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EXTERNAL LEXICAL INFLUENCES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE FROM ANTIQUITY TO MODERN TIMES

Abstract

This article aims to explain this process through discussing it and the related issues, such as delineating the distinctions between Old, Middle, and Modern English and offering detailed descriptions of notable external lexical influences that have shaped the English language. This article furnishes essential insights into the extent to which foreign words, now considered quintessentially English were contributed by diverse groups, including, Romans, Vikings, Native Americans, Spanish or Jews. Examples of lexical influence were selected based on their attestation in historical sources, dictionaries, and linguistic studies covering different stages of English (Old, Middle, and Modern). The analysis focused on etymology, semantic fields, and the socio-historical context of borrowing to illustrate patterns of external impact on English vocabulary.
Keywords: borrowings, external influences, linguistics, English, language change.

1 Explaining language change

1.1 Process of language change

Kida (2010, p.7) defines language as a phenomenon that is constantly evolving. It not only affects verbal or non-verbal communication, but essentially every branch of society and human existence. Due to the fact that peo-

ple who communicate with one another are often representatives of similar generations and on that basis the evolution of language cannot be observed, because it is such a short period of time.

According to Fitch (2010, p.390) cited in Araki (2017, p.7) language origin is described in the Bible for the first time in the Western tradition. Fischer (1999 p.11) on the other hand provides a simpler, yet more practical definition of a language, saying it is a "medium of information exchange". Chomsky[1] (2015) challenges those previously mentioned definitions. He describes it as being a system of thought that can be used as a means of communicating

Traugott (1972 p.9) notices that the change may come from children and their perception of grammar which often differs from the status quo. Often grammar which they learn in the first ten years of their lives stays and is used throughout the rest of it. She further describes this process and remarks that a child in the earliest stages of life learns structures like nouns and verbs. However, for example tenses (e.g. present *He walks* and past *He walked*), these notions are learned later and tend not to get fully assimilated as opposed to those language elements that were learned early. These concepts are more likely to change in the history of a language. Inflections are a great example; those vary and change in all languages. She later remarks that even though change may seem gradual, because of the quantity of users that acquire a certain pattern of speech during a period of time. However, when talking about an individual, the change is instantaneous. Once the pattern of speech is in one's competence, to a degree that pattern is new it changes the performance of the speaker.

Sapir (1921, p.150/154/5), as cited in Kida (2010, p.7) remarks that many changes in language fit into a certain pattern, which he names a "drift". He states that, language flows with the current of time, and that is a drift. He later notes "the drift of a language is constituted by the unconscious selection on the part of its speakers of those individual variations that are cumulative in some special direction". Meaning of "drift" by Sapir is explained as a long-term directed movement of a language or a family of one. He also names some tendencies of the term he references: loss of case marking, stabilisation of word order, and the drift toward the invariable word.

McMahon (1995, p.175) remarks that semantics is the area of grammar that is more susceptible to change, the meaning of words changes quite often and with ease. Native speakers can notice such changes during their lifetime. She provides an example in the word *gay*, in the 1960s it meant "cheerful and happy" and nowadays this term refers to being homosexual. McMahon later describes the conditions that are necessary for semantic change to oc-

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[1]   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KEmpRtj34xg

cur. First of all, the fact that words are generally polysemic, which means they often have a wide range of meaning or are connected to many fields of its understanding. Due to their "elastic nature" words can acquire or lose meanings. She later references Hermann Paul, who suggests that each word have its core meaning and other less usable, marginal meanings and states that semantic change takes place when the word starts being reinterpreted by the marginal meaning as the core one. Another condition McMahon (1995, p.177) states is the fact that children do not get fully-formed grammar from their parents, they build it themselves instead. This leads to grammar being imperfect, provided examples are the relation between the Old English (*ġe*)*bed* and Modern English *bead*. First word means "prayer" and later a wooden ball in a rosary. In the mind of a child these two actions (holding a rosary and praying) may be interpreted wrongly and lead to a transformation of a meaning.

Anderson (1973, p.86-90) speculates on the notion of the external theories of the language change. He presents a theory that is called a *Substratum Theory.* Anderson makes assumptions that some features of a language are transferred over into a target language when learned by adult people. He provides an example that Germans who speak for example Spanish, they speak this language with a distinct accent from other countries. One can often establish the nation of origin of the speaker simply by listening to them speak. We refer to the influence of the linguistic substratum as occurring when a language group learns a new language and the new language is shaped by linguistic patterns passed over from the native language. Similar to how people's foreign accents are based on their native languages and not only the consequence of chance associations, a whole speech community will reconstruct a new language in a certain way. The degree to which one approaches speaking the new language flawlessly will be greatly influenced by personal desire. The Substratum Theory asserts, for instance, that Latin was spoken with an Iberian accent in Spain and as a result, differed from Latin spoken with a Gaulish accent in Gaul. It is concerned with those features that are not well learned (likely due to interference from the native language). In some regions of Italy, Latin was spoken with an Oscan or Umbrian accent, whereas in other regions, it was pronounced with an Etruscan or Greek accent. The Balkan languages and dialects had an impact on Romanian pronunciation of Latin and other languages. The role of the substratum influence in language change is the subject of much controversy, mainly because the cases discussed are often the language in which the substrate may be present is unclear. For example, very little is known about the structure of pre-Roman languages in Europe. Although some of their descendants survive today, such as Gaelic and Basque, their structural features in the distant period of initial contact with Latin are quite clear. The necessarily speculative charac-

ter of the explanation due to the influence of a class in such situations has, in extreme cases, led to the complete negation of this kind of influence. A few examples suffice to show that the substrate is produced when studying contact structures or is specially applied. Pronounced vowels in French are thought to have a Celtic influence, but they occur in other Romance languages such as Portuguese-in an area where Celts are quite rare. The rounded French f vowels, /ü/ and /ö/, are generally attributed to the Celts of Gaul but they also appear in Old Latin, (*decima < decumus>* and *libet<lubet*) in which /u/>/i/ via / ü/. Greek too-without the benefit of the Celts-the /u/ sound seems to occur due to a change in the internal structure of the language If there is no significant structural reason easily observable for a change, the change is often attributed to "something" in the cascade, otherwise the theory is useful when there is some basis for determining the specific effect of. In the following examples, Latin /f/ becomes Spanish /h/ and eventually disappears except for the spelling.

