

# **JOURNAL OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES**



**2008 VOLUME 1 (2)**

# **JOURNAL OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES**

**Editorial office:**

**300645 TIMIȘOARA Calea Aradului nr. 119, Phone 0256/494023/7287**

## **EDITORIAL BOARD**

### **EDITOR**

*Assist. Professor Georgeta RAȚĂ – BUASVM, Timișoara, Romania*

### **EDITORIAL BOARD**

*Professor Snežana GUDURIĆ – University of Novi Sad, Serbia*

*Professor Rodica NAGY – Ștefan cel Mare University, Suceava, Romania*

*Professor Natalia PUSHINA – Udmurt State University, Izhevsk, Udmurtia, Russia*

*Assist. Professor Reghina DASCĂL – West University of Timișoara, Romania*

*Assist. Professor Simona MANOLACHE – Ștefan cel Mare University, Suceava, Romania*

*Assist. Professor Roumyana PETROVA – University of Rousse, Bulgaria*

### **SECRETARY**

*Assistant Alina-Andreea DRAGOESCU, PhD – BUASVM, Timișoara, Romania*

## CONTENTS

<b><i>FOREWORD</i></b>	7
Diana-Andreea BOC-SÎNMĂRGHIȚAN <b>LES NOMS PROPRES : SOURCE D'ENRICHISSEMENT DU VOCABULAIRE</b>	9
Oana CAULLATAILLE <b>ROMANIAN WATERCOURSE-RELATED WORDS: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH</b>	15
Alina-Andreea DRAGOESCU & Petre-Eugen MERGHEȘ <b>AN ETYMOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE LANGUAGE OF SPORTS AND ADVENTURE TOURISM</b>	23
Astrid-Simone GROSZLER <b>SPICES: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH</b>	29
Scott HOLLIFIELD, Cornelia PETROMAN & IOAN PETROMAN <b>ROMANIAN CUISINE TERMINOLOGY (AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH)</b>	35
Virginia-Elvira-Jenea MASICHEVICI <b>NOTES SUR LES NOMS D'ANIMAUX SAUVAGES EN FRANÇAIS CONTEMPORAIN</b>	47
Nadia NORLEY & Kevin NORLEY <b>UNITS OF LENGTH AND AREA IN ROMANIAN: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH</b>	51
Anica PERKOVIĆ, Ioan PETROMAN & Cornelia PETROMAN <b>LEXICAL CATEGORIES IN ENGLISH: RESTAURANT (AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH)</b>	59
Anica PERKOVIĆ & Georgeta RAȚĂ <b>ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN AND ROMANIAN: FOOD-RELATED WORDS</b>	65
Georgeta RAȚĂ <b>WORDS OF LATIN ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH OF ZOOLOGY</b>	75
Georgeta RAȚĂ & Anica PERKOVIĆ <b>WORDS OF RUSSIAN ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH OF CUISINE</b>	87
Stanislav STANKOVIĆ & Selena STANKOVIĆ <b>IMAGE GEO-LINGUISTIQUE DE LA REGION DE VLASOTINCE (SERBIE) DANS UN CONTEXTE D'ANTHROPO-GEOGRAPHIE ET DE LEXIQUE DIALECTAL DIFFERENTIEL</b>	95
Sandra STEFANOVIĆ <b>ETYMOLOGY IN ERROR ANALYSIS. FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH</b>	113
Andreea VARGA <b>METAPHORS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE</b>	117
<b><i>INDEX OF AUTHOR NAMES</i></b>	123



## FOREWORD

For the second issue of the *Journal of Linguistic Studies* we are pleased to present another fourteen articles. Congratulations to all the authors whose papers have been accepted.

The papers in this second issue of the *Journal of Linguistic Studies* are circumscribed to the field of *etymology*.

The authors have studied the roots and history of the words and the way their form and meaning have changed over time in some European languages (Croatian, English, French, German, Romanian, and Serbian), and how words changed from culture to culture over time (Bulgarian, English, French, German, Hungarian, Italian, Latin, Russian, Serbian, Turkish, Ukrainian, etc.).

The etymological studies were conducted on a wide range of fields: cuisine terminology, dialect forms, food-related words, proper nouns, restaurant synonyms, spice nouns, sports and adventure tourism terms, units of length and area, water-course related nouns, wild animal common names, zoological terms etc.

We hope that interest in the journal will increase significantly. In time, the structure of the editorial board will be changed accordingly, with additional editors and proofreaders.

We would like to thank all reviewers and authors for their valuable contributions.

**Georgeta Rață, PhD**  
**Editor**  
**Journal of Linguistic Studies**





# LES NOMS PROPRES : SOURCE D'ENRICHISSEMENT DU VOCABULAIRE

DIANA ANDREEA BOC-SÎNMĂRGIȚAN

*Université des Sciences Agricoles et Médecine Vétérinaire du Banat,  
Timișoara, Roumanie  
sinmarghitan@yahoo.fr*

## ABSTRAIT

*À partir des prémisses théoriques concernant le rapport entre le nom propre et le nom commun, le but de cet article est de faire une analyse du rôle que le nom propre accomplit dans l'enrichissement du vocabulaire mais aussi pour l'étymologiste qui ne doit pas se limiter à envoyer un nom propre dans la catégorie du nom commun et vice-versa, mais à trouver les motivations qui expliquent le processus. Dans ce sens j'ai fait appel à la catégorie des noms communs provenus de noms propres, mais aussi à la toponymie, aux noms de lieux motivés des vallées de Bistra et de Sebeș (Département de Caraș-Severin, Roumanie).*

**Mots-clés:** Noms propres ; Noms communs ; Toponymie ; Étymologie

## 1. INTRODUCTION

L'anthroponymie (ou l'étude des noms de personne), la toponymie (ou l'étude de l'origine des noms de lieu) - sont deux branches de la linguistique qui étudient les noms propres (leur naissance et leur évolution).

Qu'est-ce qu'un nom propre? Où se situe la limite entre le nom propre et le nom commun? Quels sont les critères qui permettent de distinguer les deux? Voilà autant de questions que chaque linguiste intéressé par ce fait s'est posées au moins une fois dans ses recherches. Pour l'instant la réponse vient tout de suite parce que les différences entre les noms communs et les noms propres sont évidentes. Pour tout le monde il est évident que *la femme* est un nom commun et *Marie* un nom propre. *La ville* est un nom commun, mais *Paris* ou *Lyon* sont des noms propres. Quand on y regarde de plus près, la chose n'est pourtant pas si évidente.

Dans une tradition qui remonte à Saussure, le nom propre et, en particulier, le nom de lieu, manque de signification en soi-même. Il n'est pas considéré comme un « vrai » signe linguistique, parce qu'il n'aurait pas de « sens ». Pour Saussure, le nom propre est « isolé » et « inanalysable », et évidemment, un signe « sans signifié » ne peut être qu'un objet extérieur au système de la langue. Les noms propres, spécialement les noms de lieux ne permettent aucune analyse et, par conséquent, aucune interprétation de leurs éléments (Saussure 1971 : 237). Mais alors, qui a la responsabilité d'étudier le nom propre si ce n'est le linguiste... Cette conception a laissé de nombreuses traces dans la recherche jusqu'à nos jours et l'onomastique a souvent été considérée comme un domaine marginal de la recherche linguistique.

Wilmet (1991) considère que l'originalité du nom propre c'est son *a-sémantisme* au niveau de la langue et que la sémantisation du nom propre ne serait donc pas un fait de langue, mais un fait *extralinguistique*, à la différence du contenu sémantique d'un nom

commun, où le rapport entre signifiant et signifié est établi de manière stable au niveau de la langue.

Une autre tentative de saisir la spécificité du nom propre parmi les signes linguistiques a été proposée au cours des années 1990 dans le cadre de la linguistique cognitive. Cette approche complète le débat traditionnel sur le contenu sémantique du nom propre, mais elle ne permet pas de décrire toutes les particularités linguistiques du nom propre au point de vue de sa nature comme signe linguistique. Si, en règle générale, le signe linguistique est arbitraire (vérité sans doute exacte en synchronie), la principale caractéristique du nom propre c'est le fait qu'au moment où il est attribué, dans l'acte de nomination, il s'agit d'un signe linguistique motivé.

Le *Bon usage* de Grevisse, en faisant la distinction entre nom propre et nom commun, fait appel au critère sémantique: « le nom *commun* est pourvu d'une signification, d'une définition, et il est utilisé en fonction de cette signification » et « le nom *propre* n'a pas de signification véritable, de définition; il se rattache à ce qu'il désigne par un lien qui n'est pas sémantique, mais par une convention qui lui est particulière ». (Grevisse 1986 : 751).

Des explications concernant la compatibilité entre le déterminât et le déterminé sont multiples parmi les linguistes roumains aussi : Graur (1965), Florea (1972 : 215-220), Băcăuanu *et al.* (1974), Buretea (1975 : 207-214), Goicu (1983 : 47-54), Rezeanu (1987: 2-3), Toma (1995 : 103-110), Loşonţi (2000), Frăţilă (2002), etc. qui vont de la négation totale du sens des noms propres, considérés des « étiquettes mentales », jusqu'au fait d'attribuer au nom propre un sens infini, en parlant du passage du nom propre dans la catégorie du nom commun pour satisfaire à des besoins d'enrichissement du lexique.

## 2. MATÉRIEL ET MÉTHODE

Considérant que le nom peut fonctionner comme une sorte de porte-bonheur, les parents consultent les dictionnaires de prénoms pour savoir quel est le sens du nom qu'ils vont donner à leurs enfants. Le nom peut être motivé de manière religieuse lorsque c'est le nom d'un saint, d'une sainte; il peut se référer à une personnalité fameuse ou à un ancêtre que l'on désire honorer, etc. Donc il est loin d'être sans motivation et cette prémisse doit être appliquée aussi dans le domaine de la toponymie ou aux noms propres en général.

Dans cette recherche nous avons utilisé comme sources de base des dictionnaires étymologiques et explicatifs et, comme méthodes, l'analyse étymologique et sémantique des mots inventoriés.

## 3. RÉSULTATS

Pour répondre à cette exigence (enrichissement du lexique), la langue fait appel à des moyens très divers comme, par exemple, la re-sémantisation. À l'aide de ce procédé on transforme des noms propres en noms communs (*Poubelle* → *la poubelle*) ou des noms communs en noms propres (*manche* → *La Manche*).

Dans le cas des noms étrangers, l'emprunt est soit direct : *angora* < *Angora*, *marengo* < *Marengo*, soit fait par l'intermédiaire d'une autre langue : *mousseline* (< it. *mussolina* < *Mussolo* < ar. *Mossoul*), *mausolée* (< lat. *mausoleum* < gr. *Mausoleion*).

La plupart des mots passent de la catégorie des noms propres à celle des noms communs sans aucune modification comme par exemple : *moka* 'variété de café' < *Moka* 'port d'Arabie'; *madeleine* 'gâteau' < *Madeleine* 'cuisinière', etc.

D'autres subissent des modifications permettant leur encadrement dans une classe lexico-sémantique qui précise leur sens et leur emploi :

- *américium* 'élément transuranien artificiel' < *America* + suff. *-ium* ; *mendélévium* 'élément artificiel' < *Mendéléiev* + suff. *-ium* (où *-ium* 'suffixe servant à former des corps chimique');

- *andésite* < *Andes* + suff. *-ite* ('suffixe caractéristique aux termes de minéralogie');

- *maroquin* < *Maroc* : '1. peu de chèvre, de mouton, tannée au sumac, 2. portefeuille ministériel, poste de ministre' ;

- *mercerisage* 'opération consistant à imprégner les fils ou tissus de coton d'une solution de soude caustique qui leur donne un aspect brillant et soyeux' < *Mercier* + suff. *-age* ('suffixe qui indique l'action ou son résultat').

- *renard* < *Renart* 'nom donné à l'animal dans le *Roman de Renart*' : '1. l'animal, 2. peau, fourrure, 3. (fig.) personne rusée, 4. (fig.) vieux espion, 5. (tech.) fente, trou par où se perd l'eau' ;

- *robinier* < *Robin* + *-ier* ('suffixe exprimant l'idée de production', tout comme dans *pommier*, *poirier*, *cerisier*, etc.).

Au point de vue sémantique, si au commencement on leur attribue un seul sens, certains d'entre eux peuvent en acquérir d'autres, parfois assez éloignés du premier :

Comme nous avons vu, beaucoup de noms communs proviennent de noms propres, soit qu'il s'agit de :

- noms propres des pays : *mazagran* 'café froid étendu d'eau' < *Mazagran* ;

- noms propres des régions : *médoc* 'vin' < *Médoc* ;

- noms propres des villages : *roquefort* 'fromage' < *Roquefort*, etc. ;

- noms propres des personnes (nom de l'inventeur ou celui de l'industriel qui a fabriqué le produit) : *macadam* 'revêtement de voies avec de la pierre concassée et du sable' < *Mac Adam*, l'inventeur ;

- noms propres des personnages mythologiques : *adonis* 'papillon diurne' < *Adonis* ;

- noms propres des personnages littéraires : *mentor* 'guide, conseiller sage et expérimenté' < *Mentor*, guide de Télémaque, etc.

En réalité, il est facile de démontrer que le nom propre n'est pas simplement un signifiant vide. Un autre exemple est celui de noms propres de lieux où il existe de nombreux exemples de noms motivés. La toponymie des vallées de Bistra et de Sebeș (Département de Caraș-Severin, Roumanie) comprend des noms de lieux qui sont immédiatement compréhensibles, sans qu'on ait besoin de les connaître.

Les lieux marécageux, par exemple, ou situés près d'un endroit marécageux (dans les vallées de Bistra et de Sebeș) sont nommés par des appellatifs comme :

- *crov* (< srb. *krov*) 'terrain couvert d'eau stagnante': *Crovu Baicului* (Bor), *Crovu Caprii* (Bor), *Crovu lu Lie* (Bor), *Crovu lu Talpă* (Bor), *Crovu Panțuchii* (Bor), *În Crovuri* (Zer), *La Crov* (Zer) ;

- *mlacă* (< bg., scr. *mlaka*) synonyme de *marécage*, *marais* 'terrain où il y a des marais': *La Mlacă* (Glb), *La Mlacă* (Zăv), *La Mlăci* (Bor), *Mlaca* (Glb), *Mlăci* (Măg), *Mlăci* (VB), *Mlăci* (Zăv), *Mlăcile* (OR), *Mlăcile lu Cioc* (Bor) ;

- *mlaștină* (< sl. \**mlaština*) 'marécage': *Mlaștina din Dos* (Var) ;

- *ploștină* (< scr. *ploština*) 'terrain où il y a des marais': *Ploștina* (Bor), *Ploștina* (Car), *Ploștina* (TRu) ;

- *rovină* (< sl., bg. *rovŭ*) 'terrain où il y a des marais': *Drumu pe Rovină* (Dlc), *La Rovină* (Dlc), *La Rovină* (Zăv), *Rovina* (Iaz), *Rovina de la Cocini* (Zăv), *Rovina Iazului* (Car), *Rovină* (Obr), *Rovină* (VB), *Rovini* (Car), *Rovinele* (Var) ;

- **tău** (< hu. *tó*) ‘pièce d’eau’ par extension ‘terrain couvert d’eau stagnante’: *Dealul cu Tău* (Bcv), *La Tău* (Băţ), *La Tău* (Bcv), *Ogaşu de la Tău Porcului* (TRu), *Tău Brazii* (Obr), *Tău cu Boate* (Ciut), *Tău de la Foenfiu* (Obr), *Tău Roşu* (Glb), *Tău Porcilor* (Obr), *Tău Şarpelui* (Ciut), *Tăuri* (Măr), *Tăurile Negre* (M).

Il s’agit ici d’une motivation d’ordre *sémantique*. Au moment où un nom propre est attribué à un endroit géographique, ce nom a un ‘sens’. C’est vrai qu’à travers le temps il risque de perdre le sens initial mais au moment où il est attribué, dans l’acte de nomination, il s’agit d’un signe linguistique motivé. En fait, tous les noms propres sont le résultat d’un acte de baptême qui les motive.

Les noms dont la motivation est de type *métaphorique* (Frăţilă 2002: 185) constituent une autre catégorie de toponymes, les parties du corps humain, comme par exemple le roumain *faţă* ‘face, visage’, *dos* ‘dos’, *cap* ‘tête’, *frunte* ‘front’, *coadă* ‘queue’, etc. composent des noms des lieux comme:

- **cap** (< lat. *caput*) ‘tête’ par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘partie supérieure d’une montagne, d’une colline’: *Capu de Bou* (RusM), *Capu Dealului* (Prev), *Capu Dealului* (Băţ), *Capu Dealului* (Crn), *Capu Luncii* (Iaz), *Capu Luncii* (Var), *Capu Măgurii* (M), *Capu Satului* (Măr), *Capu Măgurii* (M), etc.

- **coadă** (< lat. *coda*) ‘queue’, par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘tout ce qui a la forme d’une queue’: *Dealul Cozii* (RusM), *Muchia lu Coadă* (Bcv).

- **cur** (< lat. *culus*) ‘cul’ [familier] ‘derrière de l’homme et de certains animaux’ par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘partie postérieure d’une montagne, d’une colline’: *Curu Dealului* (Bcv), (M), *Curu Orlii* (Bor), *La Cur de Oaie* (Ciut), etc.

- **dos** (< lat. *dossum*) ‘dos’ par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘partie postérieure d’une montagne, d’une colline’: *Dosu Alunului* (RusM), *Dosu Beichii* (Băţ), *Dosu Borlovii* (Bor), *Dosu Borloviţei* (Bor), *Dosu Bradului* (RusM), *Dosu de la Gura Văii* (Măg), *Dosu de la Valea Mare* (Măg), *Dosu Dealului Mare* (Băţ), *Dosu din Pietroasa* (Măg), *Dosu din Valea Lupului* (M), *Dosu Jghiabului* (Cir), *Dosu Jurmii* (Bor), *Dosu la Culmea Ursului* (Bor), *Dosu lu Jgorieşti* (Bor), *Dosu Măgăzânii* (Bor), *Dosu Măraiaşului* (Bor), etc.

- **faţă** (< lat. *facies*) ‘face, visage’ ayant le sens de ‘côté, partie extérieure d’un objet’ ici par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘partie d’une montagne, d’une colline’, etc.: *Faţa Albinii* (Bor), *Faţa Bisericiuţei* (M), *Faţa Bordului* (Bor), *Faţa Borlovii Mari* (Bor), *Faţa Borloviţei* (Bor), etc.

- **frunte** ‘front’ par rapport aux réalités géographiques ‘le sommet, le haut, d’une montagne, d’une colline’: *Fruntea Goală* (Băţ), *Frunţile lu Lulă* (Bor).

Soit qu’il s’agisse d’une motivation *sémantique* ou *métaphorique*, il est évident que le nom propre n’est pas un simple signifiant vide, même s’il y a une différence en ce qui concerne le contenu sémantiquement analysable du nom propre et celui du nom commun sur un point important.

Le passage du nom propre de lieux ou du toponyme dans la catégorie du nom commun a été également étudié par des linguistes. Les exemples donnés par Bogrea pour *jiu* < *Jiu*, *olt* < *Olt*, *prut* < *Prut*, *siret* < *Siret* sont suggestifs dans ce sens (Bogrea 1922 : 799-800 ; Țurlan 1980: 305-306).

Le processus est aussi connu dans d’autres langues : c’est le cas, par exemple, de l’appellatif *méandre* (roum. *meandru*, allem. *mäandre*, angl. *meander*, rus. *meandr*) défini comme sinuosité accentuée dans des parties où la pente est réduite. (Băcăuanu *et al.* 1974: 108), l’appellatif provient du nom d’un fleuve sinueux d’Asie Mineure (< gr. *Maiandros* – Dauzat *et al.* 1964 : 453).

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

Comme on le voit, la spécificité de ces noms propres, ce n'est pas d'être incompréhensible ou asémantique. Le passage d'un nom d'une catégorie à l'autre (*nom commun* > *nom propre*; *nom propre* > *nom commun*) est un fait très important pour l'étymologiste qui ne doit pas se limiter à envoyer un nom propre dans la catégorie du nom commun et vice-versa mais à trouver les motivations qui expliquent le processus. Un exemple d'erreur de ce genre, parmi beaucoup d'autres, serait le nom d'une plante *todorușă* (appellation en roumain populaire pour *Melittis melissophyllum*), qui ne renvoie pas au nom propre *Todor* (comme apprécie le dictionnaire de la langue roumaine (DLR 1965-2005) ayant une étymologie très complexe (Ioniță 1985: 136).

#### 5. RÉFÉRENCES

- \*\*\**Dicționarul limbii române*. [Dictionnaire de la langue roumaine]. (1965-2005). București: Editura Academiei.
- \*\*\**Le Petit Robert des noms propres* (1998). Paris.
- Băcăuanu, V., Donisă, V. & Hârjoabă, I. (1974). *Dicționar geomorfologic cu termeni corespondenți în limbile franceză, germană, engleză, rusă*. [Dictionnaire géomorphologique contenant des correspondants dans les langues: français, allemand, anglais, russe]. București: Editura Științifică.
- Bogrea, V. (1922). Pagini istorice și filologice. [Pages historiques et philologiques]. *Dacoromania* II. 799-800.
- Buretea, E (1975). Unele aspecte ale relațiilor dintre toponim și apelativ în toponimele din Oltenia. [Quelques aspects sur les relations entre le toponyme et l'appellatif dans les toponymes d'Oltenia]. *Limba română* 3. 207-214.
- Cuniță, A. (1980). *La formation des mots, la dérivation lexicale en français contemporain*. București: EDP.
- Dauzat, Albert (1938). *Dictionnaire étymologique de la langue française*. Paris: Larousse.
- Florea, V. (1972). Raportul dintre înțelesul numelor de locuri și cel al numelor comune corespunzătoare. [Le rapport entre le sens des noms de lieux et celui des noms communs correspondants]. *Limba română* 3. 215-220.
- Frațilă, V. (2002). *Studii de toponimie și dialectologie*. [Etudes de toponymie et dialectologie]. Timișoara: Editura Excelsior.
- Goicu, V. (1983). Despre raportul dintre apelativ și toponim în Banat. [Le rapport entre appellatif et toponyme en Banat]. *Caietul Cercului de Studii* 1. 47-54.
- Grevisse, M. (1986). *Le bon usage. Grammaire française*. Paris : Duculot.
- Ioniță, V. (1985). *Metafore ale graiurilor din Banat*. [Métaphores de la langue patois de Banat]. Timișoara: Editura Facla.
- Kristol, A. (2000). Motivation et remotivation des noms de lieux. *Nouvelles du Centre d'Etudes franco-provençales René Willien* 41. 5-18.
- Loșonți, D. (2000). *Toponime românești care descriu forme de relief*. [Des toponymes roumains qui décrivent des formes de relief]. Cluj-Napoca: Editura Clusium.
- Rezeanu, A. (1987). Motivație și arbitrar în toponimie. [Motivation et arbitraire dans la toponymie]. *Orizont* 7. 2-3.
- Robert, P. (1977). *Dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française*. Paris : Société du Nouveau Littre.

- Saussure, F. de. (1971). *Cours de linguistique générale*. Paris : Payot.
- Toma, I. (1995). Formula semantică a numelui propriu. [La formule sémantique du nom propre]. *Studii și cercetări de onomastică 1*. 103-111.
- Țurlan, V. (1980). Sunt *dunăreț* și *sirețel* creații sadoveniene? [*Dunăreț et sirețel : des créations sadovéniennes ?*]. *Limba română 4*. 305-306.
- Wilmet, M. (1991). Nom propre et ambiguïté. *Langue française 92*. 113-124.

#### ABRÉVIATIONS DES LOCALITÉS

Băuțar = (Băț)	Obreja = (Obr)
Borlova = (Bor)	Ohaba = (O)
Bucova = (Bcv)	Oțelu Roșu = (OR)
Caransebeș = (Car)	Poiana Mărului = (PoiMr)
Cicleni = (Cic)	Preveciori = (Prev)
Cireșa = (Cir)	Rusca Montană = (RusM)
Ciuta = (Ciut)	Ruschița = (Rusț)
Cornișoru = (Crn)	Turnu Ruieni = (TRu)
Dalci = (Dlc)	Valea Bistrei = (VB)
Glimboca = (Glb)	Vama Marga = (VMg)
Iaz = (Iaz)	Var = (Var)
Măgura = (Măg)	Voislova = (Vos)
Mal = (Mal)	Zăvoi = (Zăv)
Marga = (M)	Zervești = (Zer)
Măru = (Măr)	Zlagna = (Zg)

DIANA BOC-SÎNMĂRGHIȚAN  
119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara - 300645, Roumanie

# ROMANIAN WATERCOURSE-RELATED WORDS: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH

OANA CAULLATAILLE

Groupe Réponse – Multimédia, Paris, France  
oana.caullataille@laposte.net

## ABSTRACT

*Romanian watercourse-related words make up a vocabulary that surprises due to its eclecticism: apart from a few frequently used words (albie, apă, braț, canal, curent, fluviu, and inundație), this vocabulary abounds in obsolete, popular, rare, or regional words (bulboacă, bulbuc, burău, ciulniță, cursoare, dâlboană, duruitoare, gârliță, izbuc, năboi, necătură, povornitoare, răstoacă, scăturină, scoc, scurs, sel, șioi, șipot, șirlău, șleah, știoală, şușoi, toaie, toancă, undătură, urlătoare, valvârtej, vârtecuș, vir, volbură, zăpor, and zătoacă). Establishing the origin and evolution of these words is, sometimes, adventurous: though claimed to have no known etymon, they show an onomatopoeic nature, or allow the identification of an etymon.*

**Keywords:** Common noun; Watercourse; Romanian; Etymological approach

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Romanian was probably among the first of the Romance languages to split from Latin. All the dialects of Romanian are believed to have been unified in a Proto-Romanian language up to sometime between the 7<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> centuries, when the area came under the influence of the Byzantine Empire. It was then that Romanian became influenced by the Slavic languages and, to some degree, Greek. It received little influence from other Romance languages until the modern period, i.e. the 19<sup>th</sup> century (re-Latinisation). Romanian was thus influenced by Slavic (due to migration/assimilation, and feudal/ecclesiastical relations), Greek (Byzantine, then Phanariote), Turkish, and Hungarian.

The purpose of this research is to show which of the influences mentioned above has enriched the Romanian language the most and why.

The hypothesis of the research was that at some point in its history, under the pressure of increasing awareness concerning the impact of natural forces on everyday life, Romanian started to produce its own words related to watercourses.

Our background information has come from Romanian language dictionaries such as indicated in the References below.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

Based on the Romanian language dictionaries mentioned in the References, we have inventoried 91 watercourse-related Romanian words (types of watercourses, parts of watercourses, phenomena related to watercourses, etc.), which we analysed from the point of view of their etymology to see if our hypothesis is confirmed or not: *albie, apă, braț, bulboacă / bulboană, bulbuc, burău, canal, cascadă, cataractă, ciulniță, crac, curent, curs, cursoare, dâlboană, duruitoare, fântână, fluviu, gârlă, gârliță, gheizer,*

*ghețar, înec, inundare, inundație, izbuc, izvor, matcă, năboi, necătură, noian, obârșie, ochi, pârau / pârâu, pat, pohoi / povoi / puhoi, ponor, potop, potopenie, potopire, povornitoare, ramificație, răstoacă, râu, râuleț, râurel, râușor, râuț, revărsare, revărsătură, sărită, săritoare, săritură, scăturină, scoc, scurs, scursoare, sel, sfredel, șioi, șipot, șirlău, șiroi, șivoi / șuvoi, șleah / șleau, smârc, sorginte, știbloancă, știoalună, știolboană / știulboană, sursă, sușoi, toaie, toancă, torent, turbion, undătură, urcior, urlătoare, vad, vâlcea, vale, vâltoare / vultoare, valvârtej, vârtecuș / vârticuș, vârtej, viitură, vir, volbură, zăpor, and zătoacă.*

### 3. RESULTS

The 91 Romanian watercourse-related words are indicated by Romanian language dictionaries as: *loanwords* (49 occurrences), *words with unknown etymon* (22 occurrences), and *Romanian formations* (20 occurrences). (Figure 1)

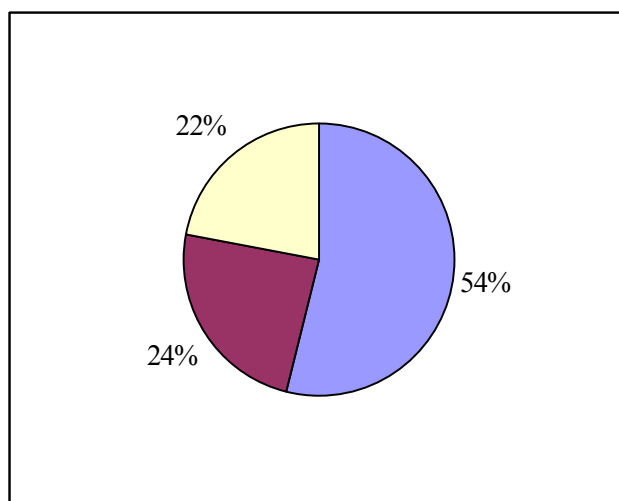


Figure 1. Origin of Romanian Watercourse-Related words:  
54% - loanwords; 24% - words with unknown etymon; 22% - Romanian formations

#### 3.1. LOANWORDS

Our corpus of watercourse-related words has 49 *loanwords*, i.e. words taken over from another language (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 49). Of these loanwords: 18 (26%) have come from Latin: *albie* (< L *alvea*) ‘bottom, bed/channel of a river, river bed’, *apă* (< L *aqua*) ‘river’, *braț* (< L *brachium*) ‘ramification’, *canal* (< L *canalis*) ‘canal’, *cataractă* (< L *cataracta*) ‘cataract, falls’, *curs* (< L *cursus*) ‘course, current, flow, stream’, *fântână* (Regional.) (< L *fontana*) ‘source, spring’, *fluviu* (< L *fluvius*) ‘(large) river, stream’, *inundație* (< L *inundatio*) ‘flood(s), inundation’, *ochi* (< L *oc(u)lus*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *râu* (< L *rivus*) ‘river, stream’, *torent* (< L *torrens, -tis*) ‘torrent’, *urcior* (< L *urceolus*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *vad* (< L *vadum*) ‘ford’, *vâlcea* (< L *vallicella*) ‘small river’, *vale* (Regional.) (< L *vallis*) ‘watercourse’, *vâltoare / vultoare* (Pop.) (< L *voltoria*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, and *volbură* (< L *volvula*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 10 (14%)



are from French: **canal** (< F *canal*) ‘canal’, **cascadă** (< F *cascade*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **cataractă** (< F *cataracte*) ‘cataract, falls’, **curent** (< F *courant*) ‘current, stream’, **curs** (< F *cours*) ‘course, current, flow, stream’, **inundație** (< F *inondation*) ‘flood(s), inundation’, **ramificație** (< F *ramification*) ‘ramification’, **sursă** (Rare) (< F *source*) ‘source, spring’, **torrent** (< F *torrent*) ‘torrent’, and **turbion** (< F *tourbillon*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 10 (14%) words have Slavic origins: **izvor** (< Slavic *izvorŭ*) ‘spring’, **obârșie** (< Slavic *obruši / obrŭšije*) ‘source, spring’, **pohoi** (Regional.) / **povoi** (Regional.) / **puhoi** (< Slavic *povoni*) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, **ponor** (< Slavic *ponorŭ*) ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’, **potop** (< Slavic *potopŭ*) ‘flood’, **potopenie** (Pop.) (< Slavic *potopljenje*) ‘flood, inundation’, **răstoacă** (< Slavic *\*rastokŭ*) ‘backwater’, **scoc** (Rare) (< Slavic *skokŭ*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **smârc** (Obsolete.) (< Slavic *smrŭkŭ*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, and **vârtej** (< Slavic *vruteži*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 9 (14%) words have come from Bulgarian: **crac** (Pop.) (< Bulg *krak*) ‘ramification’, **gârlă** (< Bulg *gărlo*) ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’, **matcă** (< Bulg *matka*) ‘source, spring’, **răstoacă** (< Bulg *rastoka*) ‘backwater’, **sfredel** (< Bulg *svredel*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **șipot** (Cf. Bulg *šepot* ‘murmur’) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **vârtej** (< Bulg *vărtež*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **zăpor** (< Bulg *zapor*) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, and **zătoacă** (< Bulg *zatok*) ‘ramification’; 3 (5%) are from Italian: **canal** (< It *canale*) ‘canal’, **cascadă** (< It *cascata*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, and **sorginte** (< It *sorgente*) ‘source, spring’; 2 (3%) have Greek origins: **cataractă** (< Gk *kataraktes / katarrhaktes*) ‘cataract, falls’ and **pat** (< Neo Gk *pátos*) ‘bottom, bed/channel of a river, river bed’; 2 (3%) have come from Hungarian: **șivoi / șuvoi** (< Hung *sió*, after Rom *puvoi*) ‘stream, torrent’ and **știoalnă** (Regional.) (< Hung *stolna*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 2 (3%) are from Serbian: **matcă** (< Serbian *matka*) ‘source, spring’ and **năboi** (Obsolete., Regional.) (< Serbian *naboj*) ‘rushing stream, torrent’; 2 (3%) have Ukrainian origins: **șleah / șleau** (< Pol *szlak*, Ukr *šljah*) ‘watercourse’ and **știoalnă** (Regional.) (< Ukr *štolinja / štol’na*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 1 (2%) has come from German: **știoalnă** (Regional.) (< Germ *Stollen*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 1 (2%) has an Icelandic origin: **gheizer** (< F *geyser*, E *geyser* < Icelandic) ‘geyser’; 1 (2%) has come from Polish: **șleah / șleau** (< Pol *szlak*) ‘watercourse’; 1 (2%) has a Russian origin: **smârc** (Obsolete.) (< Russ *smruku*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’; 1 (2%) has come from Serbo-Croatian: **matcă** (< Serbo-Croatian *matka*) ‘source, spring’.

For 3 (5%) of the words we are referred to similar examples from other languages: **năboi** (Obsolete., Regional.) (< Serbian *naboj*, Cf. Serbo-Croatian *naboj*) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, **noian** (Pop.) (Cf. Albanian *ujanë*) ‘rushing stream, torrent’ and **pârâu / pârâu** (< Cf. Albanian *përrua*, after Rom *râu*) ‘brook, rivulet’ (Figure 2).

### 3.2. WORDS WITH UNKNOWN ETYMON

For a large number of words (22, i.e. %), Romanian language dictionaries mention ‘Unknown etymon’ (an *etymon* is a word that gives rise to a derivative or a borrowed or later form – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 139): **burău** (Regional.) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **ciulniță** ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **cursoare** (Obsolete.) ‘current, flow, stream’, **dâlboană** ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, **duruitoare** (Regional.) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **izbuc** ‘intermittent water spring’, **necătură** ‘flood, inundation’, **povornitoare** (Obsolete.) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **revărsătură** (Obsolete.) ‘flood, inundation’, **sărită** (Regional.) ‘cascade, cataract, falls,

waterfall’, *scăturină* ‘source, spring’, *scurs* (Regional.) ‘current, stream’, *sel* (Regional.) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, *șioi* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *șirlău* (Obsolete., Regional.) ‘flow, stream, torrent’, *știbloancă* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *știolboană* / *știulboană* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *șușoi* (Regional.) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, *toaie* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *toancă* ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *undătură* ‘flood, inundation’, *vir* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’.

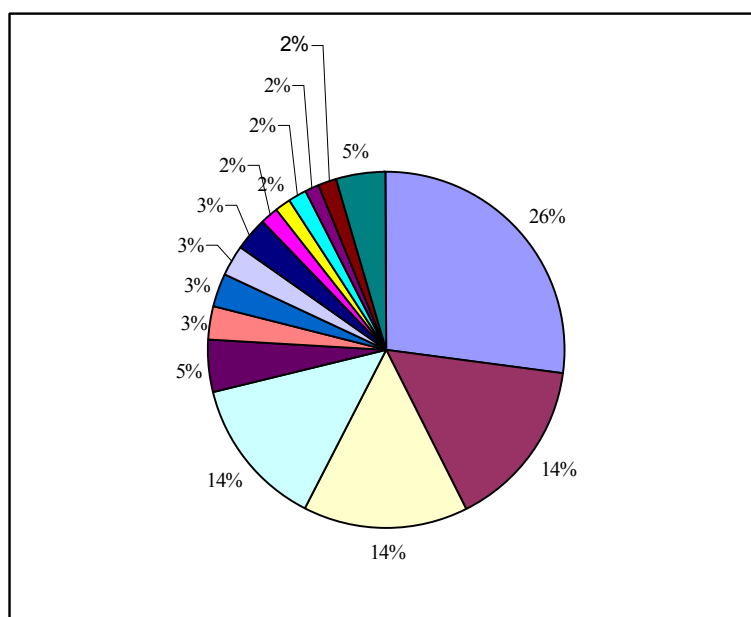


Figure 2. Loanwords in Watercourse-related Romanian: Latin 26%, French 14%, Slavic 14%, Bulgarian 14%, Italian 5%, Greek 3%, Hungarian 3%, Serbian 3%, Ukrainian 3%, German 2%, Icelandic 2%, Polish 2%, Russian 2%, Serbo-Croatian 2%, other cases 5%.

### 3.3.ROMANIAN FORMATIONS

Of the 91 watercourse-related words, 20 (20%) are **Romanian formations**: derivatives, backformations, combinations of the two, compounds, and onomatopoeic words.

Are derivatives, i.e. words formed from both nominal and verbal bases by a process of derivation (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 110), in our case *suffixation* (the adding of a suffix, cf. Idem: 385) the following 14 watercourse-related nouns: *ghețar* (< Rom *gheață* ‘ice’ < L *glacia* ‘ice’ + *-ar*) ‘glacier’, *gârliță* (< Rom *gârlă* ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’ < Bulg *gârlo* ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’ + *-iță*) ‘brooklet, rivulet, stream(let)’, *inundare* (< Rom *a inunda* ‘to flood’ < F *inonder*, L *inundare* ‘to flood’ + *-are*) ‘flood, inundation’, *potopire* (< Rom *a potopi* ‘to flood’ < Slavic *potopiti* ‘to flood’ + *-ire*) ‘flood, inundation’, *râuuleț* (< Rom *râu* ‘river, stream’ < L *rivus* ‘river, stream’ + *-uleț*) ‘brook, rivulet’, *râurel* (Regional.) (< Rom *râu* ‘river, stream’ < L *rivus* ‘river, stream’ + *-urel*) ‘brook, rivulet’, *râușor* (< Rom *râu* ‘river, stream’ < L *rivus* ‘river, stream’ + *-ușor*) ‘brook, rivulet’, *râuț* (< Rom *râu* ‘river, stream’ < L *rivus* ‘river, stream’ + *-uț*) ‘brook, rivulet’, *revărsare* (< Rom *a revărsa* ‘to overflow’ < L *reversare* ‘to overflow’ + *-are*)

‘flood, inundation’, **săritoare** (Pop.) (< Rom *a sări* ‘to jump’ < L *salire* ‘to jump’ + *-toare*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **săritură** (Regional.) (< Rom *a sări* ‘to jump’ < L *salire* ‘to jump’ + *-tură*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **scursoare** (< Rom *a se scurge* ‘to leak’ < L *excurrere* ‘to leak’ + *-oare*) ‘waterbed’, **urlătoare** (< Rom *a urla* ‘to howl’ < L *ululare* + *-ătoare*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, and **viitură** (< Rom *a veni* ‘to come’ < L *venire* ‘to come’ + *-tură*) ‘high flood’.

Are *backformations*, i.e. new words formed by the removal of (real or apparent) affixes etc. from an existing word (Idem: 42) the words **î nec** (< Rom *îneca* ‘to drown’ < L *nēcāre* ‘to kill without bloodshed’) ‘flood, inundation’ and **vârtecuş / vârticuş** (< Rom *învârtecuş* ‘swirl’ < Slavic *vrŭteti* ‘to swirl’) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’.

The word **bulboacă** (Regional.) / **bulboană** (< Rom *bulbuc* ‘swelling’ (onomatopoetic formation) + *-oană*) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’ is a *combination of backformation and derivation*.

The word **valvârtej** (< Rom *val* ‘wave’ < Slavic *valŭ* ‘wave’ + *vârtej* ‘swirl’ < Bulg *vârtež* ‘swirl’ ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’ is a *compound* i.e. words formed by combining two or more bases (or free morphemes) (Idem: 80).

Are *onomatopoetic words* i.e. words formed with sounds imitative of the thing which they refer to (Idem: 273) the words: **bulbuc** (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’ and **şiroi** ‘flow, stream’.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

More than half of the Romanian watercourse-related words are *loanwords*. Among them, Latin loanwords denoting very general notions represent 27%, while French and Slavic loanwords denoting scientific notions represent 15% each. Other 14% have a Bulgarian origin; 5% are Italian; Greek, Hungarian, Serbian, and Ukrainian represent 3% each; and German, Icelandic, Polish, Russian, and Serbo-Croatian represent 2% each. However, if we put together all the words whose origins are Slavic, Bulgarian, Serbian, Ukrainian, Polish, Russian, and Serbo-Croatian, we see that they represent 59%, which ranks the Slavic element before the Latin one among loanwords. Another 5% represent words whose etymon is still unknown, but for which the existence of similar words in other languages could suggest a possible source. It is important to note that, in most cases, a word has two or even more possible sources (e.g. 5 of the 18 words of Latin origin, 6 of the 10 words of French origin, 3 of the 10 words of Slavic origin, etc.).

As for the 22 words labelled ‘*Unknown etymon*’, we think that they could be ranged in two major categories: *Romanian formations* (16) and *words with unknown etymon* (6). *Romanian formations* are of five types: derivatives, backformations, combinations of backformation and derivation, conversions, and onomatopoeic words: *derivatives* (23%): **burău** (Regional.) (< Rom *bură* ‘drizzle’ < Serbo-Croatian *burā* ‘drizzle’ + *-ău*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **duruitoare** (Regional.) (< Rom *a durui* ‘to make noises’ < Rom *a dura* (onomatopoetic formation) ‘to make noises’ + *-toare*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **povornitoare** (Obsolete.) (< Rom *a se povârni* ‘to fall’ < Bulg *povârna*, Serbian *povrnuti*, Serbo-Croatian *povrnuti* ‘to fall’ + *-toare*) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’, **revărsătură** (Obsolete.) (< Rom *a se revârsa* ‘to overflow’ < L *reversare* ‘to overflow’ + *-ătură*) ‘flood, inundation’, **undătură** (< Rom *undă* ‘wave’ < L *unda* ‘wave’ + *-ătură*) ‘flood, inundation’; *backformation or post verbal formation* (5%): **izbuc** (< Rom *a izbucni* ‘to break out’ < Bulg *izbukna* ‘to break out’ ) ‘intermittent water spring’;

combination of backformation (or post nominal formation) and suffixation (5%): *necătură* (< Rom *a îneca* ‘to flood’ < L *nēcāre* ‘to kill without bloodshed + -ătură’) ‘flood, inundation’; conversions, i.e. words belonging to one word class getting used as parts of another word class without the addition of an affix (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 95) (9%): *sărită* (Regional.) (< Rom Past Participle of *a sări* ‘to jump’ < L *salire* ‘to jump’) ‘cascade, cataract, falls, waterfall’ and *scurs* (Regional.) (< Rom Past Participle of *a se scurge* ‘to leak’ < L *excurrere* ‘to leak’) ‘current, stream’; and onomatopoeic words (23%): *dâlboană* ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *șioi* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *șirlău* (Obsolete., Regional.) ‘flow, stream, torrent’, *știbloancă* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *știolboană* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *știulboană* (Regional.) ‘waterfall’, *șușoi* (Regional.) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, and *vir* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’. The words with unknown etymon are: *ciulniță* ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, *cursoare* (Obsolete.) ‘current, flow, stream’ (< Rom *a curge* ‘to flow’), *scăturină* ‘source, spring’, *sel* (Regional.) ‘rushing stream, torrent’, *toaie* (Regional.) ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, and *toancă* ‘eddy, swirling water, vortex, whirlpool’, except that for *cursoare* ‘current, flow, stream’ we could retrace the evolution from Rom *a curge* ‘to flow’ from L *currere* ‘to flow’.

**Romanian formations** represent a considerable share of our corpus (20%). Moreover, some of these formations have for bases old loanwords that have been assimilated by the Romanian language. With few exceptions (*gârlă* ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’ < Bulg *gărlo* ‘brook, rivulet, stream(let)’, *vârtej* ‘swirl’ < Bulg *vârtež*; *a inunda* ‘to flood’ < F *inonder* ‘to flood’; *învârtecuș* < Rom *în-* + Slavic *vrŭteti* ‘to swirl’ + Rom *-uș*, *a potopi* ‘to flood’ < Slavic *potopiti* ‘to flood’, *val* ‘wave’ < Slavic *valŭ* ‘wave’), Romanian formations in the field of watercourse-related words have Latin etymons (to note the prolificacy of *râu*, which yielded *râuuleț*, *râurel*, *râușor*, *râuț*), while the words *bulbuc* and *șiroi* are onomatopoeic formations.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

There seems to be no word from the Dacian period in the Romanian watercourse-related vocabulary. On the contrary, the Romanisation has left a considerable number of words borrowed from Latin (27%), French (15%), or Slavic (15%). The Slavic influence on Proto-Romanian brought about a large number of Slavonisms and, later on, of words of Slavic origin borrowed from modern Slavic languages (a total of 59%). Other influences can be considered negligible.

In our opinion, there are far too many unknown-etymon words in our corpus. We are aware of the fact that, in the absence of any attestation, lexicologists cannot venture too far in the land of etymologies; however, the phonetic aspect of some of these words and the possible parallelisms are too suggestive to prevent us from reconstituting their evolution (from Latin: *cursoare*, *necătură*, *revărsătură*, *sărită*, *scurs*, *undătură*; from Bulgarian: *izbuc*, *povornitoare*; from Serbo-Croatian: *burău*, *povornitoare*; from Serbian: *povornitoare*), or from considering them onomatopoeic words (*duruitoare*).

The large number of Romanian formations (20% of the watercourse-related words) and the richness of the word-formation processes (*derivation*, *backformation*, *combination of processes*, *composition*, and *onomatopoeia*) are considerable: they show that loanwords stopped at a certain point in history to be considered foreign elements and started generating new words via processes specific to the Romanian language.

## REFERENCES

- \*\*\*(2002). *Noul dicționar explicativ al limbii române*. [The New Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Litera Internațional.
- \*\*\*(2005). *Dicționar ortografic, ortoepic și morfologic al limbii române (ediția a II-a)*. [An Orthographical, Orthoepical and Morphological Dictionary of the Romanian Language (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition)]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic.
- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (1958). *Dicționarul limbii române moderne*. [A Dictionary of Modern Romanian]. București: Editura Academiei.
- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (1996). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române* [The Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic.
- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (1998). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*. [The Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic.
- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (2002). *Micul dicționar academic*. [The Little Academic Dictionary]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic.
- Breban, V. (1980). *Dicționarul limbii române contemporane*. [A Dictionary of Literary Contemporary Romanian]. București: Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică.
- Bulgăr, Gh. & Constantinescu-Dobridor, Gh. (2002). *Dicționar de arhaisme și Regionalisme*. [A Dictionary of Archaisms and Regionalisms]. București: Editura Saeculum Vizual.
- Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. (1994). *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. London – New York – Sydney – Toronto: BCA.
- Ciorănescu, Al. (1958-1966). *Dicționarul etimologic român*. [Romanian Etymological Dictionary]. Universidad de la Laguna, Tenerife.
- Costinescu, M., Georgescu, M. & Zgraon, F. (1987). *Dicționarul limbii române literare vechi (1640-1780) – Termeni Regionali*. [A Dictionary of Old Literary Romanian (1640-1780) – Regional Words]. București: Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică.
- Creța, Z., Mareș, L., Ștefănescu-Goangă, Z., Șuteu, F. & Șuteu, V. (1998). *Dicționar al limbii române actuale (ediția a II-a revăzută și adăugită)*. [A Dictionary of Contemporary Romanian (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition Revised and Completed)]. București: Editura Curtea Veche.
- Lombard, A. & Gâdei, C. (1981). *Dictionnaire morphologique de la langue roumaine*. [The Morphological Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Academiei.
- Marcu, F. & Maneca, C. (1986). *Dicționar de neologisme*. [A Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Academiei.
- Marcu, F. (2000). *Marele dicționar de neologisme*. [The Great Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Saeculum.
- Niculescu, Al. (1981). *Outline History of the Romanian Language*. București: Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică.
- Rață, G., Moisuc, Al., Samfira, I., Silion, R.-F. & Boldea, O. (2004). *Apa și agricultura. Culegere de termeni tehnici în română, engleză, franceză și germană*. [Water and Agriculture. A Compendium of Technical Words in Romanian, English, French, and German]. Timișoara: Editura Mirton.

- Rață, G., Petroman, C. & Petroman, I. (2008a). The Vocabulary of Irrigation: A Typological Approach. *Conference on Water Observation and Information System for Decision Support*. Ohrid, Republic of Macedonia: 381.
- Rață, G., Petroman, C., Petroman, I. & Perkovic, A. (2008b). Common Names of Stagnant Waters in Romanian. *Scientific Papers. Faculty of Agriculture 40*: 307-312.
- Seche, M. & Seche, L. (2002). *Dicționar de sinonime*. [A Dictionary of Synonyms]. București: Editura Litera Internațional.

