

CHAPTER II:

English: The Melting Pot of European Languages

English is Britain's black gold, with revenue in excess of £ 1 billion being earned annually from teaching English language in UK. It is the native tongue of some 300,000,000. It is the predominant language in 2 of the 6 inhabited continents (North America and Australia), and possesses a large block of speakers in a third (Europe) and a sizable one in a fourth (Africa). English is also by far the most important 'second language' in the world. English is the mother tongue of 300 million people while another 300 million uses it as a 2nd language. English currently, is the official or joint official language in more than 70 countries/states around the world followed by French and Arabic. However, Spanish, Portuguese and German lag a long way behind^(*).

Though English language is inflexional, but the English people are impatient of useless detail and have an innate gift for improvisation and 'muddling through'. It is to these characteristics that we owe the almost complete disappearance from English of all the inflexional machinery which still encumbers the other European languages, the replacement of grammatical gender by natural gender, the freedom and looseness of syntax, and obstinate retention of an artificial spelling which sometimes fails completely to represent the sound of the spoken word.

From the period of the Renaissance and of the great geographical discoveries, words were borrowed from almost every language in the world, which the result that such a national work as the great Oxford English Dictionary contains a larger number of words than are registered in any other European language. The 20,000 words or so inherited from Anglo-Saxon have increased to nearly half a million, though few people ever need to use more than a twentieth part of this vast vocabulary. Currently, the vocabulary of the agricultural labourer is as great as the vocabulary used by Shakespeare in the whole of his plays and 3 times that of Milton in the whole of his poems.

Brief History of English Language⁽²⁾⁽⁵⁾

1. Pre- or Prehistoric Old English: the period before written records, roughly 450-700 AD. During this period English diverged from the other members of the Germanic Languages to become a distinct language.

When Romans landed in Britain in 55 BC, the native Britons spoke a language which today still survives in Celtic tongues: the Gaelic (whose language is represented in the modern Irish), Scottish Gaelic (spoken on the Isle of Man), and Cymric (whose language is represented by Welsh, Cornish and French Breton). These Celtic languages are quite separate from English, and the only words which remain in use in England are found in ancient place-names: *avon*, meaning a river; and *aber*, meaning a river mouth, are 2 of these remote survivals. Romans however, began their occupation of Britain in 43 AD and

made their final departure about 410 AD. Between those dates, they built many towns, based on their original camp-sites. Latin for 'camp' is *castra*, and even to this day there are many towns with names ending in '*caster*' or '*chester*', as a reminder of the time of Roman occupation, for example: *Manchester*, *Dorchester*, *Lancaster*, *Chichester*. But there are virtually no other Roman words coming to English from that time.

2. **Old English:** Language historians call the language used by the *Anglo-Saxons* 'Old English' after the Germanic tribes who used it: the period from the appearance of written records in English up to the Norman Conquest of 1066 and sometimes up to year 1150 AD; it is abbreviated as O.E. in dictionaries.

When the last Roman ship left British shores about 410 AD this was the signal for land-hungry tribesmen of northern Europe to seek their fortunes in the British Isles. Boatload after boatload of eager immigrants came: Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, Franks. The Anglo-Saxon invasion had begun. The native Britons, or Celts, were pushed further and further into the fringes – into Cornwall, Wales, and Scotland. Meanwhile there was a kind of frantic free-for-all as the Saxon invaders seized whatever bits of land they could. The language they brought with them is known as Anglo-Saxon, or Old English. The oldest words in English language came from this period. Typically, they are short, pithy, and earthy. The names of animals, birds, trees, and the elemental things of life are Anglo-Saxon in origin. Pig, cow, sheep, sun, moon, star, mother, father, water, earth, life, death: all these are Old English words. There are countless place-names too, dating from this Anglo-Saxon invasion. Typically, a boatload of Saxons would show allegiance to their leader, whose name is still to be found incorporated in the place-name where they eventually settled. The Saxon word *ingas* meant 'family' or 'followers', so that when a boatload landed, the chief's name (say, Tota, Wocca, Haefer, or Padda) would be perpetuated in the name of the spot where he carved out his little kingdom, and this would be followed by '-ing' to show that Tota's family or Wocca's followers had settled there with him. Tooting, Woking, Haevering and Paddington are typical examples. A ham meant 'home' or 'homestead' and a tun was 'enclosure' and later came to mean 'village' or 'town'. So a village with a name such as Donington would suggest that it was the 'town where Dunna's people live'.

3. **Middle English** represents the period from the Norman Conquest to the arrival of printing in Britain in 1476. The Conquest saw the large-scale replacement of the old Anglo-Saxon aristocracy with a French-speaking and European-centred elite. Although English remained in widespread use in speech, it lost in national status; documentary functions were taken over by Latin, which was undergoing a revival in Western Europe, while many literary functions were taken over by varieties of French.

