. Because England was born out of conquests by separate groups of invaders, Alfred needed to devote special attention to uniting the country. He managed to bring this about in large part by linguistic means, specifically by fostering English language and literacy. Under Alfred, English came to be used in schools. Texts that had previously existed only in Latin were translated into English. This not only made the language more prestigious and more useful but also helped to make England a single nation, illustrating how language can be used as a political tool.

From the ninth to the eleventh centuries the Anglo-Saxon language and culture were among the most vibrant and active of the Western world. With every new cultural, material, technological, religious, scholarly, or artistic de-

velopment, the language grew and changed, especially in vocabulary. The more sweeping the change, the more dramatic the influence on the language would be. It was during the early Old English period that England was converted to Christianity. Latin, the official language of the church, provided not only ecclesiastical vocabulary (e.g. *altar*, *candle*, *offer*, *mass*, *priest*) but also a surprising number of everyday words (e.g. *port*, *tower*, *cap*, *radish*, *school*). These were added to the stock of Latin words that earlier had passed to the Continental Germanic ancestors of the English during the period of the pre-Christian Roman Empire. (English also borrowed a few words from the Celtic languages with which it had contact during the Old English and later periods.)

Throughout the ninth and tenth centuries and into the eleventh, **Vikings** invaded and settled large parts of England. The language again responded by borrowing words, this time from the **Scandinavian** tongues of the invaders. (These languages were the ancestors of modern Danish and Icelandic, among others, and are sometimes referred to as early varieties of Old Norse or Old Icelandic.) This created an interesting mixture, because Old English was related to the Scandinavian languages, which also belonged to the Germanic language group. Words mutually inherited from the ancestral language **proto-Germanic** (*proto-* meaning 'earliest, first') are known as **cognates** (literally, 'together originated', i.e. related because they share the same ultimate source). A fair number of words borrowed from the Scandinavian language closely resembled ones that already existed in Old English, but they often had somewhat different pronunciations and meanings. These pairs of native and borrowed cognates are called **doublets**. A few English-Scandinavian doublets are illustrated in the word pairs:

Native (OE)		Scandinavian
shirt	≈	skirt (both name a garment open at the bottom)
no	≈	nay (as in <i>nay-sayer</i>)
bench	≈	bank
lend	≈	loan
whole	≈	hale (as in <i>hale and hearty</i>)

Many other Scandinavian words for which there existed no native English cognates were also incorporated into Old English (e.g. *ill*, *scowl*, *flat*, *rake*, *guess*, *bull*).

Middle English (Twelfth to Fifteenth Centuries c.e.)

The most important single event in the history of English was probably the **Norman Conquest** of 1066. The monumental changes that this invasion pro-