OANA CAULLATAILLE  
44 bis, quai de la Loire, 75019 Paris, France

# AN ETYMOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE LANGUAGE OF SPORTS AND ADVENTURE TOURISM

ALINA-ANDREEA DRAGOESCU

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, Romania  
andreeadragescu@yahoo.com*

PETRU-EUGEN MERGHEȘ

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, Romania  
merghes@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*A number of new words have appeared in the English language, most of which are meant to describe some recent novelties in terms of contemporary lifestyles. These words have been widely borrowed by other languages, including Romanian. Since English has become a universal language, Romanian loanwords follow the pattern of English etymologies which suffer no or only slight modifications. However, most words existed in the language before the appearance of the new sport or activity, but they are innovative in terms of word formation, specifically compounding. We aim at illustrating this hypothesis with examples of terms belonging to the language of sports and adventure tourism. Our suggestion is that these new words should be included in dictionaries for the use of students in tourism and agro-tourism related areas.*

**Keywords:** *Etymology; Compound; Loanword; Adventure tourism*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this comparative study is to establish the etymology or primary word of English loanwords in the Romanian of sports and adventure tourism. The study analyses their origin, as well as the connection between the words' etymology and their semantic evolution. Our intention is to draw a comparative analysis between loanwords and counterpart words in both languages, in search of common patterns in the development of their vocabularies. The comparative approach helps to make inferences about the shared or related vocabulary in the realm of adventure tourism, where word transfer or borrowing has become the rule. Besides word variation in form and meaning, it is interesting to detect which words derive from pre-existing ones and which were later borrowed into Romanian from English, while also making hypotheses about semantic alterations.

The present research analyzes a corpus of **adventure tourism**-related terms in English and Romanian. The specific terminology of *adventure tourism* is defined in the *Wikipedia* as 'a type of niche tourism involving exploration or travel to remote areas, where the traveller should expect the unexpected.' (W) The mechanism through which most words in the field of adventure tourism originate is closely connected to marketing and customer hunt issues. Tourism service providers emulate each other and compete with other offers on the market. While trying to come up with the most attractive tourist experience, they

often outdo themselves promising extraordinary possibilities of entertainment. In the case of Romanian tourism service providers who are often multinational giants (e.g. *Eximtur*), the foremost source of word creation seems to be the adoption of English loanwords, which sound more tempting to the Romanian Anglophone public. In addition, compounding is also a major source for the creation of new words in both English and Romanian, starting from names of sports or activities which already exist in the language. Several newly emerged words are difficult to discuss, since they have not yet been recorded in dictionaries and their meaning is debatable amongst tourism experts. In the case of a large array of words which have preserved both the English form and meaning, the ubiquitous presence of the English language may be considered a matter of linguistic fashion or prestige. New words which appear in the English language are directly borrowed as such into other languages, such as Romanian, where no other existing words are at hand to describe more or less new experiences. This fact often narrows down our research to English etymologies, the main aim remaining that of analyzing the linguistic device of forming new words by combining or putting together old words.

Most frequently, **compounds** are formed from pre-existing words attached together to function as a new concept. According to Carstairs-McCarthy (2002), a compound is a word containing more than one root or combining form. The meanings interrelate in such a way that a new meaning comes out. In linguistics, a compound is a lexeme that consists of more than one stem. From a semantic point of view, compounds are classified as follows: endocentric, exocentric, copulative and appositional. Endocentric compounds consist of a *head* which contains the basic meaning of the whole compound, referring to an internal ‘centre’. Exocentric compounds lack a head and their meaning refers to an unexpressed external ‘centre’ (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002:65). Copulative compounds have two semantic heads and they denote the sum of these heads. Appositional compounds refer to lexemes that have two different attributes which describe the same referent (W). The most common case in the language of adventure tourism appears to be the endocentric compound, which indicates that ‘A+B denotes a special kind of B’. The following table gives a succinct illustration of these categories which are encountered in the language of sports and adventure tourism.

*Table 1. Types of Compounds*

Type	Description	Example
<b>endocentric</b>	A+B denotes a special kind of B	<i>alpine skiing, water skiing</i>
<b>exocentric</b>	A+B denotes a special kind of an unexpressed semantic head	<i>end-to-ending</i>
<b>copulative</b>	A+B denotes the sum of what A and B denote	<i>expedition cruising</i>
<b>appositional</b>	A and B provide different descriptions for the same referent	<i>fly surfing</i>

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHOD

We have consulted the *Online Etymology Dictionary*, the *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*, *Partridge’s Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*, and the *Explanatory*



*Dictionary of Romanian Language* to see if the terms have (not) become part of the two vocabularies.

A large array of words related to sports is mainly used to describe completely novel experiences. Besides, the massive invasion of English into other languages, such as Romanian, explains the great number of words borrowed from English as such. Therefore, the etymological approach applies mainly to (yet fresh) English words in the field of adventure tourism.

### 3. RESULTS

We have inventoried 146 terms related to *adventure tourism* as defined above. Only 19 (13%) of them have Romanian equivalents and, of these, only 4 terms (i.e. 21%) existed in Romanian before the appearance of the sport they have come to designate, yet unrelated to their English counterparts: **climb(ing)** (> Rum *cățărat*) ‘the activity of using one’s hands and feet (or indeed any other part of the body) to ascend a steep object’ (W). In English, this word comes from the O.E. *climban*, from W. Gmc. *klimbanan* ‘go up by clinging’ (OED); **hiking** (> Rum *drumeție*) ‘a form of walking, undertaken with the specific purpose of exploring and enjoying the scenery’ (W). The English word has been recorded since 1809, when it presented the slightly different form *hyke*, meaning ‘to walk vigorously’; it also received the extended sense of ‘raise’ (as wages) in 1867. Thus, the initial meaning of the verb is definitely the etymological source of the present-day **hiking**; **mountain climbing** (or **mountaineering**) (> Rum *alpinism*) used in English sometime before 1877 (MWD) refers to ‘the practice of climbing to elevated points for sport, pleasure, or research’ (CRE); **walking** (> Rum *marș*) ‘a form of racing in which the competitor’s advancing foot must touch the ground before the rear foot leaves it’ (CRE). The English word etymology is O.E. *wealcan* ‘to toss, roll,’ and *wealcian* ‘to roll up, curl, muffle up’. However, the meaning shifted in early M.E., perhaps from colloquial use of the O.E. word. ‘Rarely is there so specific a word as NE walk, clearly distinguished from both go and run’ [Buck in OED]. Though several meanings of the verb still exist today, the initial O. E. meaning has altered, shifting from a reference to the whole body to one ‘in reference to the movements of the foot raised and lowered’ (P).

Furthermore, a small number of Romanian terms appear to be the direct translation with slight modifications of their English counterparts (8 terms, i.e. 42%): **alpine skiing** (> Rum *schii alpin*) ‘a recreational activity and sport involving sliding down snow-covered hills with long skis attached to each foot’ (CRE). The etymology of the English endocentric compound is to be found in literature before 1321 in the case of *alpine* from the Latin expression *Alpinus*, from *Alpes* ‘the Alps’ (MWD) and in 1755 in the case of *ski* from Norw. *ski*, related to O.N. *skið* ‘snowshoe’, O.E. *scid* ‘stick of wood’, Ger. *Scheit* ‘log’, from P. Gmc. *skid-* ‘to divide, split’ (OED); **canoeing** (> Rum *canotaj*) ‘sport of propelling a canoe through water’ (CRE) derives from the English *canoe* from 1555, from Sp. *canoa*, term used by Columbus, from Arawakan (Haiti) *canaoua* (OED); **heliskiing** (> Rum *helischi*) ‘off-trail, downhill skiing that is accessed by a helicopter’ (W) is a compound from *heli* which signifies or is derived from ‘ascending’, ‘climbing up’, first used before 1697 and *ski* as seen above (MWD); **ocean / sea kayaking** (> Rum *caiăc pe mare / ocean*) ‘kayaking on sea/ocean water’ (W) originates from the lexemes *ocean* (c. 1290, from O.Fr. *occean* (12c.), from L. *oceanus*, from Gk. *okeanos*, the great river or sea surrounding the disk of the Earth commonly ocean sea, and *kayaking* which derives from *kayak* from 1757, from Dan. *kajak*, from Greenland Eskimo *qayaq*, lit.

‘small boat of skins’ (OED); **parachuting** (> Rum **parașutism**) ‘the act of jumping out of an aircraft and eventually landing with the aid of a parachute’ (CRE). The English word is used from 1785, being derived from Fr. *parachute*, lit. ‘that which protects against a fall,’ hybrid coined by Fr. aeronaut François Blanchard from *para-* ‘defence against’ (from L. *parare* ‘prepare’) + *chute* ‘a fall’ (OED). The verb is attested from 1807; **paragliding** / **parapenting** (> Rum **parapantă**) ‘a recreational and competitive flying sport’ (CRE) finds its etymology in the compound *para* (see above) and *glide* from the O.E. *glidan* ‘move along smoothly and easily’, from W.Gmc. *glidan* (OED); **recreational ski** (> Rum **schii recreativ**) ‘ski as a leisure’ (W) from *recreation* used in 1390 to designate ‘refreshment or curing of a person, refreshment by eating,’ from O.Fr. *recreacion* (13c.), from L. *recreationem* (nom. *recreatio*) ‘recovery from illness,’ from *recreare* ‘to refresh, restore,’ from *re-* ‘again’ + *creare*, meaning ‘refresh oneself by some amusement’ is first recorded c.1400; the verb *recreate* ‘to refresh by physical influence’ is attested from c.1560, while the adjective *recreational* as late as 1656. It thus appears that this lexeme has undergone consistent modification in meaning until it has come to refer mainly to a leisure time activity, in this case combined with the lexeme *ski* also discussed above) (OED); **water skiing** (> Rum **schii nautic**, **schii pe apă**) ‘riding on skis along the water’s surface while being towed by a motorboat’ (CRE). The same secondary lexeme appears in an endocentric compound form with the lexeme *water* from O.E. *wæter*, Goth. *wato* of unknown origin (OED).

Similarly, only few terms are the indirect translation of their English counterparts (5 terms, i.e. 26%): **creeking** (> Rum **caiăc**) ‘kayaking on very technical and difficult rapids’ (W) derives from *creek*, from *creke* attested in 1449 as ‘narrow inlet in a coastline,’ from *kryk* (c. 1230), probably from O.N. *kriki* ‘nook,’ perhaps infl. by Anglo-Fr. *crique*, itself from a Scand. source via Norman, extended to ‘inlet or short arm of a river’ by 1577, which probably led to use for ‘small stream, brook’ in Amer. Eng. (1622). Though still in connection with its etymology, the present meaning of the word has altered to refer to a particular sports activity pursued on such waters; **cross-country flying** (> Rum **deltaplanorism**) ‘gliding for hours’ (W); the English etymology may be traced back in the separate lexemes of the compound, with the exception of *cross* from the O.E. *croſ*, from L. *crux* which originally referred to a stake or pole possibly of Phoenician origin and whose meaning has come to signify ‘extending or lying across’ (MWD). The meaning of the neologism is obvious, as the other lexemes form an endocentric compound: *country* has been used from 1234, from O.Fr. *cuntree* ‘district or (land) spread before one’ (OED) and *fly* ‘to soar through air’ from O.E. *fleogan* used sometime before 1010 (OED; MWD); **cross-country jumping** (> Rum **parașutism amator**) ‘a style of skydive where the participants open their parachutes immediately after jumping, with the intention of covering as much ground under canopy as possible’ (W). The same etymology is applicable in this case, with the compound *jumping* derived from *jump* from 1530, perhaps onomatopoeic (cf. *bump*). Another theory derives it from words in Gallo-Romance dialects of south-western France (cf. *jumba* ‘to rock, to balance, swing’ < *yumpa* ‘to rock’). Other meanings along time would be ‘to attack’ from 1789 and that of ‘to do the sex act with’ from 1638 (OED). Quite uncommonly, despite the subsequent alterations of meaning, the present *jumping* is to be traced back to its original etymology; **hang gliding** (> Rum **deltaplanorism**) ‘Sport of flying in unpowered aircraft that are light enough to be carried by the pilot’ (CRE). This etymology resorts to the same one as *gliding* from *glide* + *hang* from a fusion of O.E. *hon* ‘suspend’ and O.E. *hangian* ‘be suspended’ which emerged as pp. 16<sup>th</sup> c. in northern England dial. (OED); **sailing** (> Rum

*navigație cu ambarcațiune cu pânze*) ‘navigating a sailboat for recreational or competitive purposes’ (CRE). The indirect translation into Romanian refers to *sailing* from *sail* from O.E. *segel* of obscure origin referring to piece of canvas fastened to a mast, etc. to catch the wind or ‘a cut piece of cloth’ (OED).

Only 2 terms (i.e. 11%) have been found to represent either their unmodified English counterparts, or one of the synonyms of their English counterparts: **skateboarding** or **snowboarding** (> Rum **snowboarding** - not attested) ‘the act of sliding down a snow-covered slope while standing on a snowboard’ (W) is a compound whose etymology is derived from *snow* from O.E. *snaw*, used before 1010, meaning ‘a layer of snowflakes (white crystals of frozen water) covering the ground’ (MWD) and *board* from O.E. *bord* ‘a plank, flat surface’ (OED); **surfing** (or **surf boarding**) (> Rum **surfing**) ‘sport of gliding toward the shore on a breaking wave’ (CRE) derived from *surf* which is attested in 1685, probably from earlier *suffe* (1599), of uncertain origin., originally used in reference to the coast of India, hence perhaps of Indic origin. The verb meaning ‘to ride the crest of a wave’ dates from 1917, while *surfing* dates from 1955. It was later also recorded in the Internet sense in 1993 (OED), but the latter is not the meaning we have in view.

The greater majority of 127 terms (87%) appear to have no linguistic counterpart and they are used as such by connoisseurs and tourism service providers, representing new borrowings into Romanian.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

There is a great number of terms (127, i.e. 87%) belonging to the field of *adventure tourism* that have no equivalents in Romanian and for which it would be difficult to supply any perfect or well sounding equivalents. This has led experts to conclude that borrowings from the English language are preferred, since only few Romanians have access to novel experiences, practice extreme sports and use the terminology discussed here above.

We further discuss the etymological origin of only a sample of these words which belong to the field of sports and adventure tourism alone. However, in all cases, though there is no Romanian counterpart, there is a clear and traceable source in English where these compounds can all be found to originate, as with all the examples given above. For instance, **aid climbing** ‘climbing rocks using artificial devices placed in the rock to support all or part of the climber’s body weight, normally practiced on rock formations that lack necessary natural features suitable for free climbing’ (W) is a compound consisting of two lexemes: **aid** is recorded from 1475, meaning ‘help, assistance’ from O.Fr. *aidier*, from L. *adjutare*, freq. of *adiuvare* ‘thing by which assistance is given’ and recorded from 1597 (OED). It is notable that the Latin form of the word is similar to the Romanian *a ajuta / ajutor*, lending itself to translation rather than borrowing. The second lexeme, **climbing**, as explained above, is derived from *climb*, to be traced back to the O.E. *climban*, from W.Gmc. *klimbanan* ‘go up by clinging’ (OED). While the other compounds which have been found can only be mentioned here for lack of space, the etymological pursuit may be carried on in the same manner. More importantly, we suggest that Romanian equivalents for all these terms which are not supplied by Romanian dictionaries, thus as yet unattested, ought to be found and put forward for further discussion in a future research, possibly taking etymology into consideration: e.g. *all-terrain-boarding*; *animal trek*; *animal watching*; *backpacking*; *barefoot skiing*; *bird*

watching (or birding); body boarding; bodysurfing; bouldering; bungee jumping; bush walking (on skis); bush bashing / whacking); canuding; canyon hiking; canyoneering (or canyoning); cross-country hiking / mountain biking / soaring; cruising; day sailing; (deep-sea) diving; dirt boarding; dirt jumping; downhill; dry-tooling; dune bashing; end-to-end hiking (or end-to-ending); expedition cruising; fell / hill / mountain running; fell / hill walking; fly surfing (or kite boarding, kite land boarding, kite surfing); free boarding; free climbing; free diving; free ride; free solo climbing; freestyle (or freestyle events); greenlaning (or two-tracking); hill running / walking; hydro foiling; ice climbing / sailing; indoor climbing; kite boarding / buggying / jumping / land boarding / skiing / surfing; knee boarding; long boarding; mountain boarding / running / unicycling; mountaineering; mud plugging; off roading; off-road safari; off-trail hiking; para motoring (or powered paragliding); parapenting; parasailing; parascending; play boating; powered paragliding; racing; rafting; regular stand-up surfing; river running / tracing (or river trekking); rock / crawling / racing; roped climbing; rodeo; scuba diving; sea kayaking; section hiking; single-track; skateboarding; skin diving; skurfing (or wake boarding); skydiving; snorkel(l)ing; snow climbing; snow kiting; solo climbing; sport lead climbing; street riding; surf kayaking; surf-skiing; thru-hiking; top rope climbing (or top-ropeing); tow-in surfing; trad(itional) lead climbing; tramping; trekking; two-tracking; underwater diving; wake boarding; wake skating; white-water kayaking; white-water rodeo; winch events; windsurfing (W).

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

As PERKOVIČ & RAȚĂ notice in their own research on the issue, the need is felt for cooperation between lexicographers and sports / tourism specialists, as language dictionaries lack complete definitions of the types of adventure tourism under discussion. Further research might compare the corpora of *adventure tourism*-related terms in Romanian and English with a view to identifying common patterns in the adaptation of English loanwords. Translations and definitions should also be supplied to help students in tourism and agro-tourism related areas better grasp the meanings of these neologisms.

## REFERENCES

- Carstairs-McCarthy, A. (2002). *An Introduction to English Morphology. Words and Their Structure*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Crystal Reference Encyclopedia. [Online: <http://www.reference.com/help/crystal.html>] (CRE)
- Merriam-Webster's Dictionary. [Online: <http://www.websters-online-dictionary.org>] (MWD)
- Online Etymology Dictionary. [Online: <http://www.etymonline.com>] (OED)
- Partridge, E. 1966. *Origins. A short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*. London-New York: Routledge. (P)
- Perkovič, A. & Rață, G. (2008). Notes on the Language of Adventure Tourism. *Journal of Linguistic Studies* 1. 71-78.
- Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia. [Online: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki>] (W)

ALINA-ANDREEA DRAGOESCU  
119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, Romania

# SPICES: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH

ASTRID SIMONE GROSZLER

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, Romania  
mone\_stern@yahoo.co.uk*

## ABSTRACT

*The paper brings an etymological approach of 13 spice names, analysing their origin, but also the connection between their origin and their meaning, where possible. First we explain the English common name and, in most cases, the scientific name. Besides the explanation of the English term, we also try to draw parallels between the English term and its Romanian and German counterparts. We attempt to establish a connection between the names of herbs in the three languages.*

**Keywords:** *Etymology; Semantics; Spice names*

## INTRODUCTION

In this paper we try to bring an etymological perspective on some plant names, namely *spice names*. By etymological perspective we mean an etymological approach in the sense of the *Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language* (1998: 350) where we find that *etymology*: ‘establishing of a word’s origin by explaining its formal and semantic evolution’. We try to establish whether or not there is a connection between the origin of the word and its sense, its meaning. We also look at the Romanian and German name of the plant and try to establish a connection with the English term.

Aside from the etymological aspect of the origin of the words, we take a look at the graphologic and phonetic form of the analysed plant names.

## 6. MATERIAL AND METHOD

We have chosen thirteen English *herb names*, *spice names* to be more accurate. First we identified the origin of the English common name and, in most cases, that of the scientific name using specific dictionaries, then looked for Romanian and German corresponding names of the spices and tried to establish whether there is a connection between their names in the three languages.

## 7. RESULTS

The spice names we analysed are the following: *allspice*, *anise*, *cardamom*, *ginger*, *lavender*, *lemon grass*, *licorice*, *melegueta pepper*, *mint*, *nutmeg*, *sage*, *savoury*, and *wasabi*.

*Allspice* (*Pimenta dioica*) takes its name from its aroma. It smells like a combination of spices, especially cinnamon, cloves, ginger and nutmeg. In much of the world, allspice is called *pimento* because the Spaniards mistook the fruit for *black pepper*, which they called *pimienta*. Another English name for this herb is *Jamaican pepper*, which relates to the Spanish name, but also *pimento* (< L *pimento*). The German name for *allspice* is

*Allgewürz*, which is an exact translation of the English name **allspice** and *Jamaicapfeffer* again, an exact translation of the English term, but also *Piment*, again relating to the Spanish origin. In Romanian, we have *piper de Jamaica*, the corresponding common name of *Jamaican pepper*. We could not find an occurrence of *pimento* or of any derived form of the word. If we are to compare the graphologic and the phonetic forms of the herb, we will notice that there is an identity between these two forms (for the English variant) only in the overtaken synonym, namely the Spanish *pimienta*. The other forms (*Allspice*, *Jamaican pepper*) undergo the rules of pronunciation present in the English language. As for the Romanian and German language, since these two languages are more phonetic than English (especially Romanian), the phonetic changes are minor, and again there is also a complete identity in the Spanish overtaken name, *Piment*, in German.

When we analyzed the spice **anise** (< L *Pimpinella anisum*), the MWDT revealed as its origin the Middle English *anis* (< AF < L *anisum* < Greek *annēson*, *anison*). In turn, the Greek *anison* and the Latin *anisum* are derived from the Arabic name *anysum*, since **anise** is native to the eastern Mediterranean region, the Levant, and Egypt. As for its meaning, **anise** is a Eurasian annual herb of the carrot family having carminative and aromatic seeds. When we look for the German name of the herb we find *Anis*, which is an almost perfect match to the English word, but also *Kuchengewürz*, which means ‘spice for cake’, thus leading to the conclusion that **anise** is a spice used in cake recipes. The Romanian name for the herb is *anason*, derived from the same Greek *annison*. When analysing the graphologic and phonetic occurrences of the words, we find phonetic changes in the English term, since *anise* is pronounced [æni:s]. As for the German term *Anis* and the Romanian one *anason*, there are no phonetical changes.

**Cardamom** (< L *Elettaria cardamomum*) is native to the East, originating in the forests of the Western Ghats in southern India, where it grows wild. Today it also grows in Sri Lanka, Guatemala, Indo China and Tanzania. The ancient Egyptians chewed **cardamom** seeds as a tooth cleaner; the Greeks and Romans used it as a perfume. Vikings came upon the spice about one thousand years ago, in Constantinople, and introduced it into Scandinavia. In the MWDT we find its origin in the Latin *cardamomum* (which is also the second half of the spice’s scientific name), from Greek *kardamōmon*, blend of *kardamon* peppergrass and *amōmon*. The German name of the spice is *der Kardamom* – the same as the English name, and the Romanian name for it is *cardamom verde* – again, the same as the English name, but with the specification of the colour, *verde* meaning ‘green’. Thus we can infer that all three names derive from the Greek *kardamōmon*. If we analyse the terms from a phonetical point of view, we will notice that for the English term there are some differences between the graphological and the phonetic form, since the pronunciation of *cardamom* is [kærdəməm], while for the Romanian and German term there are no differences between the two forms.

**Ginger** (< L *Zingiber officinale*) is native to India and China. It takes its name from the Sanskrit word *stringa-vera*, which means ‘with a body like a horn’ (according to the online *Encyclopaedia of Spices*). The MWDT records as origin Middle English, alteration of Old English *gingifer* (< Med L *gingiber* < L *zingiber* < Gk *zingiberi*). Regarding the meaning, we find ‘1. a thickened pungent aromatic rhizome that is used as a spice and sometimes medicinally. 2. the spice usually prepared by drying and grinding ginger.’ The origin of the word thus relates to its shape and not necessarily its meaning. In German we find *Ingwer*, which is clearly derived from the Latin and Greek name, and in Romanian we find *ghimber* or *ghimbir*, words originating from the Hungarian *gyömbér*, which, again, clearly derives from the Latin and Greek words. With *ginger* phonetical changes

can be observed in all three languages. The English term, *ginger*, is pronounced [dʒɪndʒə], while the German *Ingwer* is pronounced [ɪŋvə] and the Romanian *ghimbir* [gimbir].

**Lavender** (< L *Lavandula stoechas*) originates from Middle English *lavendre* (< AF < Med L *lavandula*). It is native of the Mediterranean and became widely distributed throughout southern Europe, but nowadays it is a worldwide known herb. Widely used by the ancient Egyptians, Greeks, Romans and Arabs for mummification medicinal purposes and for scented baths and soaps, its botanical name comes from the Latin *lavare* which means ‘to wash’. It was and is still used as a refresher for laundry. As in the case of **ginger**, when we analyze the German name *Lavendel* and the Romanian one, *lavandă*, we notice that they originate from the Latin *lavare* as well. We can notice a resemblance in the phonetic forms of the terms in the different languages as well, although the English pronunciation has undergone more changes than the other two. *Lavender* is read [lævəndə], the German *Lavendel* [lavendəl] and the Romanian *lavandă* is pronounced [lavandə].

**Lemon grass** (< L *Cymbopogon citratus*) is a tall tropical grass. The fresh stalks and leaves have a clean lemon-like odour because they contain an essential oil, which is also present in lemon peel. The English name originates from Middle English *lymon* (< MF *limon* < Med L *limon-*, *limo* < Ar *laymūn*, *līmūn* < Pers *līmū*, *līmūn*). In this case, the herb gets its name from the resemblance in odour with the lemon fruit, and also because it contains the same essential oil as the fruit. We find three German corresponding names: *Zitronengras* (a perfect translation of the English name), *Citronella* (derived from the scientific name), and *Lemongras* (an almost perfect transfer of the English name). As for the Romanian corresponding name, we find the term *iarba lămâioasă* (an almost perfect translation of the English name). When we take a look at the English term and its equivalents in German and Romanian, we find that the English and German terms are almost perfect equivalents in writing and pronouncing, with *lemon grass* pronounced [lemən gra:s] in English and *Lemongras* - [lemo:ngra:s] in German. As for the Romanian term, the letters *ă* and *â* are the graphological signs for the phonetic transcripts of [ə] and [i], a sound inexistent in English language. Thus there are only minor changes in the Romanian phonetic form: [jarba təm îjoasə].

**Licorice** (< L *Glycyrrhiza glabra*) gets its scientific name from the Greek *glyks* ‘sweet’ and *rhiza* ‘root’. It is the sweet tasting rhizomes (underground stems) and roots that are used as flavourings. The MWDT records as its origin the Middle English *licorice* (< AF *licoris* < LL *liquiritia*, alteration of Latin *glycyrrhiza* < Gk *glykyrrhiza*, from *glykys* ‘sweet’ and *rhiza* ‘root’). The German corresponding name is *Süßholz*, which means ‘sweet wood’, relating to the Greek origin not formally, but semantically. In Romanian we find *lemn dulce*, which is an exact translation not of the English, but of the German term. From a phonetic point of view, we can observe that, like in the cases of the herbs discussed above, the pronunciation of *licorice* has brought changes compared to the graphological form: [likəris]. The German term is pronounced [zy:sholts], thus observing a few changes, while the Romanian term pronounced [lemn dultʃe] presents almost no difference between the graphological and phonetic form.

According to the online *Encyclopaedia of Spices*, the **melegueta pepper** (< L *Aframomum melegueta*) is native to tropical West Africa and grows mainly in Ghana. The spice is practically unknown in modern Western cuisine, although it was used in Europe in the Middle Ages and Renaissance. It was a flavouring for the old wine ‘Hippocras’ and is still used for the production of beer, wine and spirits, and for the flavouring of vinegar.

It was known under the name of *Grains of paradise*. Given its use in preparing alcoholic beverages, which may induce a euphoric state if consumed in large quantities, we can understand where it got the name of *grains of paradise* from. We notice that the first half of the name observes the Latin *melegueta*, while the other half refers to the shape, the appearance of the seeds of the herb, the part that is used. The German and Romanian names are actually exact translations of the English name, thus bearing the same etymology – *Meleguetapfeffer* or *Paradieskörner* for German, and *piper de melengueta* or *grăuntele paradisului* for Romanian, respectively. When we take a look at the phonetic forms of the terms in the three discussed languages, we see that in the case of *melegueta pepper*, almost no changes occur, regardless the language analysed: English [melegweta pepə], German [melegwetapfefə] and Romanian [piper de melengweta].

**Mint** (< L *Mentha* spp.) comes from the Greek legend of the nymph Minthe, who caught the eye of Hades. Hades' wife, the jealous Persephone, attacked Minthe and was in the process of trampling her to death when Hades turned her into the herb (which remained sacred to him). It is a very well known and used herb. The nowadays English term originates from the Middle English *mint* (< OE < L *mentha*, *menta* < Gk *minthē*). Greek through Latin, thus displaying the same origin as the English word. With *mint* we find a word where there is a complete identity between the graphological and phonetic ([mint]) forms. We find some minor changes in the German phonetic form, [mintse], and the Romanian one, [mentə].

**Nutmeg** (< L *Myristica fragrans*) is the seed kernel inside the fruit of the nutmeg tree, and also the ground seed used as a spice. It takes its name from its flavour, which is nutty, warm and slightly sweet. It originates from Middle English *notemigge*, *notemuge*, OP *noz muscada*, from *noz* 'nut' (< L *nuc-*, *nux*). Another name for it is *muscat*. In German we find an interesting combination of the two English terms: *Muskatnuss*, *Muskat* from *muscat* and *Nuss* meaning 'nut'. The Romanian name is *nucșoară*, which could be literally translated by 'small nut', and derives from the Latin *nuc-*, *nux*. If we look at the phonetic forms, we shall observe that the English term displays a change, the pronunciation being [natmeg]. In German there is a complete identity of the graphological and the phonetic forms, [muskatnus]. The Romanian pronunciation displays one small change [nucșoarə].

**Sage** (< L *Salvia officinalis*) originates from Middle English (< AF < VL \**sapius* < L *sapere* 'to taste, have good taste, be wise'). The term is related to the Old Saxon *ansebbian* 'to perceive'. Ancient populations, including the Aras, associated it with immortality. The genus name derives from the Latin for salvation, *salvere*. The plant was used to counterattack snakebite. If we take a look at the German and Romanian names, *Salbei* and *salvie*, respectively, we notice that both derive from the Latin name *Savia*. When we analyse the names of *sage* from a phonetic point of view, we will notice that the Romanian term, pronounced [salvie], is the only one not undergoing major phonetic changes. The English *sage*, pronounced [seɪdʒ], and the German *Salbei*, read [zalbai], present greater phonetic changes.

**Savoury** (< L *Satureja Hortensis* or *Satureja Montana*) is a reputed aphrodisiac. The genus Latin name, *Satureja*, is attributed to the Roman writer Pliny and is a derivative of the word for *satyr* 'the half-man, half-goat with the insatiable sexual appetite'. Legends say that satyrs lived in meadows of savoury, thus implying that it was the herb that made them passionate. The English term originates from Middle English (< AF *savur* < L *sapor*, from *sapere* 'to taste'). The English word *savour* means: '1. to enjoy and appreciate (food or drink) slowly. 2. to enjoy (a pleasure) for as long as possible', thus



relating to the reputation of the plant. Regarding the German name, *Pfefferkraut*, meaning pepper herb, and the Romanian name, *cimbru*, originating from the Greek *thymbra*, or Latin *cimbrus*. We can see that there is no resemblance whatsoever between the three terms belonging to the three different languages. With *savoury*, the English and Romanian terms are the ones undergoing phonetic changes, reading [seivəri], respectively [tjimbru]. The German term is almost unchanged: [pfefəkraut].

**Wasabi** (< L *Wasabia japonica*), also called *Japanese horseradish*, is a pale green root grown in cold mountain streams under some of the most closely guarded growing practices in agriculture. The MWDT only mentions that it is of Japanese origin. The Japanese *wasabi* actually refers to the *mountain hollyhock* (a perennial plant of the Malvaceae family), as the plant's leaves resemble those of a member of the Malvaceae family, in addition to its ability to grow on shady hillsides. The name of *Japanese horseradish* refers to the land of origin and to the flavour of the plant, resembling the taste of horseradish, while in fact it is a mustard. When we look for the German and Romanian name of the herb we find the same **wasabi**, but also *Japanischer Kren* for German, and *hrean japonez* for Romanian, both names representing exact translations of the English *horseradish*. From a phonetic point of view, *wasabi* stays the same, namely [wasabi] in all three languages discussed.

## 8. DISCUSSION

In the previous section we have presented thirteen *spice names*. The analyses of their origins revealed that most spices derive their English name from the Latin or Greek denomination of the herb. Eight names (***allspice***, ***anise***, ***cardamom***, ***ginger***, ***lavender***, ***melegueta pepper***, ***mint***, ***pimento***, ***sage***) are (almost) perfect transfers from Latin or Greek and one (***licorice***) is an alliteration of the Greek name, which in turn represents the origin of the Latin denomination. One spice name, ***wasabi***, preserves its Japanese origin. ***Lemon grass*** and ***nutmeg*** take their name from their shape and flavour and have no connection whatsoever with the Latin or Greek origin of the scientific name. ***Savoury*** has a special etymology, since it takes its name from its use, rather than its shape or meaning, as in most cases.

Also, three herb names from the thirteen we have analysed have a second or even a third English name. As already mentioned above, ***pimento*** or ***allspice*** (a name originating from its flavour) is also called *Jamaican pepper* (after the shape of the seeds, the part of the spice used in cooking); ***melegueta pepper*** is also called *grains of paradise* (the name originating from the use of the spice for preparing alcoholic beverages); and ***wasabi*** is also called *Japanese horseradish* (taking its name after its flavour). Another spice taking its name after its shape is ***ginger*** (the Indian name *stringa-vera* meaning ‘with a body like a horn’).

When analysing the German and Romanian counterparts of the English *spice names*, we found that, from the thirteen analysed spices, four have literal translations of the English name both in German and Romanian (i.e. ***allspice***, ***lemon grass***, ***melegueta pepper*** and ***wasabi*** - *Japanese horseradish*) and one has partial translations (***nutmeg***); in six cases the German as well as the Romanian name have the same Latin origin as the English name (i.e. ***anise***, ***cardamom***, ***ginger***, ***lavender***, ***mint***, ***sage***). For ***licorice***, the German and the Romanian names, though having the same meaning (G *Süssholz*, R *lemn dulce* meaning ‘sweet wood’), had no connection whatsoever with the English name. ***Savoury*** is the only herb where there is no resemblance whatsoever between all three

terms belonging to the three different languages. From a phonetic point of view, we observed that, in most cases, the English term was the one undergoing changes, while the Romanian term was the one to display almost no change.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

All world languages (English, German, and Romanian included) have, at various times in their history, been enlarged by loanwords from other languages. Since the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, English settlers and, later, German travellers and/or scientists encountered and accepted, during their stays and/or travels, many of the native inhabitants' names for their flora and fauna, and also many of the names of their tribal customs and beliefs. Among them, new types of dishes, new types of cooking, and the use of spices whose presence continue to make cookbooks and/or menus more attractive.

Although we have analysed only thirteen *spice names*, still we could notice that most of them (nine denominations) take their English name after the Latin scientific name, which in turn originated from the Greek corresponding word. For almost half (six cases) of the analysed herbs, the German and Romanian names are derived from the same Latin or Greek root as the English ones. This is understandable, since the ancient Greeks were great medicine men and the Europeans inherited a great part of their medical and herbal knowledge from them.

Another conclusion that can be inferred is that many spice herbs (but also medical herbs) received a common name (see *allspice*, *Jamaican pepper*, *grains of paradise*, *Japanese horseradish*). Few people had educated in older times, so it was only natural that they named the herbs after the names of well-known concepts. This tendency can be noticed in German and Romanian as well, not just in English (for *allspice*, for instance, we have the German *Allgewürz*, which is an exact translation of the English term; the same goes for *grains of paradise* and *Japanese horseradish*, which display literal translations in both German and Romanian).

## REFERENCES

- \*\*\*(1998). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*. [The Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic. (DEX)
- Encyclopaedia of Spices*. [Online: <http://www.theepicentre.com/Spices/spiceref.html>]
- Guiraud, P. (1964). *L'étymologie*. [Etymology]. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.
- Hristea, T. (1968). *Probleme de etimologie. Studii. Articole. Note*. [Etymology issues. Studies. Articles. Notes]. București: Editura Științifică.
- Király, F. (1988). *Etimologia. Etimologii*. [Etymology. Etymologies]. Timișoara: Universitatea din Timișoara, Facultatea de Filologie.
- Leo Deutsch-Englisches Wörterbuch*. [Leo German/English Dictionary]. [Online: <http://dict.leo.org>]
- Merriam-Webster Dictionary and Thesaurus*. [Online: <http://www.merriam-webster.com>] (MWD)
- Sala, F. (1999). *Introducere în etimologia limbii române*. [Introduction to Romanian Etymology]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic.

ASTRID-SIMONE GROSZLER  
119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, Romania

# ROMANIAN CUISINE: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH

SCOTT HOLLIFIELD

*University of Nevada, Las Vegas, U.S.A.  
diablomortes@yahoo.com*

CORNELIA PETROMAN

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, Romania  
cornelia\_petroman@yahoo.com*

IOAN PETROMAN

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, Romania  
ioan\_petroman@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*Just how Romanian is Romanian cuisine is a question that has been haunting chefs, cookbook authors, gastronomists, historians, linguists, nutritionists, tourists (both Romanians and from abroad), and pretty much anybody having a meal in Romania, a country where a gourmet can have all kinds of appetisers, a wide variety of soups, of fish, chicken, and meat dishes, all sorts of vegetables, and deserts that remind him/her of other places and other countries. What we call 'Romanian cuisine' very much meets all expectations giving you the genuine sensation of being anywhere else (in the Balkans, in Eastern Europe, in the Mediterranean area, in the Middle East, in Western Europe, etc.) but Romania.*

**Keywords:** *Romanian cuisine; Loanwords; Etymological approach*

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of our research was to see how Romanian is the Romanian of cuisine, given the fact that there is no Romanian cuisine in the sense in which we speak of Chinese, French, or Turkish cuisine.

Since Romanian cuisine is a mixture of other peoples' cuisines, the hypothesis of the research was that the Romanian of cuisine is a mixture of terms belonging to the languages of these peoples.

To our knowledge, there is no study whatsoever of the Romanian of cuisine in Romanian literature and, therefore, we could not review any pertinent literature.

## 9. MATERIAL AND METHOD

The material used in the research consists of over 340 food-related terms (both raw materials and dishes) picked up from Romanian cookbooks (in particular Sanda's *Carte de bucate* – 1956 and many, many others), both printed and in electronic format.

To analyse this corpus of terms, we used some of the most authoritative Romanian language dictionaries (Ciorănescu's *Dicționar etimologic român* – 1958-1966; Breban's

*Dicționarul limbii române contemporane* – 1980; Marcu & Maneca's *Dicționar de neologisme* – 1986; *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române* – 1998; Marcu's *Marele dicționar de neologisme* – 2000).

The method used in the research was the etymological one: we focused only on the source of the terms specific to Romanian cuisine in our attempt at defining the nature of the 'Romanian cuisine'.

## 10. RESULTS

### 10.1. NATIVE WORDS

There seems to be a single word inherited from the Dacians in the language of Romanian cuisine: **mărar** 'dill' (Native word – NODEX).

### 10.2. LOANWORDS

Most of the words belonging to the Romanian of gastronomy (286) are *loanwords* ('words adopted or borrowed, usually with little modification, from another language' – Chalker & Wiener 1994: 229):

- 54 from French: **ananas** 'pineapple' (< F *ananas* – DEX'98, NODEX; < F *ananas* < Tupiguarani – DN; < F, Sp *ananas* – MDN), **andivă** 'chicory (*Cichorium intybus*), endive (*Cichorium endivia*), escarole (*Cichorium endivia* / *Lactuca scariola*)' (< F *endive* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **antricot** 'entrecote' (< F *entrecôte* – DEX'98, NODEX, MDN), **aperitiv** 'starters' (< F *apéritif* – DER), **aspic** 'gelatine' (< F *aspic* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **banană** 'banana' (< F *banana* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN), **bavareză** 'gelatinous cream with whipped cream and fruits' (< F *bavarois* – DEX'98; < F *bavaroise* – MDN), **bezea** 'meringue' (< F *baiser* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **biscot** / **biscuit** / **pișcot** 'biscuit' (< F *biscuit* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **brioșă** 'muffin' (< F *brioche* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **budincă** 'pudding' (< F *pudding* / *pouding*, E *pudding* – DEX'98, MD), **buletă** 'ball' (< F *boulette* – DGE), **cafea** 'coffee' (< Turk *kahve*, ModGk *kafēs*, < F *café* – DEX'98, NODEX), **caramel** 'caramel' (< F *caramel* – NODEX, DN; < F, Sp *caramelo* – MDN), **chec** 'cake' (< E, F *cake* – MDN), **cotlet(ă)** 'entrecote' (< F *côtelette* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **crab** 'crab' (< F *crabe* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **cremă** 'cream' (< F *crème* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **crevetă** 'king-prawn, prawn, shrimp' (< F *crevette* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **crochetă** 'croquette' (< F *croquette* – DEX'98, NODEX), **ecler** 'éclair' (< F *éclair* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **escalop** 'scallop' (< F *escalope* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **filé** 'file' (< F *filet* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **flan** 'fruit cake' (< F *flan* – DEX'98, DN, MDN), **foietaj** 'a kind of pastry' (< F *feuilletage* – DN), **gelatină** 'gelatine' (< F *gélatine* – DEX'98, NODEX; < F *gélatine*, It *gelatina* – DN, MDN), **macro(u)** 'mackerel' (< F *maquereau* – DEX'98, DN, MDN), **maioneză** 'mayonnaise' (< F *mayonnaise* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **margarină** 'margarine' (< F *margarine* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **marmeladă** 'marmalade' (< F *marmelade*, Ger *Marmelade* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **mentă** / **mintă** 'mint' (< Slav *menta*, L *mentha*, F *menthe* – DEX'98, NODEX), **omletă** 'omelette' (< F *omelette* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **pané** 'coated cheese / meat' (< F *pané* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **pateu** 'paté' (< F *paté* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **patrician** 'hot dog' (< F *patricien* –

DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *pireu* / *piure* 'mash' (< F *purée* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *poliș* / *polonez* 'kind of sausage' (< F *polonais* – DEX'98), *popietă* 'roll' (< F *paupiette* – DGE), *rizoto* 'risotto' (< It, F *risotto* – DEX'98, DN; < F, It *risotto*, Ger *Risotto* – MDN), *rosbif* 'roast beef' (< F *rosbif*, E *roast beef* – DEX'98, MDN; < F *rosbif* – DER, NODEX, DN), *ruladă* 'roll' (< F *roulade* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN), *rolou* 'roll' (< F *rouleau* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN), *saladă* / *salată* 'salad' (< ModGk *salata*, F *salade*, Ger *Salat* – NODEX), *savarină* 'savarin' (< F *savarine* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *sandvici* / *sandviș* / *sandwich* 'sandwich' (< F, E *sandwich* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX; < F, E *sandwich* < Lord *Sandwich* – DN), *soia* 'soy (bean)' (< F *soja* / *soya*, Ger *Soja* – DEX'98, NODEX, MDN; < F *soja* / *soya* – DN), *sos* 'sauce' (< F *sauce* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *soté* / *sote(u)* 'sauté' (< F *sauté* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *sufleu* 'soufflé' (< F *soufflé* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *surimi* 'surimi' (< F *surimi* – MDN), *tartină* 'slice of bread and butter etc.; sandwich' (< F *tartine* – DEX'98, NODEX, DLRM, DN, MDN), *ton* 'tuna (fish)' (< F *thon* – DEX'98, NODEX, MDN), *trigon* 'three-angle shaped cake with crushed nuts' (< F *trigone* – DEX'98, NODEX, DLRM, DN, MDN), and *vanilie* 'vanilla' (< F *vanille*, It *vaniglia* – NODEX, MDN);

- 48 from Latin: *aluat* 'dough' (< L *allēvatum* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *alună* 'peanut' (< L *\*abēllona* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *aperitiv* 'starters' (< F *aperitif* < L *aperitivus* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *căpșună* 'strawberry' (< L *\*capum*, vulgar form of *caput* – DER), *carne* 'meat' (< L *carnem* – DER; < L *caro*, *carnis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *cârnat* / *cârnaț* 'sausage' (< Lat. *\*carnāceus* – DER; < L *\*carnacius* – DEX'98, NODEX), *ceapă* 'onion' (< L *caepa* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *cireasă* (< L *ceresia* – DEX'98, NODEX), *colastră* / *colastru* / *coraslă* / *coras(t)ră* / *curas(t)ră* 'beest(ings), biestings' (< L *cōlostra* – DER; < L *\*colastra* – DEX'98, NODEX), *corn* 'roll' (< L *cōrnu* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *făină* 'flour' (< L *farīna* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *ficat* 'liver' (< L *flcātum* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *friptură* 'roast' (< L *\*frictura* – DEX'98; < L *frictura* – NODEX), *fruct* 'fruit' (< L *fructus* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *gheabă* / *gheb* / *ghib* (< L *\*glibba* – DER; < L *\*glibbus* – DEX'98; < L *glibbus* NODEX), *grâu* 'wheat' (< L *granum* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *lapte* 'milk' (< L *lac*, *lactem* – DER; < L *lac*, *-tis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *lăptucă* 'lettuce' (< L *lactūca* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *legumă* 'vegetable' (< L *legūmen* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DLRM, DN, MDN), *linte* 'lentil' (< L *lentem* – DER; < L *lens*, *-ntis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *măr* 'apple' (< L *melum* – DEX'98), *mentă* / *mintă* 'mint' (< Slav *menta*, L *mentha*, F *menthe* – DEX'98, NODEX; < L *mentha* – DN), *mic* 'highly seasoned forcemeat balls broiled on the gridiron' (< L *\*miccus* – DER, DEX'98), *miel* 'lamb' (< L *agnellus* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *miere* 'honey' (< L *\*melem* – DER; < L *mel* – DEX'98, NODEX), *minciună* 'kind of pastry' (< L *\*mentitiōnem* 'lie' – DER), *nucă* 'walnut' (< L *nux*, *-cis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *ou* 'egg' (< L *ovum* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *pară* (< L *pira* – DEX'98, NODEX), *pască* 'paskha' (< L *pascha* – DEX'98; < L *pascha*, ModGk *pasha* – NODEX), *pâine* 'bread' (< L *panem* – DER; < L *panis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *pește* 'fish' (< L *piscem* – DER; < L *piscis* – DEX'98, NODEX), *pătrunjel* 'persil' (< Gk *petroselinon*, L *petroselinum* – DER; < L *petroselinum* – DEX'98, NODEX), *piersică* 'peach' (< L *persica* – DEX'98, NODEX), *plăcintă* 'pie' (< L *plācenta* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *porc* 'pig' (< L *porcus* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *prună* 'plum' (< L *pruna* – DEX'98, NODEX), *pui* 'chicken' (< L *\*pulleus* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *rădiche* / *ridiche* 'radish' (< L *radīcūla* 'little root' – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *salamură* / *saramură* 'brine' (< L *salimuria* – DER), *salvie* (< L

*salvia* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *turtă* 'flat cake' (< L *\*turta* – DEX'99; < L *turta* – NODEX), *unt* 'butter' (< L *unctum* – DEX'98, NODEX), *urzică* 'nettle' (< L *urdica* – DEX'98, NODEX), *vacă* 'cow' (< L *vacca* – DEX'98), *varză* 'cabbage' (< L *vir(i)dia* 'greens' – DEX'98; NODEX), *viță* 'vine' (< L *\*vitea* – DEX'98; < L *vitis* NODEX), and *vițel* 'veal' (< L *vitellus* – DEX'98, NODEX);

- 39 from Modern / New Greek: *cafea* 'coffee' (< Turk *kahve*, ModGk *kafēs*, < F *café* – DEX'98, NODEX), *calamar* 'squid' (< ModGk *kalamari* – DER), *chimen* 'caraway' (< Gk *kyminon* – DER; < ModGk *kíminon* – DEX'98, NODEX), *chipotă* / *pipotă* 'gizzard' (< ModGk *\*efipapa* – DER), *conopidă* 'cauliflower' (< ModGk *kanupidia* – DER; < ModGk *kunupidi* – DEX'98, NODEX), *cozonac* 'sweet bread' (< ModGk *koznaki* < *kozona* 'doll' – DER), *fasole* 'beans' (< ModGk *fasoli* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *fidea* 'vermicelli' (< ModGk *fidēs* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *franzelă* '(long-shaped) white loaf' (< ModGk *frantzóla* – DER, DEX'98; < ModGk *frantzela* – NODEX), *friganea* / *frigănea* 'French toast' (< ModGk *frighaniá* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *guvid(ie)* 'black goby, chub, sea gudgeon' (< ModGk *guvid* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *lămâie* 'lemon' (< ModGk *lemon* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *macaroană* 'macaroni' (< ModGk *makarónia* – DEX'98, NODEX; < ModGk *makarónia*, It *maccheroni* – DN), *marinată* 'marinade' (< ModGk *marinatos*, It *marinato* – NODEX), *midie* '(common edible) muscle / mussel' (< ModGk *midi* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *orez* 'rice' (< ModGk *orisi* – DER), *pască* 'paskha' (< L *pascha*, ModGk *pasha* – NODEX), *paste* 'pasta' (< ModGk *pásta*, Ger *Pasta* – DEX'98, NODEX; < ModGk, It *pasta*, Ger *Pasta* – MDN), *pastramă* 'pastrami' (< ModGk *pastramás*, Turk *pastirma* – DEX'98, NODEX), *păpădie* 'dandelion, hawk bit, lion's tooth' (< ModGk *papadia* 'an Orthodox priest's wife' – DER), *pătrunjel* 'persil' (< Gk *petroselinon*, L *petroselinum* – DER), *pesmet* / *pezmet* 'biscuit' (< ModGk *pasmiati* – DER), *pilaf* 'pilaff / pilau / pilaw' (< Turk *pilāv*, ModGk *piláfi* – DEX'98), *piper* 'pepper' (< ModGk *pipéri*, Slav *piperŭ* – DEX'98; < ModGk *pipéri*, Slav *piperu* – NODEX), *picromigdală* / *pricomigdală* 'bitter almond' (< ModGk *pikramígdalon* – DEX'98, NODEX, MDN), *piftie* 'meat jelly; pig's trotters' (< ModGk *pihtí* – DER), *piroșcă* 'piroshki / pirozhki' (< Russ *pirožki*, ModGk *pyróžky* – NODEX), *pită* 'bread' (< ModGk *pita* – DER), *portocală* 'orange' (< ModGk *portocalli* – DEX'98, NODEX), *saladă* / *salată* 'salad' (< ModGk *saláta* – DEX'98; < ModGk *salata*, F *salade*, Ger *Salat* – NODEX), *saramură* 'brine' (< ModGk *salamúra* – DEX'98; < ModGk *saeamúra* – NODEX), *spanac* 'spinach' (< ModGk *spanáki* – DEX'98; < ModGk *spanáki*, Bulg *spanak* – NODEX), *sparanghel* 'asparagus' (< ModGk *sparághi* – DEX'98, NODEX), *stafidă* 'raisin' (< ModGk *stafid(h)a* – DEX'98, NODEX), *stufat* 'lamb stew with garlic and fresh onion' (< ModGk *stufáton* – DEX'98; < ModGk *stufáto*, It *stufato* – NODEX), *trandafir* 'hot dog' (< ModGk *triandáfillo* – DEX'98; < ModGk *tr[i]antáfillon* – NODEX), *țelină* 'celery' (< ModGk *sélinon* – DEX'98), *vanilie* 'vanilla' (< ModGk *vanilli* – DEX'98), and *zahăr* 'sugar' (< ModGk *záhari* – DEX'98, NODEX);