Probably the most famous writer in the Middle Ages was Chaucer (1340-1400), who was writing his *Canterbury Tales* in the 1380s. This is written in M.E. and although it looks strange at first sight, modern readers can usually come to read and understand it without too much difficulty. 'O.E.', on the other hand, needs a specialist to make sense of it.

By about 1500 AD English had become almost 'modern', although of course the spellings were often very different, and the vocabulary was naturally smaller than that of present-day English because it dealt with a much simpler life-style.

By that time the fusion of Saxon Norman French was beginning to form a new language: and this, spoken and written from 1150 to 1500, is known as 'Middle English' – often abbreviated as M.E. in dictionaries.

4. **Early Modern English** is the period from 1476 to the early 18th century. Caxton's introduction of printing to England at the end of the 15th century coincided with the elaboration of English as a vernacular capable of being used for all linguistic functions. The foundation of the modern British state following the Act of Union between England, Wales and Scotland (1707) may be taken as an external marker of the end of the Early Modern period ⁽⁵⁾.
5. **Later Modern English** is the period from early 18th century to the present-day.

Components of English Language ^{(1) (3)}

1. Old English (Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse)

Anglo-Saxon since the coming of the "Danes", English has been steadily shedding its grammar, partly from linguistic laziness, and partly as a result of contact with Old Norse and Old French. Bernard Shaw stated that "useless grammar is a devastating plague". Particularly characteristic is the gradual substitution of natural gender for grammatical gender, a piece of practical common-sense in which English stands alone among European languages. In Anglo-Saxon, *muth*, mouth, was masculine; *nosu*, nose, feminine; and *eage*, eye, neuter; genders which the corresponding German words still keep. Anglo-Saxon was the speech of the common people. Feminine nouns had no ending in Anglo-Saxon, but gradually adopted it in Middle English: *Thurs-day* from the god Thor, but *Fri-day* from the goddess Freya. There were various plural endings, becoming Middle English *-es* or *-s* and *-en*. The final triumph was no doubt helped by the French plural *-s*. Of the *-en* plurals only *oxen* survives, for *brethren* and *children* are not quite simple cases.

The Christianizing of Britain Coming from Rome in 597 AD Augustine landed in Kent with his 40 missionary monks with the firm intention of converting the British to Christianity. Luckily for Augustine, king Ethelbert of Kent gave him a friendly reception; after all, Ethelbert's wife, Queen Bertha, was already a Christian. Ethelbert himself was soon baptized, and Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. By the time Augustine died, 7 years later, the whole of the kingdom of Kent had become Christian. In the course of a century the Anglo-Saxons were converted to Christianity. The importance of this on English language was that many Latin words, at first mostly connected with the church, but then more general vocabulary, came into use. Church words from this time include: *abbot, alms, altar, candle, disciple, hymn, relic, rule, shrine, temple*. More general Latin-derived words then added to English language include: *cap, sock, purple, school, lily, plant, anchor, fever*.

Old Norse: Scandinavian Invasions (Vikings and Danes) Waves of Scandinavian attacks upon England began in 787. Although their language (Old Norse) was similar to that of the Saxons, there were differences for example in pronunciation. Old English often had a soft 'sh' sound, whilst the Scandinavians had a harder 'sk' sound. Thus, Old English has *ship, shall, fish*, but Scandinavian words retain the hardness of *sky, skin, skill, scrape* and *scrub*.

Interestingly, Old English has given us '*shirt*', whilst the corresponding Old Norse word has come down to us as '*skirt*'; really, versions of the same word.

It was a kindred race whom we call collectively, the "Danes", though they came from all 3 of the Scandinavian countries. The conflict between the English and these invaders, for whom the better name is "Vikings", was to some extent religious, for the Danes were still pagans. Perhaps the clearest evidence of those Viking invasions is to be found in place-names ending in '-by', a Danish word meaning a farm or town. We have more than 600 of these, e.g. *Derby, Rugby, Grimsby, Whitby*. Other Scandinavian place-name elements are 'thorpe', meaning village; and 'toft', meaning a farmstead. Thus, place-names endings in **-by, -thorp, -dale, -hwaite**, always indicate a Danish settlement.

The completeness of the fusion of the 2 languages (Old Norse and Anglo-Saxon) is shown by the homely and everyday character of the Old Norse contribution. To it belong such familiar nouns as *anger, egg, fellow, husband, leg, plough, root, skill, sky, trust, window, wing*, and even such an intimate word as *sister*, such adjectives as *ill, loose, low, meek, odd, rotten, scant, ugly, wrong*, and such verbs as *call, cast, drown, put, take, thrive*. Also from Old Norse came the pronouns, *they* and *them*, and the prepositions, *till* and *fro*, the latter surviving only as an adverb in "*to and fro*". The Vikings also introduced a number of administrative words, such as *law*, but these were mostly replaced after Conquest by French terms.