Farīna >Harina /arína/
Fīlius >Hijo /íxo/
Fābulat >Habla /ábla/

These changes and others like them have been credited to the impact of Basque speakers in northern Spain. Basque speakers are supposed to have modified the sound (f) while learning the Iberian-Romance language, which gradually encroached upon their territory. This innovation then propagated across Castilian Spanish. The influence of the substrate extends beyond phonological characteristics. The native French in the Brittany district of Léon have picked up the Bréton principles of stress, quantity, and syllabification. The local English dialect has distinct Irish traits in grammar and syntax as well as phonology in recently anglicised areas of Ireland. In contrast to the common perfect tense statement, "I am after doing," or the usage of the article in "I am perished with the cold," The lexicon-semantic level of language is where substratum influences language the most obviously, but even here, to make the entire idea explicit and meaningful requires an explanation based on seminal gaps in the target language's vocabulary in relation to items in the environment (names of places, plants, and animals, etc.), or the social and structural reasons why a specific word, already in the target language, was rejected for a substratum. Celtic words have replaced Romance words in Gallo-Roman and English, while Celtic names have been retained for things that don't have English names. The French numeral system, which appears to have been preserved from the Celtic system and partially reflects multiples of twenty, e.g., *vingt* 'twenty', *quatre-vingt* 'eighty', *quatre-vingt-dix* 'ninety'. Place names with Celtic roots can be found in English, including *Thames, Avon, Dover, Stour, Kent, Devonshire, and Cumberland* (the land of the Cymry). *Binn* (for basket), *cumb* (for valley), *dun* (for dark), and *crag* (for

strait or channel) are a few other Celtic words. One sort of substratum effect that affects. The following examples show how lexical items happen when words from both languages combine to generate a new word:

Latin *rugire* +Celtic *brag*   > French *braire*   (to bray)

Latin *tremere*+ Celtic *crit*   > French *craindre*   (to fear)

Therefore, the term "substratum" designates a particular direction of influence, i.e., traits in Language A impact Language B, not the other way around. To make this idea clearer, it must be demonstrated that the language structures under discussion have perceptual issues that contributed to variances in the substratum population's speech. A larger view of these issues would need to specify the socio-cultural influences at play in each circumstance in addition to the structural and perceptual elements. For any linguistic change brought about by learning a new language, certain aspects, such as the degree and type of contact between the cultures, as well as the learning motives, are relevant. These are obscure factors even now. They can only be thoroughly studied considering the present. Numerous studies in this area may provide answers as to what structural characteristics are more likely to be present in a given situation and whether or not these characteristics can be ranked according to their relative strength as innate human conceptual features. (Anderson, 1973).

2   The genesis of English

2.1   Language and categories of internal and external history

Yule (1996, p.213) characterises Proto-Indo-European as the "great-grandmother" of many modern languages and describes a previously pictured method of establishing connections between languages as using what are called "cognates". He states that Among the group of related languages, similarities in particular sets of words can be found. A cognate of a term in one language (e.g. German) is a word in another language (e.g. English) that has either similar form or meaning. Therefore, the German words *Vater, Mutter* and *Freund* are cognates to the English *Father, Mother* and *Friend.* Due to the fact that previously mentioned sets of cognates are similar, we can propose that modern English and German have a common ancestor which has been named the Germanic branch of Indo-European. Yule remarks that the same process can be used in the cases of the Spanish and Italian language on the basis of similar sets, Spanish, *padre, madre, amigo,* and Italian *padre, madre, amico*. That experiment concluded these close cognates also must point to a common ancestor in the Italic branch.

Ramat and Ramat (2015, p.29) describe the term "Indo-European" as the name of a large and well-defined genetic family that spans from Europe, across Iran to the northern half of the Indian subcontinent. Later they describe the time period and appearance of the Germanic family. Ramat and Ramat (2015, p.29) explain that the earliest representative of the Germanic branch is the obsolete Gothic language, the knowledge of its existence comes from the fact, that in the fourth century came the version of the Bible that was translated into Gothic. Additionally, Gothic, together with elements of such languages as, for example, Vandalic or Burgundian form the East Germanic. As for the other types of Germanic, the northern type can be traced to the runic inscriptions that come from the third century AD, it is primarily derived from the Old Norse language, as for West and East Germanic languages, the first one includes elements of norwegian and Icelandic, and the latter elements of Danish and Swedish. The earliest monuments of West Germanic origin are visible in Old English, Old Saxon and Old High German. Later, those evolved into forms of English, Frisian, Dutch, Low German and High German.

Denham and Lobeck (2012, p.91) say that throughout the Middle English period, the seven tense vowels of the preponderant dialect underwent a transformation that is now referred to as the Great Vowel Shift. From the time of Geoffrey Chaucer in the 14th century to the time of William Shakespeare in the early 17th century, it was a process that continued over time. The fact that this vowel shift had a significant impact on English phonology and occurred at the same time as the invention of the printing press is one of the main reasons it has come to be called as the "Great" Vowel Shift.

In 1476, William Caxton issued the first printing press with mechanical components to England. Words in the handwritten writings had been spelled before the invention of mechanical printing essentially whichever each individual scribe wished, according to the scribe's personal dialect. But even after the invention of the printing press, the majority of printers continued to employ the spellings that had already become commonplace without understanding the importance of the vowel changes that were happening. Hundreds of books had been printed by the time the Great Vowel Shift was finished in the early 1600s using a spelling system that reflected the pronunciation prior to that time. For instance, the word goose used two"o"s to represent a lengthy "o" sound, or "o:"—a phonetically accurate spelling of the word. But because the vowel had changed to /u/, words such as *goose, moose, food,* and others that we now spell with a "oo" sound wrong when spoken the way they are written or spelt.

When discussing the development of a language, the sociological aspects need to be mentioned. As Fisiak (2005, p.17) states, the rise and development of any language is inseparably connected with the relation of its users

with the environment in which they function. He further details that besides the evolution of the structure of a language one ought to take into consideration also the external forces, i.e., political, economic, social and spiritual, which notably influence this evolution. Therefore, The distinction between the internal and external history of the English language has to be made. Internal history refers to the historical development of linguistic structure i.e., phonology, grammar, morphology, vocabulary and semantics. The external history of English focuses on other aspects that are not structural, or linguistic. These aspects are of varied nature, he also distinguishes a couple of them. Beginning with the political factor (wars, invasions and the formation of states or borders), social (changes in social movements, revolutions, industrialisation), scientific (naming new inventions using often foreign terms) and ending with cultural (including religion, mainly the effect of Christianisation, literature, cultural movements or consequences of the introduction of printing), Contribution of the external factor cannot be simply defined, it varies from one age to another and the impact is also different based on the area of usage and influence. Undoubtedly the most affected sphere of a language is vocabulary, hence the existence of various dialects and regionalisms is dependent on where the speaker either grew up or lived for some time (Fisiak, 2005).