- 31 from Bulgarian: *castravete* / *crastavete* 'cucumber' (< Bulg *krastavica* – DER; < Bulg *krastavec* – NODEX), *ciupercă* 'mushroom' (< Bulg, Srb *pečurka*, Hung *Csepérke* – DER; < Bulg *čepurka*, Serbo-Croatian *pečurka* – DEX'98; < Bulg *țepurca*, Srb *peřurka* – NODEX), *clisă* 'lard' (< Bulg *klisa* – DER, DEX'98), *coleașă* 'polenta, porridge' (< Serbo-Croatian *kuliješ*, Bulg *kulijaša* – DEX'98), *covrig* 'bretzel' (< Bulg, Russ *kovrig(a)* – DER; < Bulg *kovrig* – DEX'98, NODEX), *crap* 'carp' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *krap* – DEX'98; < Bulg, Srb *krap* – NODEX), *drob* 'caul, kell, omentum of a lamb' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *drob* – DEX'98; < Bulg, Srb *drob* – NODEX), *gulie* (< Bulg *gulija* –

DER, DEX'98, NODEX), iahnie 'kind of ragout with vegetables, fish or meat, stewed potatoes, etc.' (< Turk *yahni*, Bulg *iahnija* – DEX'98), mac 'poppy' (< Bulg *mak*, Serbo-Croatian *mak* – DEX'98, NODEX), marinată 'marinade' (< Bulg *marinátos*, It *marinata* – DEX'98), măcriș '(cock) sorrel, sharp / sour dock' (< Bulg *mokreš* – DER), morcov 'carrot' (< Bulg, Russ *morkov* – DER; < Bulg *morkov* – DEX'98, NODEX), orez 'rice' (< Bulg *oriz* – DEX'98, NODEX), papară 'scrambled eggs' (< Bulg, Srb *popara* < Slavic *popariti* 'to boil, to scald, to soak in boiling water' – DER; < Bulg *popara* – DEX'98, NODEX), păpădie 'dandelion, hawk bit, lion's tooth' (< Bulg *papadija* – DEX'98, NODEX), păstărnac / păstărnac / păstrănac '(common) parsnip' (< Bulg *pastărnak*, Pol, Russ *pasternak* – DER), păstrăv 'trout' (< Bulg *păstărva* – DEX'98; Bulg *păstăvra* – NODEX), pârjoală 'meat croquette' (< Turk *pirzola*, Bulg *păržola* – DEX'98, NODEX), piftie 'meat jelly; pig's trotters' (< Bulg *pihtija*, ModGk *pihti* – DEX'98, NODEX), pită 'bread' (< Bulg *pita* – DEX'98, NODEX), praz 'leek' (< Bulg *praz* – DEX'98, NODEX), rasol 'boiled meat' (< Bulg *raszol*, Serbo-Croatian *rasola*, Russ *rassol* – DEX'98; < Bulg *raszol* – NODEX), salam 'salami' (< Turk, Bulg *salam* – DEX'98), scrob 'scrambled eggs' (< Bulg *skrob* – DEX'98; < Bulg, Srb *skrob* – NODEX), sfecă 'beet (root)' (< Bulg *sveklo* – NODEX), slănină 'lard' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *slanina* – DEX'98; < Bulg, Srb *slanina* – NODEX), spanac 'spinach' (< ModGk *spanáki*, Bulg *spanak* – NODEX), ștevie 'garden sorrel' (< Slav *štavije*, Bulg *štavel*, Serbo-Croatian *štavlije* – DEX'98; < Slav *stavi*, Bulg *štava* – NODEX), știucă 'jack, pike, river pirate' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *štuka* – DEX'98; < Bulg, Srb *štuka* – NODEX), țelină 'celery' (< Slav *seline*, Bulg *țelina* – NODEX), and zarzavat 'greengrocery, green / pot herbs' (< Turk, Bulg *zarzevat* – DEX'98);

- 30 from Turkish: (h)alva 'hal(a)va(h) / khalva' (< Turk *halva* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), baclava 'baklava' (< Turk *baklava* – DER, DEX'98; < Turk *baklava* / *paklava* – NODEX), balic 'balyk' (< Turk (*kalkan*) *balik* – DER), bamă / bambă / bamie 'edible hibiscus, gumbo, lady finger, okra' (< Turk *bamia* / *bamya* / *bamye* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), cafea 'coffee' (< Turk *kahve*, Arabic *qahwa* – DER; < Turk *kahve*, ModGk *kafēs*, < F *café* – DEX'98, NODEX), cașcaval 'yellow cheese' (Turk *kaşkaval* – DEX'98, NODEX), cheftea / chiftea / chioftea / piftea 'meatball' (< Turk *köfte* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), ciorbă 'soup' (< Turk *çorba* < Arabic *şorba*, *şarāb* – DER; < Turk *çorba* – DEX'98, NODEX), ciulama 'chicken / mushrooms cooked in (white) sauce' (< Turk *çulama* – DER, NODEX; < Turk *çullama* – DEX'98), cușcuș 'kouskous' (< Turk *kuskus* – DER, DEX'98), ghiudem / ghiuden 'kind of dry beef / mutton sausage' (< Turk *göden* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), ghiveci 'vegetable hotchpotch / hodgepodge' (< Turk *güvec* – DER, NODEX; < Turk *güvec* – DEX'98), iahnie 'kind of ragout with vegetables, fish or meat, stewed potatoes, etc.' (< Turk *yahni* – DER, NODEX; < Turk *yahni*, Bulg *iahnija* – DEX'98), iaurt (< Turk *yogurt* – DER; < Turk *yoğurt* – DEX'98, NODEX), magiun '(plum) jam' (< Turk, Arabic *macun* – DER; < Turk *macun* – DEX'98, NODEX), merdeneă 'square or rectangular pastry' (< Turk *merdane* – DEX'98), musaca 'dish of vegetables and minced meat fried in grease, then stewed' (< Turk *musaka* – DER; < Turk *musakka* – DEX'98, NODEX), pastramă 'pastrami' (< ModGk *pastramás*, Turk *pastirma* – DEX'98, NODEX), pastramă 'pastrami' (< Turk *pastirma* < ModGk *pastirm* 'to salt', *pastos* 'spreaded' – DER), pătlăgea (< Turk *patlican* < Pers *badingān* 'purple' – DER; < Turk *patlican* – DEX'98, NODEX), pârjoală 'meat croquette' (< Turk *pirzola*, Bulg *păržola* – DEX'98, NODEX), pilaf 'pilaff / pilau / pilaw' (< Turk *pilav* – DER; < Turk *pilāv*, ModGk *piláfi* – DEX'98; < Turk *pilāv* – NODEX), salam 'salami' (< Turk, Bulg *salam* – DEX'98; < Turk *salam*, It *salame* – NODEX), sarailie 'baklava' (<

Turk *saraili* – DER; < Turk *sarayli* ‘belonging to the Sultan’s palace’ – DEX’98, NODEX), *sarma* (< Turk *sarma* – DER, DEX’98; < Turk, Srb *sarma* – NODEX), *susan* ‘sesame’ (< Turk *susam* – DEX’98, NODEX), *tarhon* ‘tarragon’ (< Turk *tarhun* – DEX’98, DLRM, NODEX), *telemea* ‘cottage cheese’ (< Turk *teleme* – DEX’98, NODEX), *tuslama* ‘kind of tripe stew’ (< Turk *tuzlama* – DEX’98, NODEX), and *zarzavat* ‘greengrocery, green / pot herbs’ (< Turk, Bulg *zarzevat* – DEX’98; < Turk *zerzevat* – NODEX);

- 29 from Slavic: *bob* ‘broad / horse bean’ (< Slav *bobŭ* – DER, DEX’98; < Slav *bobu* – NODEX), *ciolan* ‘bone; limb’ (< Slav *članŭ* ‘limb’ – DER, DEX’98; < Slav *članu* – NODEX), *colac* ‘kind of fancy bread; knot-shaped bread’ (< Slav *kolačŭ* – DER, DEX’98; < Slav *kolaši* – NODEX), *colivă* ‘wheat grains boiled with sugar and crushed nuts’ (< Slav *kolivo* – DEX’98, NODEX), *drob* ‘caul, kell, omentum of a lamb’ (< Slav *drobŭ* – DER), *gălușcă* ‘dumpling’ (< Slav – DER), *hrean* ‘horseradish’ (< Slav *chrěnu* – DER; < Slav *hrěnu* – DEX’98; < Slav *hrěnu* – NODEX), *hrib* ‘edible boletus’ (< Slav *chribŭ* ‘back’ – DER), *icre* ‘fish eggs’ (< Slav *ikra* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), *jintiță* ‘sediments on the bottom of the pail in which whey was boiled’ (< Slav \*žetica < \*žeti ‘to press’ – DER), *lobodă* ‘or(r)ach(e)’ (< Slav *loboda* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), *mac* ‘poppy’ (< Slav *makŭ* – DER), *măslină* ‘olive’ (< Slav *maslina* – DEX’98, NODEX), *mentă* / *mintă* ‘mint’ (< Slav *menta*, L *mentha*, F *menthe* – DEX’98, NODEX; < L *mentha* – DN), *mučenic* ‘small eight-shaped pasta with milk, sugar and crushed nuts, boiled or baked’ (< Srb *mučenik* < Slav *mačēnikŭ* – DER; < Slav *mučeniku* – NODEX), *piper* ‘pepper’ (< Slav *piperŭ* – DER; < ModGk *pipéri*, Slav *piperŭ* – DEX’98; < ModGk *pipéri*, Slav *piperu* – NODEX), *praz* ‘leek’ (< Slav *prazŭ* – DER), *rac* ‘crawfish, crayfish’ (< Slav *rakŭ* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), *rasol* ‘boiled meat’ (< Slav *razsolŭ* ‘brine’ – DER), *rață* ‘duck’ (< Slav), *scoică* ‘oyster’ (< Slav *skolika* – DER; < Slav *skolika* – DEX’98, NODEX), *sfeclă* ‘beet (root)’ (< Slav *sveklŭ* – DEX’98), *slănină* ‘lard’ (< Slav *slanina* – DER), *smântână* ‘sour cream’ (< Slav *sumetana* – NODEX), *sofran* ‘saffron’ (< Slav *šafranu* – NODEX), *stevie* ‘garden sorrel’ (< Slav *štavije*, Bulg *štavel*, Serbo-Croatian *štavlije* – DEX’98; < Slav *stavi*, Bulg *štava* – NODEX), *vișină* (< Slav *višnja* – DEX’98, NODEX), *țelină* ‘celery’ (< Slav *seline*, Bulg *țelina* – NODEX), and *zmeură* ‘raspberry’ (< Slav \*sm(r)- indicating a wrinkled fruit – DER);

- 21 from German: *angemaht* ‘chicken / lamb with lemon sauce’ (< Ger *Eingemachte* – MDN), *buletă* ‘ball’ (< F *boulette*, Ger *Bulette* – DGE), *carto(a)ă* / *cartof* / *cartoflă* ‘potato’ (< Ger *Kartoffel* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *chiflă* ‘(French) roll, Parker House roll’ (< Ger *Kipfel* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), *crėnvurșt* ‘(Prager) sausage’ (< Ger *Krenwürstchen* – DEX’98, NODEX, MDN; < Ger *Krenwürstel* – DN), *glazură* ‘icing’ (< Ger *Glasur* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *grış(ă)* ‘grits’ (< Ger *Gries* – DER; < Ger *griess* – DEX’98, NODEX), *hering* ‘herring’ (< Ger *Häring* – DER, NODEX; < Ger *Hering* – DEX’98, DN, MDN), *jimblă* ‘white (wheaten) loaf of bread’ (< Ger *Semmel* – DER), *jumară* ‘pork scraps; scrambled eggs’ (< Ger *Schmarren* – DER), *kaizer* ‘smoked pork’ (< Ger *Kaiser(fleisch)* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *langos* (< Ger *Langosch* – DGE), *lebărvurșt* ‘liverwurst’ (< Ger *Leberwurst* – DEX’96, NODEX, DN, MDN), *marmeladă* ‘marmalade’ (< F *marmelade*, Ger *Marmelade* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *parizer* ‘kind of thick, rosy sausage (made of boiled, minced meat)’ (< Ger *Pariser* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *paste* ‘pasta’ (< ModGk *pásta*, Ger *Pasta* – DEX’98, NODEX; < ModGk, It *pasta*, Ger *Pasta* – MDN), *păstărnac* / *păstărnac* / *păstrănac* ‘(common) parsnip’ (< Hung *paszternák*, Serbo-Croatian *pastrank*, Ger *Pastinak* – DEX’98; < Hung *paszternák*, Srb *pastrank*, Ger *Pastinak* – NODEX),



**rizoto** ‘risotto’ (< It, F *risotto* – DEX’98, DN; < It *risotto*, Ger *Risotto* – NODEX; < F, It *risotto*, Ger *Risotto* – MDN), **saladă / salată** ‘salad’ (< ModGk *salata*, F *salade*, Ger *Salat* – NODEX), **soia** ‘soy (bean)’ (< F *soja / soya*, Ger *Soja* – DEX’98, NODEX, MDN), **șnițel** ‘schnitzel, scotched collop’ (< Ger *Schnitzel* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **șuncă** ‘ham’ (< Hung *sonka*, Ger *Schunke* – DEX’98, NODEX), and **tort(ă)** ‘(iced) fancy cake’ (< Ger *Torte* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN);

- 17 from Italian: **broccoli** ‘broccoli’ (< It *broccoli* – MDN, DOOM<sub>2</sub>), **caramel** ‘caramel’ (< It *caramel* – DEX’98), **cașcaval** ‘yellow cheese’ (< It *cacio cavallo* – DER), **ciocoladă / ciocolată / șocoladă / șocolată** ‘chocolate’ (< It *cioccolata* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **gelatină** ‘gelatine’ (< F *gélatine*, It *gelatina* – DN, MDN), **grisină** (< It *grissino* – MDN), **lasagna / lazane** ‘lasagna’ (< It *lasagna* – NODEX, DN, MDN), **marinată** ‘marinade’ (< ModGk *marinatos*, < It *marinato* – DN, MDN; < Bulg *marinátos*, It *marinata* – DEX’98), **paste** ‘pasta’ (< It *pasta* – DER; < ModGk, It *pasta*, Ger *Pasta* – MDN), **pizza** ‘pizza’ (< It *pizza* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **pogace** ‘kind of pastry’ (< It *foccacia* – DER), **rizoto** ‘risotto’ (< It, F *risotto* – DEX’98, DN; < It *risotto*, Ger *Risotto* – NODEX; < F, It *risotto*, Ger *Risotto* – MDN), **saladă / salată** ‘salad’ (< It *salata* – DER), **salam** ‘salami’ (< It *salame* – DER; < Turk *salam*, It *salame* – NODEX), **spaghete** ‘spaghetti’ (< It *spaghetti* – DEX’98, NODEX, DN, MDN), **stufat** ‘lamb stew with garlic and fresh onion’ (< ModGk *stufáto*, It *stufato* – NODEX), and **vanilie** ‘vanilla’ (< F *vanille*, It *vaniglia* – NODEX, MDN);

- 17 from Russian: **antricot** ‘entrecote’ (< Russ *antrekot* – DN), **batog** ‘haddock, stockfish’ (< Srb *batok*, Russ *batog* – NODEX), **blinie** ‘blintz(e)’ (< Russ *blin* – DEX’98), **borș** ‘borsch(t) / borshch / borsht’ (< Russ, Ukr *boršci* – DEX’98; < Russ, Ukr *boršt* – NODEX), **caracatiță** ‘octopus’ (< Russ *karakatica* – DER; < Russ *karakatița* – DEX’98, NODEX), **cașă** ‘kasha’ (< Russ *kaša* – DEX’98, NODEX, DGE), **chefir** ‘kefir’ (< Russ *kefir* – DGE; < F *kefir*, Russ *kefir* – MDN), **covrig** ‘bretzel’ (< Bulg, Russ *kovrig(a)* – DER), **gălușcă** ‘dumpling’ (< Russ *galuška* – DER’98, NODEX), **morcov** ‘carrot’ (< Bulg, Russ *morkov* – DER), **păstărnac / păstărnac / păstrănac** ‘(common) parsnip’ (< Bulg *pastărnak*, Pol, Russ *pasternak* – DER), **pirôșcă** ‘piroshki / pirozhki’ (< Russ *pirožki*, Ukr *pyrižky* – DEX’98; < Russ *pirožki*, ModGk *pyrôžky* – NODEX), **potroacă / potroc** ‘giblets soup’ (< Russ *potroch* ‘tripes soup’ – DER; < Russ *potroh*, Hung *patroh* – DEX’98), **rasol** ‘boiled meat’ (< Bulg *raszol*, Serbo-Croatian *rasola*, Russ *rassol* – DEX’98), **șaslâc** ‘shashli(c)k / shashlyk’ (< Russ *šashlik* – DEX’98), **șofran** ‘saffron’ (< Russ *šafrań*, Pol *szafrań* – DEX’98; < Slav *šafrańu* – NODEX), and **zacuscă** ‘egg-plant salad with red peppers and onion’ (< Russ *zakuska* – DEX’98);

- 14 from Hungarian: **ciupercă** ‘mushroom’ (< Bulg, Srb *pečurka*, Hung *Csepérke* – DER), **ghimber / (gh)imbir** ‘ginger’ (< Hung *gyömbér* – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), **gulaș** ‘goulash’ (< Hung *gulyás-hús* – DER; < Hung *gulyás* – DEX’98, NODEX), **jimblă** ‘white (wheaten) loaf of bread’ (< Hung *zsemlye* – DEX’98, NODEX), **jolfă / ju(l)fă** ‘mashed hemp seed with honey’ (< Hung *zsufa* ‘soup’ – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), **muștar** ‘mustard’ (< Hung *mustár* ‘mustard’ – DER, DEX’98, NODEX), **papricaș** ‘fricasseed veal highly seasoned with Hungarian pepper’ (< Hung *paprikás* – DEX’98, NODEX), **păstărnac / păstărnac / păstrănac** ‘(common) parsnip’ (< Hung *paszternák*, Serbo-Croatian *pastrank*, Ger *Pastinak* – DEX’98; < Hung *paszternák*, Srb *pastrank*, Ger *Pastinak* – NODEX), **pișcot** ‘sweet biscuit’ (< Hung *piskóta* – DEX’98, NODEX), **pogace** ‘kind of pastry’ (< Srb *pogača*, Hung *pogácsa* – NODEX), **potroc** ‘giblets soup’ (< Russ *potroh*, Hung *patroh* – DEX’98), **șuncă** ‘ham’ (< Hung *sonka*, Ger *Schunke* – DEX’98, NODEX), **tobă** ‘sausage prepared from swine’s entrails’ (< Hung *dob* –

DEX'98, NODEX), and *tocană* 'stew (made of beef / pork, goulash' (< Hung *tokány* – DEX'98, NODEX);

- 12 from Serbian: *batog* 'haddock, stockfish' (< Srb *batok*, Russ *batog* – NODEX), *ciupercă* 'mushroom' (< Bulg, Srb *pečurka*, Hung *Csepérke* – DER; < Bulg *čepurca*, Srb *pečurka* – NODEX), *crap* 'carp' (< Srb, Bulg *krap* – DER; < Bulg, Srb *krap* – NODEX), *drob* 'caul, kell, omentum of a lamb' (< Bulg, Srb *drob* – NODEX), *mucenic* 'small eight-shaped pasta with milk, sugar and crushed nuts, boiled or baked' (< Srb *mučenik* < Slav *mačeniĭ* – DER), *papară* 'scrambled eggs' (< Bulg, Srb *popara* < Slavic *popariti* 'to boil, to scald, to soak in boiling water' – DER), *pogace* 'kind of pastry' (< Srb *pogača*, Hung *pogácsa* – NODEX), *sarma* (< Turk, Srb *sarma* – NODEX), *sfecălă* 'beet (root)' (< Bulg *sveklo* – NODEX), *slănină* 'lard' (< Bulg, Srb *slanina* – NODEX), *scrob* 'scrambled eggs' (< Srb, Slovene *skrob* 'starch, porridge' – DER; < Bulg, Srb *skrob* – NODEX), and *știucă* 'jack, pike, river pirate' (< Bulg, Srb *štuka* – NODEX);

- 12 from Serbo-Croatian: *batog* 'haddock, stockfish' (< Serbo-Croatian *batok*, Russ *batog* – DEX'98), *ciupercă* 'mushroom' (< Bulg *čepurka*, Serbo-Croatian *pečurka* – DEX'98), *coleşă* 'polenta, porridge' (< Serbo-Croatian *kuliješ*, Bulg *kulijaša* – DEX'98), *crap* 'carp' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *krap* – DEX'98), *drob* 'caul, kell, omentum of a lamb' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *drob* – DEX'98), *mac* 'poppy' (< Bulg *mak*, Serbo-Croatian *mak* – DEX'98, NODEX), *pogace* 'kind of pastry' (< Serbo-Croatian *pogača*, Hung *pogácsa*, Ger *Pogatsche* – DEX'98), *rasol* 'boiled meat' (< Bulg *raszol*, Serbo-Croatian *rasola*, Russ *rassol* – DEX'98), *sfecălă* 'beet (root)' (< Bulg *sveklo* – NODEX), *slănină* 'lard' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *slanina* – DEX'98), *stevie* 'garden sorrel' (< Slav *štavije*, Bulg *štavel*, Serbo-Croatian *štavlije* – DEX'98), *știucă* 'jack, pike, river pirate' (< Bulg, Serbo-Croatian *štuka* – DEX'98);

- 10 from English: *biftec* 'beefsteak' (< E *beefsteak* – DN; < F *bifteck*, E *beef-steak* – MDN), *budincă* 'pudding' (< E *pudding* – DER; < F *pudding* / *pouding*, E *pudding* – DEX'98, MDN; < E *pudding* – NODEX), *chec* 'cake' (< E *cake* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, DGE; < E, F *cake* – MDN), *chips* (< E *chips* – DOOM<sub>2</sub>), *cod* 'cod' (< E *cod* – DEX'98, DN, MDN), *gem* 'jam' (< E *jam* – DEX'98, NODEX, DN, MDN), *ketchup* 'ketchup' (< E *ketchup* – DEX'98, NODEX, MDN), *rosbif* 'roast beef' (< F *rosbif*, E *roast beef* – DEX'98, MDN), *sandvici* / *sandviș* / *sandwich* 'sandwich' (< F, E *sandwich* – DER, DEX'98, NODEX; < F, E *sandwich* < Lord *Sandwich* – DN), and *sticks* (< E *sticks* – MDN);

- other languages: 6 from Ukrainian: *borș* 'borsch(t) / borshch / borsht' (< Russ, Ukr *boršci* – DEX'98; < Russ, Ukr *boršt* – NODEX), *bulcă* '(French) roll, Parker House roll' (< Ukr *bulka* – DEX'98), *chișcă* 'pudding, sausage' (< Ukr *kyška* – DEX'98; < Ukr *kyška* – NODEX), *piroșcă* 'piroshki / pirozhki' (< Russ *pirožki*, Ukr *pyrižky* – DEX'98), *potroacă* / *potroc* 'giblets soup' (< Ukr *potroh* – NODEX), and *hrib* 'edible boletus' (< Ukr *hryb* – DEX'98, NODEX); 5 from Polish: *budincă* 'pudding' (< maybe Pol *budyn* + *-că* – DER), *bulcă* '(French) roll, Parker House roll' (< Pol *bulka* – DER), *cabanos* 'kind of thin sausage' (< Pol *kabános* – DEX'98, NODEX), *păstărnac* / *păstărnac* / *păstrănac* '(common) parsnip' (< Bulg *pastărnak*, Pol, Russ *pasternak* – DER), and *șofran* 'saffron' (< Russ *šafran*, Pol *szafran* – DEX'98); 3 from Arabic: *cafea* 'coffee' (< Turk *kahve*, Arabic *qahwa* – DER), *ciorbă* 'soup' (< Turk *çorba* < Arabic *šorba*, *šarâb* – DER), *magiun* '(plum) jam' (< Turk, Arabic *macun* – DER); 2 from Medium Greek: *pască* 'paskha' (< Medium Gk *pasha* – DER) and *sfecălă* 'beet (root)' (< Medium Gk *sveklou* – DER); 2 from Ruthenian: *borș* 'borsch(t) / borshch / borsht' (< Ruthenian, Russ *boršt* – DER) and *chișcă* 'pudding, sausage' (< Ruthenian *kyška* 'bowels, guts', Russ *kiška*, Pol

*kiszka* ‘bowels, guts, sausage prepared from swine’s entrails’ – DER); 1 from Persian: *pătlăgea* (< Turk *patlıcan* < Pers *badinġan* ‘purple’ – DER); 1 from Portuguese: *banană* ‘banana’ (< F *banana* < Port *banana* – MDN); 2 from Spanish: *ananas* ‘pineapple’ (< F, Sp *ananas* – MDN), *caramel* ‘caramel’ (< F, Sp *caramelo* – MDN); 1 from Tatar: *şaşlâc* ‘shashli(c)k / shashlyk’ (< Tatar *şaşliq* – NODEX); 1 from Tupiguarani: *ananas* ‘pineapple’ (< F *ananas* < Tupiguarani – DN).

### 10.3. ROMANIAN FORMATIONS

There are 41 Romanian formations in our corpus of food-related words belonging to the Romanian of cuisine, formations that can be ranged under the following five types of word formations – *derivatives*, *backformations*, *portmanteau words*, *restitutions*, and *transfers of meaning*:

- *derivatives* are words formed from other words by a process of derivation (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 110) (36): *acritură* ‘pickle’ (< Rom *a acri* ‘to sour’ + *-tură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *ardei* ‘green pepper’ (< Rom *a arde* ‘to burn’ + *-ei* – DEX’98, NODEX), *căltunaş / colţunaş* (Rom *căltun / colţun* ‘piroshki / pirozhki’ + *-aş* – DEX’98, NODEX), *caisă* ‘apricot’ (< Rom *cais* ‘apricot tree’ + *-ă* – DER), *caperă* ‘caper’ (< Rom *caper* + *-ă* – DER), *căpşună* ‘strawberry’ (< Rom *cap* ‘head’ + *-uş* + *-ună* – NODEX; probably *căpuşă* ‘strawberry’ + *-une* – DEX’98), *clătită* ‘pancake’ (< Rom *a clăti* ‘to shake’ + *-ită* – NODEX), *costiţă* ‘chop’ (< Rom *coastă* ‘rib’ + *-iţă* – DEX’98, NODEX), *curcan* ‘turkey’ (< Rom *curcă* ‘turkey hen’ + *-an* – DEX’98, NODEX), *dovlecel* ‘vegetable marrow’ (< Rom *dovleac* ‘pumpkin’ + *-el* – DEX’98), *dulceată* ‘jam, marmalade’ (< Rom *dulce* ‘sweet’ + *-eaţă* – DEX’98, NODEX), *gutui* ‘quince’ (< Rom *gutui* ‘quince tree’ + *-e* – DEX’98), *îngheţată* ‘ice-cream’ (< Rom *a îngheţa* ‘to freeze’ + *-ată* – DEX’98, NODEX), *măslină* ‘olive’ (< Rom *măslin* + *-ă* – DER), *minciunea / minciunică* ‘a kind of pastry’ (< Rom *minciună* ‘lie’ + *-ea / -ică* – DEX’98, NODEX), *mititel* ‘highly seasoned forcemeat ball broiled on the gridiron’ (< Rom *mic* ‘small’ – DEX’98), *murătură* ‘pickle’ (< Rom *a mura* ‘to preserve in brine’ + *-ătură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *muşchiuleţ* ‘pork filet’ (< Rom *muşchi* ‘filet’ + *-uleţ* – DEX’98, DLRM), *papanas* ‘cheese pancake’ (< Rom *papă* ‘food’ + *-naş* – DER), *pogăcea* ‘kind of pastry’ (< Rom *pogace* ‘flat pie’ + *-a* – DEX’98), *portocală* ‘orange’ (< Rom *portocal* + *-ă* – DER), *prăjitură* ‘cake’ (< Rom *a prăji* ‘to freeze’ + *-tură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *prună* ‘plum’ (< Rom *prun* + *-ă* – DER), *răcitură* ‘jellied meat, pig’s trotters’ (< Rom *a răci* ‘to freeze’ + *-tură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *roşie* ‘tomato’ (< Rom *roşu* ‘red’ + *-ie* – NODEX), *sărăţea* (< Rom *sărat* ‘salty’ + *-ăţea* – DEX’98), *sărbuscă / sârbuscă* (cf. Rom *sarbad* ‘plain’ + *-uşcă* – NODEX), *sângerete* ‘black / blood pudding’ (< Rom *a sângea* ‘to bleed’ + *-ete* – DEX’98), *scorţişoară* ‘cinnamon’ (< Rom *scoarţă* ‘bark’ + *-işoară* – DEX’98, NODEX), *tăietei* ‘noodles’ (< Rom *tăiaţi* ‘cut’ + *-ei* (after It *tagliatelli*) – DEX’98), *tocătură* ‘mince(d) meat’ (< Rom *a toca* ‘to chop’ + *-ătură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *tochitură / topitură* ‘dish made of minced pork and onion’ (< Rom *a topi* ‘to melt’ + *-tură* – DEX’98, NODEX), *usturoi* ‘garlic’ (< Rom *a ustura* ‘to burn’ + *-oi* – DEX’98, NODEX), *vărzare* ‘cabbage pie’ (< Rom *varză* ‘cabbage’ + *-are* – DEX’98, NODEX), *vânătă* ‘eggplant’ (< Rom (*pătlăgea*) *vânătă* ‘eggplant’ – DEX’98; < Rom *vânăt* + *-ă* – NODEX), and *zmeură* ‘raspberry’ (< Rom *zmeur* + *-ă* – NODEX).

- *backformations* are words formed by the removal of real or apparent suffixes from existing words (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 42) (1): *rahat* ‘Turkish delight’ (< Turk *rahat lokum* – DER);

- *portmanteau words* are words formed by the merging of parts of two or more linguistic elements (Chalker & Weiner 1994: 48) (1): *mujdei* 'garlic sauce' (< Rom *must* 'must' + *de* 'of' + *ai* 'garlic' – DEX'98, NODEX);

- *reconstitutions* are, for example, nouns in the singular reconstituted from an (imaginary) form of plural (1): Bulg *crastavec* 'cucumber' looks like a plural form from the point of view of the Romanian language, in which the ending *-ți* (e.g. *băiat* – *băieți* 'boy – boys') indicates a plural; wherefrom the form *castravete* / *crastavete* 'cucumber' (< Rom *castraveți* 'cucumbers' – DEX'98);

- *transfer of meaning* (2), for example from the fruit tree to the fruit itself: *măr* 'apple' (< Rom *măr* 'apple tree' – DER), or from one object to another, due to the resemblance in shape: *porumb* (< Rom *porumbel* 'pigeon' because of the resembling shape – DER).

#### 10.4. UNKNOWN ETYMON

There are 15 words whose etymon is not known: *brânză* 'cheese' (Origin unknown – DEX'98), *bulg* / *bulț* / *bulz* 'polenta ball filled with cheese' (Origin unknown – DER, NODEX), *caltaboș* / *cartaboș* 'black / blood pudding' (Origin unknown – DER, DEX'98, NODEX), *corcodușă* (< Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *frișcă* 'whipped cream' (Origin unknown – DEX'98), *gogoasă* 'dough nut' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *jintiță* 'sediments on the bottom of the pail in which whey was boiled' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *mazăre* 'pea' (Origin unknown – DER), *măcriș* '(cock) sorrel, sharp / sour dock' (Unknown origin – DEX'98, NODEX), *măligă* / *mămăligă* 'polenta' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *ostropel* / *ostropeț* 'chicken / lamb stew (with vinegar and garlic)' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *chipotă* / *pipotă* 'gizzard' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *țipar* 'eel' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), *urdă* 'soft cow cheese' (Origin unknown – DEX'98, NODEX), and *zmeură* 'raspberry' (Origin unknown – DEX'98).

#### 10.5. WORDS NOT MENTIONED BY DICTIONARIES

Among the words not mentioned by Romanian language dictionaries but present on menu cards in a number of restaurants (particularly in Moldova) is *toci* / *tocinei* / *tocini* 'fried potato balls' which is, in our opinion a suffix derivative from the Rom verb *a toca* 'to mince'.

### 11. DISCUSSION

The fact that there is a single word inherited from the Dacians in the language of Romanian cuisine is intriguing, since there has been a long debate over the Dacian vocabulary of the Romanian language, and other food-related terms were claimed to come from our ancestors: *brânză* 'cheese', *mazăre* 'peas', *varză* 'cabbage'. The language historians' enthusiasm must have been blocked by the specialists of the Romanian Academy who rejected these claims.

The distribution of the *loanwords* shows a good balance in the words of Latin origin (40 words come for certain from Latin, while other 8 may have come from several languages among which Latin), of French origin (37 to 17), of Greek origin (20 to 19), of Turkish origin (17 to 13), of German origin (13 to 9), of Hungarian origin (8 to 6). Other

inventories share the certainty: English (5 to 5) and Spanish (1 to 1). In the case of other languages, the number of loanwords whose source is unique is smaller than the number of words that seem to have come from several languages: Bulgarian (28 to 3), Slavic (18 to 11), Italian (11 to 6), Russian (13 to 4), Polish (4 to 1). Finally, a large number of source-languages share this status with other languages: Serbian (12), Serbo-Croatian (12), Ukrainian (6), Arabic (3), Medium Greek and Ruthenian (2 terms each), Persian, Portuguese, Tatar, and Tupiguarani (1 term each).

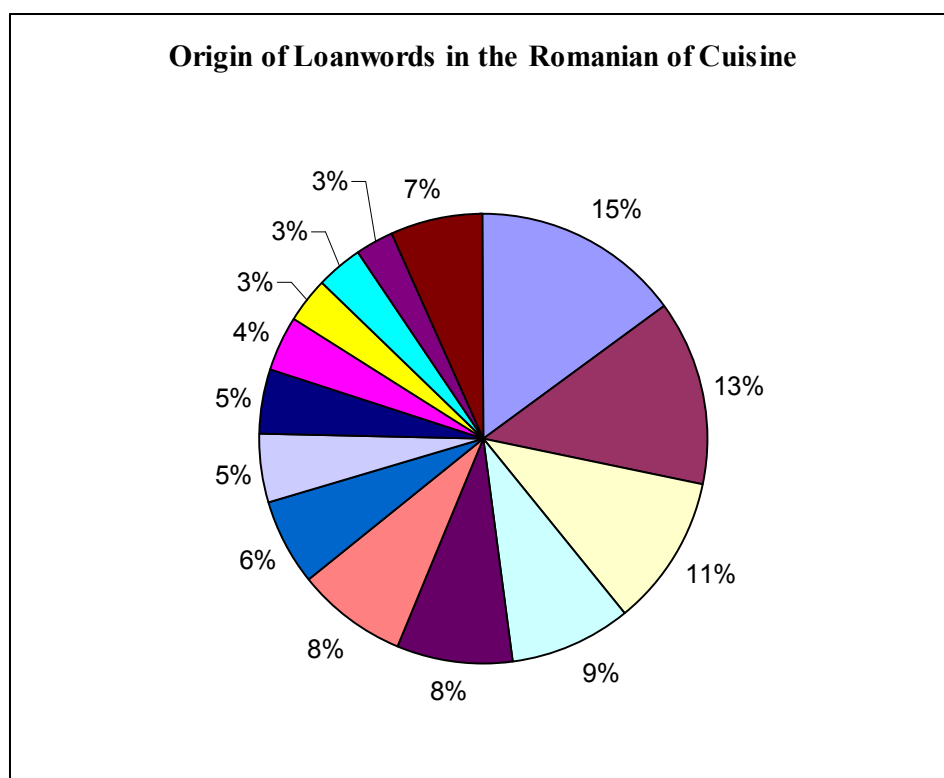
As for the Romanian formations, *derivatives* predominate (36), and only 5 of them are debatable. The other types of formation are only accidental, and cannot be considered defining for the system.

For 6 of the 15 words whose etymon is considered unknown, some of the lexicographers supply possible etymologies whose certainty is also debatable.

The only food-related term not mentioned by the Romanian language dictionaries is not significant from the point of view of our analysis.

## 12. CONCLUSIONS

The origins of the Romanian food-related terms are shown in Figure 1.



*Figure 1. Origin of Loanwords in the Romanian of cuisine:*  
*French 15%, Latin 13%, Greek 11%, Bulgarian 9%, Turkish 8%, Slavic 8%,*  
*German 6%, Italian 5%, Russian 5%, Hungarian 4%, Serbian 3%, Serbo-Croatian 3%,*  
*English 3%, other languages (Ukrainian, Arabic, Medium Greek, Ruthenian, Persian,*  
*Portuguese, Tatar, Tupiguarani) 7%.*

It is now clear that the idea of a ‘Romanian cuisine’ is nothing but a myth. Beyond this linguistic mixture awaits a mixture of cuisines whose savour can compete with any other cuisine in the world. Multiculturalism is, thus, no longer a desideratum, but a vivid illustration of what sharing the same space by different peoples can generate in time.

## REFERENCES

- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (1996). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*. [An Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic. [DEX’96]
- Academia Română, Institutul de Lingvistică „Iorgu Iordan”. (1998). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*. [An Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic. [DEX’98]
- Breban, V. (1980). *Dicționarul limbii române contemporane*. [A Dictionary of Literary Contemporary Romanian]. București: Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică. [DLRC]
- Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. (1994). *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. London – New York – Sydney – Toronto: BCA.
- Ciorănescu, Al. (1958-1966). *Dicționarul etimologic român*. [The Romanian Etymological Dictionary]. Universidad de la Laguna, Tenerife. [DER]
- Dragoescu, A.-A. (2008). A Linguistic ‘Soup’ and A Semantic False Friendship. *Journal of Linguistic Studies* 1. 15-18.
- Marcu, F. & Maneca, C. (1986). *Dicționar de neologisme*. [A Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Academiei. [DN]
- Marcu, F. (2000). *Marele dicționar de neologisme*. [The Great Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Saeculum. [MDN]
- Niculescu, Al. (1981). *Outline History of the Romanian Language*. București: Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică.

SCOTT HOLLIFIELD

9325 W Desert Inn Rd Apt 205, Las Vegas, NV 89117, USA

# NOTES SUR LES NOMS D'ANIMAUX SAUVAGES EN FRANÇAIS CONTEMPORAIN

VIRGINIA-ELVIRA-JENEA MASICHEVICI

Université des Sciences Agricoles et Médecine Vétérinaire du Banat,  
Timișoara, Roumanie  
virginiamasichevici@yahoo.com

## ABSTRACT

*La protection de l'environnement est actuellement un problème qui nous concerne tous. L'Union Européenne entend tout faire pour préserver la diversité de la faune et de la flore sur son continent. La politique européenne de l'environnement est multiple et touche de nombreux domaines : la protection de la nature, l'amélioration de la qualité de la vie et la protection des consommateurs, etc. Parmi les animaux sauvages, quelques centaines d'espèces sont en voie d'extinction. Pour préserver la biodiversité de la planète il faut accorder plus d'attention à l'environnement... même du point de vue linguistique ! Fait qui nous a déterminé à analyser une série de noms d'animaux sauvages dont la diversité de formes (mâle – femelle – petit) suggère des origines et une ancienneté des plus diverses. Bien connaître ces noms peut aider à l'apprentissage du FLE à l'université.*

**Mots-clés:** Animal sauvage ; Mâle ; Femelle ; Petit

## INTRODUCTION

Le syntagme *animal sauvage* a comme synonymes bêtes sauvages et comme synonymes partiels *bestioles* et *fauves*. Le mot *bête* (< L *bestia* « bête féroce ») forme aussi d'autres syntagmes : *bêtes à cornes*, *bête de somme*, *bête féroce*, *Bête à bon Dieu* : *coccinelle* ; *bestiole* (< L *bestiola*, diminutif de *bestia*) désigne de petites bêtes : insectes, rongeurs, batraciens, etc. Le terme *fauve* désigne de gros félins ou des animaux prédateurs pour l'homme (loup, ours etc.). Il y a plutôt des animaux surnommés *fauves*. Quant au syntagme *bête fauve*, il désigne une « bête sauvage au pelage fauve (lièvre, cerf, lion) ». L'adjectif *fauve* (< Bas L *falvus* IX<sup>e</sup> s. < Francique *falw*) est un adjectif de couleur « d'un jaune tirant sur le roux ». L'adjectif *sauvage* (< Bas L *salvaticus*, classique *silvaticus* < L *silva* « forêt ») est lié à l'état de liberté, tant désiré par les êtres !

En français contemporain, le genre des noms est purement conventionnel. Il est surtout déterminé par l'usage et ne repose sur aucune règle stricte. D'où les difficultés rencontrées par les Roumains qui savent bien que dans leur langue maternelle il y a une règle qui établit le genre des substantifs.

## 13. MATERIEL ET METHODE

Nous avons utilisé dans l'étude des noms d'animaux sauvages (mâle, femelle, petit) l'un des dictionnaires de langue française les plus réputés (*Le Nouveau Petit Robert Dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française* 2007) Nous avons ensuite groupé ces noms en fonction des possibilités de désignation du mâle, de la femelle et du petit. La méthode employée est statistique.

## 14. RESULTATS ET DISCUSSIONS

Nous avons inventorié 30 groupes de noms désignant le mâle, la femelle et le petit d'espèces animales sauvages les plus communes en français contemporain (carnivores et herbivores) où l'absence de l'un ou de plusieurs des trois termes est marquée par Ø.

Pour les carnivores on a choisi :

**Chacal** (*cicale* 1686 et nombreuses variantes ; < Pers *chagal* par plusieurs langues : turc, anglais, etc.) « mammifère carnivore (*canidés*) d'Asie et d'Afrique ressemblant au renard et se nourrissant essentiellement de charognes », Ø, Ø ;

**Guépard** (1765 *gapar* 1637, adaptation de l'italien *gattopardo* « chat léopard ») « mammifère carnivore (*félidés*) d'Afrique et d'Asie, à robe tachetée, qui ne diffère de la panthère que par un corps plus haut sur pattes, une tête plus petite, une très courte crinière et des griffes non rétractiles », Ø, Ø ;

**Hyène** (XII<sup>e</sup>, < L *hyaena* < Grec *huaina*) « mammifère carnassier d'Afrique et d'Asie à pelage gris ou fauve, se nourrissant surtout de charognes », Ø, **chiot** ;

**Jaguar** (1761, < tupi *jaguara*, par le portugais *juguarete*) « grand mammifère carnivore de l'Amérique du Sud, voisin de la panthère et du léopard, à pelage fauve moucheté de taches noires ou ocellées », Ø, Ø ;

**Léopard** (XVI<sup>e</sup> ; *leupart* 1080 ; < L *leopardus*, de *leo* « lion » et *pardus* « panthère ») « panthère d'Afrique », « animal héraldique analogue au lion mais représenté < passant >, la tête de face », Ø, Ø ;

**Lion** (1080 *leon*, *lëun* < L *leo*, *leonis*) « grand mammifère carnivore, grand félin à pelage fauve, à crinière brune et fournie, à queue terminée par une grosse touffe de poils, vivant en Afrique et en Asie », **lionne** (1316 ; de *lion*) « femelle du lion », **lionceau** (1165, *leüncel*, 1130 ; de *lion*) « petit du lion et de la lionne » ;

**Loup** (XII<sup>e</sup> *leu* ; 1080 *lu* ; < L *lupus*) « mammifère carnivore vivant à l'état sauvage en Scandinavie, en Asie Occidentale et au Canada et qui ne diffère d'un grand chien que par son museau pointu, ses oreilles toujours droites et sa queue touffue pendante », **louve** (XV<sup>e</sup> ; *love*, XII<sup>e</sup> ; < L *lupa*) « femelle du loup », **louveteau** (1331 ; de *louve*) « petit du loup et de la louve » ;

**Lynx** (1677 ; *lynz* XII<sup>e</sup> ; < L *lynx* < Grec *lux*) « mammifère carnivore, fort et agile, aux oreilles pointues garnies d'un pinceau de poils », Ø, Ø ;

**Ours** (fin XVI<sup>e</sup> ; *urs* 1080 ; < L *ursus*) « mammifère carnivore plantigrade (*ursidés*), de grande taille dans les principales espèces, au pelage épais, aux membres armés de griffes, au museau allongé », **ourse** (XIII<sup>e</sup> ; *orsse*, fin XII<sup>e</sup> < L *ursa*) « femelle de l'ours », **ourson** (1540 ; de *ours*) « petit de l'ours » ;

**Puma** (1633 ; mot espagnol emprunté au quechua) « mammifère carnassier d'Amérique (*félidés*), arboricole, à pelage fauve et sans crinière », Ø, **chaton** ;

**Renard** (1240 *Renart* nom propre ; du francique *Reginhart*, nom donné à l'animal dans « le Roman de Renart » ; a éliminé *goupil* « mammifère carnivore aux oreilles droites, à la tête triangulaire assez effilée, à la queue touffue, au pelage fourni », **renarde** (XIII<sup>e</sup> ; de *renard*) « renard femelle », **renardeau** (1288 ; de *renard*) « petit du renard » ;

**Tigre** (1165 ; < L *tigris* < Grec *tigris* < Iranien) « le plus grand des félins, au pelage jaune roux rayé de bandes noires transversales, vivant en Sibérie et en Asie du Sud-est », **tigresse** (1546, on disait *une tigre*), **tigreau** « petit du tigre » ;

**Vison** (1761 ; « belette » 1420 en Saintonge ; < L *vissio* « puanteur », de *vissire* « vesser ») « petit mammifère carnivore (*mustélidés*) dont la variété d'Amérique du Nord est chassée et élevée pour sa fourrure très estimée », Ø, Ø.



Pour les herbivores on a choisi :

**Antilope** (1622 ; < Angl *antelope* (1596) < Anc F *antelop* « animal fabuleux » (XIII<sup>e</sup>) < L Méd *ant(h)alopus* « mammifère ruminant (*bovidés*), aux pâtes grêles et aux longues cornes arquées », Ø, **antilopin** « le petit de l'antilope » ;

**Bison** (1307 ; < L *bison* < Germanique) « bovidé sauvage grand et massif, armé de cornes courtes et possédant une bosse entre les épaules », **bisonne** (rare) « femelle du bison », **veau** « petit du bison » ;

**Bouquetin** (1672 ; *bac estaingn* 1240 ; moyen haut allemand *Steinbock* « bouc de rocher ») « chèvre de montagnes d'Eurasie, aux longues cornes annelées », **étagne** « femelle du bouquetin », **cabri** « petit du bouquetin » ;

**Chameau** (*cameil* 1080 ; < L *camelus* < Grec *kamêlos*) « grand mammifère ongulés (*camélidés*) à une ou deux bosses dorsales, à pelage laineux », **chamelle** (*camoille* XII<sup>e</sup> ; de *chameau*) « femelle du chameau ou du dromadaire », **chamelon** (1845, de *chameau*) « petit du chameau ou du dromadaire » ;

**Chamois** (1387, bas latin *camox*, mot prélatin) « mammifère ongulé (*bovidés*) à cornes recourbées, vivant dans les montagnes », **chèvre** « femelle du chamois », **cabri**, **chevreau** « petit du chamois » ;

**Chevreuil** (*chevroel* début XII<sup>e</sup> ; *chevreul* jusqu'au XVII<sup>e</sup> ; < L *capreolus* < L *capra*) « petit ruminant (*cervidés*) à robe fauve et ventre blanc », **chevrette** « femelle du chevreuil », **chevillard**, **faon** « petit du chevreuil » ;

**Cerf** (1080, < L *cervus*) « grand mammifère ruminant (*cervidés*) vivant en troupeaux dans les forêts », **biche** (1160 *bisse* v. 1135 ; latin populaire *bistia* pour *bestia* « bête ») « femelle du cerf », **faon** (XII<sup>e</sup>, < L Pop *feto*, *fetonis* < L *fetus* « enfantement portée des animaux → *fætus*) 1549 « petit du cerf, du daim ou du chevreuil » ;

**Daim** (1170, en concurrence avec *dain*, < Bas L *damus*, classique *dama*) « cervidé familial des parcs et bois d'Europe, aux andouillers élargis en palette et à la robe tachetée de blanc en été », **daine** (de *daim*) « femelle du daim », **faon** « petit du daim » ;

**Éléphant** (*elefant* XII<sup>e</sup>, surtout *olifant* jusqu'au XV<sup>e</sup>, < L *elephantus*) « grand mammifère ongulé (*proboscidiens*), herbivore vivant par bandes dans les forêts humides et chaudes ou dans la savane », **éléphante** (rare) « femelle de l'éléphant », **éléphanteau** (XVI<sup>e</sup> ; de *éléphant*) « jeune éléphant » ;

**Gazelle** (*gazel* 1272 ; arabe *gazâl*, *gazâla*) « mammifère (*bovidés*) à cornes annelées, à longues pattes fines, très répandu dans les déserts d'Afrique et d'Asie », Ø, Ø ;

**Girafe** (1298 ; < It *giraffa* < Ar *zarafah*) « grand mammifère artiodactyle d'Afrique, à cou très long et rigide, à pelage roux, marqué d'un système de raies claires formant un cloisonnement polygonal », Ø, **girafeau** ou **girafon** « petit de la girafe » ;

**Kangourou** (1808 ; *kanguro* 1744 ; anglais *kangaroo*, mot australien) « grand mammifère australien herbivore (*marsupiaux*), à pattes postérieures très développées et à longue queue lui servant d'appui et lui permettant de sauts de plusieurs mètres », Ø, Ø ;

**Lièvre** (1200 ; *levre* 1080 ; < L *lepus*, -*oris*) « mammifère rongeur (*lagomorphes*) voisin du lapin, très rapide à la course grâce à ses pattes postérieures plus longues que ses pattes antérieures », **hase** (1556 ; < All *Hase* « lièvre ») « femelle du lièvre », **levraut** ou **levreau** (1526 ; *levroz* 1306 ; de *lièvre* « petit du lièvre » ;

**Mouflon** (1754 ; *muffle* 1556 ; < It *muflone* < Bas L Dial *mufro*) « mammifère ruminant ongulé, très proche du bouquetin », Ø, Ø ;

**Rhinocéros** (1549, < Grec *rhinokerôs*, de *rhinos* « nez » et *keras* « corne ») « mammifère ongulé herbivore (*périssodactyles*) de grande taille, au corps massif, à la

peau épaisse et rugueuse, dont les membres se terminent par trois doigts munis de sabots », **rhinocère** « femelle du rhinocéros », **rhinocéron** « petit du rhinocéros » ;

**Sanglier** (1295 ; *sengler* XII<sup>e</sup> ; latin *singularis* (*porcus*) « porc qui vit seul ») « porc sauvage (*artiodactyles*) au corps massif et vigoureux, à peau épaisse garnie de soies dures, vivant dans les forêts et les fourrés marécageux », **laie** (francique *lêha*) « femelle du sanglier, **marcassin** (mot picard, probablement de *marque*, la bête portant des raies sur le dos) « petit du sanglier » ;

**Zèbre** (1610, < Port *zebra* XII<sup>e</sup>, d'origine inconnue) « mammifère d'Afrique, voisin du cheval, à la robe rayée de bandes noires ou brunes, à la courte crinière en brosse, au galop très rapide », Ø, **zèbreau** « petit du zèbre ».

## 15. DISCUSSION

A ce qu'on voit, il y a trois catégories de dénominations :

- un seul nom (9 occurrences) : *chacal*, *guépard*, *jaguar*, *léopard*, *lynx*, *vison* ; *gazelle*, *kangourou*, *mouflon* ;

- deux noms désignant le mâle (ou la femelle) et le petit (5 occurrences) : *hyène*, *puma* ; *antilope*, *girafe*, *zèbre* ;

- trois noms désignant le mâle, la femelle et le petit (16 occurrences).

Cette dernière catégorie a une structure multiple :

- noms dérivés formant une famille de mots (6 occurrences) : *lion* – *lionne* – *lionceau* ; *ours* – *ourse* – *ourson* ; *renard* – *renarde* – *renardeau* ; *tigre* – *tigresse* – *tigreau* ; *chameau* – *chamelle* – *chamelon* ; *éléphant* – *éléphante* – *éléphanteau* ;

- noms dérivés mais seulement deux de ces noms font partie de la même famille (3 occurrences) : *bison* – *bisonne* ; *daim* – *daine* ; *louve* – *louveteau* ;

- noms différents désignant le mâle, la femelle et le petit (7 occurrences) : *bouquetin* – *étagne* – *cabri* ; *chamois* – *chèvre* – *cabri* ; *chevreuil* – *chevrette* – *chevrillard* ; *cerf* – *biche* – *faon* ; *lièvre* – *hase* – *levraut* ; *rhinocéros* – *rhinocère* – *rhinocéron* ; *sanglier* – *laie* – *marcassin*.

## 16. CONCLUSION

On remarque la richesse du lexique en ce qui concerne les noms d'animaux sauvages en français contemporain (plus de la moitié des espèces étudiées possèdent des termes différents pour désigner le mâle, la femelle et le petit).

Il en résulte une difficulté assez grande à comprendre et à apprendre le lexique des noms d'animaux sauvages en français contemporain, mais des séries lexicales comme celles que nous avons présentées ci-dessus peuvent aider les apprenants du français.

## REFERENCES

Robert, P. (2007). *Le Nouveau Petit Robert Dictionnaire alphabétique et analogique de la langue française*. Paris : Le Robert.  
[www.bestioles.ca/animaux/sauvages.html](http://www.bestioles.ca/animaux/sauvages.html)

VIRGINIA-ELVIRA-JENEA MASICHEVICI  
119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, România

# UNITS OF LENGTH AND AREA IN ROMANIAN: AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH

NADIA NORLEY

*Cedars Upper School, Leighton Buzzard  
nadianorley@yahoo.com*

KEVIN NORLEY

*VT Training, London, United Kingdom  
kevin.norley@vtplc.com*

## ABSTRACT

*The history of a people and of its language was marked at different times and in different places by the appearance of inventories of terms specific to a certain field (technical or scientific). These terms appeared from different sources, were carried by different carrier-languages, and then were assimilated by the borrowing language to such a degree that some of them proliferated, generating other terms through such processes as derivation, composition, backformation, or onomatopoetic formation; some others disappeared for ever and are nowadays subjected to different linguistic approaches (etymological, lexicographical, semantic, etc.). The Romanian units of length and/or area constitute such an inventory of terms, a small but very intriguing one.*

**Keywords:** *Land measurement units; Romanian; Etymological approach*

## INTRODUCTION

The inventory of Romanian units of length and/or area (but not only) is amazing. Tens of terms – *ar, bucată, cot, deget / deșt, falce, fathom, feredelă, funie pătrată, funie, hectar, iard / yard, inch / inci, iugăr / jugăr, lanț, lat de mână / palmă, leghe, linie, metru, milă marină, milă, palmă domnească / îngenuncheată, palmă, palmac, pas mare, pas mic, pas, picior, pogon, postă / poștă / poștie, prăjină fâlcească, prăjină, sfoară / șfară / șfoară, șing, stângen de lemne, stângen marin, stângen pătrat, stângen pescăresc, stângen, țol, and verstă* – are no longer known to Romanians or, if they are, their usage is restricted to certain areas of the country. Exploring these terms from an etymological point of view is rather adventurous, since they come from times not known (but deducible) yet, and from places and/or languages that are not always certain.

The present study is an attempt at describing Romanian units of length and/or area for a better understanding of the various modern systems of measurement.

## 17. MATERIAL AND METHOD

The similarity between numerous Romanian units of length and/or area and their foreign counterparts points to a certain unity of the systems of measurement worldwide. In spite of the wide range of names for (sometimes) almost the same units of length and/or area, these terms were named in the different languages based on the same visual criteria.

This is why our approach was an etymological one: identifying the moment the different terms appeared, their source-language, their carrier-languages, and their changes in form and/or meaning in time can help better understand why they appeared and then disappeared, making room for more modern units of length and/or area.

Our inventory was established starting from different Romanian language dictionaries, which we corroborated with Latin and English language dictionaries in our quest for clarity.

## 18. RESULTS

Our corpus of 45 terms designing units of length and/or area contains three categories of words: borrowings (69%), Romanian compounds (24%), and words whose etymon is not known (7%). (Figure 1)

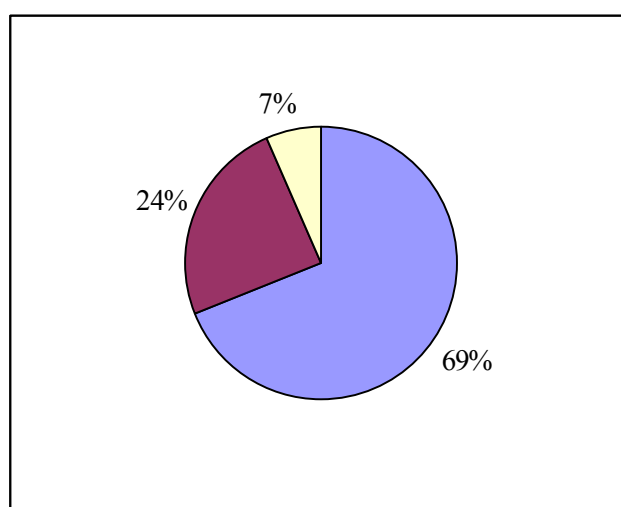


Figure 1. Origin of Romanian units of length and/or area:  
69% - borrowings, 24% - Romanian compounds, 7% - Etymon unknown

### 18.1. BORROWINGS

The 31 borrowings (words taken over from a foreign language – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 49) are shared by a wide range of languages, from Latin to modern languages such as Bulgarian, French, German, etc..

**Latin borrowings.** There are 12 Latin borrowings in our corpus of length and area measurement units in Romanian, of which some are disputed among several languages. Seven of them designate only units of length: *cot*, pl. *coți* (< L *cubitus* ‘elbow’) ‘old unit of length equal to 0.664 m (in Walachia) or 0.637 m (in Moldavia) equal to the distance between the elbow to the wrist’ (DEX’98) ‘measure considered, subjectively, larger or smaller, according to circumstances; piece of cloth measured with a *cot*; (*Regional.*) bar of wood or metal for length measuring’ (DEX’98); *deget* / *deșt* (*Pop.*) (< L *digitus* ‘inch’) ‘measure corresponding to a tenth of a *palmă*’ (DER), ‘old unit of length equal to about the width of a finger’ (DEX’98), ‘a measurement unit for measuring length, area, or

capacity, equal to the width of a finger' (NODEX); **funie** (< L *funis* 'rope') 'a rope for measuring lands' (DER), 'a unit of length (whose value varied from period to period) for the measuring of lands' (DEX'98, NODEX), 'unit of length equal to 26.76 m in Moldavia, 24.24 m in Walachia' (Wikipedia); **linie** (18<sup>th</sup> c. < L *line* 'line') '(Obsolete.) a size measurement unit equal to 1/10 of a deget (0.00246 m) in Walachia and 1/2 of a **palmac** (0.00290 m) in Moldavia' (DER), 'a unit of length used in the Romanian provinces, equal to a tenth of a deget' (DEX'98); **metru**, pl. **metri** (< L *metrum* 'meter') 'a fundamental unit of length in the metric system' (DEX'98), (< F *mètre*), 'a unit of length equal to about the 40 millionth of the terrestrial meridian' (NODEX), 'a device (made up of a ruler, graded metal, wood, etc. tape) equal to 1 meter and divided into centimetres and millimetres for measuring lengths', 'a piece of (fire) wood equal to 1 meter', 'a pile of (fire) woods equal to 1 cubic meter' (DEX'98), (< L *metrum*) 'a fundamental unit of length, the 40 millionth of the terrestrial meridian' (MDN), 'ruler, graded wood, metal, etc. strip equal to 1 meter' (MDN); **milă** (< L *millia*, through ModGk *μίλι*, cf. Alb, Turk *mil* 'mile') 'a measurement unit' (DER), (cf. L *mille*) 'a unit of length whose size varies from country to country' (DN); **pas**, pl. **pași** (< L *passus* 'step') 'a unit of length equal to the distance between the man's two feet while walking normally' (DEX'98, NODEX), 'the distance represented by a **pas** (DEX'98); and **picior** pl. **picioare** (< L *petiolus* 'a little foot') 'old unit of length equal to about 1/3 of a meter, still in use in some countries' (DEX'98, NODEX). Other four units of length also designate a land area: **bucată** (*Regional.*) (< L *buccata* 'piece') 'old unit of length equal to about 5-7 m; old area measurement unit equal to 180-210 m<sup>2</sup>' (Sinonime); **falce**, pl. **fălci** (< L *falx*, -*cis* 'an agricultural implement with a curved blade, hook, bill, scythe, sickle') 'old unit for agricultural areas, used in Moldavia, equal to about 1.5 ha' (DEX'98, NODEX), 'a land area equal to a **falce**' (NODEX); **iugăr / jugăr**, pl. **iugăre / jugăre** (*Obsolete.*) (18<sup>th</sup> c. < L *jugerum* 'a measure of land, 240 x 120 Roman feet, or approximately two-thirds of an acre') 'old unit for agricultural areas, used in Transylvania, equal to 0.5775 ha' (DER, DEX'98); and **palma**, pl. **palme** (< L *palma* 'foot') 'old unit of length (about 25-30 cm), equal to the distance between the extremity of the thumb and the extremity of the small finger, well stretched' (DEX'98, NODEX) 'a (small) area of cultivable land (DEX'98), 'a very small land area or short distance' (NODEX).

**French borrowings.** If three of the 5 French borrowings designate units of length – **linie** (18<sup>th</sup> c. < F *ligne* 'line') '(Obsolete.) a size measurement unit equal to 1/10 of a deget (0.00246 m) in Walachia and 1/2 of a **palmac** (0.00290 m) in Moldavia' (DER), 'a unit of length used in the Romanian provinces, equal to a tenth of a deget' (DEX'98); **metru**, pl. **metri** (< F *metre* 'meter') 'a fundamental unit of length in the metric system' (DEX'98), (< F *mètre*), 'a unit of length equal to about the 40 millionth of the terrestrial meridian' (NODEX), 'a device (made up of a ruler, graded metal, wood, etc. tape) equal to 1 meter and divided into centimetres and millimetres for measuring lengths', 'a piece of (fire) wood equal to 1 meter', 'a pile of (fire) woods equal to 1 cubic meter' (DEX'98), (< F *mètre*) 'a fundamental unit of length, the 40 millionth of the terrestrial meridian' (MDN), 'ruler, graded wood, metal, etc. strip equal to 1 meter' (MDN); and **postă** (*Obsolete.*) / **poștă / poștie** (*Regional.*) (< F *poste* 'post mile') 'the distance between two relay stations of the post relays equal to about 22 km (also used as a unit of length)' (NODEX) – the other two designate units of area – **ar**, pl. **ari** (< F *are* 'are') 'unit of area equal to 100 m<sup>2</sup>' (DEX'98, NODEX) and **hectar**, pl. **hectare** (< F *hectare* 'hectare') 'unit of area for

agricultural lands, equal to the area of a square of 100 x 100 m' (DEX'98, NODEX) 'a land area equal to 1 ha' (NODEX).

**Bulgarian borrowings.** Of the 4 Bulgarian borrowings, two designate units of length – *stânjen*, pl. *stânjeni* (< Bulg *stă(n)žen*) 'a unit of length used before the metric system was adopted, varying with time and region, from 1.96 m to 2.23 m' (DEX'98) 'a length or material amount corresponding to a *stânjen*; a unit of volume for measuring wood equal to 8 steres' (DEX'98) and *lanț*, pl. *lanțuri* (< Bulg *lanec*) 'a device made up of a string of thick rods for the measuring of land lengths' (DEX'98, NODEX) – while other two designate a unit of both length and area – while *pogon* (< Bulg *pogon* 'acre') 'a unit of area for measuring agricultural lands, varying in time and from region to region, equal to about half a hectare' (DEX'98, NODEX), 'a piece of (agricultural) land measuring a pogon', 'cultivated land, plantation measuring a pogon', 'amount of produce obtained from a pogon of land' (DEX'98, NODEX), *prăjină*, pl. *prăjini* (< Bulg *prăjina*) 'old unit of length equal to about 5-7 m' (NODEX) 'a device used in the past to measure lengths and areas' (DEX'98) designate mainly units of area.

**English borrowings.** All 3 English borrowings in our corpus designate units of length: *fathom* (*Nautical.*) (< E *fathom* 'a unit of length equal to 6 feet (1.83 meters), used principally in the measurement and specification of marine depths') 'a unit of length used in measuring depths, howsers, and anchor chains, equal to 1.852 m' (DN, MDN); *iard / yard* pl. *iarzi / yarzi* (< E *yard* 'a fundamental unit of length in both the U.S. Customary System and the British Imperial System, equal to 3 feet, or 36 inches (0.9144 meter)') 'an English unit of length equal to 0.914398 m' (DEX'98), 'an English unit of length equal to 0.9144 m' (MDN); and *inch / inci* pl. *inchi* (< E *inch* 'a unit of length in the U.S. Customary and British Imperial systems, equal to 12 of a foot (2.54 centimetres)') 'a unit of length equal to 2.54 cm, used in England and in the U.S.A.' (DEX'98, MDN)

**Slavic borrowings.** One of the 3 Slavic borrowings designates a unit of length – *stânjen*, pl. *stânjeni* (< Slav *senžini* 'fathom') 'unit of length used before the metric system was adopted, varying depending time and region, from 1,96 m to 2.23 m' (NODEX) – while the other two designate a unit of area – *pogon* (< Slav *pogonŭ* 'acre' < *pogoniti* 'to drive the oxen' (originally the area a pair of oxen could plough in a day)) 'agrarian measure equal to 5011.79 m<sup>2</sup>' (DER) and *sfoară / sfară / sfoară* (*Obsolete.*) (cf. Slav *suvoru* 'gauge, plot of land') 'official area unit of measurement used in the past (whose size varied in time)' (NODEX), 'a (narrow) strip of arable land' (NODEX).

**German borrowings.** The 2 German borrowings in our corpus designate units of length: *linie* (18<sup>th</sup> c. < Ger *Linie* 'line') '(Obsolete.) a size measurement unit equal to 1/10 of a deget (0.00246 m) in Walachia and 1/2 of a *palmac* (0.00290 m) in Moldavia' (DER), 'a unit of length used in the Romanian provinces, equal to a tenth of a deget' (DEX'98) and *tol* (< Ger *Zoll* 'inch') 'a unit of length used in England and in the U.S.A. equal to 25.4 mm' (DEX'98), '(in Britain, U.S.A., and other countries) a unit of length (equal to 25.4 mm)' (NODEX).

**Greek borrowings.** The 2 Greek borrowings in our corpus designate units of length: *metru*, pl. *metri* (< Gk *metron*) 'a fundamental unit of length, the 40 millionth of the

terrestrial meridian' (MDN), 'ruler, graded wood, metal, etc. strip equal to 1 meter' (MDN) and a unit of area: *sfoară* / *şfară* / *sfoară* (maybe < ModGk *sfōra* 'gauge, plot of land') 'official unit of area used in the past (whose size varied in time)' (DEX'98), '(small) area of agricultural / cultivatable land' (DEX'98).

**Italian borrowings.** The 2 Italian borrowings designate units of length: *leghe* (< It *leghe* (pl. of It *lega*) 'league') 'a unit of length' (DER), 'a unit of land and sea varying between 4 and 5.5 km' (DEX'98, MDN), 'a unit of distance used in some West-European countries, varying between 3000 and 7500 m' (NODEX, DN) and *linie* (18<sup>th</sup> c. < It *linea* 'line') '(Obsolete.) a size measurement unit equal to 1/10 of a deget (0.00246 m) in Walachia and 1/2 of a *palmac* (0.00290 m) in Moldavia' (DER), 'a unit of length used in the Romanian provinces, equal to a tenth of a deget' (DEX'98).

**Russian borrowings.** The 2 Russian borrowings designate units of length: *verstă*, pl. *verste* (< Russ *versta* 'verst') 'unit of length used in the past (particularly in Russia), equal to 1.067 km' (DEX'98, NODEX) and *postă* (Obsolete.) / *poştă* / *poştie* (Regional.) (< Russ *počtă* 'post mile') 'unit of distance used in the past equal to about 20 km; (Colloquial.) undetermined (great) distance' (DEX'98), (< Russ *poŭta* 'post mile') 'the distance between two relay stations of the post relays equal to about 22 km (also used as a unit of length)' (NODEX).

**Polish borrowings.** The single Polish borrowing in our corpus designates a unit of length: *milă* (< Pol *mila* 'mile') 'a unit of length used in the past, that varied in time and from country to country; (nowadays) a unit of length equal to 1609.3 m, used in Britain and in the U.S.A.' (DEX'98, NODEX).

**Turkish borrowings.** The single Turkish borrowing designates a unit of length: *palmac* (< Turk *parmak*) 'old unit of length used particularly in Moldavia, equal to 3.4 cm and about one eighth of a *palmă*' (DEX'98, NODEX).

**Ukrainian borrowings.** The single borrowing from Ukrainian designates a unit of length: *sfoară* / *şfară* / *sfoară* (Obsolete.) (cf. Ukr *švora* 'gauge, plot of land') 'official area unit of measurement used in the past (whose size varied in time)' (NODEX).

## 18.2. ROMANIAN COMPOUNDS

There are 11 Romanian compounds (words formed by combining two or more bases or free morphemes – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 80) in our corpus of units of length and area: *funie pătrată* 'an area equal to 716 m<sup>2</sup> in Moldavia and 557 m<sup>2</sup> in Walachia' (Wikipedia), *lat de mână* / *palmă* 'a unit of length equal to the width of a palm with stretched fingers' (DEX'98), *milă marină* 'a unit of length used in navigation, equal to 1852 m' (DEX'98, NODEX), *palmă domnească* / *îngenuncheată* 'old unit of length, about 3 cm longer than *palmă*' (DEX'98), *pas mare* 'a unit of length equal to 6 feet in Walachia and Moldavia' (Wikipedia), *pas mic* 'a unit of length equal to 4 feet in Walachia' (Wikipedia), *prăjină fălcească* 'old unit of area, equal to about 180 m<sup>2</sup>' (NODEX), *stânjen de lemne* 'a unit of fire wood equal to 8 cubic metres' (NODEX), *stânjen marin* 'a unit of length equal to 1.83 m' (DEX'98), *stânjen pătrat* 'an area equal

to 4.97 m<sup>2</sup> in Moldavia and 3.87 m<sup>2</sup> in Walachia' (Wikipedia), and *stânjen pescăresc* 'a unit of length used by fishermen, equal to about 1.5 m' (DEX'98, NODEX).

### 18.3. UNKNOWN ETYMONS

The number of units of length and area whose etymon is unknown is almost negligible: *feredelă* (Etymon unknown) 'a unit of area equal to ¼ of an acre' (Wikipedia), *prăjină*, pl. *prăjini* (Etymon unknown) 'old unit of length equal to about 5-7 m; old unit of area equal to 180-210 m<sup>2</sup>' (DEX'98), 'a device for the measuring of lengths and areas' (DEX'98), and *șing* (Etymon unknown) 'old unit of length equal to 0.664 m (in Walachia) or 0.637 m (in Moldavia) equal to the distance between the elbow to the wrist' (Sinonime), 'a unit of volume for measuring wood equal to 8 steres' (Sinonime)

## 19. DISCUSSION

### 19.1. BORROWINGS

The borrowings designating units of length and/or area in Romanian date from the 18<sup>th</sup> century (*iugăr / jugăr, linie*) and come from a wide range of languages, as shown in Figure 2.

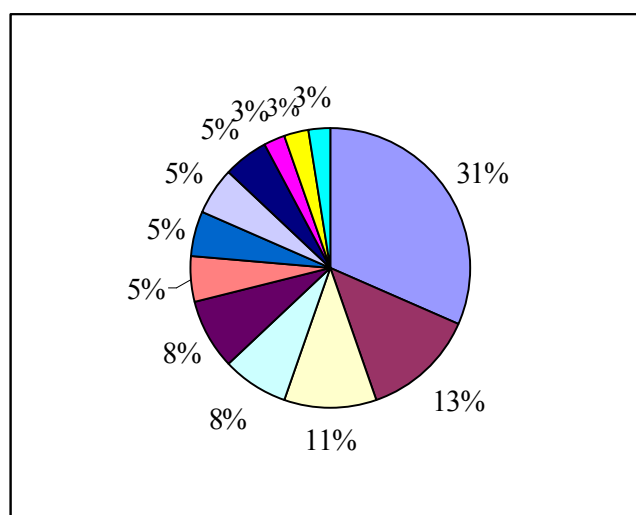


Figure 2. Borrowings in the Romanian of Length and Area Units: 31% - Latin; 13% - French; 11% - Bulgarian; 8% - English; 8% - Slavic; 5% - German; 5% - Greek; 5% - Italian; 5% - Russian; 3% - Polish; 3% - Turkish; 3% - Ukrainian

It is not surprising that almost 1/3 of the borrowings have a Latin origin and, if we add the French and Italian borrowings (18%), the Latin element represents almost half of the borrowings, thus pointing to a long-lasting concern for the Romanians.

With very few exceptions (*ar, bucată, falce, hectar, iugăr / jugăr, prăjină, sfoară / șfară / șfoară*), most of the borrowings designate units of length, but additional meanings are nowadays associated to these measurement units. Thus: *cot* is a 'unit of length' and a



‘larger or smaller measure’, a ‘piece of cloth’, or a ‘bar of wood or metal’; *deget* is a ‘unit of length and area’ and a ‘unit of capacity’; *falce* is a ‘unit of area’ and a ‘land area’; *hectar* is a ‘unit of area’ and a ‘land area’; *metru* is a ‘unit of length’ and also a ‘device for measuring lengths’, a ‘piece of (fire) wood’, a ‘pile of (fire) woods’, a ‘ruler, graded wood, metal, etc.’; *palmă* is a ‘unit of length and area’ and an ‘area of land’, and a ‘distance’; *pas* is a ‘unit of length’ and a ‘distance’; *pogon* is a ‘unit of area’ and also a ‘piece of land’, a ‘plantation’, an ‘amount of produce’; *stânjen* is a ‘unit of length’ and also a ‘length or material amount’, a ‘unit of volume’; *sfoară* / *şfară* / *şfoară* is a ‘unit of area’ and a ‘strip of land’.

As for usage limitations, they are rather rare according to Romanian language dictionaries: are recorded as *colloquial* (*poştie*), *nautical* (*fathom*), *obsolete* (*iugăr* / *jugăr*, *linie*, *postă*, *şfară* / *sfoară*), *popular* (*deşt*), *regional* (*bucată*, *cot*, *poştie*). But, given the large number of units of length and/or area for whom Romanian language dictionaries indicate regional uses (the three historical Romanian provinces), we consider that these limitations have a wider distribution.

## 19.2. ROMANIAN COMPOUNDS

All Romanian compounds in our corpus are two- (*funie pătrată*) or three-element units (*lat de mână*), which shows that the elements involved had already been assimilated by the Romanian language at the time of their appearance.

Of these eleven compounds, seven are units of length (*lat de mână* / *palmă*, *milă marină*, *palmă domnească* / *îngenuncheată*, *pas mare*, *pas mic*, *stânjen marin*, and *stânjen pescăresc*), three are units of area (*funie pătrată*, *prăjină fâlcească*, and *stânjen pătrat*), and one is a unit of volume (*stânjen de lemne*).

## 19.3. UNKNOWN ETYMON

Of the three Romanian units of measurement whose etymon is claimed to be unknown, one is a unit of area (*feredelă*), one both a unit of length and a unit of area (*prăjină*), and one is both a unit of length and a unit of volume (*şing*). Neither of them is used nowadays.

## 20. CONCLUSIONS

*Romanian units of length and/or area* are 49% Latin (Latin, French, and Italian borrowings) and 30% Slavic (Slavic, Bulgarian, Russian, Polish, and Ukrainian), which indicates three periods in the development of this vocabulary: during the Roman colonisation; during the influence of the Byzantine Empire (7<sup>th</sup> to 10<sup>th</sup> centuries, when the impact of Slavic languages was considerable); and during the re-Latinisation (18<sup>th</sup> century).

The remaining 21% indicate either direct (sharing the same borders with the Turks, ruling by Greek princes, colonisations during the Austro-Hungarian Empire) or indirect (reading, studying, travelling, etc.) cultural contact.

This inventory speaks of the tremendous changes in the history of the Romanians and of the Romanian language, on one hand, and of the extraordinary capacity of assimilation of the latter.

## REFERENCES

- Academia Română. Institutul de Lingvistică "Iorgu Iordan". (1998). *Dicționarul explicativ al limbii române*. [An Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Univers Enciclopedic. [DEX '98]
- Ciorănescu, Al. (1958-1966). *Dicționarul etimologic român*. [Romanian Etymology Dictionary]. Universidad de la Laguna, Tenerife. [DER]
- Litera Internațional. (2002). *Noul dicționar explicativ al limbii române*. [The New Explanatory Dictionary of the Romanian Language]. București: Editura Litera Internațional. [NODEX]
- Marcu, F. & Maneca, C. (1986). *Dicționar de neologisme*. [A Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Academiei. [DN]
- Marcu, F. (2000). *Marele dicționar de neologisme*. [The Great Dictionary of Neologisms]. București: Editura Saeculum. [MDN]
- Rață, G. & Sala, F. (2006). On Land Measurement Units in Romania and Hungary (A Linguistic Approach). *5<sup>th</sup> International Scientific Days of Land Management in the Great Hungarian Plain, October 26-27, 2006, Mezotur, Hungary*: 1-5.
- Rowlett, Russ. (2005). *How Many? A Dictionary of Units of Measurement*. [Online: <http://www.unc.edu/~rowlett/units/index.html>]
- Seche, M. & Seche, L. (2002). *Dicționar de sinonime*. [A Dictionary of Synonyms]. București: Editura Litera Internațional. [Sinonime]
- Souter, A. *et al.* (Eds.). (1968). *Oxford Latin Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Unități de măsură vechi românești*. [Online: <http://ro.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unit>]. [Wikipedia]

NADIA NORLEY

46, Grasmere Way, Leighton Buzzard, Bedfordshire, UK

# LEXICAL CATEGORIES IN ENGLISH: RESTAURANT (AN ETYMOLOGICAL APPROACH)

ANICA PERKOVIČ

*University of Josip Juraj Strossmayer, Faculty of Agriculture in Osijek, Croatia*  
*panica@pfos.hr*

IOAN PETROMAN

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,*  
*Timișoara, Romania*  
*ioan\_petroman@yahoo.com*

CORNELIA PETROMAN

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,*  
*Timișoara, Romania*  
*cornelia\_petroman@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*In this paper the author identifies the source of a large number of restaurant-related terms such as à gogo / à-go-go, alehouse, bar, barrelhouse, barroom, beanery, bistro, boîte, boutique brewery, brasserie, brewpub, buffet, bush, cabaret, café / cafe, cafeteria, cafetorium, canteen, cantina, chophouse, clip joint, club, coffee shop, coffeeshouse / coffee house, dating bar, diner, dinner theatre, discotheque / discothèque, divan, dive, eatery, estaminet, gin mill, greasy spoon, grill, grillery, grillroom, hash house, honky-tonk, hot spot / hotspot, house, inn, juke joint, lounge, luncheonette, lunchroom, microbrewery, nightclub, nightspot, ordinary, palapa, piano bar, pizzeria, pothouse, pub, public house, rathskeller, restaurant, roadhouse, rotisserie, rum shop, saloon, singles bar, snack bar, soup kitchen, steak house / steakhouse, tap house, taproom, tavern, taverna, tearoom, teashop, trattoria, and watering hole, as well as their changes in form and sense over time.*

**Keywords:** *Lexical category; Contemporary English; Restaurant-Related Words; Etymological approach*

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the research was to clarify the meaning of the large number of notions defined as *restaurant* (31), *bar* (16), *tavern* (13), *nightclub* (12), *saloon* (6), *place* (4), *café* (3), *inn* (3), *cafeteria* (2), *coffeeshouse* (2), *establishment* (2), *grill* (2), *luncheonette* (2), *barroom* (1), *building* (1), *grillroom* (1), *grocery shop + wine shop* (1), *lounge* (1), *roadhouse* (1), *room* (1), or *snack bar* (1).

We call them ‘restaurant-relate words’ because all of them designate ‘a place where someone can eat and/or drink and have fun’.

The hypothesis of the research was that these apparent loanwords and English formations might indicate some intriguing developments in both form and meaning that might be of interest in teaching English to students in food services.

We have registered 75 words related to the lexical category “restaurant” using two of the best English language dictionaries – *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (Soukhanov 2008) and *The Online Etymology Dictionary* (Harper 2001).

## 21. MATERIAL AND METHOD

We analysed these restaurant-related words picked up from *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (2008) from an etymological point of view (with the help of the *Online Etymology Dictionary* 2001) to see whether we can draw any conclusions on: when they entered the English language; the source they came from; the changes in form over time, if any; the changes in meaning over time, if any.

## 22. RESULTS

Of the 75 restaurant-related words in English, 8 (11%) are native words, 24 (32%) are loanwords, and 43 (57%) are English formations.

### 22.1. NATIVE WORDS

All the 8 words ‘designating restaurants’ in English come from Middle English (the English language from about 1100 to 1500), which, in their turn, come from: Old English (the English language from the middle of the 5<sup>th</sup> to the beginning of the 12<sup>th</sup> century): **bush**<sub>1</sub> ‘(Obsolete) a tavern’ [< ME *bush* < OE *busc* + OF *bois* ‘wood’ (of Germanic origin) + Sc]; **dive**<sub>1</sub> [AE 1871 – OED] ‘(Slang) a disreputable or run-down bar or nightclub’ [< ME *diven* < OE *dyfan* ‘to dip’ + *dūfan* ‘to sink’]; **house** ‘a facility, such as a theater or restaurant, that provides entertainment or food for the public’ [< ME < OE *hūs*]; **inn** ‘a tavern or restaurant’ [< ME < OE] – one of which has a French origin (**bush**); Old French (the French language from the 9<sup>th</sup> to the early 16<sup>th</sup> century); **bar**<sub>1</sub> [1592 – OED] ‘an establishment or room having a counter at which drinks, especially alcoholic drinks, and sometimes food, are served’ [< ME *barre* < OF < Vulgar Latin *\*barra*]; **ordinary** ‘(Chiefly British) a tavern or an inn providing such a meal’ [< ME *ordinarie* < OF < L *ordinārius* < *ordo*, *ordin-* ‘order’]; **tavern** [c.1440 – OED] ‘an establishment licensed to sell alcoholic beverages to be consumed on the premises; an inn for travellers’ [< ME *taverne* < OF < L *taberna* ‘hut, tavern’ < *\*traberna* < *trabs*, *trab-* ‘beam’] – all of which have a Latin origin; Old Norse (the North Germanic languages until the middle of the 14<sup>th</sup> century); **club** ‘a nightclub’ [< ME *club* < ON *klubba*].

### 22.2. LOANWORDS

The 24 loanwords come from a rather wide range of modern languages such as French (16), Spanish (4), Italian (2), German (1), and Modern Greek (1).

**French loanwords.** Of the 16 French loanwords designating ‘restaurants’ in English, 7 come from Old French (the French language from the 9<sup>th</sup> to the early 16<sup>th</sup> century): **à gogo** / **àgo-go** ‘a nightclub for fast, lively dancing, drinking, and socializing’ [< F *à gogo* ‘galore’ < OF *a gogo*], **boîte** ‘a small restaurant or nightclub’ [< F *boîte* < OF *boiste* ‘box’ < LL *buxida* < *buxis*], **brasserie** [1864 – OED] ‘a restaurant serving alcoholic beverages, especially beer, as well as food’ [< F *brasserie* < *brasser* ‘to malt, brew’ < OF *bracier* < VL *\*braciāre* < L *brace* ‘malt’ < Celtic], **grill** ‘an informal restaurant or a room in a

restaurant where grilled foods are served; a grillroom' [< F *griller* < *gril* 'gridiron' < OF *greille* < L *crātīcula* < *crātis* 'wickerwork, lattice'], **lounge** [1881 – OED] 'an establishment or a room in an establishment, as in a hotel or restaurant, where cocktails are served' [Possibly < F *s'allonger* 'to stretch out' < OF *alongier* 'to lengthen' < ML *allongāre* : L *ad-* + L *longus* 'long'], **restaurant** [1827 – OED] 'a place where meals are served to the public' [< F *restaurant* < F *restaureur* 'to restore' < OF *restorer*], **rotisserie** [1868 – OED] 'a shop or restaurant where meats are roasted to order' [< F *rôtisserie* < OF *rostisserie* < *rostir* 'to roast' < G] – of Latin, (**boîte**, **brasserie**, **grill**, **lounge**), German (**rotisserie**), and even Celtic (**brasserie**) origin and 9 come from Modern French (the French language from the early 16<sup>th</sup> century): **bistro** [1922 – OED] 'a small bar, tavern, or nightclub; a small, informal restaurant serving wine' [< F *bistro* / *bistrot* 'tavern owner, tavern'], **buffet**<sub>1</sub> [1718 – OED] 'a restaurant having a counter or table from which meals or refreshments are served' [< F *buffet*], **cabaret** [1912 – OED] 'a restaurant or nightclub providing short programs of live entertainment' [< F *cabaret* 'tap-room' < MD *cabret* < ONF *camberette* < LL *camera* 'room'], **cafe** / **café** [1802 – OED] 'a coffeehouse, restaurant, or bar' [< F *café* 'coffee' < It *caffè* 'coffee' < OttT *qahveh*], **canteen** [1870 – OED] 'a snack bar or small cafeteria, as on a military installation; a bar or small general store formerly established for the patronage of soldiers' [< F *cantine* < It *cantina* 'wine cellar'], **discotheque** / **discothèque** [1954 – OED] 'a nightclub that features dancing to recorded or sometimes live music and often has showy decor and elaborate lighting' [< F *discothèque* 'record library, discotheque' < It *discoteca* 'record library' < It *disco* 'disk, record' (< L *discus* 'quoit') + It *biblioteca* 'library' (< L *bibliothēca*)], **divan** 'a coffeehouse or smoking room' [< F *divan* < T *divan* < Pers *dīvān* 'place of assembly, roster' < OIr *\*dipivahanam* 'document house' < OPers *dipī-* 'writing, document'], **estaminet** [1814 – OED] 'a small café' [< F *estaminet* < Wal *staminé* 'cowshed' < *stamō* 'hitching post'], and **saloon** [AE 1841 – OED] 'a place where alcoholic drinks are sold and drunk; a tavern' [< F *salon* 'salon'] – which, in their turn, have Italian (**café** / **café**, **canteen**, **discotheque** / **discothèque**), Middle Dutch (**cabaret**), Turkish (**divan**), or Wallon (**divan**) origins, with Turkish (**café** / **café**, **divan**), Persian (**divan**), and Latin (**discotheque** / **discothèque**) roots.

**Spanish loanwords.** Four restaurant-related loanwords come from Latin American Spanish: **bodega** [AE 1848 – OED] 'a small Hispanic grocery store, sometimes combined with a wine shop' (< Sp *bodega* 'wine shop' < L, Gk *apothēke* 'depot, store'), **cafeteria** [AE 1839 – OED] 'a restaurant in which the customers are served at a counter and carry their meals on trays to tables' [< Sp *cafetería* 'coffee shop, cafeteria' < *café* 'coffee' < OttT *qahveh*], **cantina** [AE 1892 – OED] '(Southwestern U.S.) a bar that serves liquor' [< Sp *cantina* 'canteen' < It *cantina* 'wine cellar'] – with Italian (**cantina**), and **palapa** 'a structure, such as a bar or restaurant in a tropical resort, that is open-sided and thatched with palm leaves' [< AmSp *palapa* 'a kind of palm tree'] – with Latin and Greek (**bodega**), Italian (**cantina**), and Turkish (**cafeteria**) roots.

**Italian loanwords.** There are 2 Italian loanwords in our corpus: **pizzeria** [AE 1943 – OED] 'a place where pizzas are made and sold' [< It *pizzeria* < *pizza* 'pizza, pie'] and **trattoria** [1832 – OED] 'an informal restaurant or tavern serving simple Italian dishes' [< It *trattoria* < *trattore* 'host' < *trattare* 'to treat' < L *trāctāre*], of which the latter has Latin roots.

**German loanwords.** There is a single such loanword in our corpus of restaurant-related words: *rathskeller* [1900 – OED] ‘(*Obsolete*) a restaurant or tavern, usually below street level, that features the serving of beer’ [< G *Rathskeller* ‘restaurant in the city hall basement’ < G *Rat* ‘council, counsel’ (< MHG *rāt* < OHG)] – a word with very old Germanic roots.

**Greek loanwords.** One loanword comes from Modern / New Greek: *taverna* ‘a café or small restaurant in Greece’ [< ModGk *taberna* MedGk < LGk < L] – a word with surprising Latin roots.

### 22.3. FORMATIONS

The largest share (43 words) is that of English formations – *compounds*, *derivatives*, *abbreviations*, *back-formations*, and *onomatopoeic formations*.

**Compounds.** The following 35 restaurant-related words are *compounds* (words formed by combining two or more bases or free morphemes – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 80): *alehouse* ‘a place where ale is sold and served’, *barrelhouse* ‘a disreputable old-time saloon or bawdyhouse’, *barroom* ‘a room or building in which alcoholic beverages are sold at a bar’, *boutique brewery* ‘a small brewery, generally producing fewer than 10,000 barrels of beer and ale a year and frequently selling its products on the premises. Also *brewpub*, *microbrewery*’, *brewpub* ‘a small brewery, generally producing fewer than 10,000 barrels of beer and ale a year and frequently selling its products on the premises. Also *boutique brewery*, *microbrewery*; a saloon where the owners make their own beer and serve it on the premises’, *chophouse* ‘a restaurant that specializes in serving steaks and chops’, *clip joint* ‘(*Slang*) a restaurant, nightclub, or other business where customers are regularly overcharged’, *coffee shop* ‘a small restaurant in which coffee and light meals are served’, *coffeehouse* / *coffee house* ‘a restaurant where coffee and other refreshments are served, especially one where people gather for conversation, games, or musical entertainment’, *dating bar* ‘a bar patronized especially by unmarried men and women. Also *singles bar*’, *dinner theatre* ‘a restaurant that presents a play during or after dinner’, *gin mill* ‘(*Slang*) a bar or saloon’, *greasy spoon* [1925 – OED] ‘(*Slang*) a small, inexpensive, often unsanitary restaurant’, *grillroom* ‘a place where grilled foods are served to customers; a grill’, *hash house* ‘(*Slang*) a cheap restaurant’, *hot spot* / *hotspot* [1931 – OED] ‘(*Informal*) a lively and popular place, such as a nightclub’, *juke joint* [1935 – OED] ‘(*Informal*) a bar, tavern, or roadhouse featuring music played on a jukebox’, *lunchroom* ‘a luncheonette’, *microbrewery* ‘a small brewery, generally producing fewer than 10,000 barrels of beer and ale a year and frequently selling its products on the premises. Also *boutique brewery*, *brewpub*’, *nightclub* ‘an establishment that stays open late at night and provides food, drink, entertainment, and music for dancing. Also *nightspot*’, *nightspot* ‘an establishment that stays open late at night and provides food, drink, entertainment, and music for dancing. Also *nightclub*’, *piano bar* ‘a cocktail lounge featuring entertainment by a pianist’, *pothouse* ‘(*Chiefly British*) a tavern’, *public house* [1574 – OED] ‘(*Chiefly British*) a place, such as a tavern or bar, that is licensed to sell alcoholic beverages. Also *pub*’, *roadhouse* ‘an inn, a restaurant, or a nightclub located on a road outside a town or city’, *rum shop* ‘(*Caribbean*) a tavern, usually selling alcoholic beverages by the bottle as well as by the drink’, *singles bar* [1969 – OED] ‘a bar patronized especially by unmarried men and women. Also *dating*

*bar*', **snack bar** [1930 – OED] 'a lunch counter or small restaurant where light meals are served', **soup kitchen** [1863 – OED] 'a place where food is offered free or at very low cost to the needy', **steak house** / **steakhouse** 'a restaurant that specializes in beefsteak dishes', **tap house** 'a tavern or bar', **tap-room** / **taproom** [1807 – OED] 'a bar or barroom', **tearoom** 'a restaurant or shop serving tea and other refreshments. Also *teashop*', **teashop** 'a restaurant or shop serving tea and other refreshments. Also *tearoom*'; (*Chiefly British*) a luncheonette or small restaurant', and **watering hole** '(*Informal*) social gathering place, such as a bar or saloon, where drinks are served'.

**Derivatives.** There are only 5 *derivatives* (words formed from other words by a process of derivation – in our case, *addition of suffixes* or *suffixation* – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 110) in our corpus of restaurant-related words: 3 derived with *-ery* 'a place for': **beanery** 1887 – OED] '(*Informal*) an inexpensive restaurant or café' i.e. a place to eat beans', **eatery** [1901 – OED] '(*Informal*) a restaurant' (i.e. 'a place to eat'), and **grillery** 'a grill; a grillroom' (i.e. 'a place to grill'); 1 derived with *-er* 'one that undergoes or is capable of undergoing a specified action': **diner** [1890 – OED] 'a small, usually inexpensive restaurant with a long counter and booths and housed in a building designed to resemble a dining car' (i.e. 'a place where one can dine'); 1 derived with *-ette* 'small, diminutive': **luncheonette** [1924 – OED] 'a small restaurant that serves simple, easily prepared meals'.

**Abbreviations.** There is a single *abbreviation* (shortened form of word or phrase, standing for the whole – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 1) in our corpus of restaurant-related words: **cafetorium** 'a large room, usually in an educational institution, that serves both as a cafeteria and as an auditorium' [< E *cafeteria* + *auditorium*].

**Back-formations.** Our corpus of restaurant-related words contains a single *back-formation* (formation of a new word by the removal of (real or apparent) affixes etc. from an existing word – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 42): **pub** [1859 – OED] '(*Chiefly British*) a place, such as a tavern or bar, that is licensed to sell alcoholic beverages. Also *public house*' [< E *public house*].

**Onomatopoeic formations.** There is a single case of *onomatopoeia* (formation of a word with sounds imitative of the thing which they refer to – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 273): **honky-tonk** [1924 – OED] '(*Slang*) a cheap, noisy bar or dance hall' [< E *honk* + *tonk*].

## 23. DISCUSSION

As we can see, the *moment* these restaurant-related words entered the English language is not always known.

As for the *source*, with very few cases of etymological reconstruction, etymologists can mention the source of these words.

There are very few exceptions of *form changes* in our corpus of restaurant-related words. Thus, if there are two English forms for the French words *café* (*cafe* / *café*) and *discothèque* (*discotheque* / *discothèque*) (which shows that these loanwords are still foreignisms for the English), the French *rôtisserie* has completely lost its accent (E *rotisserie*). We do not think that these changes can be related to the moment the words

were borrowed into English *cafe* / *café* (1802), *rotisserie* (1868), and *discotheque* / *discothèque* (1954).

As for the *changes in meaning* over time, there are a few things to mention. Despite its old age, the *native word* **dive** was first recorded with the sense ‘disreputable bar’ in American English in 1871 “perhaps because they were usually in basements, and going into one was both a literal and fig. *diving*” (Harper 2001). It is interesting to note that, except for **bush** (*Obsolete*), **dive** (*Slang*), and **ordinary** (*Chiefly British*), the other 5 restaurant-related native English words are still in use. Some of the *loanwords* have also acquired their restaurant-related meaning later than the first attestation. Thus, according to Harper (2001): **lounge** in the sense of ‘comfortable drawing room’ was first recorded in 1881; **cabaret** came to mean ‘restaurant’ or ‘night club’ in 1912 (with extension of meaning to ‘entertainment, floor show’ in 1922); **canteen** extended its meaning to ‘refreshment room at a factory, school, etc.’ from 1870; though attested since 1728, **saloon** developed the sense ‘public bar’ by 1841. Semantic changes can sometimes be even more surprising. Thus, **public house** originally meant ‘any building open to the public’ (1574), then ‘inn that provides food and is licensed to sell ale, wine, and spirits’ (1669), and finally ‘tavern’ (1768).

## 24. CONCLUSIONS

The meaning of the 73 restaurant-related English words is mainly *restaurant* (31), but other meanings such as *bar* (16), *tavern* (13), *nightclub* (12), *saloon* (6), *place* (4), *café* and *inn* (3 times each), *cafeteria*, *coffeehouse*, *establishment*, *grill*, and *luncheonette* (2 times each), and *barroom*, *building*, *grillroom*, *grocery shop* + *wine shop*, *lounge*, *roadhouse*, *room*, or *snack bar* (1 time each) are not negligible.

The hypothesis of the research, that these terms might indicate some intriguing developments in both form and meaning is confirmed: they are of interest not only for the students in food services, but also for the specialists in the field of tourism services, for the teachers of English (and not only), for linguists and lexicographers.

## REFERENCES

- Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. 1994. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. London-New York-Sydney-Toronto: BCA.
- Harper, D. (2001). *Online Etymology Dictionary*. [On-line: <http://www.etymonline.com>] (OED)
- Soukhanov, A. H. (2008). *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (AHDEL)

ANICA PERKOVIČ

Trg Svetog Trojstva 3, Osijek 31000, Croatia



# ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN AND ROMANIAN: FOOD-RELATED WORDS

ANICA PERKOVIČ

*University of Josip Juraj Strossmayer, Faculty of Agriculture in Osijek, Croatia*  
*panica@pfos.hr*

GEORGETA RAȚĂ

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,*  
*Timișoara, România*  
*georgeta\_rata@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*English borrowings attain different degrees of assimilation into the language: some are totally assimilated to the native word-stock and are phonetically and orthographically integrated; some are fully part of the borrowing language vocabulary, but they retain traces of their English origin in their pronunciation, spelling, or inflection; some are well assimilated in their form, but remain semantically tied to the English context; some do not instantaneously achieve general currency but occur in very limited contexts. This is also the case of the language of cuisine. The authors try to show that languages that are, at least theoretically, different, can behave in similar ways as far as food-related English borrowings are concerned.*

**Keywords:** *English borrowings; Croatian; Romanian; Food-related words*

## INTRODUCTION

All European languages have, at different times in history, been enriched by the acquisition of words from other languages (*borrowings* or *loanwords* – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 49-51, 229).

As Görlach put it in his *Foreword* to his *Dictionary of European Anglicisms. A Usage Dictionary of Anglicisms in Sixteen European Languages* (2005: VIII), elements of the English language have been and are still being adopted “in a spectacular fashion, though with varying frequency”, in many European languages, among which Croatian and Romanian, two languages differentiated mainly by their origin (the former is a Slavic language, the latter is a Romance one). The goal of this study was to see how much different the two languages are from the point of view of their capacity of adapting English borrowings in a well defined domain, that of food-related terminology.

## 25. MATERIAL AND METHOD

We have picked from Görlach’s *Dictionary of European Anglicisms. A Usage Dictionary of Anglicisms in Sixteen European Languages* (2005) only nouns designating foods, leaving aside other food-related words designating food poisoning factors, machines, meals, persons, pieces of furniture, rooms, trade marks, and utensils involved in cooking.