3   Examining the English language

3.1   Old and middle English

Crystal (2003, p.7) provides reasons due to which England and its language is called by these names. He starts by answering where the name "Welsh" comes from: During the Anglo-Saxon invasion Germanic dubbed the native Celtic people "wealas" which meant foreigners. Celts on the other hand called their invaders "Saxons" despite them being from various tribes. Around the end of the 6th century the term *Angli* (derived from Angles, the name of one of the tribes) was widely used. Records show that in 601, kentish king Æthelberht was referred to as *rex Anglorum,* which translates from Latin to King of the Angles, and by the 7th century *Anglia* or *Angli* became the Latin names for the land. The Old English word *Engle* comes from use of aforementioned terms, and the language name that was found in the Old English scripts where it is called *Englisc* (sc letters signify the "sh" sound). Later appeared the name *Englaland* and the name *England* did not show until the 9th century (year 1000).

Durkin[2] (2012) explains that scientific perspectives on the Middle English period extends are divided, making a clear definition difficult. OED3

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[2]   https://public.oed.com/blog/middle-english-an-overview/

(third edition of the Oxford English Dictionary) has decided on the years 1150–1500. The Old English period predating 1150 and the early modern English period following 1500. As far as 'external' history is concerned, Middle English is framed at its beginning by the effects of the Norman Conquest of 1066, and at its end by the arrival of printing in Britain in 1476 as well as by the significant social and cultural effects of the English Reformation (from the 1530s onward) and of the ideas of the continental Renaissance.

3.2   Most important lexical influences in the English language

The original settlers of England created the mere base of the grammatical area and are responsible for a great amount of its vocabulary. However, during the centuries, England came in contact with many foreign visitors that greatly changed the English language. The most notable influences that can be identified are Celtic, Roman, Latin, Scandinavian and foremost French.

Thomason and Kaufman (1988, p.74–76) cited in Haspelmath and Tadmor (2009, p.373) provides a table of the Donor languages to the English language and the degree of borrowings with characterization of the nature of these loanwords, a scale with 1 representing the least amount of borrowing (lexicon-only) and 5 being the most. Old English was omitted in this list since it is the source of modern English's most essential vocabulary and morphology.

Table 1
The degree of influence that other languages had on the English language

donor language	degree of borrowing	characterization
Pre-Celtic (substrate language/s)	1	only place-name elements
British Celtic (substrate language)	1?	only lexicon and place-name elements, but the impact of British Celtic syntax on earlier English is undergoing reexamination at the present time
Latin (adstrate language)	3	lexicon including some relexification of OE lexicon, many bound derivational morphological elements, some spreading through the lexicon
French (adstrate language)	3–4	lexicon including much relexification of OE lexicon, much cultural lexicon, some new phonemes created through introduction of minimal pairs in borrowed lexical items, many bound derivational morphological elements and some free grammatical elements
Norse (adstrate language)	4–5	lexicon, mostly relexification of items of OE lexicon, some free grammatical words including some prepositions and the they-paradigm

Table 1 (cont.)

donor language	degree of borrowing	characterization
Dutch/Low German (adstrate languages)	1–2	lexicon, –kin diminutive
all other languages (all of them adstrate languages)	1	pre-eminently items of lexicon, and specifically items which hardly ever replace earlier lexical items

3.3 Celtic elements in English

Due to the conquest of the Celtic population of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons and therefore mixing those two peoples, it is rational to assume that their languages would become to some degree intertwined with each other. Words that Anglo-Saxons heard in the native population's speech they adopted and may be found in the Old English language. Because it is clear that, except for certain areas, the Celts were not entirely wiped out and that, over much of England, a sizable portion of them gradually integrated into the new culture of their conquerors.[3]

Crystal (2018, p.8) acknowledges, that there are only a handful of Celtic borrowings, and only a few stood the test of time into temporary English, also a couple of the Celtic words actually derive from Latin, some of them are *assen* (Modern English *ass*), *ancor* (Modern English *hermit*) and *stær* (Modern English *history*).

Lovis[4] provides more insight about the topic of Celtic borrowings, by deconstructing English place names. She states that The Celtic influence on the English language primarily manifests itself through place names, reflecting the historical presence of Celtic-speaking populations in what is now England. Traditionally referred to as 'British,' the Celtic language was spoken by the Britons, the indigenous inhabitants of the region. Many of these linguistic remnants persist in the names of geographical features and settlements. Prominent examples include river names like the Thames and the Yare, as well as significant Roman towns such as London, York, and Lincoln. Some place names are the result of a fusion of Celtic and Anglo-Saxon elements, illustrating the coexistence and interaction of these linguistic traditions. Two Celtic terms, *bre* and *pen*, both signifying "hill," appear in various place names. For instance, *Brill* in Buckinghamshire is a combination of *bre* and the Old English *hyll*. "Breedon on the Hill" in Leicestershire combines *bre* and *dun*, both of Celtic origin, while *Brewood* in Staffordshire is coupled with Old English *wudu*. *Pensax* in Herefordshire signifies "hill of the Anglo-Saxons,"

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[3] https://people.umass.edu/sharris/in/e412/BC%204%20Influences%20on%20OE.pdf
[4] https://cpercy.artsci.utoronto.ca/courses/6361Lovis.htm

hinting at the geographical proximity and coexistence of Celtic communities with the incoming Anglo-Saxons. The term *Combe* or *Coombe* in numerous place names derives from the Celtic *kumb*, meaning "valley," and was incorporated into Old English. Similarly, the term *tor,* mainly employed in the southwest of Britain, signifies "rock" and is frequently associated with granite peaks on Dartmoor and Bodmin Moor, as seen in place names like *Hay Tor* and *Hound Tor*. This term also contributed to the name of the coastal town "Torquay." "Bodmin" itself is a compound of Cornish words, with *bod* meaning "dwelling" (which may have evolved into the English term "abode") and *monegh* signifying "monks." The name "Cornwall" is an Anglicized rendition of the original name for the inhabitants of the far southwest of Britain, possibly derived from *kern*, which may have functioned as a tribal name or meant "rock." The term "wall" is derived from Old English *weahlas*, though its application to the region's inhabitants as "foreigners" might seem somewhat inappropriate.

> Furthermore, parallel names are prevalent in the southwest, such as "St. Ives," also known by its Cornish name "Porthia." These place names serve as valuable linguistic artefacts, bearing witness to the historical interplay between Celtic and Anglo-Saxon languages and cultures in England. (Lovis, 2001)

3.4   Roman elements in English

Prior to the Anglo-Saxons, Celtic people also came in contact with the Roman Empire because of the Gallic Wars and Julius Caesar's invasions of Britain in 55 and 54 B.C. However, Fisiak (2005, p.27-31) remarks that actually these two incidents did not cause any significant consequences, due to the fact that they weren't followed by a political occupation. The real process of influencing the language of the indigenous people of the British Islands began around the time of Claudius in 43 A.D when more systematic conquest of the Celts took place. After a series of relentless battles that resulted with establishing Roman rule over the southern region of Britain. Through the constant fights especially in the north and subjugation of the native people. The romanization of the British area is noticeable through use of Latin in the names of places. There is indirect evidence that around 80 A.D British inhabitants began to use the language of the invaders. In accordance with that fact, one might correctly presume that bilingualism was extensive among upper class and city dwellers. The most visible and important sign of romanization is apparent in the place names e.g, *Portsmouth* (L. *Portus* and OE *mūþ*), *Foss* (L. *Fossa*) etc.

Crystal (2018, p.8) provides a list of Latin derived words that were adopted into Old English, most of them relate to different day-to-day terminology. The author further enumerates terms present in such areas as food, drink, animals, plants, household appliances, as some examples there are

words such as *cat*, which comes from the Latin *cattus* and later changes in Old English into *catte,* same with *cheese* (Latin *caseus* and Old English *cȳse*) and *plant* (Latin *planta* and Old English *plante*).

Other fields that are affected by such process are clothing and building. As the prime examples Crystal uses words such as *city* (Latin *castra* and Old English *ceaster*), *wal*l (Latin *vallum* and Old English *weall*) and *shoemaker* (Latin *sūtūra* and Old English *suture*)

3.5   Germanic tribes of Jutes, Angles and Saxons

Berndt (1982, p.16) remarks that after the Roman Empire ceased occupying Britain in the early 5th century, the withdrawal of their legions from the Isles left it split up into several smaller kingdoms ruled by the British nobility-and therefore vulnerable to the attacks of the Germanic tribes. Said incursions led to the conquering and colonising greater part of the islands of the North Atlantic by such attackers as Angles, Saxons, Jutes etc. He further noticed that Germanic people were already present in the North of Britain, that was because of Romans who had men of Germanic descent in their army. Later Berndt invokes the words of then near-contemporary historian and present-day saint-Gildas who mentions that the British monarchs after the Roman era still hired Germanic mercenaries for protection of their lands. Due to these factors, eventual fusion of these two languages was unavoidable. Fisiak (2005, p.31-41) outlines the situations of Britain by using following examples from the era. By the end of the seventh century the influence of Anglo Saxons was so strong that Pope Gregory (1601 A.D.) refers to the Isles as *Angli,* Longobardian historian Paulus Diaconus living in the eighth century uses two forms *Angli Saxones* or *Saxones Angli.* Even King Alfred the Great, the monarch who defeated the Danes was named by his biographer "*Rex Angulsaxonum ".*

Term "English '' derives from the name of one of the tribes called *Angles* (later it evolved to *Englisc*). Anglo-Saxons left a tremendous mark on the English Language, the most visible influence occurring in the place names. Due to the fact that Germanic tribes came from the continent (mainly present-day Netherlands, Germany and Denmark) most of their settlements are located in the south-east part of the Isles. Places of continental origin can be recognised by looking at their endings. OE -ing, (plural -ingas) and -ing(a)ham are the most reliable indicator of Germanic presence in those places, some of the examples are: OE *Hæstingas* (ModE Hastings), OE *Heartingas* (ModE Harting), OE *Walsingaham* (ModE Washingham)

3.6   Low and High German loanwords in the English language

Algeo (2009, p.260) Dutch and other forms of Low German have made substantial contributions to the English language, primarily through com-

mercial interactions between English, Dutch, and Flemish-speaking communities dating back to the Middle Ages. The similarities among Low German dialects often make it challenging to pinpoint the exact source of early loanwords. Notably, the Dutch, renowned for their seafaring activities, have enriched English with numerous nautical terms. These include words such as *deck* (originating from the Dutch word *dec*, meaning roof, later used to describe the roof of a ship), *skipper* (derived from *schipper*, meaning "master of a ship") and *yacht*. The Dutch and Flemish also excelled in clothmaking, evident through terms such as *cambric, duck* and *spool*. These words reflect the textile trade that merchants introduced to England, alongside commercial terms such as dollar, guilder and mart. Military connections between England and Holland led to loanwords such as *beleaguer, forlorn hope* (altered through folk etymology from *verloren hoop*, meaning lost troop, with hoop akin to English heap in the sense of "a group of people"), and *tattoo* (originating from an evening signal that indicated the tavern's closing, *taptoe*, meaning "'the tap of the cask is to shut").

The Dutch's reputation for gastronomy, particularly drinking, is reflected in English words such as *booze, brandy* (wine), *gin* (abbreviated from *genever*, borrowed by the Dutch from Old French, ultimately Latin *juniperus*, later confused with the city name Geneva). The indulgence in Dutch pleasures might also explain the presence of terms like *frolic* (*vrolijk*, meaning "joyful," related to German *fröhlich*) and *rant* (originally meaning "to be boisterously merry"). Dutch painting's esteem in England resulted in loanwords such as *easel, etch, landscape* (with its final element spawning numerous derivatives, including *moonscape* and *earthscape* as space exploration broadened perspectives),. Other miscellaneous loans from Low German encompass *luck, plunder, skate* (originating from Dutch *schaats*, with the final "-s" erroneously taken for a plural marker).

From South African Dutch, or Afrikaans, English has adopted terms such as *apartheid, commandeer, commando*. A range of loanwords entered American English through interactions between Americans and Dutch settlers, particularly in the New York area. These include Dutch-American culinary terms such as *coleslaw* (*koolsla*, meaning *cabbage salad*), *cookie*, *cranberry*. The wide range of other borrowings shows the various cultural exchanges between English and Dutch speakers in the New World, such as *bowery, caboose, dope, Santa Claus* (*Sante Klaas*, meaning *Saint Nicholas*).