We then analysed them from an etymological perspective, focussing on the following: when they entered the English language; route of transmission (if not directly borrowed from English); the changes in form (spelling and pronunciation) over time, if any; degree of acceptance; and usage restrictions.

## 26. RESULTS

Our corpus of food-related English borrowings in European languages contains 8 English borrowings into Croatian (10%), 8 English borrowings into Romanian (10%), 33 English borrowings into both Croatian and Romanian (39%), and 35 English borrowings into other European languages (41%). (Figure 1)

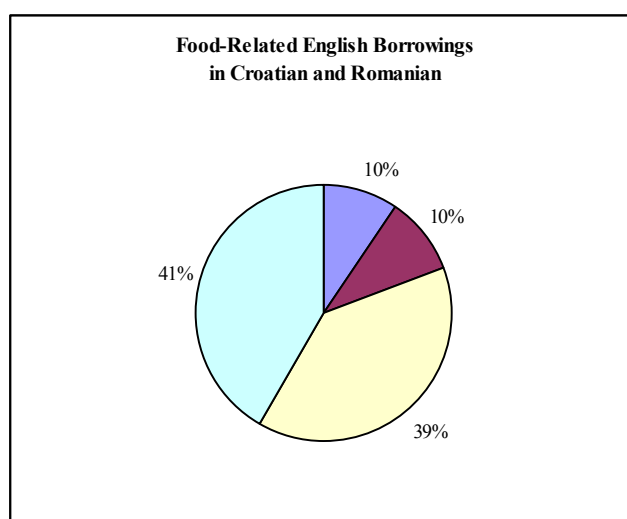


Figure 1. Food-related English borrowings in Croatian and Romanian: 10% English borrowings in Croatian, 10% English borrowings in Romanian, 39% English borrowings in both Croatian and Romanian, 41% English borrowings in other European Languages

### 26.1. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN

There are 8 (10%) food-related English borrowings in Croatian that do not exist in Romanian also: **corned-beef** (n.) ‘processed beef, often tinned’ (This term was adopted into French at a very early date and thence transmitted to other European languages, along with the product. Although the product is known internationally, the Anglicism is apparently not found throughout.); **cracker** (n.) ‘a thin dry biscuit’ (The food-related term apparently spread with the word printed on the packages, and its adoption was probably assisted by its onomatopoeic quality.); **ice-cream** (n.) ‘a sweet creamy frozen food’; **kipper** (n.) ‘a smoked herring’ (The borrowing of this word is complex since it appears to have happened independently at different times, no general pattern being detectable.); **lime** (n.) ‘a rounded citrus fruit’; **peanut(s)** (n.) ‘the seed of a leguminous plant (*Arachis hypogaea*)’ (The term for the fruit is largely native (possibly calqued).); **soft-ice(cream)** (n.) ‘a special kind of ice cream sold in a soft, i.e. semi fluid, form’; **toffee** (n.) ‘a kind of firm and hard sweet softening when sucked or chewed, made by boiling sugar, butter etc.’

(This word appears to have remained largely a foreignism (applied to imported sweets thus named) or not to have been adopted at all; how successfully it competes with native equivalents is difficult to determine.).

## 26.2. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN ROMANIAN

There are 8 (9%) food-related English borrowings in Romanian that do not exist in Croatian also: **cashew** (n.) ‘the edible nut of the cashew tree’ (Although this word dates from 1703 in English, the word (and the nut) appears to have been adopted only relatively recently in Continental languages.); **maize** (n.) ‘the cobs or grains of a cereal plant (*Zea mays*)’ (The word, from 16<sup>th</sup>-century Arawakan, was transmitted to most European languages through Spanish. The contribution of English is difficult to establish, but can only be marginal at best.); **marlin** (n.) ‘a large marine fish’; **mint** (n.) ‘a plant (*Mentha piperita*)’ also called *peppermint*, ‘flavour’; **pickle(s)** (n.) ‘food preserved in vinegar’ (The history and present-day distribution of this term should be compared with those of mixed pickles, of which it is an accepted clipping.); **plum cake** (n.) ‘a cake containing raisins, currants, etc.’; **pulp** (n.) ‘the soft fleshy part of fruit etc.’; and **scone** (n.) ‘a small sweet or savoury cake of flour, fat, and milk, baked for a short time in an oven’.

## 26.3. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN AND ROMANIAN

There are 33 (39%) food-related English borrowings in Croatian and Romanian: **bacon** (n.) ‘cured meat from the back or sides of a pig’, ‘smoked pork fillet’ (It is difficult to explain why this word was ever borrowed into European languages since perfectly adequate native terms such as Rm *șuncă* exist, for instance. And indeed it is marginalized in many languages.); **baking powder** (n.) ‘a mixture of sodium bicarbonate, cream of tartar, etc., used instead of yeast in baking’; **banana split** (n.) ‘a sweet dish made of *banana*, ice-cream, etc.’; **beefsteak** (n.) ‘a thick slice of lean beef, esp. from the rump, usu. for grilling or frying’, ‘a fried meatball, a minced meat schnitzel’ (One of the most current early Anglicisms, transmitted (with *roast beef*) through French and partly through German. The form has frequently been re-Anglicized and the term has occasionally also been transferred to ersatz substitutes.); **broiler** (n.) ‘a chicken raised for broiling or roasting’ (This term is a rare case in having an almost exclusively Eastern European distribution, mediated through Russian (and Bulgarian). It is now quickly becoming obsolete in Eastern Germany.); **burger** (n.) ‘a hamburger’, ‘a hamburger of a particular type or with specified additions’ (After reanalysis of *ham* + *burger*, and new compounds formed in American English (*cheese-*, *meat-*, etc.), these food items, along with their names, were exported into European languages as a marker of a modern lifestyle. The term is rare by itself, usually occurring in combination (but cf. the business name *Burger King*). Non-English compounds, many of them playful, were coined in the 1980s.); **cake** (n.) ‘a sweet pastry’, ‘a cookie, a biscuit’ (This term was first adopted with incorrectly interpreted -s and the deviant meaning ‘biscuit’ during the 19<sup>th</sup> c. resulting in *Keks*. This German loanword was then handed on to various other languages. Almost simultaneously, there was a more marginal word close to English in form and meaning used as a fashionable alternative to native equivalents, which has since become obsolete or been readopted.); **Cheddar** (n.) ‘a type of cheese’ (This word, like others of its kind, wavers between a foreignism and the designation of an imported, or even locally

produced, type of cheese. Since the cheese varies in popularity it is not likely to become a full loanword, at least not in Western Europe.); **cheeseburger** (n.) ‘a beef-burger with a slice of cheese in it’ (Arguably the most common burger after its model, hamburger. The term is slowly spreading through Europe, but is confined to items sold in the street or in certain fast food chains.); **Chester** (n.) ‘a kind of cheese’ (The same as *Cheshire (cheese)*; *Chester* is not recorded in English dictionaries, and *Cheshire* is not found as a loanword.); **chips** (n.) (BE) ‘deep-fried potatoes, *pommes frites*’, (AE) ‘potato crisps’ (The American English: British English opposition has led to complex patterns. It is normal for European languages to *have pommes frites (friture, Fritten, etc.*; note the English terms *French fried potatoes / fries*) for the meal eaten warm, complemented by the dry, crisp item sold in packs (=chips). However, not all languages appear to distinguish between the two.); **cocktail** (n.) ‘a dish of mixed ingredients’ (This fashionable term was adopted early on in the sense of a drink, to be used later (1960s) for other mixtures (fruit etc.)); **cornflakes** (n.) ‘a type of breakfast cereal’ (Recorded from the 1930s (but rare; cf. earlier *quaker oats* with a similar meaning) the cereal became well-known from the 1960s onwards; it is remarkable how few calques have been tried (or have successfully competed against the loanword).); **curry** (n.) ‘a dish of meat, vegetables, etc., cooked in a sauce of hot-tasting spices’, ‘an orig. Indian blend of spices’ (This word was adopted as a foreignism from Indian cuisine but since the spices have become widely used (with rice, sausages, etc.) the word has become quite popular. The pronunciation of the stressed vowel reflects early [<E, u] and late [a] adoption.); **dressing** (n.) 2a ‘a sauce for salad’ (This word came to be widely known as a more specific term for sauces added to salad, no doubt because they were marketed under this name by mass food producers.); **fast food** (n.) ‘food that can be prepared quickly and easily, esp. in a snack bar or restaurant’ (The currency of this widespread term is difficult to establish. It is known from eateries, but is not common as a generic term for such places. Its use for the type of food is even more restricted.); **graham bread** (n.) ‘a kind of wholemeal bread’ (This term was coined in 19<sup>th</sup>-century American English, after the dietary reformer Sylvester Graham (1794-1851). Although popular with the health conscious for a long time, this item did not spread to all European countries – hence the absence of the loanword in many languages.); **grapefruit** (n.) ‘a large round yellow citrus fruit’ (This word is more widespread in Eastern Europe – apparently because the fruit was already known in the West by its Dutch-mediated *pompelmoes*.); **hamburger** (n.) ‘a beef-burger, usu. served in a roll’ (This term, wrongly analysed as *ham* + *burger* in American English, and the source of other *-burger* compounds, has spread all over Europe. Note that many languages treat the word according to its ultimate German origin, but pronunciation shows it is an Anglicism in German itself.); **hot dog** (n.) ‘a hot sausage sandwiched in a roll’ (This item has spread with fast food culture, the term being unanalysed. It is remarkable that calques have been tried since they sound even funnier (or more disgusting) than the English loanword. Fanciful variants have been reported (tofu dog, noticed in Bonn 1997); **jam** (n.) ‘a conserve of fruit and sugar boiled to a thick consistency’ (This word has an unusual East European distribution; in the west *jam* is recorded for the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, but did not catch on, words like *marmalade* or *confiture* being preferred for the generic senses.); **Jonathan (freckle)** (n.) ‘a variety of apple’; **ketchup** (n.) ‘a spicy sauce’ This word was borrowed from Malay into English in the 17<sup>th</sup>-18<sup>th</sup> century; the two English forms *catchup* and *ketchup* are reflected in the receiving languages where they cause some uncertainty as to their proper spelling – as in English. The word is one of the few Anglicisms to be respelled in the new German reform.); **mango** (n.) ‘a fleshy yellowish-red fruit’ (The word is Tamil / Portuguese with uncertain

English mediation.); **mixed grill** (n.) 'a dish of various grilled meats'; **Peach Melba** (n.) 'a dish of ice cream and peaches with liqueur'; **popcorn** (n.) 'popped maize, as a cereal' (It may have to do with the combined novelty of the food and expressive form of the word that this term became as widespread as it did. Though the term was coined in American English in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, and there are a few attestations in European languages in the early 20<sup>th</sup> c., the great popularity came at the time of pop art and pop music.); **pudding** (n.) 'any of various sweet cooked dishes' (The very early adoption of this word made it possible in principle for it to spread to all European languages, often via French or German. Note that a Continental pudding is normally sweet.); **roast-beef** (n.) 'a piece of meat' (This word is one of the classic 18<sup>th</sup>-century loans (cf. *beefsteak*, *rumpsteak*) which spread via French (and German) to most European languages; increased competence in English has since brought the word closer to English in spelling and pronunciation.); **rump steak** (n.) 'a cut of beef from the rump' (This early loan was largely distributed via French and German, leaving gaps mainly in the South of Europe.); **sandwich** (n.) 'two or more slices of usu. buttered bread with a filling of meat, cheese, etc., between them' (This term is derived from the name of John Montague, fourth Earl of Sandwich (1718-92) who is claimed to have invented the snack so as not to be forced to interrupt his gambling. The word was first recorded in travelogues from the 18<sup>th</sup> century and remained a foreignism for a long time; even in the 20<sup>th</sup> century some languages prefer native equivalents. By contrast, there has been a proliferation of technical terms based on metaphoric uses.); **snack** (n.) 'a small amount of food eaten between meals (esp. crisps etc.)'; **toast<sub>1</sub>** (n.) 'bread in slices browned on both sides by radiant heat' (This word has largely replaced native terms and paraphrases denoting 'roasted bread' – except where it is uncommon to toast bread.).

#### 26.4. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN OTHER EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

There are 36 (43%) food-related English borrowings in other European languages than Croatian and Romanian: **appetizer** (n.) 'a small amount, esp. of food or drink, designed to stimulate the appetite' (Du, Ge), **arrowroot** (n.) 'a plant from which starch is obtained for nutritional and medicinal purposes' (This term has become more or less obsolete with the increasing rarity of the product, but in Norway it is now used more than previously (because there are now more imported products which contain it). (Du, Fi, Fr, Ge, Hu, Ic, Nw, Rs, Sp), **boysenberry** (n.) 'the fruit of a hybrid of several species of bramble' (Ge, Nw, Rs), **cheesecake** (n.) 'a tart filled with sweetened curds' (The English word may have been calqued on German *Käsekuchen*. (Fr, Ge, Gr, Nw), **chive** (n.) 'a small culinary herb (*Allium schoenoprasum*) allied to onion and leek' (Gr), **chutney** (n.) 'a pungent Indian condiment' (Du, Fr, Ge, Gr, Ic, Nw), **cornflour** (n.) 'flour of rice or other grain' (Gr), **cottage cheese** (n.) 'soft white cheese' (Fr, Ge, Gr, Ic, Nw, Po), **cranberry** (n.) 'a small red berry used in cooking and as a source of fruit juice' (Du, Nw), **creamers** (n.) 'a cream or milk substitute for adding to coffee and tea' (Du), **dip** (n.) 'a sauce or dressing into which food is dipped before eating' This is one of the fashionable terms created by the food industry. It is still marginal as far as regional distribution and frequency/stylistic acceptability are concerned. (Bg, Du, Ge, Gr, Ic, Nw), **ginger** (n.) 'a hot spicy root usu. powdered for use in cooking' (The word comes from an Indie language and was transmitted to most European languages through Greek > Latin > Old French; English transmission is not recorded apart from Greek, in contrast to the

compound *ginger ale* which is more frequently attested as a loanword). (Al, Bg, Ge, Gr, Ic, It, Nw, Sp), **grease** (n.) 'oily or fatty matter' (Bg, Fr, Nw, Sp), **Irish stew** (n.) 'a stew of mutton, potato, and onion' (Du, Ge, Fr, Hu, Rs), **junk food** (n.) 'food with low nutritional value' (Du, Ge, Ic, Nw, Sp), **knick-knack** (n.) 'a small cake' (Ic), **litchi / lichee / lychee** (n.) 'a sweet fleshy fruit with a thin spiny skin' The fruit originates from China, but its name appears to have been widely transmitted through English. (Bg, Du, Fr, Ge, It, Nw, Po, Rs, Sp), **loaf**<sub>1</sub> (n.) 'white bread' (Nw), **loganberry** (n.) 'a hybrid between a blackberry and a raspberry' The Californian judge James Harvey Logan (1841-1928) produced the fruit (a blend of a blackberry and a raspberry) in his garden; the species does not seem to have caught on widely in Continental gardens and food stores. (Du, Ge, Nw), **marshmallow** (n.) 'a soft sweet' (Du, Ic, Nw), **mash** (n.) 'a soft mixture of fruit, vegetables etc.' (Fr, Po), **mixed pickles** (n.) 'gherkins etc. in vinegar' (Du, Ge, Gr, Hu, Nw), **mock turtle** (n.) 'a soup made from a calf's head to resemble turtle' (Ge, Nw, Sp), **muffin** (n.) 'a flat round spongy cake' (Du, Fi, Fr, Ic, Nw), **navel (orange)** (n.) 'a large seedless orange with a navel-like formation at the top' (Du, Fr, Ge, It, Nw, Sp), **novel food** (n.) 'gene-manipulated food' (One of the most recent arrivals, whose currency is likely to increase with the growing concern about genetic manipulations). (Ge, Nw), **pancake** (n.) 'a flat cake of make-up etc.' (Du, Fr, Sp), **pemmican** (n.) 'a cake of dried pounded meat mixed with melted fat', 'beef so treated, for use by Arctic travellers etc.' (Borrowed from Algonquian in American English, the word became widely known through travel literature, but has remained a foreignism). (Ge, Hu, Ic, Po), **pie** (n.) 'a baked dish with a top and base of pastry' (Bg, Du, Ge, Gr, Hu, Ic, Nw), **potato** (n.) 'a starchy plant tuber that is cooked and used for (staple) food' (Al, Fr, Ic, It, Nw, Sp), **puffed rice** (n.) 'rice puffed up by heating, eaten as a breakfast cereal' (Du, Ge, Hu, It), **slimming** (n.) 'the reduction of weight through diet and exercise' (This term has been a catchword for north-western well-to-do health-conscious middle classes but less so in societies in which food is the problem). (Ge, Du, Nw, Ic, It, Rs, Po, Bg, Hu), **sour cream** (n.) 'cream deliberately fermented by adding bacteria' (Du, Ge, Sp), **spread** (n.) 'a sweet or savoury paste for spreading on bread' (Du), **spring roll** (n.) 'a Chinese pancake filled with vegetables, and fried' (Fi, Fr, Ge, Gr, Ic, It, Sp), and **stark delicious** (n.) 'a type of apple' (Hu, It).

## 27. DISCUSSION

### 27.1. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN

The history of the food-related English borrowings in Croatian is rather simple: they date from the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Cr **toffee**) and from the end of 20<sup>th</sup> century (Cr **corned-beef**, Cr **cracker**).

All food-related English borrowings in Croatian were directly borrowed from English.

There is a single change in spelling over time: Cr **kreker** differs from that of the English etymon **cracker**. In exchange, there is no change in pronunciation: Cr **corned-beef** and Cr **toffee** have a pronunciation (near-) identical to that of the English etymons.

As for the degree of acceptance, our corpus of food-related English borrowings in Croatian contains the following word categories:

- words not known, but for which a calque or another native equivalent is provided: Cr **soft sladoled** for E **soft-ice(cream)**;

- words known mainly to bilinguals and felt to be English: Cr *ice-cream*, Cr *kipper*, Cr *lime*, Cr *peanut(s)*;
- words with usage restrictions (the author does not mention the type of restriction): Cr *corned-beef*, Cr *toffee*;
- words fully accepted and found in many styles and registers, but still marked as English in their spelling, pronunciation, or morphology: Cr *cracker*.

## 27.2. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN ROMANIAN

Food-related English borrowings in Romanian were borrowed over a longer period of time than Croatian ones: in the 19<sup>th</sup> c. (Rm *maize*), in the 1960s (Rm *marlin*), in the 1980s (Rm *pickle(s)*), in the 1990s (Rm *cashew*), and in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *plumche(i)c*).

The only case of indirect borrowing from English is Rm *maize* (via German).

As for the *changes in spelling* over time, Romanian seems to adapt more than Croatian: Rm *mentă*, Rm *plumche(i)c*, and Rm *pulpă* are the examples provided by the author of the dictionary. In two cases, the *pronunciation* is (near-) identical to that of the English etymon (Rm *cashew*, Rm *pickle(s)*), while in one case the pronunciation is not predictable from spelling and also differs from that of the English etymon (Rm *marlin*).

From the point of view of the *degree of acceptance*, we found the following cases:

- words known mainly to bilinguals and felt to be English: Rm *cashew* and Rm *scone*;
- usage restrictions: field restrictions (technical, i.e. used only in specialist vocabularies: Rm *marlin*); currency restrictions (archaic, i.e. known but no longer used: Rm *maize*; rare, i.e. infrequently used: Rm *marlin* and Rm *pickle(s)*);
- words fully accepted and found in many styles and registers, but still marked as English in its spelling, pronunciation, or morphology: Rm *plumche(i)c*;
- words not (or no longer) recognized as English; the English origin can only be established etymologically: Rm *marlin* and Rm *pulpă*;
- words, as far as the individual language is concerned, that come from a source other than English: Rm *mentă* (< F < L), Rm *pulpă* (< F).

## 27.3. FOOD-RELATED ENGLISH BORROWINGS IN CROATIAN AND ROMANIAN

Food-related English terms were borrowed from English into Croatian during the 19<sup>th</sup> and the 20<sup>th</sup> centuries: in the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> c. (Cr *biftek*), at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> c. (Cr *ramstek*), in the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Cr *pudding*, Cr *rostbif*), in the 1970s (Cr *Cheddar*), at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> c. (Cr *dzem*, Cr *sendvic*), at the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Cr *bekon*, Cr *brojler*, Cr *graham*, Cr *hamburger*, Cr *jonatan*, Cr *kecap*, Cr *koktel*, Cr *mango*, Cr *mixed grill*, Cr *tost*), at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Cr *burger*, Cr *keks*, Cr *cizburger*, Cr *cheeseburger*, Cr *cips*, Cr *kornflejks*, Cr *curry*, Cr *dressing*, Cr *fast food*, Cr *hot dog*, Cr *popcorn*, Cr *snek*), and in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Cr *grejpfrut*). Romanian borrowed almost the same number of food-related words from English at about the same time: at the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *biftec*), at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *keks*, Rm *budincă*, Rm *sandvici* / *sandviș* / *sanviș* / *senviș*), in the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *rosbif*), in the 1970s (Rm *cornflakes*, Rm *hamburger*, Rm *hot dog*, Rm *ketchup*, Rm

*popcorn*), in the 1980s (Rm *dressing*), at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *bacon*, Rm *cocktail*, Rm *ionatan*, Rm *pudding*), at the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *chec?*, Rm *Chester*, Rm *gref / grep(fruit)*), at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *broiler*, Rm *chips*, Rm *curry*, Rm *fast food*, Rm *gem*, Rm *snack*, Rm *toast*), and in the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Rm *graham*, Rm *mango*, Rm *melba*, Rm *ramstec*).

Croatian food-related English words were almost all borrowed directly from English (except for Cr *Chester*, borrowed via French), while the number of indirect borrowings into Romanian is larger: Rm *biftec*, Rm *cocteil*, Rm *rosbif*, Rm *ramstec?*, Rm *sandvici / sandviş / sanviş / senviş* (via French) and Rm *keks*, Rm *graham* (via German).

Görlach (2005) claims that there is a single spelling identical to that of the English etymon (Rm *grapefruit*) and numerous spellings that differ from those of the English etymons in both Croatian (Cr *bekon*, Cr *biftek*, Cr *brojler*, Cr ? *burger*, Cr *cizburger*, Cr *cips*, Cr ? *dressing*, Cr *dzem*, Cr ? *graham*, Cr *grejpfrut*, Cr *jonatan*, Cr *kecap*, Cr *keks*, Cr *koktel*, Cr ? *mango*, Cr ? *popcorn*, Cr ? *pudding*, Cr *ramstek*, Cr *rostbif*, Cr *sendvic*, Cr *snek*, Cr *tost*) and Romanian (Rm *biftec*, Rm *budincă*, Rm *chec*, Rm *cocteil*, Rm *gem*, Rm *gref / grep(fruit)*, Rm *ionatan*, Rm *keks*, Rm *kornflejks*, Rm *melba*, Rm ? *pudding*, Rm *rosbif*, Rm *ramstec*, Rm *sandvici / sandviş / sanviş / senviş*). As for the changes in pronunciation over time, there are several cases of (near-) identical pronunciation to that of the English etymon in both Croatian (4: Cr *cheeseburger*, Cr *curry*, Cr *fast food*, Cr *hot dog*) and Romanian (10: Rm *bacon*, Rm *broiler*, Rm *chips*, Rm *cocktail*, Rm *dressing*, Rm *fast food*, Rm *hot dog*, Rm *gem*, Rm *ketchup*, Rm *popcorn*). For pronunciations not predictable from the spelling and also differing from those of the English etymons, the words are transcribed phonetically in the IPA: a single phonetic transcription for English borrowings into Croatian ([hamburger]) and a large number of English borrowings into Romanian ([budinka], [graham], [gref / grep / grepfrut], [hamburgar], [jonatan], [kari], [koktejl], [kornfleks], [mango], [melba], [mikstgril], [puding], [ramstek], [rosbif], [sandvij / sanvij / sandvitj], [snek], [tjester], [tjedar], [tost]).

As for the degree of acceptance, there are several interesting cases:

- in the case of words not known but for which a calque or another native equivalent is provided, there are only Romanian examples: Rm *praf de copt* < E *baking powder*, Rm *fulgi (de porumb)* (< E *cornflakes*), Rm *minuturi* (< E *fastfood*), Rm *pâine graham* (< E *graham bread*), Rm *floricel* (*de porumb*) (< E *popcorn*);
- there are more words known mainly to bilinguals and felt to be English in Croatian (Cr *baking powder*, Cr *banana split*, Cr *Cheddar*, Cr *cheeseburger*, Cr *Chester*, Cr *Peach Melba*) than in Romanian (Rm *banana split*, Rm *chips*, Rm *mixed grill*);
- there is a single word known as foreignism (used only with reference to British or American contexts): Rm *fast food*;
- there are numerous words in restricted usage in the language in both Croatian (Cr *biftek*, Cr *burger*, Cr *Cheddar*, Cr *cizburger*, Cr *Chester*, Cr *koktel*, Cr *curry*, Cr *dressing*, Cr *hot dog*, Cr *mixed grill*, Cr *popcorn*, Cr *rostbif*, Cr *sendvic*, Cr *snek*) and Romanian (Rm *biftec*, Rm *broiler*, Rm *chec*, Rm *cocktail*, Rm *cocteil*, Rm *cornflakes*, Rm *curry*, Rm *dressing*, Rm *fast food*, Rm *hot dog*, Rm *popcorn*, Rm *snack*, *toast*), but Görlach (2005) mentions the type of usage restriction for only some of them: *field restrictions* (technical, i.e. used only in specialist vocabularies: Cr *Cheddar*, Cr *Chester*, Cr *curry*, Cr *dressing*, and Cr *mixed grill*; Rm *broiler* and Rm *curry*); *regional restrictions* (i.e. known to be



restricted to national or regional varieties of the standard language: Rm **keks**); *register restrictions*: colloquial (informal, normally used only in spoken language: Cr **cizburger** and Rm **hamburger**), youth (usage restricted to the younger generation: Rm **popcorn**); *currency restrictions*: modish, modern (fashionable jargon, not expected to last: Cr **burger** and Cr **snek**; Rm **dressing**, Rm **fast food**, and Rm **snack**), obsolescent (possibly now going out of use, now rarer than a few years ago: Rm **cornflakes** and Rm **ramstec**), and rare, infrequently used (Rm **curry**, Rm **mango**, and Rm **melba**).

- there are more words *fully accepted and found in many styles and registers, but still marked as English in their spelling, pronunciation, or morphology* in Croatian (Cr **brojler**, Cr **burger**, Cr **cips**, Cr **fast food**, Cr **grejpfrut**, Cr **hamburger**, Cr **kornflejks**, Cr **kecap**, Cr **mango**, Cr **sendvic**, Cr **tost**) than in Romanian (Rm **bacon**, Rm **gref** / **gref(frut)**, Rm **hot dog**, Rm **ketchup**, Rm **snack**);
- there are less words *not (or no longer) recognized as English (whose English origin can only be established etymologically)* in Croatian (Cr **graham**, Cr **dzem**, Cr **jonatan**, Cr **pudding**, Cr **rostbif**, Cr **ramstek**) than in Romanian (Rm **gref** / **gref(frut)**, Rm **hamburger**, Rm **gem**, Rm **ionatan**, Rm **mango**, Rm **melba**, Rm **pudding**, Rm **ramstec**, Rm **sandvici** / **sandviş** / **sanviş** / **senviş**);
- there are less words, *as far as the individual language is concerned, that come from a source other than English*, in Croatian (Cr **keks**) than in Romanian (Rm **graham** and Rm **keks**).

## 28. CONCLUSIONS

Food-related English borrowings in Croatian date from the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, while food-related English borrowings in Romanian date from the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries which indicate more openness to loanwords in Romanian than in Croatian. Food-related English borrowings common to both Croatian and Romanian date from the same period of time, i.e. the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. A common cultural environment could explain that (translations, for example, or the development of tourism).

Both Croatian and Romanian (with a single exception) have borrowed their own food-related English terms directly from English. As far as the common borrowings are concerned, there are more indirect English borrowings into Romanian than into Croatian which seems to indicate a much closer direct contact with the English language (tourism, maybe).

Food-related English borrowings in Croatian, on one hand, and in Romanian, on the other hand, did not change in spelling, while common borrowings have been more subjected to such changes (22 in Croatian and 14 in Romanian). The pronunciation also changed in the common borrowings (4 in Croatian and 10 in Romanian). Changes in spelling and pronunciation show that at a certain point in history these borrowings cease to be felt as foreignisms, and are better assimilated by the languages of adoption.

From the point of view of the degree of acceptance, Croatian has *more words known mainly to bilinguals and felt to be English* (e.g. *backing powder*, *banana split*, *cheeseburger*, etc.) than Romanian (6 and 3, respectively), and *more words fully accepted and found in many styles and registers, but still marked as English in their spelling, pronunciation, or morphology* (e.g. *brojler*, *burger*, *cips*, etc.) than Romanian (11 and 5, respectively), which indicates a still ongoing process of assimilation. On the other hand,

only Romanian records words not known but for which a calque or another native equivalent is provided (e.g. *fulgi de porumb*, *minuturi*, *praf de copt*, etc.); only Romanian has a foreignism; Romanian has more words not (or no longer) recognized as English (whose English origin can only be established etymologically) (e.g. *hamburger*, *gem*, *ionatan*, etc.) than Croatian (10 and 5, respectively); and Romanian has more words, as far as the individual language is concerned, that come from a source other than English (e.g. *graham*, *keks*) than Croatian (2 and 1, respectively). Finally, Croatian and Romanian share almost the same number of words in restricted usage in the language (14 and 12, respectively).

Among usage restrictions, the most important are currency restrictions (8 in Romanian and 2 in Croatian); field restrictions (5 in Croatian and 2 in Romanian); register restrictions (2 in Romanian and 1 in Croatian); and regional restrictions (1 in Romanian), with more restrictions in Romanian (13) than in Croatian (8).

To mention that all English borrowings have not been recorded (as expected) by Görlach. A good example is the Romanian *mizgril* (< E *mixed grill* 'a dish of various grilled meats'), not only pronounced as such, but also spelled as such in the menus of (not necessarily fancy) restaurants, and used by most Romanians dining out.

If Görlach's data are accurate, then we can draw the conclusion that, on the whole, there are no great differences between Croatian and Romanian from the point of view of the way they have treated food-related English borrowings, despite the fact that Croatian is a south Slavic language and Romanian is a Romance language. In this case, a common historical background (their location in the Balkan area, their Communist rule – with all the cultural restrictions it enforced on the people) could explain the resemblances and make differences seem not as significant as expected.

## REFERENCES

- Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. 1994. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. London-New York-Sydney-Toronto: BCA.  
 Görlach, M. (Editor). (2005). *A Dictionary of European Anglicisms. A Usage Dictionary of Anglicisms in Sixteen European Languages*. Oxford University Press.

## ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE TEXT

Al – Albanian	Hu – Hungarian
Bg – Bulgarian	Ic – Icelandic
Cr – Croatian	It – Italian
Du – Dutch	Nw – Norwegian
Fi – Finnish	Po – Polish
Fr – French	Rm – Romanian
Ge – German	Rs – Russian
Gr – Greek	Sp – Spanish

ANICA PERKOVIČ

Trg Svetog Trojstva 3, Osijek 31000, Croatia

# WORDS OF LATIN ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH OF ZOOLOGY

GEORGETA RAȚĂ

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, România  
georgeta\_rata@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*The age of scientific discoveries in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries created an insatiable need for new words that describe the newfound knowledge. The new words were either directly borrowed from Latin, or they were coined from Latin base words and affixes, or from Latin word elements freely combined with elements belonging to English or to other languages. Among the numerous words of Latin origin belonging to the field of natural sciences, which entered English at that time are hundreds of names of animals whose absence from scientific English would lead to a disaster.*

**Keywords:** *Latin etymon; English; Zoology*

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the research was to see if there are any patterns in the naming of animals based on Latin words in contemporary English, patterns that would make animal names easier to identify and/or learn.

The hypothesis of the research was that, given the fact that all these names appeared more or less at the dawn of the age of scientific discovery, in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, as new words to describe new knowledge, their naming must have relied on certain patterns.

The background information consisted in what is generally given as common sense knowledge about scientific names in general and about zoological names in particular.

Apart from some lists containing English words of Latin origin posted on Internet sites, there is not exhaustive list of words of Latin origin in the English of zoology.

## 29. MATERIAL AND METHOD

The material used in the research consists of words of Latin origin specific to the English of zoology that we have picked up from Soukhanov's *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language* (2008), words that we analysed from an etymological point of view (we were interested only in the changes in form and sense) using Harper's *Online Etymology Dictionary* (2001), Partridge's *Origins. A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English* (2006), and Glare's *Oxford Latin Dictionary* (1983). As background information of classic culture nature, we used Farrell's *Latin Language & Latin Culture. From Ancient to Modern Times* (2004), Janson's *Speak. A Short History of Languages* (2002). The linguistic terminology is the one supplied by Chalker & Weiner's *Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (1994) and by Sheehan's *Word Parts Dictionary. Standard and Reverse Listings of Prefixes, Suffixes, Roots and Combining Forms* (2000).

### 30. RESULTS

Common names of animals are either *metonyms* (words that are used as substitutes for other words with which they are in close semantic relationships – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 239) or *English formations* (new words formed other than by compounding – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 427).

#### 30.1. METONYMS

Metonyms of Latin origin in the English of zoology (a total of 96, i.e. 27%) come from *genus names*, *species names*, and *common names*.

**Genus Names.** There are 83 (87%) common names from New Latin genus names of Greek origin: *acarus* pl. *acari* ‘a mite, especially one of the genus *Acarus*’ [< NL *Acarus*], *actinia* pl. *actinae* / *actinians* ‘a sea anemone or a related animal’ [< NL *Actinia*], *aedes* pl. *aedes*. ‘a mosquito of the genus *Aëdes*’ [< NL *Aëdes*], *aepyornis* ‘a genus of extinct, large, flightless birds native to Madagascar’ [< NL *Aepyornis*], *alternaria* ‘any of various fungi in the genus *Alternaria*’ [< NL *Alternaria*], *am(o)eba* pl. *amoebas* / *amoebae* ‘a protozoan of the genus *Amoeba* or related genera’ [< NL *Amoeba*], *aphid* ‘any of various small, soft-bodied insects of the family Aphididae’ [< NL *Aphis*, *Aphid*-], *aphis* pl. *aphides* ‘an aphid, especially one of the genus *Aphis*’ [< NL *Aphis*], *apteryx* ‘any of several flightless birds of the genus *Apteryx*’ [< NL *Apteryx*], *archaeopteryx* ‘an extinct primitive bird (genus *Archaeopteryx*)’ [< NL *Archaeopteryx*], *aspergillus* pl. *aspergilli* ‘any of various fungi of the genus *Aspergillus*’ [< NL *Aspergillus*], *betta* ‘any of various species of small, brightly coloured, long-finned freshwater fishes of the genus *Betta*’ [< NL *Betta*], *bilharzia* ‘any of several chiefly tropical trematode worms of the genus *Schistosoma*’ [< NL *Bilharzia*, genus name, after Theodor Bilharz (1825-1862), German physician], *botrytis* ‘any of various fungi of the genus *Botrytis*; noble rot’ [< NL *Botrytis*], *brontosaurus* ‘a very large herbivorous dinosaur of the genus *Brontosaurus*’ [< NL *Brontosaurus*], *ceratodus* pl. *ceratoduses* ‘any of various extinct lungfishes of the genus *Ceratodus*; ‘any of several Australian food fishes’ [< NL *Ceratodus*], *chimaera* ‘a deep-sea cartilaginous fish of the family Chimaeridae; an organism consisting of two or more tissues of different genetic composition, produced as a result of mutation, grafting, or the mixture of cell populations from different zygotes; an organism produced by genetic engineering, in which DNA from distinct parent species is combined to produce an individual with a double chromosome complement’ [< NL *Chimaera*], *coccidium* pl. *coccidia* ‘any of various parasitic protozoans belonging to the order Coccidia’ [< NL *Coccidium*], *colobus (monkey)* ‘any of various large African monkeys of the genus *Colobus*’ [< NL *Colobus*], *danio* pl. *danios* ‘any of various small, often brightly coloured freshwater fishes of the genera *Danio* and *Brachydanio*’ [< NL *Danio*], *daphnia* pl. *daphnia* ‘any of various water fleas of the genus *Daphnia*’ [< NL *Daphnia*], *dasyure* ‘any of various often carnivorous marsupials of the family Dasyuridae’ [< NL *Dasyurus*, genus name], *dentalium* pl. *dentalia* / *dentaliums* ‘any of various tooth shells of the genus *Dentalium*’ [< NL *Dentālium*], *diplodocus* ‘a very large herbivorous dinosaur of the genus *Diplodocus*’ [< NL *Diplodocus*], *drosophila* ‘any of various small fruit flies of the genus *Drosophila*’ [< NL *Drosophila*], *dugong* ‘a herbivorous marine mammal (*Dugong dugon*)’ [< NL *Dugong*], *echinococcus* pl. *echinococci* ‘any of several parasitic

tapeworms of the genus *Echinococcus*’ [< NL *Echinococcus*], ***filaria*** pl. ***filariae*** ‘any of various slender, threadlike nematode worms of the superfamily Filarioidea’ [< NL *Filāria*], ***fusarium*** pl. ***fusaria*** ‘any of various pathogenic fungi of the genus *Fusarium*’ [< NL *Fusarium*], ***galago*** pl. ***galagos*** ‘any of several small, nocturnal African primates of the genera *Galago* and *Euoticus*’ [< NL *Galago*], ***gambusia*** ‘any of various small livebearers of the genus *Gambusia*’ [< NL *Gambusia*], ***gerbil*** ‘any of various small, mouse like rodents of the genus *Gerbillus* and related genera; the Mongolian gerbil (*Meriones unguiculatus*)’ [F *gerbille* < NL *Gerbillus*], ***hydra*** pl. ***hydras*** / ***hydrae*** ‘any of several small freshwater polyps of the genus *Hydra* and related genera’ [< NL *Hydra*], ***iguanodon*** ‘any of various large dinosaurs of the genus *Iguanodon*’ [< NL *Iguanodon*], ***lemur*** ‘any of several small arboreal, mostly nocturnal primates chiefly of the family Lemuridae’ [< NL *Lemur*], ***lygus*** (***bug***) ‘any of various North American bugs of the genus *Lygus*’ [< NL *Lygus*], ***mastodon*** ‘any of several very large, extinct proboscidian mammals of the genus *Mammut*’ [< NL *Mastodon*], ***murex*** pl. ***murices*** / ***murexes*** ‘any of various marine gastropods of the genus *Murex*’ [< NL *Mūrex*], ***mysid*** ‘any of various small, shrimp like, chiefly marine crustaceans of the order Mysidacea’ [< NL *Mysis*, *Mysid*-], ***noctiluca*** ‘any of various bioluminescent dinoflagellates of the genus *Noctiluca*’ [< NL *Noctilūca*], ***notornis*** pl. ***notornis*** ‘any of several flightless New Zealand birds, now rare, of the genus *Notornis*’ [< NL *Notornis*], ***obelía*** ‘any of various colonial marine hydroids of the genus *Obelia*’ [< NL *Obelia*], ***octopus*** pl. ***octopuses*** / ***octopi*** ‘any of numerous carnivorous marine molluscs of the genus *Octopus* or related genera’ [< NL *Octopus*], ***panchax*** ‘any of various small, brightly coloured Old World tropical fishes of the genus *Aplocheilichthys* and related genera’ [< NL *Panchax*, genus name], ***paramecium*** pl. ***paramecia*** / ***parameciums*** ‘any of various freshwater ciliate protozoans of the genus *Paramecium*’ [< NL *Paramēcium*], ***peripatus*** ‘any of numerous wormlike carnivorous animals of the phylum Onychophora’ [< NL *Peripatus*], ***phalanger*** ‘any of various small arboreal marsupials of the family Phalangeridae’ [< NL *Phalanger*], ***phylloxera*** pl. ***phylloxerae*** ‘any of several small insects of the genus *Phylloxera*’ [< NL *Phylloxera*], ***pithecanthropus*** ‘an extinct primate postulated from bones found in Java in 1891 and originally designated *Pithecanthropus erectus*’ [< NL *Pithecanthropus*], ***plasmodium*** pl. ***plasmodia*** ‘a multinucleate mass of cytoplasm formed by the aggregation of a number of amoeboid cells, as that characteristic of the vegetative phase of the slime moulds; a protozoan of the genus *Plasmodium*’ [< NL *Plasmodium*], ***plesiosaurus*** pl. ***plesiosaurs*** / ***plesiosaurs*** ‘a large extinct marine reptile’ [< NL *Plesiosaurus*], ***psylla*** ‘any of various jumping plant lice of the family Psyllidae’ [< NL *Psylla*], ***pyrrhuloxia*** ‘a large, crested finch (*Pyrrhuloxia sinuata*)’ [< NL *Pyrrhuloxia*], ***quelea*** ‘an African weaverbird of the genus *Quelea*’ [< NL *Quelea*], ***rasbora*** ‘any of various tropical fishes of the genus *Rasbora*’ [< NL *Rasbora*], ***rhea*** ‘any of several flightless South American birds of the genus *Rhea*’ [< NL *Rhea*], ***rhizopus*** ‘any of various rot-causing fungi of the genus *Rhizopus*’ [< NL *Rhizopus*], ***saccharomyces*** pl. ***saccharomyces*** ‘any of several single-celled yeasts belonging to the genus *Saccharomyces*’ [< NL *Saccharomycēs*], ***salpa*** ‘any of various free-swimming chordates of the genus *Salpa*’ [< NL *Salpa*], ***simulium*** ‘any of a genus (*Simulium*) of black flies’ [< NL *Simulium*], ***sinanthropus*** ‘an early member of an extinct species of human beings, considered a subspecies of *Homo erectus*’ [< NL *Sinanthropus*, genus name], ***smilodon*** ‘any of the large sabre-toothed tigers of the genus *Smilodon*’ [< NL *smilodon*], ***solenodon*** ‘a large ratline insectivorous mammal of the family Solenodontidae’ [< NL *Solēnodon*], ***squilla*** pl. ***squillas*** / ***squillae*** ‘any of various burrowing predatory marine crustaceans of the order Stomatopoda’ [< NL *Squilla*],

**stegodon** ‘any of various extinct elephant like mammals of the genus *Stegodon* and related genera’ [< NL *Stegodon*], **stegosaurus** ‘any of several herbivorous dinosaurs of the suborder *Stegosauria*’ [< NL *Stegosaurus*], **streptomyces** pl. **streptomyces** ‘any of various actinomycetes of the genus *Streptomyces*’ [< NL *Streptomyces*], **syrphus** (**fly**) ‘any of numerous flies of the family Syrphidae’ [< NL *Syrphus*], **tachina** (**fly**) ‘any of several bristly, usually greyish dipterous flies of the family Tachinidae’ [< NL *Tachina*], **teredo** pl. **teredos** ‘a shipworm of the genus *Teredo*’ [< NL *Terēdo*], **tilapia** ‘any of various cichlid fishes of the genus *Tilapia*’ [< NL *Tilapia*], **tortrix** ‘a moth of the family Tortricidae; a tortricid’ [< NL *Tortrix*], **torula** pl. **torulae** / **torulas** ‘any of a group of fungi similar to the yeasts but lacking asci’ [< NL *Torula*], **treponema** pl. **treponemata** / **treponemas** ‘any of a group of spirochetes of the genus *Treponema*’ [< NL *Treponema*], **triceratops** ‘a herbivorous dinosaur of the genus *Triceratops*’ [< NL *Triceratops*], **trichina** pl. **trichinae** / **trichinas** ‘a small, slender parasitic nematode worm (*Trichinella spiralis*)’ [< NL *Trichina*], **trichomonad** ‘any of various flagellate protozoans of the genus *Trichomonas*’ [< NL *Trichomonas*, *Trichomonad*-], **tubifex** pl. **tubifex** / **tubifexes** ‘any of various small, slender, reddish freshwater worms of the genus *Tubifex*’ [< NL *Tubifex*], **tyrannosaurus** ‘a large carnivorous dinosaur’ [< NL *Tyrannosaurus*], **uncinaria** ‘any of numerous small parasitic nematode worms of the family Ancylostomatidae’ [< NL *Uncinaria*], **vorticella** pl. **vorticellae** / **vorticellas** ‘any of various ciliate protozoans of the genus *Vorticella*’ [< NL *Vorticella*], **zamia** ‘any of various chiefly tropical American cycads of the genus *Zamia*’ [< NL *Zamia*], and **zyzzyva** ‘any of various tropical American weevils of the genus *Zyzzyva*’ [< NL *Zyzzyva*].

**Species Names.** Only 3 (3%) common names come from species names: **cecropia** (**moth**) ‘a large North American silkworm moth (*Hyalophora cecropia*)’ [< NL *cecropia*, species name], **luna** (**moth**) ‘a large, pale-green North American moth (*Actias luna*)’ [< NL *lūna*, species name], and **vivax** ‘the protozoan (*Plasmodium vivax*); malaria caused by this protozoan’ [< NL *vīvāx*, species name].

**Common Names.** Ten (10%) Latin common names designate different animal species in contemporary English: **astragalus** pl. **astragali** ‘the bone of the ankle that articulates with the tibia and fibula to form the ankle joint’ [< NL *astragalus* ‘vertebra’], **cuscus** ‘any of several nocturnal marsupials of the genus *Phalanger*’ [< NL *cuscus*, probably from a New Guinean word], **eohippus** ‘a small, herbivorous, extinct mammal of the genus *Hyracotherium* (or *Eohippus*)’ [< NL *eohippus* ‘small horse’], **glochidium** pl. **glochidia** ‘the parasitic larva of certain freshwater mussels of the family Unionidae’ [< NL *glochidium* ‘a special larval stage’], **gorilla** ‘the largest of the anthropoid apes (*Gorilla gorilla*)’ [< NL *Gorilla* < Gk *Gorillai* ‘a tribe of hairy women, perhaps of African origin’], **Homo sapiens** ‘the modern species of human beings’ [< NL *Homo sapiēns*: *Homo*, genus name + L *sapiēns*, present participle of *sapere* ‘to be wise’], **ichthyosaur(us)** pl. **ichthyosaurs** / **ichthyosauri** ‘any of various extinct fishlike marine reptiles of the order Ichthyosauria’ [< NL *ichthyosaurus*], **motmot** ‘any of several tropical American birds of the family Momotidae’ [< NL *motmot*, probably of imitative origin], **platypus** pl. **platypuses** ‘a semi aquatic egg-laying mammal (*Ornithorhynchus anatinus*)’ [< NL *platypus* ‘flat-footed’], and **skua** ‘any of several large predatory sea birds of the genus *Catharacta*; any of several Arctic and Boreal sea birds of the genus *Stercorarius*’ [< NL *skua*, alteration of Faroese *\*skūvur* < ON *skūfr* ‘tassel, sea gull’].

### 30.2. ENGLISH FORMATIONS

There are four types of formations in our corpus of words of Latin origin belonging to the English of zoology: *backformations* (new words formed by the removal of real or apparent affixes from existing words), *derivatives* (words formed from other words by a process of derivation, i.e. by addition of affixes such as prefixes or suffixes – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 110), *compounds* (words formed by combining two or more bases or free morphemes – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 80), and *blend / portmanteau words* or *lexical / word blends* (words formed by the merging of parts of two other linguistic elements – Chalker & Weiner 1994: 48).

**Backformations.** There are 152 (60%) backformations in our corpus: *acarid* ‘an arachnid of the order Acarina’ [< NL *Acaridae*, family name], *amphipod* ‘a small crustacean of the order Amphipoda’ [< NL *Amphipoda*, order name], *annelid* ‘any of various worms or wormlike animals of the phylum Annelida’ [< NL *Annelida*, phylum name], *arachnid* ‘any of various arthropods of the class Arachnida’ [< NL *Arachnida*, class name], *arachnoid* ‘any of various arthropods of the class Arachnida’ [< NL *arachnoidēs* < Gk *arakhnoeidēs* ‘cobweb like’], *arthropod* ‘any of numerous invertebrate animals of the phylum Arthropoda’ [< NL *Arthropoda*, phylum name], *artiodactyl* ‘any of various hoofed mammals of the order Artiodactyla’ [< NL *Artiodactyla*, order name], *bombycid* ‘a moth of the family Bombycidae’ [< NL *Bombycidae*, family name], *bovid* ‘a member of the family Bovidae’ [< NL *Bovidae*, family name], *brachiopod* ‘any of various marine invertebrates of the phylum Brachiopoda’ [< NL *Brāchiopoda*, phylum name], *braconid* ‘any of several ichneumon flies of the family Braconidae’ [< NL *Braconidae*, family name], *branchiopod* ‘any of various aquatic crustaceans of the subclass Branchiopoda’ [< NL *Branchiopoda*, subclass name], *buprestid* ‘any of various beetles of the family Buprestidae’ [< NL *Būprēstidae*, family name], *canid* ‘any of various widely distributed carnivorous mammals of the family Canidae’ [< NL *Canidae*, family name], *carabid* ‘any of a large family (Carabidae) of chiefly black beetles’ [< NL *Cārabidae*, family name], *carangid* ‘any of a large family (Carangidae) of marine food and game fishes’ [< NL *Carangidae*, family name], *cephalochordate* ‘any of various primitive chordate animals of the subphylum Cephalochordata’ [< NL *Cephalochordata*, subphylum name], *cephalopod* ‘any of various marine molluscs of the class Cephalopoda’ [< NL *Cephalopoda*, class name], *cestode* ‘any of various parasitic flatworms of the class Cestoda’ [< NL *Cestoda*, class name], *chaetognath* ‘any of various marine worms of the phylum Chaetognatha’ [< NL *Chaetognatha*, phylum name], *chalicothere* ‘any of various extinct ungulate mammals of the Eocene to Pleistocene epochs’ [< NL *Chalicotherium*, genus name], *characid* / *characin* ‘any of numerous small, colourful tropical freshwater fish of the family Characidae’ [< NL *Characinidae*, family name], *chilopod* ‘any of various arthropods of the class Chilopoda’ [< NL *Chilopoda*, class name], *chiropter* ‘a mammal that is a member of the order Chiroptera’ [< NL *Chiroptera*, order name], *chordate* ‘any of numerous animals belonging to the phylum Chordata’ [< NL *Chordāta*, phylum name], *cirriped(e)* ‘any of various crustaceans of the subclass Cirripedia’ [< NL *Cirripedia*], *coccid* ‘any of various insects of the superfamily Coccoidea’ [< NL *Coccidae*, family name], *coelacanth* ‘any of various mostly extinct fishes of the order Coelacanthiformes’ [< NL *Coelacanthus*, genus name], *colubrid* ‘any of numerous, widely distributed, chiefly nonvenomous snakes of the family Colubridae’ [< NL *Colubridae*, family name], *comatulid* / *comatula* pl. *comatulids* /

**comatulae** ‘any of various marine invertebrates of the class Crinoidea’ [< NL *Comatulidae*, family name], **copepod** ‘any of numerous minute marine and freshwater crustaceans of the subclass Copepoda’ [< NL *Copepoda*, order name], **creodont** ‘any of various extinct carnivorous mammals of the suborder Creodonta’ [< NL *Creodonta*, suborder name], **cricetid** ‘any of various small rodents of the family Cricetidae’ [< NL *Cricetidae*, family name], **crinoid** ‘any of various echinoderms of the class Crinoidea’ [< NL *Crinoidea*, class name], **ctenophore** ‘any of various marine animals of the phylum Ctenophora’ [< NL *Ctenophora*, phylum name], **cyclostome** ‘any of various primitive eel like vertebrates of the class Agnatha’ [< NL *Cyclostomī* and *Cyclostomata*, class names], **cyprinid** ‘any of numerous often small freshwater fishes of the family Cyprinidae’ [< NL *Cyprinidae*, family name], **cyprinoid** ‘a cyprinoid fish’ [< NL *Cyprinoidēa*, suborder name], **decapod** ‘a crustacean of the order Decapoda; a cephalopod mollusc’ [< NL *Decapoda*, order name], **dinothere** ‘any of various extinct elephant like mammals of the genus *Dinotherium*’ [< NL *Dinotherium*, genus name], **elapid** ‘any of several venomous snakes of the family Elapidae’ [< NL *Elapidae*, family name], **elasmobranch** ‘any of numerous fishes of the class Chondrichthyes’ [< NL *Elasmobranchii*, subclass name], **elaterid** ‘any of numerous beetles of the family Elateridae’ [< NL *Elatēridae*, family name], **ephemerid** ‘an insect of the order Ephemeroptera’ [< NL *Ephemeridae*, order name], **eurypterid** ‘any of various large, segmented aquatic arthropods of the order Eurypterida’ [< NL *Eurypterida*, order name], **ganoid** ‘a ganoid fish’ [< NL *Ganoidei*, subclass name], **gastropod** ‘any of various molluscs of the class Gastropoda’ [< NL *Gastropoda*, class name], **gastrotrich** ‘any of various minute aquatic animals of the phylum Gastrotricha’ [< NL *Gastrotricha*, phylum name], **geometrid** ‘any of various moths of the family Geometridae’ [< NL *Geometridae*, family name], **grackle** ‘any of several American blackbirds of the family Icteridae; ‘any of several Asian mynas of the genus *Gracula*’ [< NL *Grācula*, genus name], **hadrosaur** ‘any of various amphibious dinosaurs of the genus *Anatosaurus* and related genera’ [< NL *Hadrosaurus*, genus name], **hexapod** ‘a six-legged arthropod of the class Insecta (formerly Hexapoda); an insect’ [< NL *Hexapoda*, class name], **hominid** ‘a primate of the family Hominidae’ [< NL *Hominidae*, family name], **hominoid** ‘a member of the Hominoidea’ [< NL *Hominoidea*, superfamily name], **ichthyosaur** pl. **ichthyosaurs** / **ichthyosauri** ‘any of various extinct fishlike marine reptiles of the order Ichthyosauria’ [< NL *ichthyosaurus*], **isopod** ‘any of numerous crustaceans of the order Isopoda’ [< NL *Isopoda*, order name], **lagomorph** ‘any of various plant-eating mammals having fully furred feet and two pairs of upper incisors and belonging to the order Lagomorpha’ [< NL *Lagomorpha*, order name], **lamellibranch** ‘any of the bivalve molluscs of the class Lamellibranchia’ [< NL *Lānellibranchia*, class name], **mantid** ‘any of various predatory insects of the family Mantidae’ [< NL *Mantidae*, family name], **megalosaur** ‘A gigantic carnivorous dinosaur of the genus *Megalosaurus*’ [< NL *Megalosaurus*, genus name], **megapode** ‘any of various large-footed, ground-dwelling birds of the family Megapodiidae’ [< *Megapodius*, genus name], **megathere** ‘a large extinct ground sloth of the family Megatheriidae’ [< NL *Megatherium*, type genus], **meloid** ‘any of various soft-bodied beetles of the family Meloidae’ [< NL *Meloidae*, family name], **monotreme** ‘a member of the Monotremata’ [< NL *Monotremata*, order name], **mosasaur** ‘any of various very large extinct aquatic lizards of the genus *Mosasaurus*’ [< NL *Mosasaurus*, genus name], **muscid** ‘a fly of the family Muscidae’ [< NL *Muscidae*, family name], **myriapod** / **myriopod** ‘any of several arthropods’ [< NL *Myriapoda*, class name], **mysticete** ‘any of several usually large whales of the suborder Mysticeti’ [< NL *mysticētus* < Gk *mustikītos*, alteration of (*ho*)



*mus to kītos* ‘(the) whale (called) the mouse’], **nautiloid** ‘a mollusc of the subclass Nautiloidea’ [< NL *Nautiloidea*, subclass name], **nematode** ‘any of several worms of the phylum Nematoda’ [< NL *Nēmatoda*, phylum name], **noctuid** ‘any of numerous, usually dull-coloured night-flying moths of the family Noctuidae’ [< NL *Noctuidae*, family name], **nudibranch** ‘any of various highly colourful marine gastropods of the suborder Nudibranchia’ [< NL *Nudibranchia*, order name], **nummulite** ‘a large, coin-shaped, fossil foraminifer of the genus *Nummulites*’ [< NL *Nummulītēs*, genus name], **nymphalid** ‘any of various medium to large butterflies of the family Nymphalidae’ [< NL *Nymphālidae*, family name], **octopod** ‘any of various cephalopod molluscs of the order Octopoda’ [< NL *Octopoda*, order name], **odonate** ‘any of the large predacious winged insects of the order Odonata’ [< NL *Odonata*, order name], **oligoch(a)ete** ‘any of various annelid worms of the class Oligochaeta’ [< NL *Oligochaeta*, class name], **ophiuroid** ‘any of various marine organisms of the class Ophiuroidea’ [< NL *Ophiūroidea*, class name], **opisthobranch** pl. **opisthobranchs** ‘any of various marine gastropod molluscs of the subclass or order Opisthobranchia’ [< NL *Opisthobranchia*, order name], **oscine** ‘a bird of the suborder Oscines’ [< NL *Oscinīs*, suborder name], **ostracod** ‘any of various minute, chiefly freshwater crustaceans of the subclass Ostracoda’ [< NL *Ostracoda*, subclass name], **pelecypod** ‘any of the bivalve molluscs of the class Lamellibranchia’ [< NL *Pelecypoda*, class name], **pentastome** ‘any of numerous tongue-shaped, soft-bodied, colourless invertebrates of the phylum Pentastoma’ [< NL *Pentastomum*, genus name], **percoid** ‘a fish belonging to the suborder Percoidea’ [< NL *Percoidea*, suborder name], **perissodactyl** ‘a hoofed mammal of the order Perissodactyla’ [< NL *Perissodactyla*, order name], **phasmid** ‘any of various insects of the order Phasmida’ [< NL *Phasmida*, order name], **phoronid** ‘any of the small, wormlike marine animals of the phylum Phoronida’ [< NL *Phoronida*, phylum name], **pinniped** ‘a mammal of the suborder Pinnipedia’ [< NL *Pinnipedia*, order name], **platyrrhine** ‘a platyrrhine monkey’ [< NL *Platyrrhina*, group name], **platy<sub>2</sub>** pl. **platys** / **platies** ‘any of several small freshwater live bearing fishes of the genus *Xiphophorus*’ [NL *Platypoecilus*, genus name], **platyhelminth** ‘any of various parasitic and nonparasitic worms of the phylum Platyhelminthes’ [< NL *Platyhelminthes*, phylum name], **plectognath** ‘any of various tropical marine fishes of the order Tetraodontiformes or Plectognathi’ [< NL *Plectognathī*, order name], **plesiosaur** [< NL *Plesiosaurus*, genus name], **pogonophore** ‘any of various wormlike marine invertebrates of the phylum Pogonophora’ [< NL *Pogonophora*, phylum name], **polych(a)ete** ‘any of various annelid worms of the class Polychaeta’ [< NL *Polychaeta*, class name], **pongid** ‘an anthropoid ape of the family Pongidae’ [< NL *Pongidae*, family name], **pratincole** ‘any of several Old World shore birds of the genus *Glareola*’ [< NL *prātincola* < L *prātum* ‘meadow’ + L *incola* ‘inhabitant’], **primate** ‘a mammal of the order Primates’ [< NL *Prīmātes*, order name], **psocid** ‘any of various small, soft-bodied, sometimes winged insects of the order Psocoptera’ [< NL *Psocidae*, family name], **pterodactyl** ‘any of various small, mostly tailless, extinct flying reptiles of the order Pterosauria’ [< NL *Pterodactylus*, genus name], **pteropod** ‘any of various small marine gastropod molluscs of the subclass Opisthobranchia’ [< NL *Pteropoda*, order name], **pterosaur** ‘any of various extinct flying reptiles of the order Pterosauria’ [< NL *Pterosauria*, order name], **pycnogonid** ‘any of various marine arthropods of the class Pycnogonida’ [< NL *Pycnogonidae*, family name], **pyralid** ‘any of numerous small or medium-sized moths of the diverse, widely distributed family Pyralidae’ [< NL *Pyralidae*, family name], **reduviid** ‘any of various predatory bugs of the family Reduviidae’ [< NL *Reduviidae*, family name], **rhizopod** ‘a protozoan of the phylum

Rhizopoda' [< NL *Rhizopoda*, phylum name], **rodent** 'any of various mammals of the order Rodentia' [< NL *Rodentia*, order name], **rotifer** 'any of various minute multicellular aquatic organisms of the phylum Rotifera' [< NL *Rotifera*, phylum name], **salp** 'any of various free-swimming chordates of the genus *Salpa*' [< NL *Salpa*, genus name], **saturniid** 'any of various often large and colourful moths of the family Saturniidae' [< NL *Sāturniidae*, family name], **satyrid** 'a butterfly of the family Satyridae' [< NL *Satyridae*, family name], **sauropod** 'any of various large semi aquatic dinosaurs of the suborder Sauropoda' [< NL *Sauropoda*, suborder name], **scarabaeid** 'any of the numerous stout-bodied, lamellicorn beetles of the family Scarabaeidae' [< NL *Scarabaeidae*, family name], **schistosome** 'any of several chiefly tropical trematode worms of the genus *Schistosoma*' [< NL *Schistosoma*, genus name], **schizopod** 'any of various shrimp like crustaceans of the orders Euphausiacea and Mysidacea' [< NL *Schizopoda*, order name], **sciurid** 'a sciurid rodent' [< NL *Sciūridae*, family name], **scolopendrid** 'any of numerous centipedes of the family Scolopendridae' [< NL *Scolopendridae*, family name], **scombroid** 'a scombroid fish' [< NL *Scombroidae*, suborder name], **scorpaenid** [< NL *Scorpaenoidei*, suborder name], **scorpaenoid** 'a scorpaenoid fish' [< NL *Scorpaenoidei*, suborder name], **serotine** 'any of a widely distributed genus (*Eptesicus*) of usually small brown bats' [< NL *sērotinus*, species name], **serranid** 'any of various fishes of the family Serranidae' [< NL *Serranidae*, family name], **silurid** 'a silurid fish' [< NL *Silūridae*, family name], **siphonophore** 'any of various transparent, often subtly coloured marine hydrozoans of the order Siphonophora' [< NL *Siphonophora*, order name], **sparid** 'a member of the Sparidae' [< NL *Sparidae*, family name], **sphingid** 'a moth of the family Sphingidae; a hawk moth' [< NL *Sphingidae*, family name], **staphylinid** 'any of numerous beetles of the family Staphylinidae' [< NL *Staphylinidae*, family name], **stomatopod** 'any of various marine crustaceans of the order Stomatopoda' [< NL *Stomatopoda*, order name], **strongly(e)** 'any of various nematode worms of the family Strongylidae' [< NL *Strongylus*, genus name], **syrphid** 'any of numerous flies of the family Syrphidae' [< NL *Syrphidae*, family name], **tabanid** 'any of various bloodsucking dipterous flies of the family Tabanidae' [< NL *Tabānidae*, family name], **tanager** 'any of various small New World passerine birds of the family Thraupidae' [< NL *tanagra*], **teiid** 'a lizard of the family Teiidae' [< NL *Teiidae*, family name], **teleost** 'a teleost fish' [< NL *Teleostei*, group name], **tenebrionid** 'a beetle of the family Tenebrionidae' [< NL *Tenebrionidae*, family name], **testudinate** 'a turtle or tortoise' [< NL *Testūdināta*, order name], **tetra** 'any of numerous small, colourful tropical freshwater fish of the family Characidae' [NL *Tetragonopterini*, group name], **tetrabranchiate** 'a tetrabranchiate cephalopod' [< NL *Tetrabranchiāta*, order name], **therapsid** 'any of various reptiles of the order Therapsida' [< NL *Thērapsida*, order name], **theropod** 'any of various carnivorous dinosaurs of the suborder Theropoda' [< NL *Theropoda*, suborder name], **thylacine** 'a large wolf like carnivorous marsupial (*Thylacinus cynocephalus*)' [< NL *Thylacinus*, genus name], **titanosaur** 'any of various plant-eating, amphibious sauropod dinosaurs of the genus *Titanosaurus*' [< NL *Titanosaurus*, genus name], **titanother** 'any of various extinct herbivorous hoofed mammals of the genus *Brontotherium* and related genera' [< NL *Titanotherium*, genus name], **tortricid** 'any of various small, thick-bodied moths of the family Tortricidae' [< NL *Tortricidae*, family name], **trematode** 'any of numerous flatworms of the class Trematoda' [< NL *Trematoda*, class name], **trilobite** 'any of numerous extinct marine arthropods of the class Trilobita' [< NL *Trilobītēs*, class name], **trypanosome** 'any of various parasitic flagellate protozoans of the genus *Trypanosoma*' [< NL *Trypanosoma*,

genus name], **tyrannosaur** ‘a large carnivorous dinosaur’ [< NL *Tyrannosaurus*, genus name], **urodele** ‘any of various amphibians of the order Caudata’ [< NL *Ūrodēla*, order name], **vespertilionid** ‘any of various widely distributed insect-eating bats of the family Vespertilionidae’ [< NL *Vespertilionidae*, family name], **vespid** ‘any of various widely distributed social insects of the family Vespidae’ [< NL *Vespidae*, family name], and **viverrid** ‘a member of the Viverridae’ [< NL *Viverridae*, family name].

**Derivatives.** There are 101 (40%) suffixed derivatives of Latin origin in the English of zoology, and some of the affixes (-*al*, -*an*, -*ate* etc.) seem to have specialised to designate ‘animals’:

-*al* ‘of, relating to, or characterized by’ (1): **brachyural** ‘a member of the Brachyura’ [< NL *Brachyura*, suborder name + -*al*];

-*an* ‘of, relating to, or resembling’ (75): **acanthocephalan** ‘any of various worms of the phylum Acanthocephala’ [< NL *Acanthocephala* + -*an*], **acanthopterygian** ‘any of a large group of fishes of the super order Acanthopterygii’ [< NL *Acanthopterygii* + -*an*], **actinian** pl. **actiniae** / **actinians** ‘a sea anemone or a related animal’ [< NL *Actinia* + -*an*], **amphibian** ‘a cold-blooded, smooth-skinned vertebrate of the class Amphibia; an animal capable of living both on land and in water’ [< NL *Amphibia* + -*an*], **annelidan** ‘any of various worms or wormlike animals of the phylum Annelida’ [< NL *Annelida* + -*an*], **anuran** ‘an amphibian of the order Salientia (formerly Anura or Batrachia)’ [< NL *Anura*, order name + -*an*], **aphidian** [< NL *Aphis*, *Aphid*- + -*an*], **arachnidan** [< NL *Arachnida* + -*an*], **ascidian** ‘any of various sedentary marine animals of the class Ascidiacea’ [< NL *Ascidia* + -*an*], **baluchithere** ‘a very large, extinct rhinoceros like mammal of the genus *Baluchitherium*’ [< *Baluchi*(*stan*) + -*there* ‘an extinct mammal’], **brachyuran** ‘a member of the Brachyura’ [< NL *Brachyura*, suborder name + -*an*], **bryozoan** ‘any of various small aquatic animals of the phylum Bryozoa’ [< NL *Bryozoa*, phylum name + -*an*], **cephalopodan** [< NL *Cephalopoda* + -*an*], **cetacean** ‘any of various aquatic, chiefly marine mammals of the order Cetacea’ [< NL *Cētācea* + -*an*], **chelonian** ‘a reptile of the order Chelonina’ [< NL *Chelonina* + -*an*], **chiropteran** ‘a mammal that is a member of the order Chiroptera’ [< NL *Chiroptera* + -*an*], **cladoceran** ‘any of various small, mostly freshwater crustaceans of the order Cladocera’ [< NL *Cladocera* + -*an*], **coleopteran** / **coleopteron** ‘any of numerous insects of the order Coleoptera’ [< NL *Coleoptera* + -*an*], **crossopterygian** ‘a member of the Crossopterygii, a group of bony fishes’ [< NL *Crossopterygia* + -*an*], **crustacean** ‘any of various predominantly aquatic arthropods of the class Crustacea’ [< NL *Crustācea* + -*an*], **dermapteran** ‘any of various insects of the order Dermaptera’ [< NL *Dermaptera* + -*an*], **dibranchiate** ‘a member of the order Dibranchiata’ [< NL *Dibranchiata* + -*ate*], **dipnoan** ‘any of various fishes of the group Dipnoi’ [< NL *Dipnoi* + -*an*], **entomostracan** ‘any of various small crustaceans formerly constituting the subclass Entomostraca’ [< NL *Entomostraca* + -*an*], **foraminifer(an)** pl. **foraminifera** / **foraminifers** ‘any of the chiefly marine protozoans of the order Foraminifera’ [< NL *Forāminifera* + -*an*], **heliozoan** ‘any of various aquatic protozoans of the order Heliozoa’ [< NL *Heliozoa* + -*an*], **hydrozoan** ‘any of numerous coelenterates of the class Hydrozoa’ [< NL *Hydrozoa* + -*an*], **hymenopter-an** / **hymenopteron** ‘an insect of the order Hymenoptera’ [< NL *Hymenoptera* + -*an*], **lepidopteran** ‘an insect belonging to the large order Lepidoptera’ [< NL *Lepidoptera* + -*an*], **mastigophoran** ‘any of various protozoans of the class Mastigophora’ [< NL *Mastigophora* + -*an*], **mecopteran** ‘any of various carnivorous insects of the order Mecoptera’ [< NL *Mecoptera* + -*an*], **megalosaurian** [< E *megalosaur* + -*an*], **metazoan**

‘a multicellular animal of the subkingdom Metazoa’ [< NL *Metazoa* + -an], **moneran** ‘a member of the kingdom Monera (or Prokaryotae)’ [< NL *Monēra* + -an], **monogenean** ‘any of various trematodes of the order Monogenea’ [< NL *Monogenea* + -an], **nemertean** / **nemertine** ‘any of several velvety, usually brightly coloured worms of the phylum Nemertina (or Nemertea)’ [< NL *Nēmertēs* + -an], **neuropteran** ‘a carnivorous insect of the order Neuroptera’ [< NL *Neuroptera* + -an], **nudibranchian** [< NL *Nudibranchia* + -an], **onychophoran** ‘any of numerous wormlike carnivorous animals of the phylum Onychophora’ [< NL *Onychophora* + -an], **ophidian** ‘a member of the suborder Ophidia or Serpentes; a snake’ [< NL *Ophidia* + -an], **ornithischian** ‘a dinosaur of the order Ornithischia’ [< NL *Ornithischia* + -an], **orthopteran** / **orthopteron** ‘an insect of the order Orthoptera’ [< NL *Orthoptera* + -an], **percoidean** ‘a fish belonging to the suborder Percoidea’ [< NL *Percoidea* + -an], **phylloxeran** [< NL *Phylloxera* + -an], **planarian** ‘any of various small, chiefly freshwater turbellarian flatworms of the order Tricladida’ [< NL *Plānāria* + -an], **platyrrhinian** ‘a platyrrhine monkey’ [< NL *Platyrrhina*, group name], **plecopteran** ‘any of numerous weak-flying insects of the order Plecoptera’ [< NL *Plecoptera* + -an], **pogonophoran** ‘any of various wormlike marine invertebrates of the phylum Pogonophora’ [< NL *Pogonophora* + -an], **polyzoan** ‘any of various small aquatic animals of the phylum Bryozoa’ [< NL *Polyzoa* + -an], **poriferan** ‘any of various members of the phylum Porifera’ [< NL *Porifera* + -an], **proboscidean** / **proboscidian** ‘a mammal of the order Proboscidea’ [< NL *Proboscidea* + -an], **prosimian** ‘a primate of the suborder Prosimii’ [< NL *Prosīmī* + -an], **protozoan** / **protozoon** pl. **protozoa(ns)** / **protozoons** ‘any of a large group of single-celled, usually microscopic, eukaryotic organisms’ [< NL *Protozoa* + -an], **pteropodan** [< NL *Pteropoda* + -an], **radiolarian** ‘any of various marine protozoans of the order Radiolaria’ [< NL *Radiolāria* + -an], **rhizocephalan** ‘any of various small aquatic crustaceans of the order Rhizocephala’ [< NL *Rhizocephala* + -an], **rhizopodan** [< NL *Rhizopoda* + -an], **rhynchocephalian** ‘a rhynchocephalian reptile’ [< NL *Rhynchocephalia* + -an], **salientian** ‘an amphibian of the order Salientia’ [< NL *Salientia* + -an], **sarcodinian** ‘a protozoan belonging to the super class Sarcodina’ [< NL *Sarcodīna* + -an], **saurian** ‘any of various reptiles of the suborder Sauria’ [< New L *Sauria* + -an], **saurischian** ‘a dinosaur of the order Saurischia’ [< NL *Saurischia* + -an], **scyphozoan** ‘any of various marine coelenterates of the class Scyphozoa’ [< NL *Scyphozoa* + -an], **selachian** ‘a member of this order’ [Probably < NL *Selachī* + -an], **sertularian** ‘any of various colonial hydroids of the genus *Sertularia*’ [< NL *Sertularia* + -an], **sirenian** ‘any of several large, cylindrical, herbivorous marine mammals of the order Sirenia’ [< NL *Sīrēnia* + -an], **sporozoan** ‘any of numerous parasitic protozoans of the class Sporozoa’ [< NL *Sporozoa* + -an], **suctorian** ‘a protozoan of the class Suctoria’ [< NL *Suctoria* + -an], **teleostean** ‘a teleost fish’ [< NL *Teleostei* + -an], **testacean** ‘any of various rhizopods of the order Testacea’ [< NL *Testācea* + -an], **theropodan** [< NL *Theropoda* + -an], **thysanuran** ‘a wingless insect of the order Thysanura’ [< NL *Thysanura* + -an], **trichopteran** ‘an insect of the order Trichoptera’ [< NL *Trichoptera* + -an], **turbellarian** ‘any of various free-living chiefly aquatic ciliate flatworms of the class Turbellaria’ [< NL *Turbellāria* + -an], and **xiphosuran** ‘an arthropod of the order Xiphosura’ [< NL *Xiphosūra* + -an];

-ate ‘characterized by’ (3): **coelenterate** ‘any of various invertebrate animals of the phylum Coelenterata’ [< NL *Coelenterata* + -ate], **dinoflagellate** ‘any of numerous minute, chiefly marine protozoans of the order Dinoflagellata’ [< NL *Dinoflagellata* + -ate], **nudibranchiate** [< NL *Nudibranchia* + -ate];

*-iasis* ‘a pathological condition characterized or produced by’ (1): **histomoniasis** ‘an infectious disease of turkeys and some wildfowl that is caused by a protozoan (*Histomonas meleagridis*)’ [< NL *Histomonas*];

*-ine* ‘of or relating to’ (5): **australopithecine** ‘any of several extinct humanlike primates of the genus *Australopithecus*’ [< NL *Australopithēcus* + *-ine*], **dryopithecine** ‘an extinct ape of the genus *Dryopithecus*’ [< NL *Dryopithēcus* + *-ine*], **gregarine** ‘any of various sporozoan protozoans of the order Gregarinida’ [< NL *Gregarīna* + *-ine*], **rusine (antler)** ‘an antler with three tines, as that of the sambar’ [< NL *Rusa* + *-ine*], and **viverrine** ‘a member of the Viverridae’ [< NL *vīverrīnus* + *-ine*];

*-ite* ‘resident of’ (1): **termite** ‘any of numerous pale-coloured, usually soft-bodied social insects of the order Isoptera’ [< NL *Termes* + *-ite*];

*-(o)id* ‘resembling; having the appearance of; related to’ (10): **acanthocephalid** ‘any of various worms of the phylum Acanthocephala’ [< NL *Acanthocephal* + *-id*], **chalcid** ‘any of various minute wasps of the superfamily Chalcidoidea’ [< NL *Chalcis* + *-id*], **chrysomelid** ‘any of various beetles of the family Chrysomelidae’ [< NL *Chrysomela* + *-id*], **cichlid** ‘any of various tropical and subtropical freshwater fishes of the family Cichlidae’ [< NL *Cichla* + *-id*], **clupeid** ‘any of various widely distributed soft-finned fishes of the family Clupeidae’ [< NL *Clupeidae* + *-id*], **gad(o)id** ‘a fish of the family Gadidae’ [< NL *Gadus* + *-oid*], **psyllid** ‘any of various jumping plant lice of the family Psyllidae’ [< NL *Psylla* + *-id*], **pyralidid** ‘any of numerous small or medium-sized moths of the diverse, widely distributed family Pyralidae’ [< NL *Pyralidae* + *-id*], **sciaenid** [< NL *Sciaena* + *-id*], and **sciaenoid** ‘a sciaenoid fish’ [< NL *Sciaena* + *-id*];

*-ous* ‘possessing; full of; characterized by’ (1): **brachyurous** ‘a member of the Brachyura’ [< NL *Brachyura*, suborder name + *-ous*].

It is not very clear what the ending *-y* means, since none of the meanings supplied by language dictionaries fits the following derivatives (4 occurrences): **cavy** pl. **cavies** ‘any of various tailless South American rodents of the family Caviidae; ‘any of various similar or related rodents’ [< NL *Cavia*, genus name + *-y*], **platyrrhiny** [< NL *Platyrrhina* + *-y*], **saur** pl. **sauries** ‘any of several offshore marine fishes of the family Scomberesocidae’ [< NL *saurus* + *-y*], and **tody** pl. **todies** ‘any of various small birds of the family Todidae’ [Probably < F *todier* + *-y*].

**Compounds.** There is a single compound (0%) among the words of Latin origin in the English of zoology: **tilefish** pl. **tilefish** / **tilefishes** ‘a reddish-blue percoid marine food fish (*Lopholatilus chamaeleonticeps*)’ [*Tile-* (short for < NL *Lopholatilus*, genus name) + FISH].

**Portmanteau words.** The single (0%) portmanteau word in our corpus is **merganser** ‘any of various fish-eating diving ducks of the genus *Mergus* or related genera’ [< NL < L *mergus* ‘diver’ + L *ānser* ‘goose’].

### 31. RESULTS

It is interesting to note that the share of *English formations* (73%) of Latin origin in the English of zoology is almost three times larger than that of *metonymic words* (27%). This could be explained by the fact that, on one hand, they are old formations, and in time even scientists began to perceive them more and more as English words rather than as loanwords. The large number of *backformations* (60%) confirms this hypothesis:

perceived as foreignisms, Latin words were slightly ‘adapted’ to the English spelling system. The large number of *derivatives* (40%) also supports the hypothesis, since derivation occurs only within the system, never outside it. Moreover, certain affixes, such as *-an*, are specific to animal names (75% of the derivatives contain it). *Compounds* and *portmanteau words* are, practically, negligible.

As for the *metonymic words*, they come from genus names (87%), from Latin common names (10%), and from species names (3%). The large share of the animal names that have come from genus names shows the fact that scientific discovery in the field of zoology reached, in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, the highest level ever.

### 32. CONCLUSIONS

Results show that the *English of zoology* is a good example of borrowings that have become fully parts of the English vocabulary, despite the fact they retain traces of their foreign origin in their pronunciation, spelling, or inflection (see the plural forms of the nouns as supplied above).

Our hypothesis that there must be a pattern in the naming of animals with Latin names is confirmed: the proof – the large number of English formations (particularly backformations and derivatives) representing 73% of the total of words of our corpus, on one hand, and the large number of animal names derived from genus names (87% of the total metonymic names).

The implications of the research and results are considerable: they can be useful to both students in natural sciences and teachers and/or researchers in the field of zoology.

Additional research should focus on the words of Latin origin in the field of Botany.

### REFERENCES

- Chalker, S. & Weiner, E. 1994. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*. London-New York-Sydney-Toronto: BCA.
- Farrell, J. (2004) *Latin Language & Latin Culture. From Ancient to Modern Times*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Glare, P. G. W. (Editor) (1983). *Oxford Latin Dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Harper, D. (2001). *Online Etymology Dictionary*. [Online: <http://www.etymonline.com>]. (OED)
- Janson, T. (2002). *Speak. A Short History of Languages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Partridge, E. (2006). *Origins. A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*. London – New York: Routledge.
- Sheehan, M. J. (2000). *Word Parts Dictionary. Standard and Reverse Listings of Prefixes, Suffixes, Roots and Combining Forms*. Jefferson (NC) & London: McFarland & Company, Inc., Publishers.
- Soukhanov, A. H. (2008). *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (AHDEL)

GEORGETA RAȚĂ

119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, Romania

# WORDS OF RUSSIAN ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH OF CUISINE

GEORGETA RAȚĂ

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, România  
georgeta\_rata@yahoo.com*

ANICA PERKOVIČ

*University of Josip Juraj Strossmayer, Faculty of Agriculture in Osijek, Croatia  
panica@pfos.hr*

## ABSTRACT

*The English of cuisine has been invaded by tens of terms borrowed from the farthest languages possible, among which Russian. Though few in number (only 27), the English cuisine Russianisms **balyk**, **bitok**, **blini(s)** / **bliny**, **blintz(e)** (**blin**), **blintz**, **borscht** / **borschch** / **borsht**, **coulibiac**, **k(o)umiss**, **kasha**, **kefir**, **kvass**, **medovukha**, **okroshka**, **pashka**, **pav** / **pavlova** / **Pavlova**, **pelmeni**, **pirogi**, **piroshki** / **pirozhi**, **sbiten**, **sevruga**, **shashli(c)k**, **shchi**, **sirniki** / **syreniki**, **smetana**, **solyanka**, **vareniki** / **varenyky**, and **vodka** are what linguists call ‘necessity loans’ meant to designate typically Russian things such as beef and fish plates, desserts, pastries, beverages or ingredients. The authors identify the origin of these Russianisms, recording the changes in form and meaning over time.*

**Keywords:** *Russianisms; English language; Cuisine*

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research was to analyse the *Russianisms* specific to the English of cuisine, answering the following questions: when they entered a language, from what source, and how their form and meaning have changed over time.

Our hypothesis was that *cuisine Russianisms* must have preserved both their form and meaning in English since they stay for Russian notions that describe Russian realities. In addition, exotic words have always been appealing, and cookbooks and chefs have always used exotic words to make their dishes more appealing.

To our knowledge, apart from a *list of English Words of Russian origin* (W) including terms belonging to the English of cuisine, there has been no research in the field of *cuisine Russianisms in English* so far.

“*Russianism*, *Russism*, or *Russicism* is [defined as] an influence of Russian language on other languages.” (W)

There are two types of *Russianisms*:

- *Russified words, expressions, or grammar constructs* used in Slavic languages, in the languages of the CIS states (particularly Belarus, Ukraine, Republic of Moldova), and in the languages of the Russian Federation, where they replace existing words describing realities specific to these areas, a process called *Russification*;

- *borrowings or loanwords* that are found in languages far from the Russian sphere of influence (Italian, for example, where *Russianisms* rank sixth after Anglicisms,

Gallicisms, Germanisms, Hispanisms, and Arabisms – Giorgio Maria Nicolai cited by *Wikipedia*), where they stay for Russian notions to describe Russian realities.

In Jovan Adjuković's "theory of transfer" of lexical borrowing (W), *Russianism* is:

- an unmotivated or motivated word of Russian origin which has kept a strong formal-semantic connection with the corresponding word in Russian (e.g. *vodka*);
- an unmotivated or motivated word of Russian origin which has partially or completely lost its formal-semantic connection with the original Russian word owing to adaptation (e.g. *coulbiac*);
- an unmotivated or motivated word of non-Russian origin borrowed through Russian (e.g. *balyk*);
- an unmotivated or motivated word of Russian or non-Russian origin borrowed into the receiving language through a transmitter language (e.g. *bitok*).

### 33. MATERIAL AND METHOD

We have analysed a number of 27 *cuisine Russianisms* picked up from the most authoritative English language dictionaries (*Online Etymology Dictionary*, *The Concise Oxford Dictionary 11th Edition (PC)*, *Merriam Webster Online*, *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*) which we corroborated with less reliable sources (*Wikipedia*, *the Free Encyclopedia*). The method we used in our analysis is the etymological one: we studied the history of the English words of Russian origin belonging to the field of cuisine from the point of view of: the *time* they entered the English language; of the *source* they have come from; of the *changes* in form and meaning over time, with particular focus on possible *semantic change*.

### 34. RESULTS

English has proven accommodating to words from many languages, including Russian. *English Russianisms* consist of common and specialised inventories such as: administration, cuisine, politics, religion, technique, etc. *Cuisine Russianisms*, as well as the rest of *Russianisms*, have come to English either directly or indirectly (Figure 1).

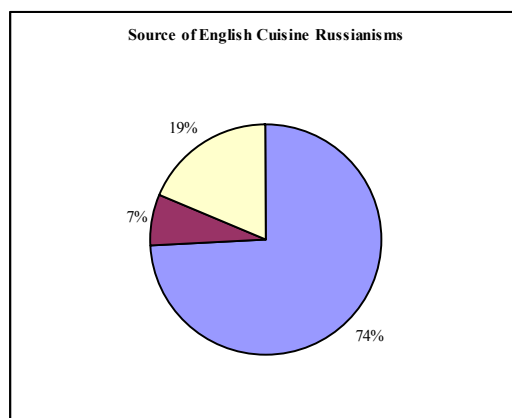


Figure 1. Source of English cuisine Russianisms:  
74% directly borrowed from Russian, 7% indirectly borrowed from Russian,  
19% (in)directly borrowed from Russian



### 34.1. DIRECTLY BORROWED CUISINE RUSSIANISMS

A number of 20 (74%) *cuisine Russianisms* were borrowed directly from Russian:

- **balyk** (< Russ *balik* < Turk *balik* ‘fish’) ‘the salted and dried soft parts of some fish, especially some larger valuable species’ (OED), ‘salted and dried soft parts of fish of large valuable species Acipenseridae (e.g. sturgeon) and Salmonidae (e.g. salmon)’ (W);

- **bitok** *n.* (< Rus *bitok* < F *bifteck* (*haché*) ‘(ground) beef’ < E *beefsteak*) ‘a dish made from ground meat mixed with milk, bread, and onions to form patties that are fried and served with a sour-cream sauce’ (AHDEL);

- **blini(s) / bliny** (< Russ) ‘pancakes made from buckwheat flour and served with sour cream’ (COD);

- **coulibiac / koulibiac** (< Russ *kulebyaka*) ‘a Russian fish or meat pie’ (COD), **coulibiac** (1895-1900 < Russ *kulebyáka* ‘an oblong loaf of fish, meat, or vegetables, baked in a pastry shell’) ‘a Russian fish pie typically made with salmon or sturgeon, hard-boiled eggs, mushrooms, and herbs, in a puff pastry shell’ (W);

- **kasha** (< Russ *kasha* < Old Russian) ‘buckwheat groats’ (AHDEL), **kasha** (< Russ) ‘(in Russia and Poland) porridge made from cooked buckwheat or similar grain’ (COD), **kasha** (1808 < Russ *kasha*) ‘1. a porridge made usually from buckwheat groats. 2. kasha grain before cooking’ (MWOD), **kasha** (< Russ *kasha* ‘porridge, gruel’) ‘1. a porridge made from cooked buckwheat groats or other grains. 2. a beige colour resembling buckwheat groats’, ‘a porridge commonly eaten in Eastern Europe’ (W);

- **kefir** (< Russ *kefir* < Old Turk *kopur* ‘(milk) froth, foam’) ‘a creamy drink made of fermented cow’s milk’ (AHDEL), **kefir** (1884 < Russ *kefir*) ‘a beverage of fermented cow’s milk’ (MWOD), **kefir** (< Russ *kefir* < Old Turk *köpür* ‘(milk) froth, foam’) ‘a sour, slightly alcoholic drink fermented from cow, goat, or sheep’s milk’, ‘a fermented milk that originated in the Caucasus region’ (W);

- **kvass** (< Russ *kvas* ‘leaven’ < OCS *kvasu* ‘yeast’) ‘fermented drink made from rye or barley’ (OED), **kvass** (< Russ *kvas*) ‘a Russian fermented milk made from rye flour or bread with malt’ (COD), **kvass** (< Russ *kvas* < O Russ *kvasŭ*) ‘a Russian fermented beverage similar to beer, made from rye or barley’ (AHDEL), **kvass** (1553 < Russ *kvas*) ‘a slightly alcoholic beverage of eastern Europe made from fermented mixed cereals and often flavoured’ (MWOD), **kvass** (< Russ *kvas* sometimes translated into English as ‘*bread drink*’ – a linguistic calque) ‘a fermented mildly alcoholic beverage made from rye flour or bread with malt; rye beer’, ‘a fermented mildly alcoholic beverage made from black or rye bread’ (W);

- **medovukha** (< Russ *medovukha* < Proto-Indo-European *meddhe* ‘honey’) ‘a Russian honey-based alcoholic beverage similar to mead’ (W);

- **okroskha** (< Russ *okroskha* < Russ *kroshit* ‘to chop (into small pieces)’) ‘a type of Russian cold soup (with mixed raw vegetables)’ (W);

- **paskha** (< Russ *paskha* ‘Easter’) ‘a rich Russian dessert made with soft cheese, dried fruit, nuts, and spices, traditionally eaten at Easter’, ‘an Easter bread served at Easter in many Slavic countries’ (W);

- **pav** (Colloq.) / **pavlova / Pavlova** (1926 < Anna Pavlova, famous Russian ballerina) ‘a dessert of Australian and New Zealand origin consisting of a meringue shell topped with whipped cream and usually fruit’ (OED), **pavlova** (1920s named after the Russian ballerina Anna Pavlova) ‘a dessert consisting of a meringue base or shell filled with whipped cream and fruit’ (COD), ‘a meringue dessert’ (W);

- **pelmeni** (< Russ *pel'men* < Tatar *pilmän(när)*) 'an eastern European dish of minced meat, especially beef and pork, wrapped in a thin dough and boiled', 'a Russian national dish, consisting of a filling that is wrapped in thin unleavened dough' (W);

- **piroshki** / **pirozhki** (< Russ *pirozhki*) 'small Russian savoury pastries filled with meat or vegetables' (COD), **piroshki** / **pirozhki** (< Russ *piroshki* 'small pies') (MWOD), **piroshki** / **pirozhki** (1912 < Russ *pirozhki* 'small pies') 'small pastries with meat, cheese, or vegetable filling' (MWOD), **piroshki** / **pirozhki** (< Russ *piroshki* 'small pies') 'a generic word for individual-sized baked or fried buns stuffed with a variety of fillings' (W);

- **sbiten** (< Russ *sbiten'*) 'a traditional Russian honey based drink similar to medovukha', 'a hot winter Russian traditional drink' (W);

- **sevruga** (16<sup>th</sup> century < Russ *sevruga*) 'a migratory sturgeon found only in the basins of the Caspian and Black Sea, fished for its caviar (*Acipenser stellatus*)' (COD), **sevruga** (< Russ *sevruga*) '1. a sturgeon (*Acipenser stellatus*) of the Caspian Sea, whose small grey roe is used for caviar. 2. caviar made from the roe of the sevruga.' (AHDEL), **sevruga** (1591 < Russ *sevruga* 'a species of sturgeon') '1. a light to dark grey caviar from a sturgeon (*Acipenser sevruga*) of the Caspian Sea with roe that is smaller than that of osetra. 2. the fish' (MWOD), **sevruga** (< Russ *sevruga*) 'a caviar from the Sevruga, a type of sturgeon found only in the Caspian and Black Sea', 'one of the highest priced varieties of caviar, eclipsed in cost only by the Beluga and Ossetra varieties' (W);

- **shashli(c)k** ((< Russ *shashlyk* < Turk *şiş* 'spit, skewer') '(in Asia and Eastern Europe) a mutton kebab' (COD), **shashli(c)k** (< Russ *shashlyk* < Turk) 'a dish consisting of marinated cubes of lamb or beef grilled or roasted on a spit, often with slices of eggplant, onion, and tomato; shish kebab' (AHDEL), **shas(h)lik** (1876 < Russ *shashlyk*, probably modification of Crimean Tatar *şişlik*) 'kebab, cubes of meat (as lamb or beef) marinated and cooked with vegetables usually on a skewer' (MWOD), **shashlik** (< Russ *shashlyk* < Crimean Turk *sislik*) 'a type of eastern European and Asian shish kebab with meat (often lamb or beef) that is usually marinated and garnished with herbs and spices' (W), **shashlik** / **shashlyk** (< Russ *shashlyk* < Crimean Tatar *şişliq*) 'a form of skewered dish popular throughout the former Soviet Union, and Mongolia' (W);

- **shchi** (< Russ) 'a type of Russian cabbage soup' (COD), **shchi** (< Russ *shchi*) 'a type of cabbage soup', 'a soup with cabbage as the primary ingredient' (W);

- **smetana** (< Russ *smetat* 'to sweep together, to collect') 'a sour cream, frequently in *smetana sauce*', 'a Russian loanword in English for a dairy product, that is produced by souring heavy cream' (W);

- **vareniki** / **varenyky** (< Russ *varenyy* 'boiled things') 'a popular Ukrainian dish of square or crescent-shaped dumplings of unleavened dough, stuffed with sauerkraut, cheese, mashed potatoes, cabbage, and meat', 'a kind of stuffed dumpling associated with Ukrainian cuisine' (W);

- **vodka** (< Russ, diminutive of *voda* 'water') 'an alcoholic spirit of Russian origin made by distillation of rye, wheat, or potatoes' (COD), **vodka** (1802 < Russ *vodka* 'little water' < Russ *voda* 'water') (OED), **vodka** (< Rus diminutive of *voda* 'water') 'an alcoholic liquor originally distilled from fermented wheat mash but now also made from a mash of rye, corn, or potatoes' (AHDEL), **vodka** (~ 1803 < Russ *voda* 'water') 'a colourless liquor of neutral spirits distilled from a mash (as of rye or wheat' (MWOD), **vodka** (< Russ *vodka* diminutive of *voda* 'water') 'an alcoholic liquor distilled from fermented wheat mash, but now also made from a mash of rye, corn, or potatoes', 'a distilled beverage' (W).

## 34.2. INDIRECTLY BORROWED CUISINE RUSSIANISMS

There are 2 (7%) *cuisine Russianism* borrowed from Russian through Yiddish:

- **blintz** (1903 < Yiddish *blintze* < Russ *blinyets*, diminutive of *blin* ‘pancake’) (OED), **blintze** (< Yiddish *blintze* < Russ *blinets* ‘little pancake’) ‘a thin rolled pancake filled with cheese or fruit and then fried or baked’ (COD), **blintz(e)** (< Yiddish *blintse* < Beloruss *blintsy*, pl. of *blinets*, diminutive of *blin* ‘pancake’ < Old Russian *mlinŭ*, *blinŭ*) ‘a thin, rolled blin, usually filled with cottage cheese, that is folded and then sautéed or baked and often served with sour cream’ (AHDEL), **blintz(e)** (< Yiddish *blintse*, of Slavic origin) ‘a thin usually wheat-flour pancake folded to form a casing (as for cheese or fruit) and then sautéed or baked’ (MWOD), **blintz(e) (blin)** (< Yiddish *blintse* < *blin* < Old Slavic *mlin* ‘to mill’) ‘a thin rolled pancake, similar to a crepe, that is usually filled with cottage cheese, then folded and sautéed or baked, and often served with sour cream’, ‘a thin pancake [...] somewhat similar to a crêpe with main difference being the fact that yeast is always used in blini, but not used in crêpes’ (W);

- **knish** (< Yiddish < Russ *knish* / *knysh* ‘bun, dumpling’) ‘a baked or fried dumpling of flaky dough with a savoury filling’ (COD).

## 34.3. (IN)DIRECTLY BORROWED CUISINE RUSSIANISMS

There are 5 (19%) *cuisine Russianisms* indicated as both directly and indirectly borrowed from Russian:

- **borscht** (1884 < Russ *borshch* ‘cow parsnip’, which was an original recipe ingredient) (OED), **borscht** (< Russ *borshch*) ‘a Russian or Polish soup made with beetroot’ (OED), **borsch(t) / borsht** (< Yiddish *borsht* < Russ *borshch* ‘cow parsnip (the original base of the soup), borscht’) ‘A beet soup served hot or cold, usually with sour cream’ (AHDEL), **borsch(t)** (1808 < Yiddish *borsht*, Ukrainian & Russian *borshch*) ‘a soup made primarily of beets and served hot or cold often with sour cream’ (MWOD), **borscht / borshch / borsht** (< Russ *borshch* ‘cow parsnip’ the original base of the soup) ‘A beet soup served hot or cold, usually with sour cream’, ‘a vegetable soup from Eastern Europe’ (W);

- **koumiss** (16<sup>th</sup> century, < Tatar *kumiz*) ‘a fermented liquid prepared from mare’s milk, used as a drink and as medicine by Asian nomads’ (COD), **k(o)umiss n.** (< Rus *kumys* < Old Rus *komyzŭ*) ‘the fermented milk of a mare or camel, used as a beverage by certain peoples of western and central Asia’ (AHDEL), **k(o)umiss** (1607 < Russ *kumys* < Turk) ‘a beverage of fermented mare’s milk made originally by the nomadic peoples of central Asia’ (MWOD), **k(o)umiss / kumis / kymys / kymyz** (< Turk *kimiz*) ‘a fermented dairy product traditionally made from mare’s milk’ (W);

- **pirogi** (1854 < Yiddish < Russ *pirogi* ‘pies’ < Turk) (OED), **perogi / pierogi / pirogi** (< Pol *pieróg*, Ukr *pyrih*) ‘dough dumplings stuffed with a filling such as potato or cheese’ (COD), **pirog** (< Russ) ‘a Russian pie’ (COD), **pirog** (< Russ *pirog* < *pir* ‘feast’ < OCS *pirŭ*) ‘a large, flat, usually square or rectangular Russian pastry filled with finely chopped meat or cabbage often mixed with chopped hard-boiled eggs’ (AHDEL), **pi(e)rogi** (1811 < Pol *pierogi* ‘dumplings’) ‘a case of dough filled with a savoury filling (as of meat, cheese, or vegetables) and cooked by boiling and then pan-frying’ (MWOD), **perogi / perogy / pirogen / piroghi / pirogi / pirogi / pirohi / piroshke / pyrohy** (< Russ *pirogi* ‘pies’ < Proto-Slavic *\*pir* ‘festivity’) ‘a dough dumpling stuffed with filling such as potato or cheese, typically served with onions or sour cream’, ‘the name most

commonly used in English speaking areas to refer to a variety of Slavic semicircular (or, in some cuisines, square) boiled dumplings of unleavened dough stuffed with varying ingredients' (W);

- **sirniki** / **syrniki** (< Ukr *sirniki* < *sir* 'cheese', < Russ *syrniki* < *syr* 'cheese') 'fried curd fritters, garnished with sour cream, jam, honey, and sometimes apple sauce', 'fried quark cheese pancakes, garnished with sour cream, jam, honey, or apple sauce' (W);

- **solyanka** (< Russ and Ukr *solyanka*) 'a type of Russian and Ukrainian thick and spicy soup', 'a thick, spicy and sour soup in the Russian and Ukrainian cuisine' (W).

All these English cuisine Russianisms have come into the English language over a long period of time: between 1500 and 1600, 3 words (21%): **koumiss**, **kvass** and **sevruga**; between 1600 and 1700, 1 (7%): **k(o)umiss**; between 1700 and 1800, no word (0%); between 1800 and 1900, 7 (51%): **borscht** / **borshch** / **borsht**, **coulbiac**, **kasha**, **kefir**, **pirogi**, and **shashlik**; between 1900 and 2000, 3 (21%): **blintz**, **pav** / **pavlova** / **Pavlova**, and **piroshki** / **pirozhki** (Figure 2).

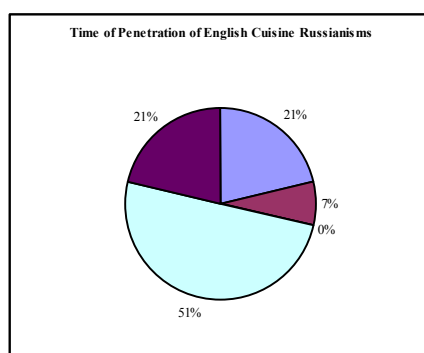


Figure 2. Time of penetration of English cuisine Russianisms:  
1500-1600: 3; 1600-1700: 1; 1700-1800: 0; 1800-1900: 7; 1900-2000: 3.