As for the High German Loanwords, Algeo (2009, p.261) states that it had much less influence on the English language. A substantial portion of the lexicon in geology and mineralogy in the English language originates from German. For instance, terms such as *cobalt, feldspar* (which is a partial translation of *Feldspath*), and *quartz*, have German roots. The term *carouse* has been present in the English language since the sixteenth century, stemming from

the German *gar aus*, which equates to *bottoms up*. Initially an adverb, it swiftly transitioned into a verb and subsequently a noun.

Culinary vocabulary has also been enriched with German contributions, including *bratwurst, noodle* (*Nudel*)*, pretzel*. The term *Liederkranz* is associated with an American variety of Limburger cheese, likely named after a New York German singing society called "Wreath of Song." *Liverwurst* is a partial translation of *Leberwurst*. Meanwhile, *hamburger, frankfurter, and wiener* (derived from *wienerwurst*) are among the most popular German loanwords in English, although *hamburger* is now often abbreviated to *burger*, and the latter two have been largely replaced by *hot dog*.

In the realm of beverages and drinking, English has borrowed words such as *kirsch*(*wasser*)*, lager, and schnapps*.

Other German loanwords encompass angst, hamster, waltz, and dog breed names such as *dachshund, Doberman*(*n*) *pinscher, poodle* (*Pudel*). The lexicon further includes terms such as *edelweiss, ersatz, hinterland*, among others.

Technical linguistic terms such as *ablaut, umlaut,* and *schwa* (originating ultimately from Hebrew) have also been borrowed from the German language. While *blitz*(*krieg*) gained infamy during World War II, *blitz* has since been reincarnated with metaphorical applications.

Academic terminology in English has incorporated *seminar* and *semester*, introduced via German influence, particularly in the late nineteenth century when American and English scholars pursued doctorates in Germany. *Seminar* likely represents an independent borrowing in both British and American English. *Semester* is recognized in England but primarily reserved for reference to foreign universities. It is worth also noting that the term *academic freedom* in the English language is a calque or loan translation of the German phrase *akademische Freiheit*.

On a less formal note, American English has adopted expressions such as (*on the*) *fritz, gesundheit* (following a sneeze), *hex, kaffeeklatsch* (anglicised as *coffee clutch*), *kaput*, and *nix* (meaning *nothing*). German-Americans have played a role in adapting the German suffix "-fest" for English usage in terms such as *songfest* and *gabfest*.

Furthermore, some linguistic nuances have developed as a result of interactions with German-speaking settlers in specific regions of the United States, for instance, southern Pennsylvania. These include terms such as *smearcase* (cottage cheese from *Schmierkäse*), *snits* (referring to fruit prepared for drying), and *sots* (indicating *yeast*). *Kriss Kingle* or *Kriss Kringle* (from *Christkindl*, meaning *Christ child*) and *to dunk* have achieved nationwide recognition.

Yiddish, originating from *Jüdisch* (Jewish), has contributed numerous words to English, including *schmaltz, shnook, shtick,* and others, some of which have acquired distinctive ethnic connotations. Yiddish has also intro-

duced less delicate terms such as *tokus* (buttocks) *fakakta* or *verkakte* (*be-shitted*, later implying "useless". "stupid," or "crazy"). Additionally, the suffix "-nik," originally of Slavic origin but popularized by the Soviet *sputnik*, has been disseminated via Yiddish into English with forms like *nudnik*, extended to terms such as *beatnik, no-goodnik,* and *peacenik*. (Algeo, 2009)

3.7   Influx of Latin terms caused by the Christianisation of England

According to Hudson[5] (2019), during the Roman era, Christianity was introduced to Britain. Alban, a Roman soldier who died as a martyr in the year 303, was the first Briton to be regarded as a saint. English-speaking pagans conquered southern and eastern Britain after the fall of the Roman Empire, while Romano-British Christian settlements persisted, especially in the West. They included Gildas, who most likely penned The Ruin of Britain in the sixth century, and St. Patrick, who was born in South-West Britain in the late fourth or early fifth century. Gildas said that the Anglo-Saxons had vanquished the Britons because their kings were not sufficiently pious. From the end of the sixth century, the Anglo-Saxon kings started becoming Christians. Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People discusses this conversion process. Pope Gregory I (590–604) dispatched a group of missionaries, led by Augustine, who would go on to become the first archbishop of Canterbury, to the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. King Æthelberht (who died in 616) and his court were converted after they arrived in Kent in 597.

Christianity appealed to the Anglo-Saxons for an array of reasons. Perhaps it is no surprise that some people started adopting to Christianity around the time that bigger kingdoms started to emerge. Christianity gave people access to writing systems like the Latin language and the alphabet that are still in use today. These writing systems were developed by kings for the purpose of codifying the law and transferring property rights through charters. Political connections had an impact on the conversion as well. The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms and the Christians in Ireland had numerous cultural, social, and political contacts thanks to Æthelberht's marriage to Bertha, a Christian princess from the vicinity of Paris. It was difficult to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity. After a few Christian kings passed away, pagans took their place. While maintaining their pagan rites, some leaders adopted certain Christian traditions. Raedwald of East Anglia, who ruled in the seventh century, reportedly had a temple with a Christian altar and a pagan idol.

Church structures in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were still expanding several decades after Augustine's mission. In the 660s, the Canterbury archbishopric, which served as the church's administrative hub in Anglo-Saxon

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[5]   https://web.archive.org/web/20221115195428/https://www.bl.uk/anglo-saxons/ articles/religion-in-anglo-saxon-kingdoms

England, remained vacant for five years. There were just three bishops serving in England at the end of that decade. At the end of the seventh century, Abbot Hadrian and Archbishop Theodore of Canterbury reorganised the church. They rearranged the areas that each bishop was responsible for, and they instituted regular Church councils. (Hudson 2019)

Scheler (1977, p.72) cited in Haspelmath and Tadmor (2009, p.377) states that Latin derived terms constitute 22633 words in the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (Fowler, ed. 1964) which is 28.26% of the Modern English vocabulary. Some of the loanwords are Church (Latin Ecclesia), Angel (Latin Angelus) or Priest (Latin Presbyter)[6].