As for their origin, English cuisine Russianisms come from: Russian (21): **blini(s)** / **bliny**, **blintz**, **borscht** / **borshch** / **borsht**, **coulbiac**, **kasha**, **k(o)umiss**, **kvass**, **okroshka**, **pashka**, **pav** / **pavlova** / **Pavlova**, **piroshki** / **pirozhki**, **sbiten**, **sevruga**, **shchi**, **sirniki** / **syrniki**, **smetana**, **solyanka**, **vareniki** / **varenyky**, **vodka**; Turkish or Turkic (5): **balyk**, **kefir**, **k(o)umiss**, **pirogi**, **shashli(c)k**; Ukrainian (3): **borsch(t)**, **sirniki** / **syrniki**, **solyanka**; Slavic (2): **blintz(e)** (**blin**), **pirogi**; Tatar (2): **pelmeni**, **shashli(c)k**; English (1): **bitok**; Polish (1): **pirogi**; Proto-Indo-European (1): **medovukha** (Figure 3).

### 35. DISCUSSION

Most of the dated English cuisine Russianisms (7) came into English in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, when Russia became one of the Great Powers of Europe due to its significant territorial gains and to the significant reforms made by Alexander II.

As expected, most English cuisine Russianisms (21) have a Russian origin, with an important share of Russian-related language sources (Ukrainian, Slavic, and Polish). It is surprising that one of them has an English origin, being borrowed into English through French (**bitok**).

According to *Wikipedia*, Jewish emigrants played an important role in the diffusion of some of the English cuisine Russianisms. Thus: **blintzes** were popularized in the USA by

Jewish immigrants who used them in their cuisine. While not part of any specific religious rite in Judaism, *blintzes* are stuffed with a cheese filling and then fried in oil are served on holidays such as Chanukah (as oil played a pivotal role in the miracle of the Chanukah story) and Shavuot (when dairy dishes are traditionally served); *borscht* / *borshch* / *borsht* made its way into North American cuisine and English vernacular by way of Jewish, Polish, Russian, Ukrainian, and other immigrants, the name itself being considered to be of Ashkenazi Jewish descent, and first used in Yiddish as early as 18<sup>th</sup> century (the Jewish family name *Borszczewski* may once have referred to the borscht cooks in person); *kasha* in modern American English is commonly restricted to roasted whole-grain buckwheat or buckwheat groats, a common filling for a *knish*, a usage probably originated with Jewish immigrants, as did the form *kashi* ('porridges').

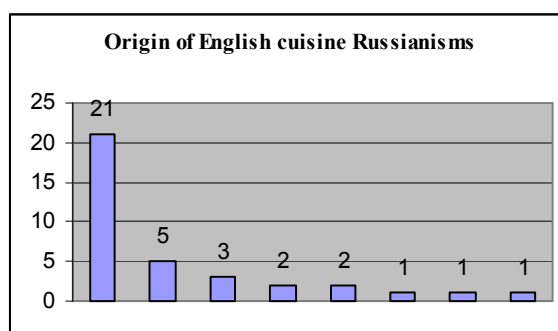


Figure 3. Origin of English cuisine Russianisms:

1 – Russian, 2 – Turkish, 3 – Ukrainian, 4 – Slavic, 5 – Tatar, 6 – English, 7 – Polish, 8 – Proto-Indo-European

*Pierogi* are widespread in Canada and the United States, having been popularized primarily by Slavic immigrants. They are particularly common in areas with large Slavic-derived populations, such as Chicago, western and north-eastern Pennsylvania, the provinces of Manitoba, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Toronto, Ontario. If *pierogi* at first were a family food among immigrants as well as being served in ethnic restaurants, in the post-World War II era, freshly cooked *pierogi* became a staple of fundraisers by ethnic churches and, by the 1960s, they were a common supermarket item in the frozen food aisles in many parts of the United States and Canada, maintaining their place in the grocery aisles to this day.

*Borscht* / *borshch* / *borsht* occurs nowadays in two compounds used in American English due to its popularity in the cuisine of predominantly Jewish hotels: *borscht belt* (the 1930s) 'region of predominantly Jewish resorts in and around the Catskill Mountains of New York' (OED), *borscht belt* or *borscht circuit* (1936) 'the theatres and nightclubs associated with the Jewish summer resorts in the Catskills' (MWOD), *borscht belt* or *borscht circuit* 'Informal the predominantly Jewish resort hotels of the Catskill Mountains' (AHDEL). *Vodka* also occurs in *vodka martini* (1948) 'a martini made with vodka instead of gin' (MWOD).

To our knowledge, there is no important change in the meaning of English cuisine Russianisms, except for the term *pierogi* which is often used to describe, in the United States and Canada, all kinds of Eastern European dumplings, regardless of the shape, size or filling.

We have inventoried a single connotation, *kasha* ‘a beige colour resembling buckwheat groats’ (W).

As expected, there are some changes in the recipes used in the English-speaking world, which might infirm our statement concerning the absence of changes in meaning. Thus: raspberry is a popular topping of *pav* / *pavlova* / *Pavlova* in the U.K., with the tartness of raspberries contrasting with the sweetness of sugar, while bilberry or blueberry is an ingredient of sweet *vareniki* in North America

### 36. CONCLUSIONS

Our hypothesis that *cuisine Russianisms* must have preserved both their form and meaning since they stay for Russian notions that describe Russian realities is confirmed, as shown by the transliterations above.

*English cuisine Russianisms* are not numerous compared to other Russianisms, but they are a colourful component of cookbooks and restaurant menus as ‘necessity loans’ due to the translation of the great classical Russian novels. Though they have been part of the English language for a long period of time, they still sound ‘foreign’ to native English-speaking people, which explains the small number of compounds (only *borscht* / *borshch* / *borsh* and *vodka* occur in such compounds) and the total absence of derivatives.

We suggest restaurant owners to introduce, in their menus, short presentations of less popular dishes to renew their menus, as do Lithuanian traditional restaurants:

“The word *borș* is used in Romanian to refer to a kind of sour *soup* made from meat and/or vegetables with fermented wheat bran. To refer to the traditional *borscht* made from beetroot, Romanians generally say *borș rusec* (Russ *borscht*) or *borș de sfeclă* (E *beetroot borscht*). In Romanian cuisine, *borș* is the name for any sour soup prepared usually with fermented wheat bran (also called *borș*), which gives it a sour taste. One ingredient that is required in all recipes by the Romanian tradition is lovage, whose leaves give the soup a special taste, enhancing the palate experience, making the Romanian *borș* so appreciated by international travellers.” (After *Wikipedia*)

### REFERENCES

*Merriam Webster Online*. (2008). [Online: <http://www.merriam-webster.com>] (MWO)

*Online Etymology Dictionary*. (2001). [Online: <http://www.etymonline.com>]. (OED)

*Russianism*. [Online: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russianism>] (W)

Soukhanov, A. H. (2008). *The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (AHDEL)

*The Concise Oxford Dictionary 11th Edition (PC)*. (2004). (COD)

GEORGETA RAȚĂ

119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, Romania

# IMAGE GÉO-LINGUISTIQUE DE LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE (SERBIE) DANS UN CONTEXTE D'ANTHROPO-GÉOGRAPHIE ET DE LEXIQUE DIALECTAL DIFFÉRENTIEL

STANISLAV STANKOVIĆ

*Faculté de Philosophie de l'Université de Priština, Kosovska Mitrovica, Serbie  
Institut de la langue serbe ASSA, Belgrade, Serbie  
luznjakvl@sezampro.rs*

SELENA STANKOVIĆ

*Faculté de Philosophie de l'Université de Priština, Kosovska Mitrovica, Serbie  
selena972@ptt.rs*

## RÉSUMÉ

*Les trois sous-dialectes de Prizren et du Timok du serbe se rencontrent dans la région de Vlasotince (République de Serbie): les parlers de Lužnica, de Zaplanje et de la Morava du Sud. Les agglomérations de Lužnica et de Zaplanje appartiennent aux aires de migrations faibles de cette région, tandis qu'aux aires de migrations fortes appartiennent les agglomérations sud-moraviennes. Cette répartition de la population géographiquement (et historiquement) déterminée a créé les conditions pour la formation de zones psychiques, culturelles et sous-dialectales spécifiques, ainsi que pour le développement de couches lexicales distinctives. Dans nos recherches, une série de sept isolexes principales différentielles est suivie sur le terrain à l'aide de la méthodologie et des techniques de la géographie linguistique et présentée sur des cartes dialectologiques. Un certain nombre d'unités lexicales distinctives apparaît dans les fonds lexicaux des types de parler de Vlasotince, tant dans la sphère du lexique dialectal général que dans celle du lexique dialectal spécial, par suite de différents traits anthropo-géographiques des représentants des idiomes locaux de Prizren et du Timok sur le territoire de Vlasotince.*

**Mots-clés:** *Recherches anthropo-géographiques et dialectologiques; Région de Vlasotince (Serbie); Types de parler; Couche lexicale différentielle*

## 37. GÉOGRAPHIE ET POPULATION DE LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE

### 37.1. POSITION GÉOGRAPHIQUE DE LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE

La région de Vlasotince s'étend sur le territoire des bassins central et inférieur de la rivière Vlasina dans les contrées sud-est de la République de Serbie. Cette région serbe comprend deux ensembles naturels: la partie supérieure ou est, qui englobe ses contrées montagneuses; et la partie inférieure ou ouest, qui est située sur la côte est de la vallée de Leskovac et de Vlasotince, sur les pentes ouest de Kruševica et sur les contreforts nord-ouest d'Ostrozub. De nos jours en Serbie, le terme de *région de Vlasotince* sous-entend le territoire de la commune actuelle de Vlasotince, et non pas le territoire de l'ancien district de Vlasotince qui était considérablement plus large et qui englobait plusieurs

agglomérations de Gornje Zaplanje, une partie de la Lužnica, la région de Crna Trava, celle de Grdelica, ainsi que quelques villages sud-moraviens. Aujourd'hui, les contrées nord de Vlasotince côtoient le Zaplanje; celles de l'Est s'étendent jusqu'à la Lužnica; celles du Sud côtoient la région de Crna Trava et la région de Vlasina [ctd. les zones géographiques nord de la vieille vase (du sol marécageux) de Vlasina (de Vlasotince) ou de la source de la rivière Vlasina, et aujourd'hui celles du lac Vlasina], ainsi que celle de Predejane et celle de Grdelica; tandis que les contrées ouest donnent sur la région de Leskovac (v. Kostić 1953: 119-127 et 1954: 33-45; Milojević 1924: 33-35).

Les villages installés dans le bassin central de la rivière Vlasina sont: Predánča (P)<sup>1</sup>, Kózilo (Kz), Jávorje (J), Zlátićevo (Zl), Górnji Deján (GD), Rájćevo (R), Křstićevo (Kr), Jakóvljevo (Jk), Dólnjo Gáre (DG), Tégošnica (T), Stranjévo (Snj), Dobroviš (Db), Čúovo (Č), Jézdine (Jz), Górnji Orá (GO), Lukačćevo (Lk), Pržójne (Pr), Aléksine (A), Svóde (Sv), Bórin Dól (BD), Zavídince (Z), Górnji Prisján (GP), Dólnji Prisján (DP), Komaríca (Km), Rámna Dubráva (RD). Les agglomérations situées dans le bassin inférieur de la rivière Vlasina et sur la rive droite de la rivière Rupska (Kozaračka) sont: Stájkovce (St), Konópnica (Kn), Rájno Pólje (RP), Skrápež (Sk), Šišáva (Š), Dólnja Lómnica (DL), Górnja Lómnica (GL), Crnátovo (C), Cína Bára (CB), Srédor (Sr), Gúnjetina (Gnj), Lípovica (Lp), Bílo (Bl), Dólnji Deján (DD), Krúševica (Kš), Boljára (Blj), Manastirište (M), Mánkićevo (Mk), Rámni Dél (RDI), Rámna Góra (RG), Górnja Lópušnja (GLp), Stréškovac (Sš), Ostřc (Os), Dólnja Lópušnja (DLp), Samárnica (S), Brézovica (Br), Jástrebac (Js), Gradište (Gr), Dádince (D), Kozáre (K), Kúkavica (Kk), Orášje (O), Ládovica (L), Prílepac (Pl), Glóžane (G), Bátulovce (B)<sup>2</sup> (v. Trifunoski 1975: 3-27; ainsi que Carte LR). Les agglomérations situées dans la partie montagneuse de la région de Vlasotince sont de type dispersé, elles sont vastes et comprennent plusieurs groupes d'habitations. Les villages les plus caractéristiques de ce type sont: Dobroviš, Jakovljevo, Svode, Gornji Dejan et Kruševica. Dans la région de la Morava du Sud et dans la vallée de Leskovac et de Vlasotince, les villages ont des rues bien tracées à population dense. Quelques-uns comptent même plus de mille habitants, par opposition à bien des villages montagneux désertés de Vlasotince, tels sont: Stajkovce, Gložane, Ladovica, Orašje, Batulovce, Konopnica, Šišava, Manastirište et Boljare.

Là où la rivière Vlasina débouche des gorges montagneuses dans la vallée de Leskovac et de Vlasotince, se trouve la ville de Vlasotince, jadis chef-lieu de district, actuellement chef-lieu de commune. En comparaison avec les villes voisines, celle-ci jouit d'un climat plus agréable – d'un microclimat curial (Kostić 1953: 122). Au XIX<sup>e</sup> s. et dans la première moitié du XX<sup>e</sup> s., Vlasotince s'est développée en une commune urbaine et un centre important pour l'économie, l'administration, la culture et l'éducation de la Serbie du sud-est. Comme Milan Đ. Milićević l'a écrit à la fin du XIX<sup>e</sup> s., la ville de Vlasotince jouait non seulement un rôle considérable pour le commerce et les métiers, dans le Royaume de Serbie et dans le département de Niš, mais aussi un rôle majeur pour l'administration, l'éducation et la communication. En 1879, Vlasotince comptait 519 foyers et 2.626 habitants. A cette époque, le district de Vlasotince était composé d'une ville et de cinquante et un villages, il comptait 4.150 foyers et 27.763 habitants (Rakić 1880: 595-596; Milićević 1884: 115-117).

### **37.2. ORIGINE DE LA POPULATION DE LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE**

Il n'existe pas de données scientifiques suffisamment avérées sur l'origine de la population de la région de Vlasotince. Il est probable qu'ici, comme sur le territoire plus



vaste des Balkans, des changements ethniques fondamentaux se sont déroulés au début et vers la fin du Moyen-Âge, d'après l'historiographie serbe. Ces changements ont débuté par l'immigration des Slaves, notamment à la fin du VI<sup>e</sup> s. et se sont terminés par l'invasion des Turcs au XIV<sup>e</sup> s. (Cvijić 1987: 107). Les courants de migration dominants dans cette partie de la Serbie étaient, durant des siècles, le courant du Vardar et de la Morava du Sud, celui du Chopluk (de Znepolje et de Vlasina) et celui du Kosovo. Dans les ouvrages ethnographiques et historiques, on mentionne également quelques groupes autochtones et quelques groupes dinariques.<sup>3</sup> De nos jours, au cours de la première décennie du XXI<sup>e</sup> s. le territoire de la commune de Vlasotince compte à peu près 34.000 habitants, les Serbes de confession orthodoxe représentent au-delà de 98% de population.

D'après un recensement de la population en 1953, les habitants de la région de Vlasotince étaient au nombre de 35.355, en 1961 il y en avait 35.625. Ces années-là, la population rurale représentait 83% et la population urbaine 17% de la population sur le territoire de la commune actuelle de Vlasotince. Pourtant, bien des agglomérations, situées dans la partie montagneuse de l'ex-district de Vlasotince, sont restées presque désertes alors que le nombre de la population urbaine s'est vu tripler après des migrations soudaines pour raisons économiques au cours des trois dernières décennies du XX<sup>e</sup> s. Aujourd'hui, Vlasotince compte environ 17.000 habitants, si bien que, sur le territoire de la commune de Vlasotince, le rapport en nombre entre la population rurale et la population urbaine s'est égalisé<sup>4</sup>.

## **2. LES SOUS-DIALECTES DE PRIZREN ET DU TIMOK ET LEUR AIRE DANS LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE**

### **2.1. LES PARLERS DE PRIZREN ET DU TIMOK DANS LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE**

Les parlers de Prizren et du Timok occupent une place tout à fait particulière dans le domaine des systèmes dialectaux serbes grâce à deux groupes de distinctions, à un certain nombre d'archaïsmes, ainsi qu'à une série d'innovations qui ne marquent pas les autres dialectes serbes (Ivić 1985: 110). Ils sont d'une grande importance pour l'histoire de la langue serbe, la balkanologie et la linguistique comparée slave grâce à leur genèse et à leurs traits structuraux. Néanmoins, aujourd'hui sur ce territoire dialectal, on remarque l'altération précipitée des idiomes locaux. Dans le parler d'une grande majorité de la population de Prizren et du Timok, ainsi que dans de maints parlers serbes, des spécificités dialectales sont en train de complètement disparaître dans les conditions sociales les plus diverses, sous l'influence directe de facteurs extralinguistiques.

Un linguiste serbe, A. Belić a divisé tous les parlers de la Serbie est et sud en trois groupes: le parler du Timok et de la Lužnica, celui de Svrljig et de Zaplanje et celui de Prizren et de la Morava du Sud (Belić 1905: XXXIX-LXIX). Le premier embrasse les parties est de cette zone dialectale, celui de Prizren et de la Morava du Sud s'étend sur ses côtes ouest et sud-ouest, tandis que le parler de Svrljig et de Zaplanje occupe un espace très étroit s'étendant entre ces deux complexes sous-dialectaux. Sur le territoire de Vlasotince, se rencontrent tous les trois sous-dialectes mentionnés de Prizren et du Timok, ctd. le parler de Lužnica, celui de Zaplanje et le parler sud-moravien (Carte LR).

Une partie des parlers du territoire de Vlasotince se sont trouvés sujets de vraies recherches dialectologiques dès le commencement même de l'étude organisée des dialectes serbes. Les premiers qui ont incontestablement contribué à la connaissance de la

réalité dialectale sont O. Broch et A. Belić. Leurs études portant sur le caractère et les frontières des parlers sur les territoires de la Serbie sud-est ont définitivement démontré qu'il faudrait consacrer des recherches particulières à une différenciation intérieure des sous-dialectes de Prizren et du Timok sur le territoire de Vlasotince (Broch 1903; Belić 1905, 1911, v. aussi Carte AB). C'est ce qu'ont aussi indiqué les résultats des recherches ultérieures de l'aire dialectale de Vlasotince. Ce sont les résultats auxquels est parvenu St. Stanković (1992, 1994, 1997, 2000, 2003 et 2008) pendant les dernières années du XX<sup>e</sup> s. et au cours de la première décennie du XXI<sup>e</sup> s.

## **2.2. L'AIRE DES PARLERS DE PRIZREN ET DU TIMOK DANS LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE**

Dans les dernières recherches des parlers de la région de Vlasotince (Stanković 2008: 67–78), les frontières des sous-dialectes de Prizren et du Timok sont définies suivant la répartition des principaux discriminants sous-dialectaux de Vlasotince: des isophones, des isotones, des isomorphes et des isolexes. Le faisceau d'isoglosses distinctives de Zaplanje a démontré que, en direction du parler de Lužnica ainsi qu'en direction de celui de la Morava du Sud, les frontières de l'aire de Zaplanje se sont modifiées sur ce territoire par rapport à l'image géo-linguistique présente jusque-là dans la littérature dialectologique (comparer à Broch 1903: 1-13, 235-236, 240, 325-336 et à Belić 1905: XXXIX-L, XCI-CV; comparer Carte AB à Carte LR). En fait, dans la présente recherche, les frontières sous-dialectales, définies par Belić, des parlers de Prizren et du Timok – de Vlasotince dans le sud-est de la Serbie – sont précisées et présentées avec des modifications sur la carte linguistique réduite.

Rassemblés alors sur soixante-deux points, les matériaux dialectaux considérables (Stanković 2008: 71-74) ont aidé à déterminer la frontière est du parler de Zaplanje sur le territoire de Vlasotince – qui est en même temps la frontière ouest du parler de Lužnica – à partir du confluent de Tegošnica dans la rivière Vlasina dans le sud de ce territoire, et englobant les villages de Tegošnica et de Stranjevo. Cette frontière longe la rive droite de Vlasina, elle passe par le village de Gornji Ora et le village d'Aleksine jusqu'au village de Svođe, et ensuite elle se détourne en direction du nord en esquivant le village de Borin Dol sur la côte ouest; de là elle continue à longer la rive gauche de Pusta reka et elle surgit, entre le village de Zavidince d'un côté et deux villages nommés Prisjane de l'autre, dans le village de Gornje Zaplanje. La frontière ouest de l'idiome de Zaplanje – représentant à la fois la frontière est du parler sud-moravien – part de la source de la rivière Bistrica au Sud, puis longeant la rivière Rastovnica, à l'est du village de Ramna Gora, cette frontière descend brusquement dans la vallée de Vlasina, d'où elle se dirige vers le nord en suivant la ligne Kruševica – Crnatovo – Gornja Lomnica – Sredor – Gunjetina et elle débouche à Gornje Zaplanje, à l'ouest de l'agglomération de Komarica (Carte LR).

Tous les trois parlers de Prizren et du Timok existent aujourd'hui à Vlasotince – comme résultat d'élémentaires migrations économiques au cours des dernières décennies du XX<sup>e</sup> s. déjà mentionnées plus haut. Les parties est et nord-ouest de la ville du côté de Zaplanje, Lužnica et la région de Crna Trava, aussi bien que la rive droite de la rivière Vlasina sont habitées en majorité par les représentants du parler de Zaplanje et, en plus petit nombre, par ceux du parler de Lužnica; les autochtones de Vlasotince, les représentants du parler sud-moravien et de la tradition urbaine, vivent dans les parties centrales de la ville; les parties périphériques dans le nord-ouest de cette zone sont

habitées par les Tsiganes qui utilisent l'idiome sud-moravien (avec certaines variantes ou certains éléments du serbe standard) à Vlasotince sur un milieu plus étendu, le milieu de la langue serbe. Les parties ouest et sud-ouest de Vlasotince sont en général habitées par ceux qui sont venus des villages de la Morava du Sud et des agglomérations montagneuses voisines – les représentants du parler sud-moravien. Toutes les zones linguistiques urbaines citées de Vlasotince sont mixtes: chacune d'elles connaît, plus ou moins, tous les trois types de parler: le parler de Lužnica, le parler de Zaplanje et le parler de la Morava du Sud.<sup>5</sup>

### **3. LES MIGRATIONS ET LA RÉPARTITION DES SOUS-DIALECTES DE PRIZREN ET DU TIMOK DANS LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE**

D'après les courants de migration (qui se sont déroulés, en majorité, du sud vers le nord, durant tout le passé historique des Serbes sur le territoire central des Balkans) qui ont déterminé la répartition géographique actuelle des représentants des trois types de parler de Prizren et du Timok dans les parties sud-est de la République de Serbie, la région de Vlasotince, tout comme les autres contrées de la Serbie sud-est, est divisée en aires de migrations faibles et en aires de migrations fortes. Les premières, dans lesquelles l'afflux de population était assez modéré, comprennent les agglomérations de Lužnica et de Zaplanje, tandis que toutes les agglomérations sud-moraviennes de Vlasotince appartiennent aux aires de migrations fortes, où l'on remarque un grand nombre d'immigrants (Cvijić 1987: 127, 131, 134, 436-438; Belić 1905: L-LVI). Les principales recherches des anthropo-géographes serbes ont démontré qu'autrefois, dans ces contrées de la Serbie, quelques changements décisifs s'étaient accomplis quant à la répartition des représentants du dialecte de Prizren et du Timok. Premièrement, la plupart des autochtones n'ont subsisté que sur le territoire de l'idiome de Lužnica. Deuxièmement, en ce temps-là, après la pénétration plus intensive et la colonisation des émigrants des zones sud du centre des Balkans, un nombre important de représentants de l'ancienne couche de la population sud-moravienne s'est retiré de la vallée de la Morava du Sud dans les régions présentes du parler de Zaplanje. Troisièmement, les immigrants ont occupé toutes les contrées de plaines, ils ont prédominé dans la vallée même ainsi que sur la rive gauche de la Morava du Sud (Cvijić 1987a: 114-115, 117-118; Belić 1905: LI-LIII).

Cette répartition de la population (géographiquement et historiquement déterminée) a créé toutes les conditions nécessaires pour une nouvelle formation des zones psychiques, culturelles, et des zones de parler spécifiques de Lužnica, de Zaplanje et de la Morava du Sud sur le territoire de Vlasotince. Comme dans les autres parties du domaine dialectal de Prizren et du Timok, les zones culturelles différentes sont le produit de l'influence directe sur l'homme des facteurs géographiques distinctifs, sur son être psychique et sa culture matérielle et spirituelle (Cvijić 1987: 115-116, 436-438). Les habitats humains, comme l'accentuait Jovan Cvijić lui-même dans ses ouvrages anthropo-géographiques, définissent la manière de vivre des gens, tout d'abord leur potentiel économique, ainsi que leur conception de la vie et de la destinée, leur psychologie et leur culture. C'est pourquoi on peut dire que c'est justement dans la détermination géographique et historique mentionnée des types dialectaux de Prizren et du Timok que l'on trouve les racines de leur individualité linguistique et celles de leurs variantes particulières (v. aussi Belić 1905: XXXIX-LVI; Ivić 2001: 175-177, 186-188).

C'est ainsi qu'on distingue, dans certaines zones culturelles et dialectales de Prizren et du Timok de Vlasotince, des couches lexicales qui ont évolué en tant qu'autochtones,

mais à la fois en tant que différentielles par rapport aux idiomes locaux voisins. La présence géographique ou la fréquence de l'emploi d'un terme local du territoire de Zaplanje peut représenter un discriminant évident par rapport à son aire ou à sa fréquence d'usage sur les emplacements de Lužnica et de la Morava du Sud sur le territoire de Vlasotince. En effet, maints lexèmes notés, et leurs sémèmes, apparaissent comme communs ou, bien, sont partiellement présents dans les deux parlers, en premier lieu dans ceux de Lužnica et de Zaplanje, ou même dans tous les trois types de parler locaux, mais ce sentiment de la propriété, ctd. de l'appartenance d'un certain mot est très divers, si bien que l'emploi même de ce mot, particulièrement dans le parler sud-moravien, est souvent fort restreint et spécifique, ctd. stylistique.

#### 4. L'AIRES DES PRINCIPAUX LEXÈMES DIFFÉRENTIELS DANS LA RÉGION DE VLASOTINCE

Sur le territoire de Vlasotince, les séries distinctives fondamentales des traits dialectaux de Prizren et du Timok comprennent non seulement des isophones, des isotones et des isomorphes différentielles locales (v. aussi Stanković 2008: 71-74), mais aussi une série de sept isolexes de Vlasotince. Ce sont, en fait, les aires locales de distribution des groupes de mots suivants: 1. *máti, máter, mājka, baštá, táta, tátko* (*máti, máter*, et plus rarement *mājka, baštá, táta*, et plus rarement *tátko* dans les parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje; *mājka, tátko* dans le parler sud-moravien); 2. *peráška, másteno jājcé* (*peráška* dans le parler de Lužnica; *másteno jājcé*, et plus rarement *peráška* dans le parler de Zaplanje; *másteno jājcé* dans le parler sud-moravien); 3. *gradína, báča* (*gradína* dans les parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje; *báča* dans le parler sud-moravien); 4. *pasúl, grá* (*pasúl* dans les parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje; *grá* dans le parler sud-moravien); 5. *grsníce, grsničište, konóplje, konopljište* (*grsníce, grsničište* dans les parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje; *konóplje, konopljište* dans le parler sud-moravien); 6. *vrévim, govórim, pričam, zbórim* (*vrévim, govórim* dans les parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje; *prirečam, zbórim* dans le parler sud-moravien); 7. *ókam, vikam* (*ókam, vikam* dans le parler de Lužnica; *vikam, ókam* dans le parler de Zaplanje; *vikam* dans le parler sud-moravien). Toutes les isolexes sont suivies sur le terrain à l'aide des techniques et de la méthodologie courantes de la géographie linguistique et elles sont présentées sur les cartes dialectologiques (Cartes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

Les types sous-dialectaux de Prizren et du Timok sur le territoire de Vlasotince possèdent deux espèces de lexique: l'un qui est autochtone et l'autre qui est étranger. Au début du XX<sup>e</sup> s. Rista T. Nikolić a écrit un petit essai sur le fonds lexical de l'aire dialectale plus large et sur le lexique des types de parler dans les contrées montagneuses de l'ancien district de Vlasotince, il a alors prétendu à juste titre que la base du lexique des régions de Krajište et de Vlasina était serbe (Nikolić 1912: 267-272). Jusqu'à maintenant, la plupart des chercheurs étudiant les parlers de la Serbie sud-est relèvent également une présence notable des couches lexicales empruntées dans le vocabulaire de Prizren et du Timok (Belić 1905: LXXIV; Ivić 1985: 115; Bogdanović 2006: 20-24; et al.). Ainsi, dans les parlers de la Serbie sud-est, à part le fonds originel slave et serbe, on trouve de même des traces et des éléments des fonds du vieux Balkans, du grec, du turc, du roman, du germanique et des mots étrangers (v. Vlajić-Popović 1994: 445-454; Sikimić 1994: 457-464; Stanković 1997: 169; Bogdanović 2006: 19-24; et al.).<sup>6</sup>

**En guise de conclusion.** Dans les fonds lexicaux des types sous-dialectaux de Vlasotince, apparaît un certain nombre d'unités lexicales différentielles, tant dans la sphère du lexique dialectal général que dans celle du lexique dialectal spécial, avant tout par suite des traits anthro-po-géographiques cités des représentants de quelques idiomes locaux de Prizren et du Timok sur le territoire de Vlasotince.

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup>Dans ces parlers l'accent est de type expiratoire et dans ce texte il est indiqué par un signe diacritique – *mđti*.

<sup>2</sup>Les noms des agglomérations sont donnés d'après la prononciation des informateurs. À part les formes citées du type Zlátićevo, Křstićevo, on entend souvent aussi les formes qui sont plus anciennes: Zlátićeve, Křstićeve; l'affixe de dérivation *-ac* apparaît aussi avec la voyelle neutre *ə* (schwa): Jástrebəc, Prílepəc; dans les noms propres de deux membres des agglomérations du type Dólnji Prisján, Rámni Dél, les premiers composants sont présents de même dans les variantes plus récentes: Dónji Prisján, Rávni Dél; le nom du village Čúovo/Čúove est de plus en plus prononcé comme Čúovo dans la variante administrative, et l'on rencontre le toponyme Predánča sous forme de Pradánča, ainsi que sous forme de Prdánča.

<sup>3</sup>Sur l'origine de la population et sur les agglomérations dans la région de Vlasotince voir aussi: Cvijić (1987: 131-132; voir la carte: *L'origine de la population de la Serbie nord*, entre les pages 160 et 161); Nikolić-Stojančević, ctd. Stojančević (1967: 25, 28, 30-31, 33-37; 1984: 251-304; 1987: 85-96); Trifunoski (1975: 3-27); et autres.

<sup>4</sup>Nous avons utilisé des données prises d'ouvrages cités dans la bibliographie ou d'autre littérature mentionnée dans le texte, pour préciser le nombre d'habitants, on a aussi utilisé des données de l'Institut de la statistique de la République de Serbie à Belgrade.

<sup>5</sup>Sur la disparition des traits typiques des dialectes de Prizren et du Timok sous l'influence de facteurs extralinguistiques (écoles, média, etc.), ainsi que sur le contact intéressant entre les idiomes et sur les procès de l'intégration linguistique dans la ville de Vlasotince voir dans Stanković 1997: 167-179.

<sup>6</sup>Sur le corpus lexical de l'aire dialectale plus large voir *Le Dictionnaire du parler de Leskovac* (Mitrović 1984) qui contient à peu près cent mille mots venus des régions de Leskovac, de Vlasotince, de Grdelica et de Crna Trava.

## RÉFÉRENCES BIBLIOGRAPHIQUES

- Belić, A. (1905). *Дијалекти источне и јужне Србије* [*Dialectes des régions est et sud de la Serbie*]. Београд: Српска краљевска академија (Српски дијалектолошки зборник I).
- Belić, A. (1911). *О дијалекатском материјалу О. Броха у књизи: Die Dialekte des südlichsten Serbiens*. [Sur les matériaux dialectaux d'O. Broch dans le livre: Die Dialekte des südlichsten Serbiens]. Београд: Српска краљевска академија (Српски дијалектолошки зборник II).
- Bogdanović, N. (2006). Влахоромански елементи у говорима источне Србије. [Éléments aroumains dans les idiomes de la Serbie est]. *Probleme de filologie slavă XIV*: 19-26. Timișoara: Universitatea de vest din Timișoara, Facultatea de litere, istorie și teologie.

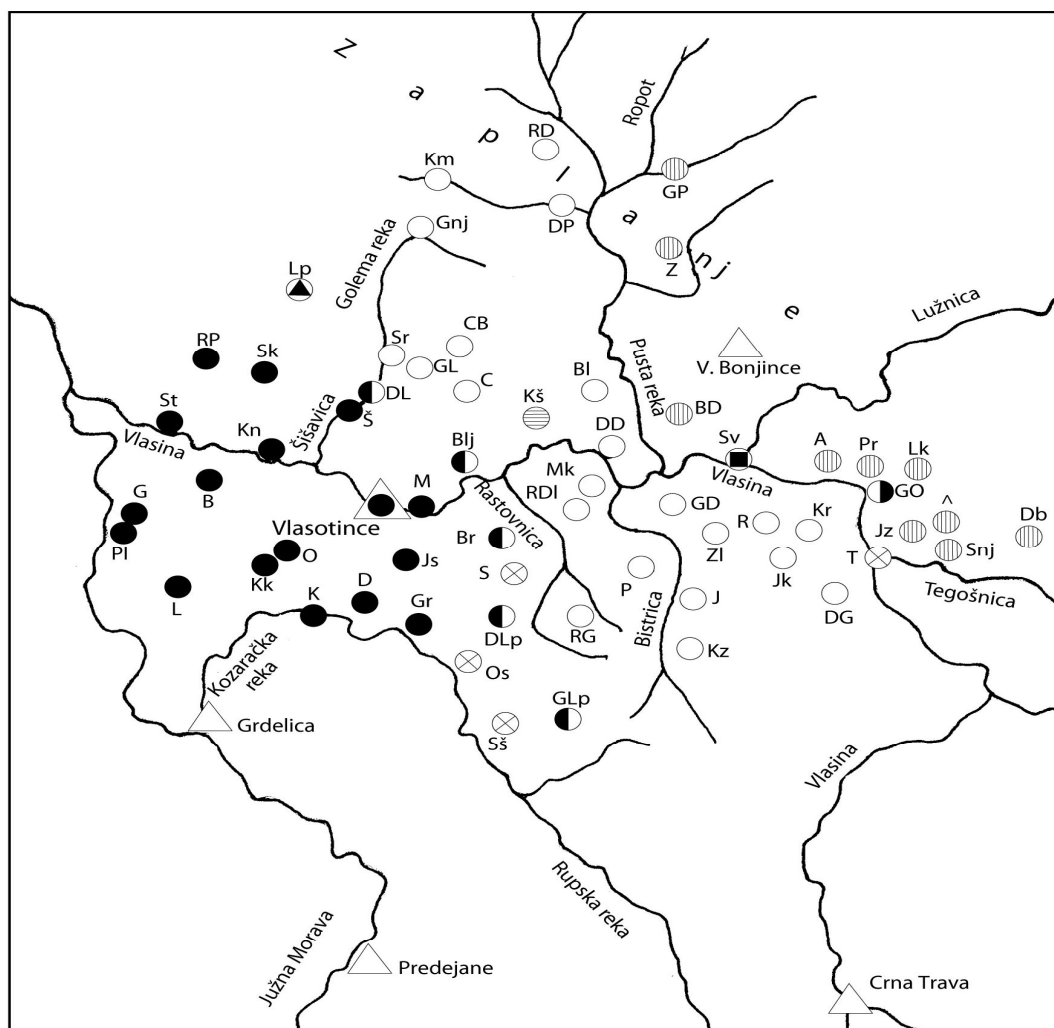
- Broch, O. (1903). *Die Dialekte des südlichsten Serbiens* [Dialectes de la région la plus au sud de la Serbie]. Wien: Schriften der Balkancommission (Linguistische Abtheilung I, Südslavische Dialektstudien III).
- Cvijić, J. (1987). *Балканско полуострво* [Сабрана дела 2] [Péninsule balkanique (Ouvrages recueillis 2)]. Београд: Српска академија наука и уметности – Књижевне новине – Завод за уџбенике и наставна средства.
- Cvijić, J. (1987a). *Антропогеографски списи* [Сабрана дела 4/1] [Écrits anthropo-géographiques (Ouvrages recueillis 4/1)]. Београд: Српска академија наука и уметности – Књижевне новине – Завод за уџбенике и наставна средства.
- Ivić, P. (1985). *Дијалектологија српскохрватског језика (Увод у штокавско наречје)*. [Dialectologie de la langue serbo-croate (Introduction au dialecte štokavien)]. Нови Сад: Матица српска (Друго издање).
- Ivić, P. (2001). Српски дијалекти и њихова класификација (III). [Dialectes serbes et leur classification (III)]. *Зборник Матице српске за филологију и лингвистику XLIV/1-2* : 175-209 [Нови Сад].
- Kostić, M. M. (1953). Власотинце (антропогеографска проучавања) [Vlasotince (étude anthropo-géographique)], *Гласник Српског географског друштва XXXIII/2* : 119-129 [Београд].
- Kostić, M. M. (1954). Привредно-географске прилике и гравитационе сфере Власотинца. [Conditions éconómico-géographiques et sphères de gravitation de Vlasotince]. *Гласник Српског географског друштва XXXIV/1* : 33-47 [Београд].
- Milićević, M. Đ. (1884). *Краљевина Србија (Нови крајеви)*. [Le Royaume de Serbie (De nouvelles régions)]. Београд: Државна штампарија.
- Milojević, S. M. (1924). Лесковачка котлина са околином. (Геоморфолошка проучавања) [Vallée de Leskovac avec ses alentours (Recherches géomorphologiques)]. *Гласник Географског друштва 10* : 17-45 [Београд].
- Mitrović, B. (1984). *Речник лесковачког говора*. [Le Dictionnaire du parler de Leskovac]. Лесковац: Библиотека Народног музеја у Лесковцу 32.
- Nikolić, R. T. (1912). *Крајиште и Власина (Антропогеографска истраживања)*. [Krajište et Vlasina (Recherches anthropo-géographiques)]. Београд: Српска краљевска академија (Српски етнографски зборник XVIII).
- Nikolić-Stojančević, V. (1967). Етничке карактеристике лесковачког краја у време ослобођења од Турака 1877/8. године. [Caractéristiques ethniques de la région de Leskovac pendant la libération des Turcs 1877/8]. *Лесковачки зборник VII* : 25-37 [Лесковац].
- Rakić, M. (1880). Из Нове Србије X (Буковик, Заплање и Лужница). [De la Nouvelle Serbie X (Bukovik, Zaplanje et Lužnica)]. *Отаџбина (Књижевност, наука, друштвени живот) V/17-20* : 592-609 [Београд].
- Sikimić, B. (1994). Слојеви румунских позајмљеница у југоисточној Србији. [Couches des emprunts roumains dans la Serbie sud-est], dans: *Говори призренско-тимочке области и суседних дијалеката*, 457-468. Ниш: Филозофски факултет у Нишу – Институт за српски језик САНУ – Центар за научна истраживања САНУ и Универзитета у Нишу.
- Stanković, St. (1992). Неке од карактеристика власотиначког говора. [Quelques-uns des traits du parler de Vlasotince]. *Задужбина 17* : 4 [Београд].
- Stanković, St. (1994). Треће лице множине презента у говору власотиначког краја. [La troisième personne du pluriel du présent dans le parler de la région de Vlasotince]. *Говори призренско-тимочке области и суседних дијалеката*, 307-315 + la carte.

- Ниш: Филозофски факултет у Нишу – Институт за српски језик САНУ – Центар за научна истраживања САНУ и Универзитета у Нишу.
- Stanković, St. (1997). Градски власотиначки говор(и) — социолингвистички процеси (Опште карактеристике). [Les parler(s) urbain(s) de Vlasotince — processus sociolinguistiques (Caractéristiques générales)]. *О српским народним говорима*, 167-177 + deux cartes. Деспотовац: Дани српскога духовног преображења IV.
- Stanković, St. (2000). Досадашња обавештења о призренско-тимочким говорима на власотиначком земљишту и у суседним областима. [Informations jusqu'à présent apportées sur les parlers de Prizren et du Timok sur le terrain de Vlasotince et dans les régions voisines]. *Српски језик V/1-2* : 761-775 [Београд].
- Stanković, St. (2003). Досадашња обавештења о призренско-тимочким говорима на власотиначком земљишту и у суседним областима (Са белешкама из географије, историје и етнографије). [Informations jusqu'à présent apportées sur les parlers de Prizren et du Timok sur le terrain de Vlasotince et dans les régions voisines (Complétées par les notes géographiques, historiques et ethnographiques)]. *Власотиначки зборник I* : 251-268 [Власотинце].
- Stanković, St. (2008). Ареал заплањскога говора на власотиначком земљишту. [L'aire du parler de Zaplanje sur le terrain de Vlasotince]. *Зборник радова Филозофског факултета (Универзитета у Приштини) XXXVII/2007* : 67-78 [Косовска Митровица].
- Stojančević, V. (1984). Власотинце после ослобођења од Турака (1878-1890) Етнодемографске, социјално-економске и културне карактеристике. [Vlasotince après la libération des Turcs (1878-1890): Caractéristiques ethnodémographiques, socioéconomiques et culturelles]. *Лесковачки зборник XXIV* : 251-304 [Лесковац].
- Stojančević, V. (1987). Етнолошки проблеми проучавања лимитрофних области у залеђу Лесковачке Мораве (Власина и Лужница). [Problèmes ethnologiques de la recherche des zones limitrophes dans l'arrière-pays de la Morava de Leskovac (Vlasina et Lužnica)]. *Лесковачки зборник XXVII* : 85-98 [Лесковац].
- Trifunoski, J. F. (1975). Села и становништво у доњем сливу Власине. [Villages et population dans le bassin inférieur de la rivière Vlasina]. *Лесковачки зборник XIV* [1974] + *Додатак* [1975] : 1-32 [Лесковац].
- Vlajić-Popović, J. (1994). Германизми у говорима југоисточне Србије. [Germanismes dans les parlers de la Serbie sud-est]. *Говори призренско-тимочке области и суседних дијалеката* : 445-456. Ниш: Филозофски факултет у Нишу – Институт за српски језик САНУ – Центар за научна истраживања САНУ и Универзитета у Нишу.

STANISLAV STANKOVIĆ  
 Institut za srpski jezik SANU  
 Knez Mihailova 36  
 11000 Beograd, Srbija

## Carte AB

Les frontières des parlers de Prizren et du Timok dans la région de Vlasotince d'après A. Belić

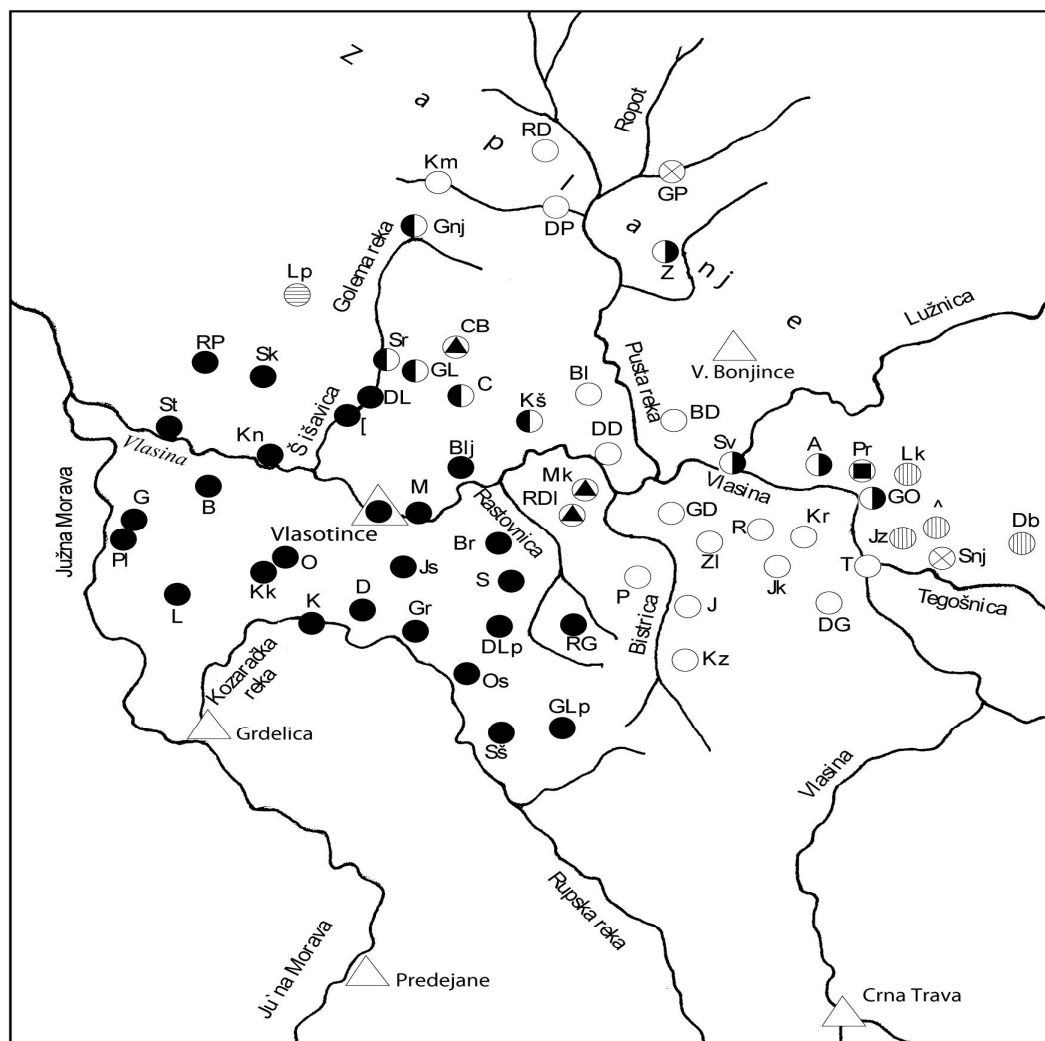


- ▨ le parler de Lužnica
- le parler de Zaplanje
- le parler de la Morava du Sud
- ◐ – à la frontière des parlers de Lužnica et de Zaplanje
- ◑ le parler de Lužnica sur la carte de Belić, ctd. le parler de Zaplanje sur le registre des points de Belić
- ◒ le parler de Zaplanje sur la carte de Belić, ctd. le parler de la Morava du Sud sur le registre des points de Belić
- ▲ le parler de la Morava du Sud sur la carte de Belić, ctd. le parler de Zaplanje sur le registre des points de Belić
- ⊗ l'appartenance indéfinie



## Carte LR

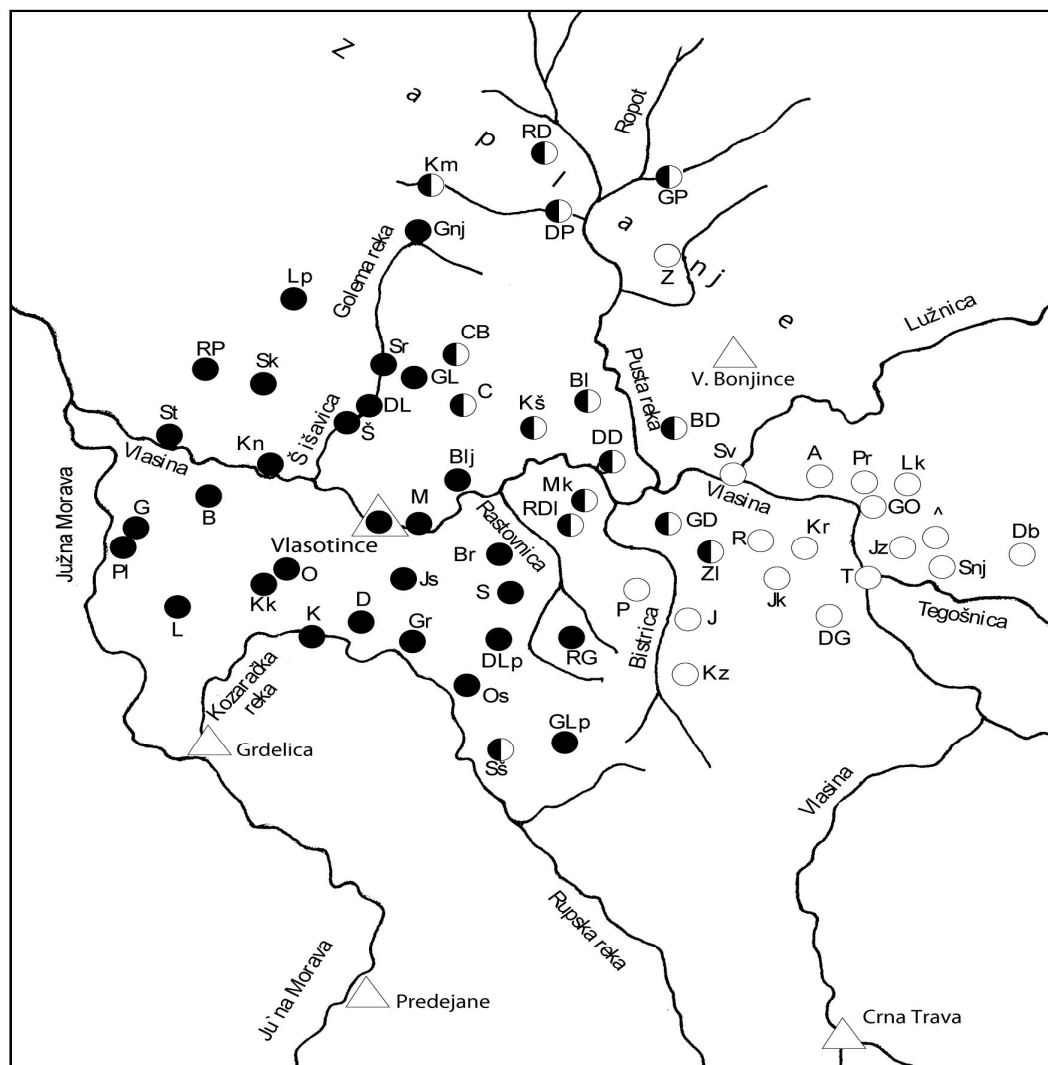
L'aire des parlers de Prizren et du Timok dans la région de Vlasotince d'après les plus récentes recherches



- ▨ – le parler de Lužnica
- ▤ – le parler de Lužnica influencé par celui de Zuplanje
- ◐ – à la frontière des parlers de Lužnica et de Zuplanje
- – le parler de Zuplanje
- ⊗ – le parler de Zuplanje influencé par celui de Lužnica
- ◑ – le parler de Zuplanje influencé par celui de la Morava du Sud
- ◒ – à la frontière des parlers de Zuplanje et de la Morava du Sud
- ▧ – le parler de la Morava du Sud influencé par celui de Zuplanje
- – le parler de la Morava du Sud

# Carte 1

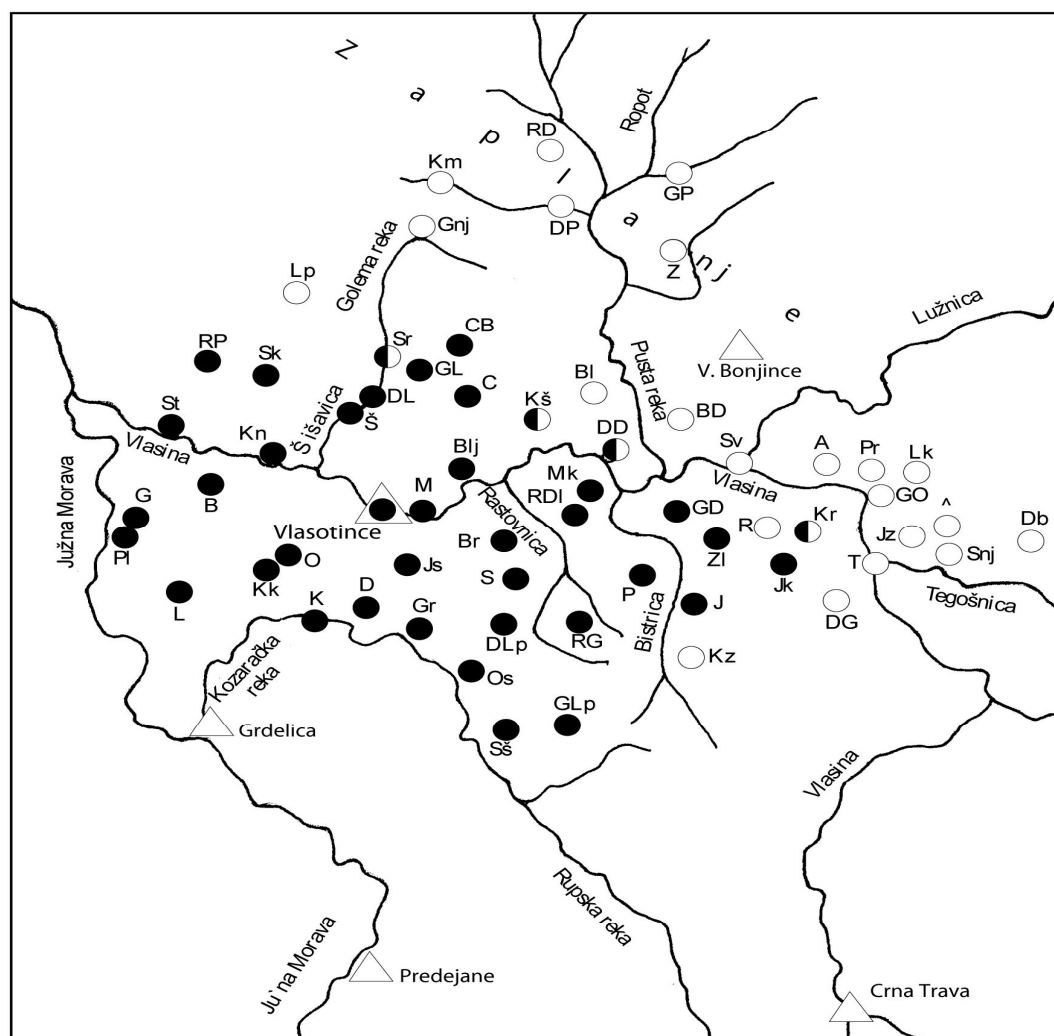
La répartition des lexèmes máti, máter, beštá (táta); májka, tátko



- – máti, máter, beštá (táta)
- – májka, tátko
- ◐ – máti, máter, beštá (táta); májka, tátko

## Carte 2

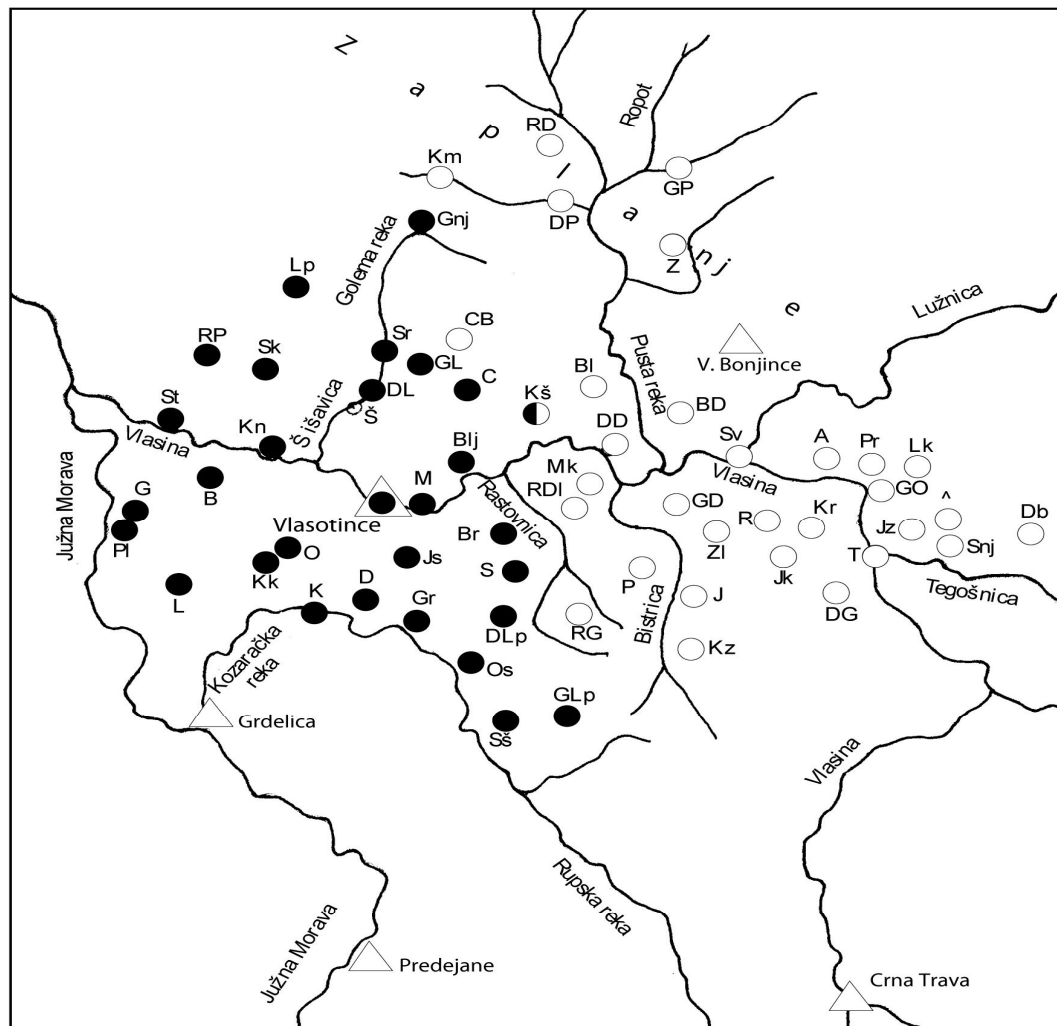
La répartition des lexèmes peráška; mésteno jej cé



- – peráška
- – mésteno jej cé
- ◐ – mésteno jej cé; peráška

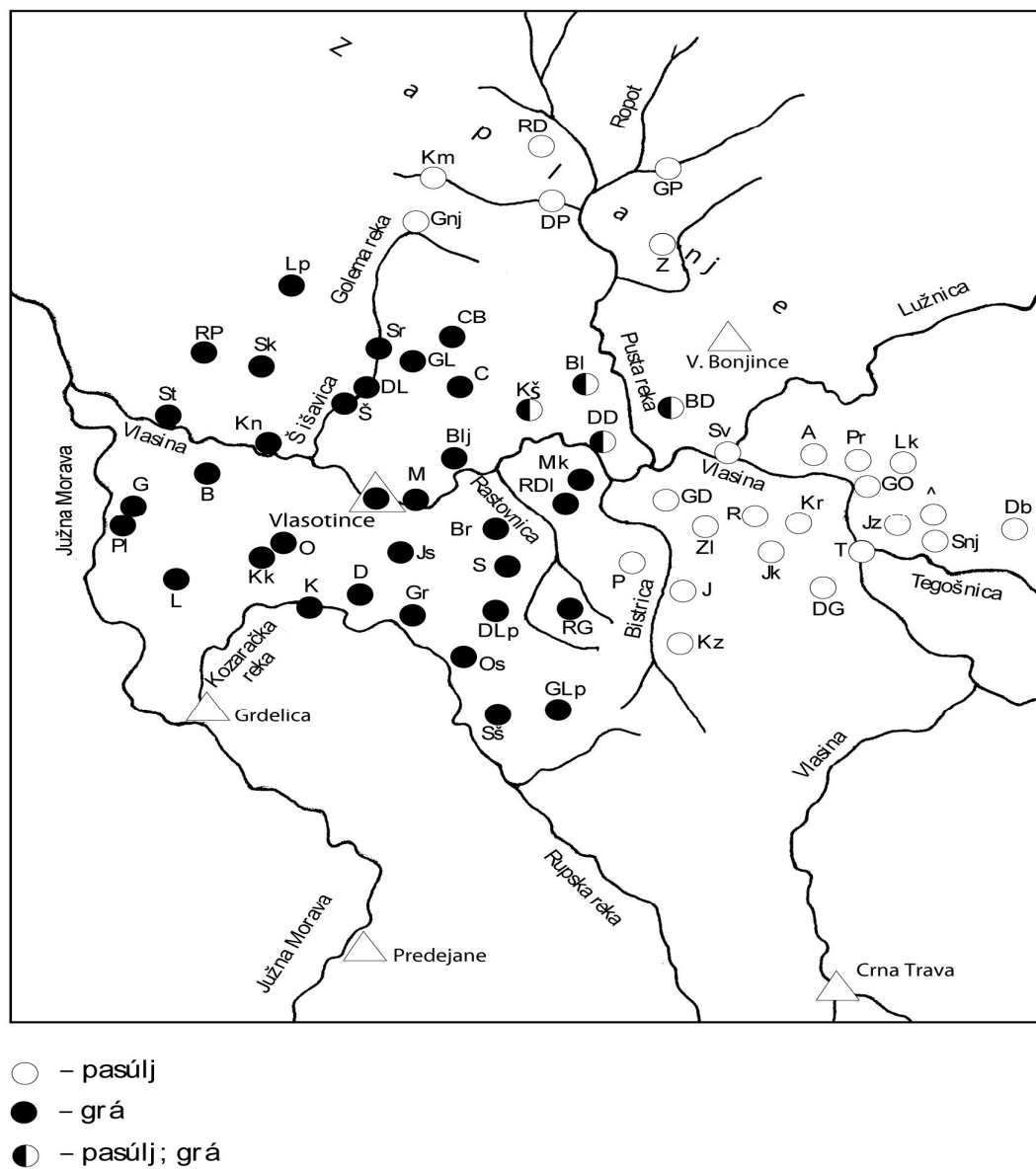
### Carte3

La répartition des lexèmes gradína; báča

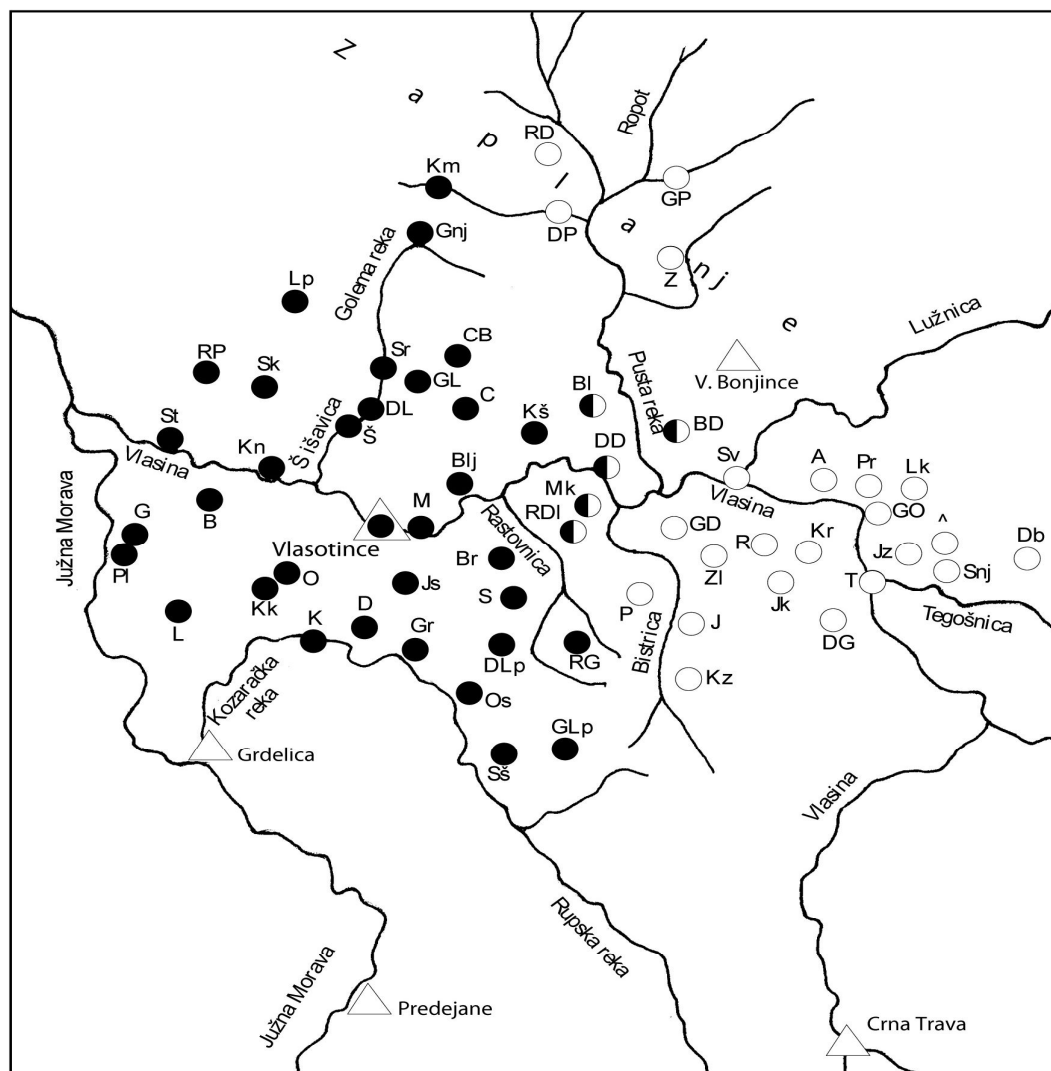


- – gradína
- – báča
- ◐ – gradína; báča

La répartition des lexèmes *pasúlj*; *grá*



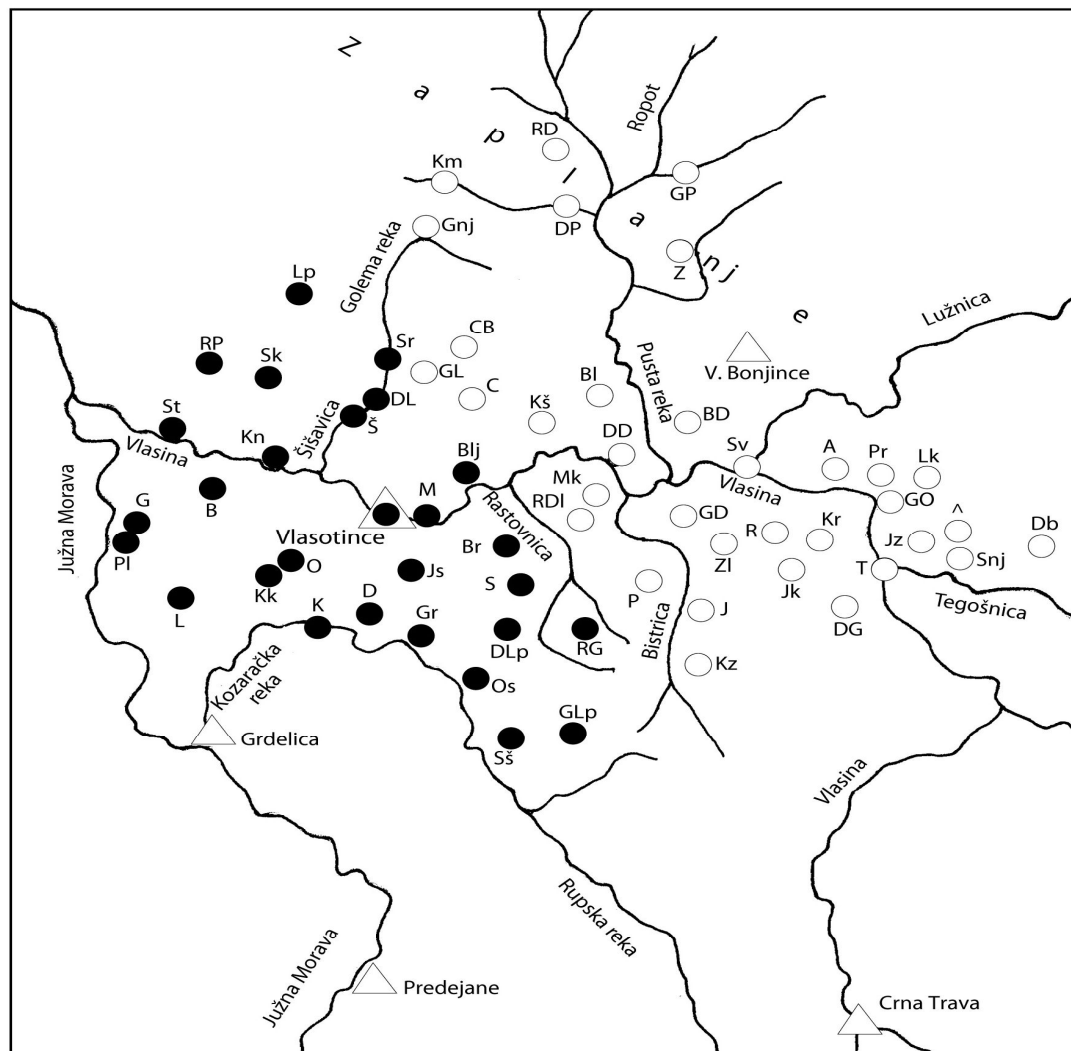
La répartition des lexèmes *grsníce*, *grsniššće*; *konóplje*, *konoplj íšte*



- – grsnice, grsnišišče  
● – konoplje, konopljišče  
◐ – grsnice, grsnišišče; konoplje, konopljišče

# Carte 6

La répartition des lexèmes vrévim, govórim; pričam, zbórim

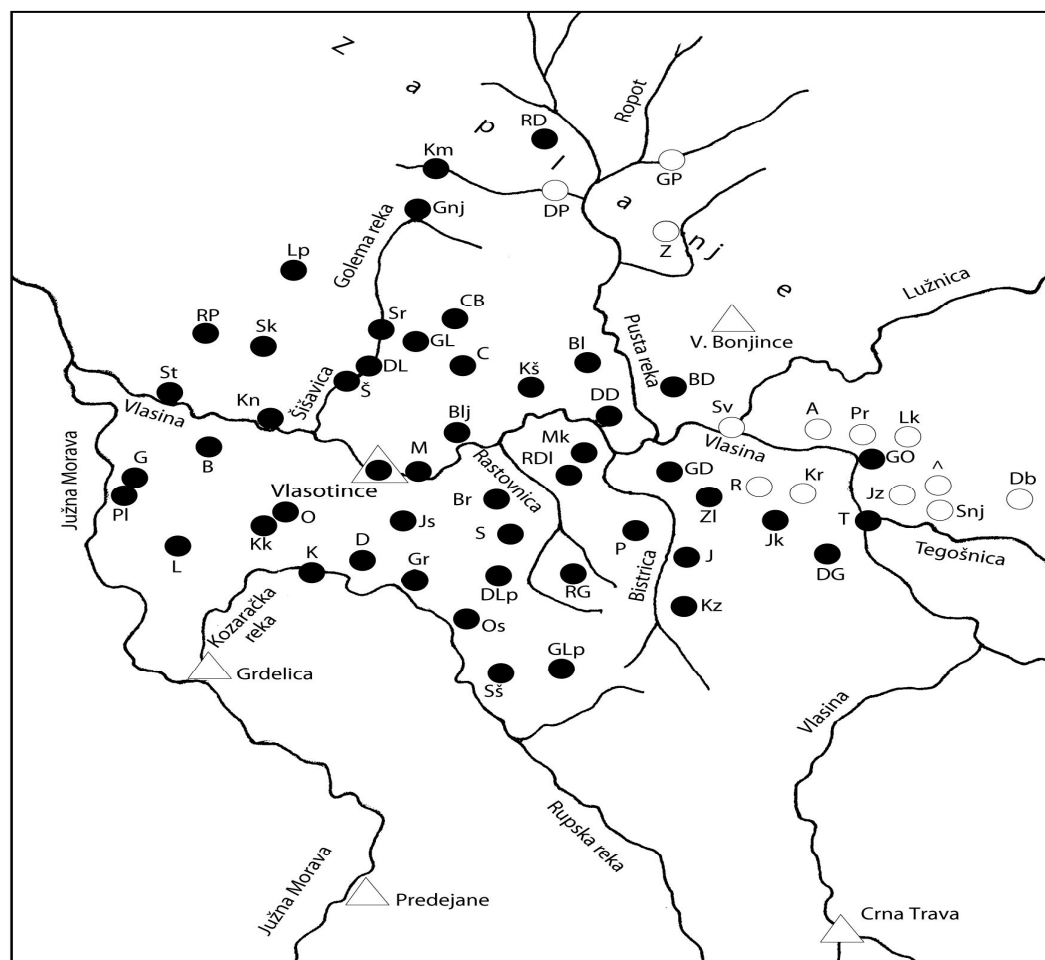


○ – vrévim, (govórim)

● – pričam, (zbórim)

# Carte 7

La répartition des lexèmes ókam, víkam; víkam



- – ókam, víkam
- – víkam



# ETYMOLOGY IN ERROR ANALYSIS: FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH

SANDRA STEFANOVIĆ  
University of Kragujevac, Serbia  
sandra\_stef@yahoo.com

## ABSTRACT

*This paper is an attempt to represent a theoretical concept and a case study of Error Analysis from an etymological point of view. Error analysis is of great importance for a certain methodology set up. The research in this field covers two groups of senior high school students who are given inputs, i.e. texts for reading and speaking containing some French origin words and affixes. It is easy to see that some errors which occur in reading and speaking are due to the interlingual influence of the Second Foreign Language (L<sub>3</sub>) on the First Foreign Language (L<sub>2</sub>) taught at school. The research shows that those words keep their pronunciation when used in English. A brief etymological analysis of the words which are mispronounced is also performed. Research results are presented from a statistical point of view and certain conclusions are drawn.*

**Key words:** Error Analysis; Etymology; Pronunciation

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In every day teaching, language teachers face many errors made by students especially in oral presentations. To set up the methodology of error prevention and correction, it is important not only to detect errors but to determine their source as well. According to James (1998: 1), Error Analysis is the process in which teachers try to determine the incidence, nature, causes, consequences, and sources of unsuccessful language. The research carried out with senior grammar school students shows that the relationship and interaction between two foreign languages taught at school can cause many errors in pronunciation. In this case, although anglicized for so long, some French origin words and affixes are still pronounced as French. The hypothesis of the research is that students make a greater effort to acquire a new foreign language (L<sub>3</sub>) so that they unpurposely tend to apply patterns and models into the previously acquired foreign language (L<sub>2</sub>) which contains a number of words from L<sub>3</sub>. The hypothesis is backed up by Corder's (1981), James' (1998), Richard's (1984), Brians' (2003) and many other linguists' research into the matter.

Analysing the words mispronounced from an etymological point of view, a complete insight into the error analysis is achieved.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Error Analysis itself is viewed as a theoretical approach, a study or even a method of treating errors as an inseparable part of the systematic study of the learners' language which is itself necessary to the understanding of the process of second language acquisition (Corder 1981: 1). That was the starting point of the research.

The research took the following steps:

- a) Two groups of students were given texts in English containing French words and affixes. They were asked to read them while the teacher was recording them on the tape.
- b) The pronunciation errors were detected, identified and organized within a corpus of errors.
- c) The errors were classified according to the criterion of frequency: the most frequent, frequent, less frequent and the least frequent (James 1998: 206).
- d) The errors were quantified by a statistical procedure.

A brief etymological overview of the corpus words was given supported by Brians (2003) and Kemmer (2005). Much useful information was taken from *The Oxford Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases*.

### 3. RESULTS

The research covered two groups of senior grammar school students: group A (14 students) studying German as L<sub>3</sub> and group B (24 students) studying French as L<sub>3</sub> (three lessons a week). The corpus of words in the research consists of French origin words and affixes along with French loanwords which are unmistakably foreign and 'French' to 'English as a Foreign language students'. It is noticed that the suffixes *-ance/-ence*, *-ant/-ent*, and *-ment* which entered English during the Middle English Period (1100-1500) were pronounced with nasal vowels not found in English but in French: e.g. *commencement*, *advancement*, *management*, *renaissance*. Words ending in *-age*, e.g. *courage*, *baggage*, *voyage* were pronounced with final, long /a:ž/. Differences in pronunciation of the same word can be used to trace the period when the word or suffix entered English (Kemmer 2007). The relationship between /dž/ and /ž/ shows the relative chronology of borrowing. Older loans such as *judge* and *age* show the affricate /dž/, whereas newer loans from the early Modern English Period (1650-present) have the simple fricative typical of Modern English as in *rouge* /ru:ž/. With the word *garage* there still exist two alternative pronunciations: /'gæridž/ and /gə'ra:ž/. The suffix *-ous* in *amorous*, *courageous*, *virtuous* was pronounced as /us/. Words beginning with *ch-* such as *chancellor*, *charge*, *change*, *charm* were pronounced with the initial /š/. There is a list of other words from the Middle English Period corpus which kept their French pronunciation: *court*, *jury*, *revenue*, *saint*, *sermon*, *enamour*, *adore*, *arrangement*. The list is followed by the words from the Modern English Period which students pronounced as French: *bikini*, *motif*, *mystique*, *cafféine*, *bouquet*. The words borrowed from French as a whole kept their original French pronunciation with no modification and adaptation (Table 1).

It is worth mentioning that some words did not lose their character as Gallisms in pronunciation, the reason for which could be the preservation of the French orthography (Table 2).

The next step of the research was to classify errors according to the criterion of frequency, and then to qualify them by a statistical procedure.

### 4. DISCUSSION

The results of the research (statistically presented in the tables below) show that group B with French as L<sub>3</sub> made more errors in reading and speaking than group A with German as L<sub>3</sub>.

Table 1. French borrowings in English

French borrowing	English pronunciation	French pronunciation
<i>avant-garde</i>	/ævɒŋ'ga:d/	[avāgard]
<i>déjà vu</i>	/deɪʒa:vu/	[dezavy]
<i>entrepreneur</i>	/'a:ntɹəpɹen'3:r/	[ātrəprənce:r]
<i>finance, fiancée</i>	/fi'ansei/	[fjāse, fjāse]
<i>noblesse oblige</i>	/nau'bles ə/v/ 'bli:3/	[nɔblesləbli3]
<i>nouveau riche</i>	/nu:vəu 'ri:ʃ/	[nuvɔri]
<i>personnel</i>	/pɜ:sə'nel/	[personel]
<i>premiere</i>	/'premiieə/	[prəmje:r]
<i>renaissance</i>	/ri'neisəns/	[rənesās]
<i>television</i>	/'telə,viziən/	[televizjō]

Table 2. French borrowings in English which kept their French pronunciation

A	B	C
<i>à la carte</i>	<i>bon appétit</i>	<i>café</i>
<i>adieu</i>	<i>bon voyage</i>	<i>c'est la vie</i>
<i>apéritif</i>	<i>bureau</i>	
<i>art nouveau</i>		
<i>au contraire</i>		
<i>au pair</i>		
<i>avant-garde</i>		
<i>avec plaisir</i>		

Table 3. Quantification of errors and students' grading

Type of error	A	1-4	B	1-4	Σ
Suffix <i>-ment</i>	2	3.2	25	3.1	3.04
Initial letters <i>ch-</i>	1	3.5	18	3.2	3.34
Prefix <i>en-</i>	1	3	10	2.2	2.46
Middle letter(s)	0	0	7	2.7	2.22
No. of students	14		24		63

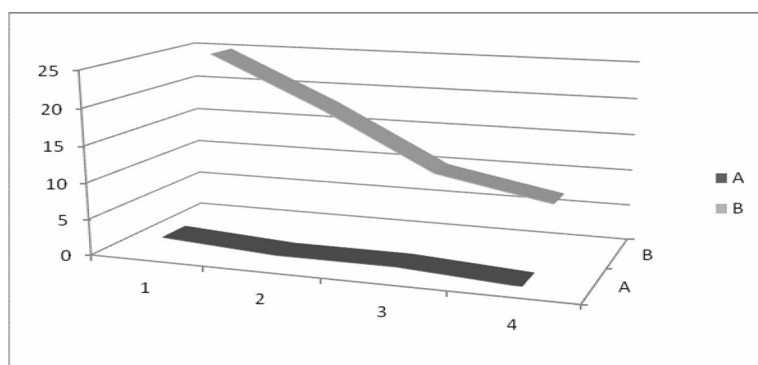


Figure 1. Quantification of errors and students' grading graphically presented

The most frequent errors in pronunciation were with the suffix *-ment* (25 times, group B); frequent errors were with the initial letters *ch-* (18 times, group B); less frequent errors were with the prefix *en-* (10 times, group B) and the least frequent errors were with middle letters as in *caff~~e~~ine*, *cour~~a~~ge* (7 times, group B) (Table 3).

The next step in error quantification was to ask the examined students to grade the errors (the recorded material was played to them) according to the following scale:

- a) *Very easy to identify errors,*
- b) *Easy to identify errors,*
- c) *More difficult to identify errors,*
- d) *Difficult to identify errors.*

The students in group B were less aware of the errors made in pronunciation because, as they stated, they came as more natural to them since they had some knowledge of French (Figure 1).

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

Research results show that the interlingual influence of the Second Foreign Language (L<sub>3</sub>) on the First Foreign Language (L<sub>2</sub>) can cause many errors in pronunciation due to the second foreign language interference. Etymological analysis can contribute to clearer and more precise explanations significant for Error Analysis. Research results can be applied in organizing students' schedules of lessons in order to prevent L<sub>2</sub> and L<sub>3</sub> from overlapping.

## REFERENCES

- Brians, P. (2003). *Common Errors in English Usage*. Wilsonville (OR): William James and Company.
- Corder, S. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interpretation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis*. Essex: Longman.
- Kemmer, S. (2008). *Words in English: Loan Words*. [Online: <http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/words/loanwords.htm>]
- Richard, J. (1984). *Error Analysis*. Essex: Longman.
- Speake, J. (1997). *The Oxford Dictionary of Foreign Words and Phrases*. Oxford & New York: OUP.

SANDRA STEFANOVIĆ  
Mihaila Ivese 1/2-11, 34 000 Kragujevac, Serbia

# METAPHORS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ANDREEA VARGA

*Banat University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine,  
Timișoara, România  
andreea\_varga@yahoo.com*

## ABSTRACT

*The aim of this research paper is to explore theoretically the use of metaphors in language applying the cognitive linguistic framework to define, classify and translate metaphorical constructions. Furthermore, the paper analyses the taxonomy of metaphors from the perspective of conceptual theory and lexicalisation bringing etymologic evidence to elicit their linguistic status, but it also analyses the cognitive factors that occur upon their translation.*

**Keywords:** *Cognitive linguistics; Conceptual metaphor theory; Metaphor*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Metaphors have been defined as the “use of a word or phrase to indicate something different from (thought related in some way to) the literal meaning” (*Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*); “a way of describing something by comparing it to something else that has similar qualities, without using the words *like* or *as*” (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*); “any figurative expression: the transferred sense of a physical word; the personification of an abstraction; the application of a word or collocation to what it does not literally denote, that is, to describe one thing in terms of another” (Newmark 1980: 93); “a figure of speech containing an implied comparison, in which a word or phrase ordinarily and primarily used of one thing is applied to another” (*Merriam- Webster’s Dictionary*). Metaphors can be construed as an attempt to designate an object or a process, physical or mental, “a decoration to show resemblances; as an attempt to produce emotive effect, sometimes the vehicle of the salesman and the media, or general interest, the constitutive basic element in language, where it later becomes dead or literal language.” (Newmark 1980: 95)

The function of the metaphor is disclosed by the origin of the term per se which roots in the ancient Greek words *meta* ‘across’ and *pherein* ‘change’. Perforce, the basic function of metaphor is to convey something from one place to another. From a semantic perspective, there are three basic factors composing a metaphor: the tenor, the vehicle, the ground; however, not all elements need to be present in a metaphor; some of them may be concealed.

From a linguistic vantage point, the analysis of metaphors undergoes two main theoretical perspectives: the decorative view of metaphors and the conceptual metaphor theory. The decorative perspective refers to metaphor as “a device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish – a matter of extraordinary rather than ordinary language” (Deignan 2005: 2), an ornament or a mechanism employed to block up the lexical breaches in the language. It purports that novel metaphors exist at the surface of language, while conventional ones are corollary to the extensive use of novel metaphors which leads to their becoming literal in time. Thus, it can be inferred by *reductio ad*

*absurdum* that all new metaphors can be stripped off their effectiveness leaving the language largely unaltered. This tenet of the decorative prospect was refuted by cognitive linguists who have underscored its impossibility to account for the plethora of metaphors, both novel and conventional, that are semantically intertwined. There are clusters of such terms employed with metaphorical meanings, such as those pertaining to gardening: *blossom*, *cultivate*, *bear fruit*, *shed*, which allude at development or deterioration of projects and feelings in contexts like:

*His business blossomed, cultivating business relationships, campaign that seems to be bearing fruit, cut on costs and shed jobs.*

A pattern can be identified even within the aforementioned examples, they are not isolated words, but they subsume to a language system together with other metaphors pertaining to cooking, hunting and mining. Another drawback in the decorative analysis is the fact that it fails to provide explanations for the frequency and ubiquity of metaphors. Conventional metaphors, similar to the plant ones mentioned previously, have the propensity to remain unnoticed because they are part of the language mechanisms, but also due to their common occurrence; subsequently, they cannot be construed as peripheral linguistic phenomena. (Deignan 2005: 2-3)

The conceptual metaphor theory is a prerequisite to the current research of metaphor in the language system. It revolves around “metaphor-as-thought” endorsing its paramount importance to both thought and language. The semantically-related metaphors are an eloquent illustration of the existing conceptual networks, eliciting thought patterns of figurative language. The main tenets of the conceptual theory were expounded in Lakoff and Johnson’s *Metaphors We Live By* which asserts the inherent characteristic of metaphors in language and which proves that the use of metaphors is embedded in the way in which people perceive, think about, and therefore describe the world. The basic principles comprise metaphor structure thinking and knowledge, metaphor as being central to abstract language, metaphor being based on physical experience and ideological metaphor. Conceptual metaphors connect two semantic domains, the target domain which is abstract and the source domain which is usually concrete, thus ideas and knowledge are mapped onto the target domain. Conceptual metaphors distinguish themselves from linguistic ones whose meaning is rendered in terms of topic and vehicle. The former relates to the significance of the word in the target domain, while the latter engenders significance in the source domain. (Deignan 2005: 5-15)

## 2. TYPES OF METAPHORS

The taxonomy of metaphors according to Lakoff and Johnson subsumes under a gamut of criteria. They have as a starting point the conjecture that “metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980:3) and that “our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” (*Ibidem*). What is more, they assert that most cognitive processes are to some extent metaphorical. The two linguists have as a starting point in shaping their theory on the conceptual metaphor the conduit metaphor, which explains human communication. The process of communication is perceived as conveying a message which the addressee decodes by eliciting ideas out of words. Such conduit metaphors which are frequent in English comprise the subsequent schema: ideas

are objects, linguistic expressions are containers, communication is sending. Albeit extensive use in spoken language, this type of metaphor does not account for other expressions, unlike structural metaphors in which one concept is structured in terms of another.

Oriental metaphors, nevertheless, organise systems of interrelated concepts rather than structuring one concept according to the other. This type of metaphor alludes at spatial orientation which is a natural physical and cultural manifestation, encompassing image schemas: *I am feeling up, My spirits boosted, My spirits rose, Thinking about her gives me a lift, I'm feeling down, He's really low these days*. These metaphors disclose posture in relation to emotional states, thus an upright posture is associated with positive mood, while a dropping posture is associated with negative mood. (Lakoff & Johnson 1980: 14-18)

Positing ontological and structural metaphors can lead to little difference. While ontological metaphors are founded on simple physical notions, for instance *inflation is an entity*, as in *Inflation is backing us into corner*, structural metaphors envisage more complex fields, *argument is a building* in *We've got a foundation for the argument, now we need a solid framework*. The metaphor is based on the explanation that buildings are made up of foundations which further on implies other factors, all of which being encompassed in the structural pattern. Discriminating between these two types of metaphors is based on quantity rather than quality, nonetheless, a clear segregation between the two is not always possible since the degree of complexity of the metaphor is of paramount importance to pinning down the exact type.

To further proceed with the classification of metaphors, Lakoff and Turner (1989: 90) purport that there is not only the mapping of concepts, or conceptual structures corollary to the creation of metaphors, but also the mapping of images. Such metaphors are known under the denomination of image metaphors. They distinguish themselves from all the other types as they do not map concepts on other concepts, but map "the structure of one domain onto the structure of another" (Lakoff & Turner 1989: 90). The image metaphor is deeply-inveterate in human cognition while its linguistic frame constitutes the representation of how people perceive the world and their thoughts on it. Nevertheless, the mapping of one domain onto the other might be a more complex process in the case of image metaphors. From the vantage point of linguists, the mapped image structure entails both attribute structure and part-whole structure. The former comprises physical shape, colour, or curvature, etc., whereas the latter makes reference to the relation of "a roof to the whole house", for instance. Upon employing image metaphors, it is not always very clear which part of the source image is to be mapped onto the target image, however, it is regularly inferred by language users. Image metaphors are put in opposition with image-schema metaphors as Lakoff and Turner (1989: 99) assert:

"Image-metaphors map rich mental images onto other rich mental images. They are one-shot metaphors, relating one rich image with one other rich image. Image-schemas, as their name suggests, are not rich mental images; they are instead very general structures, like bounded regions, paths, centres".

A different taxonomy based on linguistic criteria is that which segregates live metaphors, dormant metaphors and dead metaphors. Live metaphors can be described as

"a use whose understanding is necessarily dependent on a source meaning, which is usually literal and concrete. More specifically, this exploited source meaning has been metaphorically extended to cover something that is perceived both as similar to and different from its basic *denotata*." (Alm-Arvius 2006: 7)

Not all features in the source are employed in the metaphor, or mapped on to the target reading, many of them are precluded. Most conspicuous is the fact that many features that are not part of the metaphor become the crux in the source, regularly, concrete and factual ones, whilst peripheral traits, usually more abstract or emotive, become central in the metaphor. An eloquent example is that of *little vixen* as associated to a girl or a woman. The physical features are suppressed in this case: the metaphor relies on the resemblance of the attitude, the behavioural and psychological qualities of the female and the vixen. The relationship between the source and the target of a live metaphor could be regarded as synonymous to the one between a superordinate and its hyponym. Nonetheless, metaphorical meaning extension presupposes subjective perception and imaginative similarity, whereas, hyponymic relations are factual, usually between two different lexical items. If live metaphors need to be debunked in relation to the source meaning, through lexicalization, that is conveying a particular use into a conventional part of the language system, they can become dead metaphors. Lexicalization is a *sine qua non* for the “death” of a metaphor; however it is not the only prerequisite. As long as a use maintains a polysemous relation with its source, it can be “revived”, thus the metaphor is dormant. (Alm-Arvius 2006: 7-9)

Dead metaphors, on the other hand, like *pedigree* or *daisy* do not possess metaphorical meaning in Modern English; however, when subdued to an etymologic analysis their history reveals the fact that they root in such constructions. Such dead metaphors are no longer in connection with the source significance, thus they become “literalised”. Literalisation of metaphors can be done in three ways: when the source meaning has ceased to be part of the vocabulary of the users of that particular language – an eloquent example of concealed transfer of meaning may be that of the adjective *silly* which meant ‘happy’ or ‘blessed’ in Old English; when different parts of a compound merge at a semantic and phonological level as a consequence of the aforementioned process – *daisy* which was composed of two elements in Old English “day’s eye”; and when a word charged with metaphorical value is borrowed from the contributing language into the recipient language – the term *pedigree* originates in the metaphorical use of French *ped de gris* ‘foot of grouse’ or Middle English *pedegru* which further on originates in the Old English *pie de grue* ‘crane’s foot’. Other dead metaphors that have been borrowed into English language, but which have an interesting history are: *tulip* from the Turkish *tulbent* ‘turban’ due to the resemblance between the flower and the turban; *pilot* from the Middle French *pilote*, from the Italian *pilota*, an alteration of *pedota*, from the Middle Greek *pedon* ‘steering oars’, finally originating in *pod*, *pous* ‘foot’; *flair* ‘sweet smell’ originates in alteration *flagrare* of the term *fragare* ‘to give off an odour’ from the Old French *flairier* ‘sense of smell’. Another eloquent example of dead metaphors are those related to horses which culturally speaking played an important part in human activities; however, nowadays few people still depend on horses for daily chores. Nevertheless, modern English is suffused with equine metaphors: *holding the reins of power*, *trot it out*, *take the bit between one’s teeth*, *be saddled with*, *put him through his paces*, *ride roughshod over*, *flogging a dead horse*, *give the whip hand*, *hold your horses*, *long in the tooth*, *put out to pasture*, *getting his oats*, and so on. These may be viewed as dead metaphors since the historical equine-related meaning is generally not employed by the contemporary user. On balance, live and moribund metaphors have a fluctuating overlapping relation which can also be applied to moribund and dead metaphors as well, while lexicalisation is a prerequisite for the death of a metaphor insofar as the link with the historical source of meaning is divested. (*Idem*: 9-12)



### 3. TRANSLATING METAPHORS

Translation theory fails to render an accurate definition of metaphor. In his article *Can "Metaphor" Be Translated?* Dagut rebukes this approach, claiming that "The rehabilitation of 'metaphor' in translation theory must thus, clearly, begin with the restoration to the term of its proper (and vitally significant) semantic content". (Dagut 1976: 28) He segregates metaphors into simplex and complex, which in their transition from performance to competence, issue in the formation of polysemes and idioms. "Polyseme and idiom are thus seen to stand in a derivative relation to metaphor as effect to cause; but they differ significantly from metaphor in their semantic regularity as against its semantic anomaly". (Dagut 1976: 23) He also asserts that the translation of metaphor is interdependent on the specific cultural experiences and semantic associations explored by it, but also varying according to the degree of overlap between them. Moreover, "what determines the translatability of a SL metaphor is not its 'boldness' or 'originality,' but rather the extent to which the cultural experience and semantic associations on which it draws are shared by speakers of the particular TL." (Dagut 1978: 28)

The cognitive framework for metaphor translation endorses Dagut's conjecture that metaphors can be defined as culture-specific, but what is more, it bolsters up Mandelblit's translation hypothesis which resided in two cognitive schemes, that of the real world and that of the cultural experience, that is *similar mapping conditions* and *different mapping conditions*. He attempts to demonstrate that "the difference in reaction time is due to a conceptual shift that the translator is required to make between the conceptual mapping systems of the source and target languages". (Mandelblit 1995: 493) Thus he ferrets out that metaphorical constructions undergo more difficulties in translation if they explore a cognitive domain which is different from that of the target language equivalent, since the translator has to look for another conceptual mapping or cognitive domain.

Metaphors of similar mapping conditions make reference to metaphors expressing a small cluster of ideas shared by two languages and which are perforce rendered by similar constructions. Such shared ideas are denominated *cultural universals* in anthropology, while the similarities in mapping conditions shared by diverse cultures are labelled as "pancultural metaphorical expression", a concept which stems in the "panhuman sharedness of basic experience." (Emanation 1995: 165) On the other hand, metaphors of different mapping conditions which usually resort to domains like religion or politics, for instance, are called root metaphors. Religion is one of the most permeated domains of root metaphors since it is closely interconnected with birth, marriage, death and other life experiences which are perceived differently within distinct cultures. (Mandelblit 1995)

Similar to Mandelblit's Conceptual Metaphor Theory is Lehrer's lexical-oriented theory according to which the relations within one semantic field can be exploited to develop senses in another field:

"If there is a set of words that have semantic relationships in a semantic field (where relationships are described as forms of synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy etc.) and if one or more items pattern in another semantic field, then the other items in the first field are available for extension to the second semantic field." (Lehrer 1978: 96)

From a philosophical vantage point, Kittay's approach to metaphorical mapping subsumes under the same aforementioned principles, thus he asserts that:

"Metaphorical transfers of meaning are transfers from the field of vehicle to the field of the topic of the relations of affinity and opposition that the vehicle term(s) bears to

other terms in its field. More precisely, in metaphor what is transferred are the relations which pertain within one semantic field to a second, distinct content domain.” (Kittay 1987: 36)

Achieving a balance between these theories, it is clear that metaphorical mapping constitutes a source of systematic meaning extension even though not all potential metaphorical significance are found in language in use.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

On the whole, metaphors fall within mere decorations of language, they are complex constructs which permanently alter language and enrich it consistently by extending meanings. Cognitive linguistics studies metaphors from the perspective of conceptual theory, but also from the perspective of lexicalisation, which establishes whether a metaphor is live or dead if etymology studies can trace its meaning in the language history. The translation of metaphors subsumes under the same cognitive framework, while cultural aspects are of paramount importance in the process of rendering meaning in the target language.

#### REFERENCES

- Al-Hasnawi, A. (2007). *A Cognitive Approach to Translating Metaphors*. [Online: <http://accurapid.com/journal/41metaphor.htm>].
- Alm-Arvius, C. (2003). *Live, Moribund and Dead Metaphors*. [Online: <http://ojs.ub.gu.se/ojs/index.php/njes/article/viewFile/61/65>].
- Dagut, M. (1976). *Can metaphor be translated?* Babel: *International Journal of Translation XXII (1)*. 21-33.
- Deignan, A. (2005). *Metaphor and Corpus Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Emanatian, M. (1995). Metaphor and the Expression of Emotion: The Value of Cross-Cultural Perspectives. *Metaphor and Symbolic Activity 10 (3)*. 163-182.
- Kittay, E.F. (1987). *Metaphor: Its Cognitive Force and its Linguistic Structure*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 36.
- Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago: University Press. 1-25.
- Lakoff, G. & Turner, M. (1989). *More than Cool Reason: A Field Guide to Poetic Metaphor*. Chicago: University Chicago Press. 90-100.
- Lehrer, A. (1978). *Semantic Fields and Lexical Structure*. Amsterdam: North Holland 96
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. [Online: <http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/metaphor>].
- Mandelblit, N. (1995). The Cognitive View of Metaphor and Its Implications for Translation Theory. *Translation and Meaning 3*. Maastricht: University Press. 483-495.
- Merriam-Webster's Dictionary*. [Online: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/metaphor>].
- Newmark, P. (1980). *Approaches to translation*. Phoenix ELT: 93-96.
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. [Online: [http://www.oup.com/oald-bin/web\\_getald7index1a.pl](http://www.oup.com/oald-bin/web_getald7index1a.pl)].

ANDREEA VARGA

119, Calea Aradului, Timișoara – 300645, Romania

## INDEX OF AUTHOR NAMES

BOC-SÎNMĂRGHIȚAN, Diana (Romania)	9
CAULLATAILLE, Oana (France)	15
DRAGOESCU, Alina-Andreea (Romania)	23
GROSZLER, Astrid Simone (Romania)	29
HOLLIFIELD, Scott (U.S.A.)	35
MASICHEVICI, Virginia-Elvira-Jenea (Romania)	47
MERGHEȘ, Petre-Eugen (Romania)	23
NORLEY, Kevin (U.K.)	51
NORLEY, Nadia (U.K.)	51
PERKOVIĆ, Anica (Croatia)	59, 65, 87
PETROMAN, Cornelia (Romania)	35, 59
PETROMAN, Ioan (Romania)	35, 59
RAȚĂ, Georgeta (Romania)	65, 75, 87
STANKOVIĆ, Selena (Serbia)	95
STANKOVIĆ, Stanislav (Serbia)	95
STEFANOVIĆ, Sandra (Serbia)	113
VARGA, Andreea (Romania)	117