3.8   Scandinavian elements in English

Berndt (1982, p.22) states that the Germanic conquest of the majority of the British Isles started in the fifth century and completed around the end of the seventh and early eighth century, this ended with the Germanic tribes' settlements on the territory of Celtic-speaking Britons that were under conquerors rule. The situation shifted in the last third of the ninth century when northmen were not satisfied anymore with raiding east and south coasts. They started to occupy British settlements and territories in many parts of the island. That resulted with a massive community of Scandinavians forming their area of occupation. He further remarks on the influx of loans as follows:

> "It was certainly strongest here around the time of large-scale language shift of the descendants of the Danish and Norwegian settlers who had come to England in the wake of the Viking invasions. Since all the written evidence suggests that the Danes very soon adopted English liberally sprinkled with Scandinavian loan-words, as their normal means of communication, the period in question can hardly have been later than the tenth century." (Berndt 1982, p.22)

Yule (1996, p.218) provides some of the examples of the words that originate from the Old Norse language, those among others, are: *sky* (Old Norse *skȳ*), *they* (Old Norse *þeir*), or *leg* (Old Norse *leggr*).

Dance (2003, p.295–298;2016, p.65–66) states that Scandinavian languages were most influential in terms of loanwords in the Viking era period. Modern time Norse language loans in English are mainly oriented around their folklore (*troll, beserk, saga*) terms regarding their place of living (*fiord, geyser, floe*) or sport and cooking (*smorgasbord*). He describes it as hard to assess with certainty the etymology. Some of the words can be identified, however others are etymologically debatable. First problem is the closeness and similarity of Old English and Norse. Second issue is the so-called "patchiness" of the data of both languages before and while both parties came into contact with each other.

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6   Yule (1996:218). The Study of Language. Second Edition. Cambridge

Furthermore Dance (2003) remarks that around 100 different words often originating from Old Norse are recorded in texts classified as belonging to the Old English period. Many of these terms are part of small sets of fields. Most of them can be generally named "legal", however it includes words from other branches of life, not only legislation and attendant activities, but also relationship-based words that can be used in legal language, social ranking terms, or words that can be found in texts describing rights and responsibilities. By the conclusion of the Old English period, words in this field that are typically considered to be Norse-derived and that are incorporated in text include: *law* (Old Icelandic *Lǫg* and Old English *lagu*), *assembly* (Old Icelandic *húsþing* and Old English *hūsting*) or *lawsuit* (Old Icelandic *mál* and Old English *māl*). Another area where Icelandic borrowings are visible is the social status-related terminology, with terms such as: *slave, thrall* (Old Icelandic *þræll* and Old English *þrǽl*), *husband* (Old Icelandic *húsbóndi* and Old English *hūsbōnda*) or *fellow, partner* (Old Icelandic *félagi* and Old English *fēolaga*).

Other fields that have recognizably Norse origin include those related to navy and money with *fleets* (Old Icelandic *lið* and Old English *lið*), *warship* (Old Icelandic *skeið* and Old English *scegð*) and the monetary unit of weight *mark* (Old Icelandic *mǫrk* and Old English *marc*) being the prime examples.

Dance (2003) also describes that The majority of these terms could be considered "need-based" loans; that is, they reflect the need to name a recently imported Scandinavian cultural artefact (whether an item, a practice, or an idea) that could not be expressed as precisely or clearly using the native vocabulary, or to which a Scandinavian association adhered. It is not surprising that lexical elements of this type would be among the first to arise and be accepted in written texts where the language of the South and West of England predominates as they are typically seen as the most straightforward, easily adaptable form of borrowed material. However, there have previously been instances of Norse-derived items throughout this time period that lack any discernible conceptual innovation and stand in for concepts with terms that are common in the English language: *strong* (Old Icelandic *stórr* and Old English *stōr*) , *take* (Old Icelandic *taka* and Old English *tacan*) or *treasure* (Old Icelandic *gersemi, gørsemi* and Old English *gærsum*).

The scholar concludes that words of this calibre are still only occasionally preserved in writing and are occasionally connected to northern dialects. The vast majority of Scandinavian derivations that are first attested in later centuries were most likely in spoken usage somewhere in England before the 11th century was very old, and Old English texts already show some signs of the diffusion of this "basic" Norse-derived vocabulary that is prominent in the Middle English record.

3.9 Norman elements in English

According to the statistics by Scheler (1977, p.72) cited in Haspelmath and Tadmor (2009, p.377), there are 22724 words in the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (Fowler, 1964) that are etymologically of the French descent, these combined compose 28.37% of the Present-Day Standard English vocabulary.

The social situation on the English court, in view of which England was exposed to the Norman influence. It is common knowledge that, to the dispute about the succession between Harold Godwinson and William, the Duke of Normandy following the death of king Edward the Confessor in 1066. Harold, the brother-in-law of the deceased king, was named next successor. When William heard about the situation, he felt entitled to rule England on the basis of lineage and the fact that he was Edward's second cousin and therefore his closest living relative. Following the Battle of Hastings in 1066 William subjugated the whole country in the span of four years. Due to the fact that his reign came into fruition by military conquest he became known as William the Conqueror. His rule made a massive impact on the social and linguistic areas of England and its language. (Kida 2010, p.91)

Crystal (2018, p.30) describes why the French language was that prevalent on the English Isles. Due to William the Conqueror's rise to power, French quickly became the language of the elites. French noblemen were brought to England with their entourage.

Following that, French priests and bishops were taking high places in the English church hierarchy. In the span of 20 years after the invasion, almost all churches, chapels etc. were governed by the French overseers and a number of new establishments were purely French. Merchants and craftsmen from France saw an opportunity and came to England and took advantage of the new rule. Noblemen from Normandy kept their property in their land and the link between this region and Isles remained firm.

Moreover, Crystal remarks that due to the new political situation in England bilingualism was starting to be common. English people started to learn French in order to gain benefits from the nobility, and baronial people learned English to contact the native population. However, there are a few indications that the new hierarchy used the English language. This state of affairs would last for more than a century.

According to Petrák (2016, p.8) The spelling evolved throughout the Romance time period. The Norman scribes began to spell English using French spelling norms, such as substituting *qu* for *cw* eg. queen for *cwen*, after listening to English. They brought in *ch* instead of *c* in words like church and *gh* (instead of *h*) in words like night. Furthermore, they began to use *ou* for *u* (as in *house*) and use *c* before *e* (instead of *s*) in phrases such as *cercle* and *cell*. Due to the fact that *v, n*, and m were written extremely similarly and were consequently challenging to read, *o* was substituted for *u* to make things

easier to read. English spelling by the start of the 15th century was a hybrid of Old English and French. The /ɔɪ/ and /ʊɪ/ diphthongs, which are unique English sounds and preceding forms of the contemporary /ɔɪ/ in words like joy, point, etc., were also introduced by French loan words. Interesting alterations have also been made to the letter "h". Many Old English words began with this sound, including *hring* ("ring") and *hnecca* ("neck"). The earliest indication of "aitch-dropping" was lost when the Middle English era began.

Petrák (2016, p.9) provides the English words that derive from the French language and refer to different branches of life. In the field of administration there are terms such as: *Authority* (Old French *Autorite*), *Baillif* (Old French *Baillif*) and *Chamberlain* (Old French *Chamberlain*). Another crucial field in which French borrowings are visible is the field of the military. Terms that define key concepts in military, such as *Navy* (Old French *Navie*), *Siege* (Old French *Sege*) and even *Peace* (Old French *Pais*) are words of French origin. Lastly, such general terms as *Quality* (Old French *Qualite*), *Courage* (Old French *Corage*) or *Power* (Old French *Poeir*) illustrate how the French language is essentially embedded into English.

Sieleźnieva and Krasnova[7] state that following the Norman invasion, the "church," "courts of law," "arts of war," "trade with the continent," and "pastimes" of the nobility all began to mix with French culture. Many English words, such as *battle, court, countess, treasure,* and *charity*, have French roots. During the Middle English era, the French language had a widespread and pervasive influence on the English language. The frequent use of French vocabulary in English was the most significant impact the French had on the English language. It should be noted that one of Old English's tendencies was to extend its vocabulary primarily by combining native elements into self--interpreting compounds and adding prefixes and suffixes. About 75 percent of the more than 10,000 French words that migrated to English are still in use. There are several words having French roots that are used in English alongside native English words, and there are even occasionally words with Latin roots that have comparable meanings. Examples include *a king* (from the Old English *cyning*) and *royal* (from the French *roial*).

4 American English and other influences related to geographical expansion of the English language

4.1 Americanisms

Pederson (1992, p.22) states that nowadays about 350 million people around the world are native speakers of the English language. Among main

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7   https://s.econf.rae.ru/pdf/2017/06/6385.pdf

nationalities that communicate using various versions of English language are: American, Australian, British, Canadian, Irish, New Zealand, and Scots and it makes this language the most influential in the history of civilization. Their shared cultural foundation allows people from each of these nationalities to communicate in a single language, yet each national variety, with all of its regional and social dialects, reflects a distinct social experience. In the natural evolution of a national language, the most valuable resources can be found in folk speech, the unaltered, traditional way of speaking used by ordinary people and preserved through oral traditions. National folk speech is just one component of social dialects, which exist within regional dialects, and together they make up the broader categories representing the national variations of a language.

Derived from that swiftly evolving linguistic current, American English has evolved into a considerably more standardised form than its initial stages might imply. This phenomenon of the emergence of a unified American national language has been aptly coined by Einar Haugen as "Babel in reverse."

The initial substantial compilation of immigrant literature emerged in New England. Within this literary landscape, authors hewed closely to Elizabethan literary conventions, meticulously documenting an array of idiosyncratic spellings and distinctive linguistic forms. Notable examples include William Bradford's use of words such as *burthen, fadom, furder, gifen* (*given*)*, gusle* (*guzzle*)*, trible* (*triple*)*, and vacabund* (*vagabond*) in "The History of Plimoth Plantation," spanning the years 1620 to 1647. Similarly, Roger Williams demonstrated creative rhyming with "abode/God," "blood/good," and 'America/away' in his work "A Key into the Language of America" (1643). Anne Bradstreet, in 'The Tenth Muse Lately Sprung Up in America' (1650), paired words such as *conceit/great*, *stood/flood*, and *satisfy/reality*. Two generations later, Edward Taylor employed alterations such as *spoil* and *spile*, as well as *soot* and *sut*. Additionally, he crafted rhymes like *is/kiss, far/cur, and vile/soil.*

During this same era, cultural activity spanning the entire Atlantic coastline gave rise to the earliest Americanisms. Among numerous other words, hundreds of native terms either originated, took on distinct meanings, or were introduced into the English language through American discourse in the 17th century. For instance, *creek* (originally meaning stream), *fat pine*, *green corn,* and *papoose* all have their origins in Massachusetts. Virginia contributed words such as *catfish, corn* (referring to maize), *mocking*)*bird, polecat* (which we now know as the skunk), and *raccoon*. New York offered *Chippewa, groundhog* and *Manhattan*. Meanwhile, Maryland brought forth *gang* (used in the context of birds), *hominy, snakeroot,* and *Virginian*. Rhode Island introduced *frontier people, oyster rake* and *wampum*. Pennsylvania contributed words such as *grocery* (used to denote a store), *hotcakes* (referring to

corn cakes), *peavine* (a climbing plant akin to peas), and *sunfish*. Connecticut gave *settlement* and *swampland*, while South Carolina contributed *Dutch grass* (referring to various types of grass) and *hickory nut*. Additionally, in regions beyond the frontiers, the term *pilot* (meaning a guide over a land route) surfaced in what is now Colorado, and *Miami* emerged from what is currently Illinois. (Pederson, 1992)

Furthermore, Pederson provides list of loans that came into the English language from the contact with the Native American dialects, for instance, *caribou* and *toboggan* found their way into these languages through Canadian French in the northern regions, while *barbecue*, *canoe*, and *cushaw* were introduced via Spanish from the West Indies. Spanish also facilitated the incorporation of words like *coyote* and *peyote* from the Nahuatl language of Mexico. Moreover, the New Orleans term *lagniappe* likely originated from Quechua, possibly as a result of collaborative efforts between French and Spanish linguistics.

One of the most noteworthy contributions of Native American languages lies in the realm of American place names. These indigenous linguistic influences span across the continent, from the Appalachian and Allegheny regions to the shores of all five of the Great Lakes (*Erie, Ontario, Huron, Michigan,* and *Superior*, the latter derived from the Ojibwa term *Gitchi* via French *Supérieur*). The landscape is adorned with native words, extending from Chicago to Sitka. Emblematic of American language and culture are the blended place names, exemplified by instances such as *Bayou La Batre*, *Alabama* (where *bayuk* from Choctaw, meaning *creek*, combines with *de la Batre* from French, signifying *of the* [*artillery*] *battery*), and *Minneapolis, Minnesota* (a fusion of Dakota *minne*, meaning *water*, and Greek/English (*a*)*polis*, denoting *city*). Additionally, there are loan translations such as *Spearfish*, South Dakota; *Ten Sleep*, Wyoming; *Warroad*, Minnesota; and *Yellow Dirt Creek*, Georgia, alongside indigenous loaned names for states such as *Alabama* (derived from *people*), *Dakota* (also stemming from *people*), and *Minnesota* (formed by Dakota *minne*, meaning *water*, and *sota*, meaning *white*). (Pederson, 1992)

4.2   Influences of Spanish and Portuguese languages

Algeo (2009, p.258) states, that the English language has assimilated a multitude of words from various European languages through processes like travel, trade, exploration, and colonisation. During the sixteenth to eighteenth centuries, English adopted numerous Spanish and a smaller number of Portuguese terms, including some originating from non-European sources, particularly the New World. Spanish contributions to English include words such as: *alligator* (from *el lagarto*, meaning *the lizard*), *avocado* (from Nahuatl *ahuacatl*), *barbecue* (likely from Taino). *Mustang, ranch, rodeo*, some of these words may have been re-borrowed in the nineteenth cen-

tury, as the United States began encountering Spanish speakers along the southwestern border, thus representing a resurgence of earlier loanwords.

In the twentieth century, English adopted additional Spanish terms, including *frijoles refritos* and its loan translation, *refried beans*, as well as beverage-related terms such as *margarita* and *sangria*. Words such as *Chicano, Chicana, macho,* and *machismo* reflect social phenomena. *Hoosegow* comes from *juzgao*, meaning *jail*, a Mexican Spanish variation of *juzgado*, which refers to a *legal court*. The phrase *moment of truth*, signifying a critical time for making decisions or taking action (Algeo, 2009).

As for Portuguese, Algeo (2009, p.259) describes that direct incorporations into English only began in the Modern English period. These include words such as *albino, molasses,* and *pickaninny* (from *pequenino*, meaning very small), with the latter two borrowed through African pidgins. There are a few other Portuguese loanwords, albeit less commonly recognized.

4.3   Small influx of borrowing from Asian countries and Australasia

Algeo (2009, p.264) lastly presents loanwords that came into English from the countries of the Far East and South. He states that the incorporation of English words originating from languages spoken in the Orient is relatively limited in quantity, yet several of them are widely recognized. Although silk fiber has its roots in China, the etymology of the word *silk* (Old English: *sioloc* or *seol*(*e*)*c*) remains obscure. English has assimilated various terms from different Chinese dialects, such as *feng shui, ketchup, kowtow*. The term *typhoon* has been adapted from a Chinese word signifying big wind, with earlier roots spanning Portuguese, Urdu, Arabic, and ultimately Greek, thus bearing a complex etymological heritage. American expressions of Chinese origin *encompass chop suey, chow, chow mein,* and *tong* (referring to a secret society).

From the Japanese language, English has assimilated terms such as *aikido, anime* (referring to cartoon films) or *geisha. Godzilla, hanafuda* (literally translating to flower cards, which are used in various games), *hara-kiri, haiku, Pac-Man, Pokemon*, even *Walkman* (although it is formed from two English words), along with *judo, tofu, and tycoon*, which have Chinese origins. The term *Zen* ultimately traces its roots back to Sanskrit, via Chinese. *Kamikaze*, originally introduced during World War II to denote suicide pilots, literally translates to *divine wind* and has come to signify anything recklessly destructive.

From the Korean language, English has incorporated a few general terms, notably *kimchi* or *kimchee* (referring to spicy pickled cabbage, the national dish of Korea) and *taekwondo* (a martial art emphasising foot kicks). Prominent brand names originating from Korean include *Hyundai* (an automotive company) and *Samsung* (a conglomerate renowned for its electronics). (Algeo, 2009)

English has also adopted certain words from languages spoken in the Pacific Islands, primarily through French, Portuguese, Spanish, or Dutch influences. These include *bamboo, gingham, launch* (used to describe a boat), and *mangrove*. The term *rattan*, directly borrowed from Malay, first appeared in Samuel Pepys's Diary, not referring to the wood itself, but to a cane made from it. (Algeo, 2009)

Words of Polynesian origin, such as *taboo* and *tattoo* (referring to decorative permanent skin markings), as well as other terms from the same source, emerged in the English language during the voyages of Captain James Cook (1768–79) and were initially documented in his journals. Notably, *hula* (1825) originates from Hawaiian Polynesian, as do *luau* (1853), *kahuna* (1886), *ukulele* (1896), and *wiki* (derived from *wiki wiki*, signifying *very quick*, in the context of a collaborative website or software, post-1995). Captain Cook recorded the term *kangaroo* in 1770 during his exploration of Australia. Another Australian word, *boomerang*, is first attested in its native form, *womur-rāng*, in 1798, and in its English spelling in 1827. *Budgerigar*, also Australian, refers to a type of parrot and is well-recognized in England, where it is often shortened to *budgie* among bird enthusiasts, while it is commonly referred to as *parakeet* in the United States. (Algeo, 2009)

Conclusions

The aim of the study was to determine how many external influences are in the English language, as well as to define which languages are responsible for changing English. The core of the article was work of Crystal, Yule and Scheler which provide knowledge imperative to understanding this notion.

In this article, it is evident that the English language has been significantly influenced by a diverse array of sources. Originally, British English emerged as a blend of various linguistic inputs, including Celts, Germanic invaders, Scandinavian Vikings, Romans during their conquests, and notably, the French, whose vocabulary contributes to nearly 30 percent of the English dictionary. English incorporates lexical elements from numerous languages and dialects worldwide. However, the language's evolution became even more intriguing during the era of British expansion, when English came into contact with languages from other continents. When examining American English, one can observe its lack of a uniform lexicon; it exhibits substantial variation from its British source due to the United States' status as a "melting pot" of cultures and, consequently, languages among its citizens. A similar phenomenon can be observed wherever English is used, as the language continually evolves and absorbs new terms into its lexicon.

However, it is important to address these thesis limitations. Due to the vast amount of externally derived terms, it was impossible to acknowledge every single such word that is present in the English language. This article presents only the fracture of the extensive topic that are loanwords in the English language The paper may serve as an inspiration for additional study in the area to produce more thorough and conclusive findings regarding the external influences in the English language.

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