By the end of the Anglo-Saxon period, circa 1150, the spoken language of the Englishman was a blend of 2 closely related Teutonic tongues, the original vocabulary had been greatly enriched and the complicated inflexional system of Anglo-Saxon had been simplified to an extent without a parallel in other Teutonic languages.

The everyday conversation is still founded on and funded by Old English. All of the following are Old English: *is, you, man, son, daughter, friend, house, drink, here, there, the, in, on, into, by, from, come, go, sheep, shepherd, ox, earth, home, horse, ground, plough, swine, mouse, dog, wood, field, work, eyes, ears, mouth, nose, broth, fish, fowl, herring, love, fast, like, sing, glee, mirth, laughter, night, day, sun, word*. These words are the English foundation. We can have intelligent conversations in Old English and only rarely need we swerve away from it. Almost all of the hundred most common words in English language worldwide, come from Old English. There are 3 from Old Norse, 'they', 'their' and 'them', and the first French-derived word is 'number', in at seventy-six⁽³⁾.

The hundred words are: 1. the; 2. Of; 3. and; 4. a; 5. to; 6. in; 7. is; 8. you; 9. that; 10. it; 11. he; 12. was; 13. for; 14. on; 15. are; 16. as; 17. with; 18. his; 19. they; 20. I; 21. at; 22. be; 23. this; 24. have; 25. from; 26. or; 27. one; 28. had; 29. by; 30. word; 31. but; 32. not; 33. what; 34. all; 35. were; 36. we; 37. when; 38. your; 39. can; 40. said; 41. there; 42. use; 43. an; 44. each; 45. which; 46. she; 47. do; 48. how; 49. their; 50. if; 51. will; 52. up; 53. other; 54. about; 55. Out; 56. many; 57. then; 58. them; 59. these; 60. so; 61. some; 62. her; 63. would; 64. make; 65. like; 66. him; 67. into; 68. time; 69. has; 70. look; 71. two; 72. more; 73. write; 74. go; 75. see; 76. number; 77. no; 78. way; 79. could; 80. people; 81. my; 82. than; 83. first; 84. water; 85. been; 86. call; 87. who; 88. oil; 89. its; 90. now; 92. find; 92. long; 93. down; 94. day; 95. did; 96. get; 97. come; 98. made; 99. may; 100. part⁽³⁾.

II. French influence: Year 1066 AD is the momentous date in English history, when Duke William of Normandy beat King Harold at the battle of Hastings and settled himself on

the throne of England as King William I. The occupation of the British Isles by the Normans had a cataclysmic effect upon the language. What happened was virtually a grafting of one whole language upon another. And, of course, Norman French itself was largely based on Latin. It took centuries for the 2 languages to fuse together completely, but the final result was that today language has an enormous vocabulary – literally twice as large as most others. Among European languages, the English has an exceptionally large choice of alternatives, usually one set of words based on the Anglo-Saxon heritage and another based on Latin/Norman French.

Even those elemental words: *pig*, *cow*, *sheep*, have alternatives. It has wryly been observed that these animals retain their Saxon names when in the fields, looked after by the Saxon peasants, but were given Norman names when they were cooked and served up to the Norman overlords⁽²⁾:

Thus: *pig* turns into *pork*

cow into *beef*

sheep into *mutton*

calf into *veal*

deer into *venison*.

Also Saxon short words are paralleled by Latin (see under Latin Influence below) with subtle differences⁽²⁾: Thus Old English

'*sun*' has the Latin-based adjective '*solar*'

'*moon*' has '*lunar*'

'*star*' has '*stella*'

'*motherly*' is not quite the same as '*maternal*'

'*fatherly*' becomes '*paternal*'

'*watery*' – '*aquatic*'

'*earthy*' – '*terrestrial*'

'*lively*' – '*vital*'

'*deathly*' – '*mortal*'

With the Norman Conquest begins one of the most curious and interesting phenomena in linguistic history, the complete fusion of 2 languages, one purely Teutonic (blended Old Norse with Anglo-Saxon), the other of Latin origin (Norman French). Just as before 1066 and up to circa 1150, when Middle English may be said to begin, speech was a mixture of the original Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse, so, from the Conquest onward, it became gradually blended with Old French, but have been considerably altered in form and sound. On Christmas Day 1066, William was crowned in Westminster Abbey. The service was conducted in English and Latin. William spoke French throughout. French ruled. And the French language of rule, of power, of authority, of superiority, buried the English language. The saturation of Middle English with French words was not the immediate result of the Norman Conquest. The invaders were not numerous, and unless reinforced, would gradually

have adopted the language of the conquered, just as their Viking ancestors have adopted French when they converted Neustria into Normandy. For centuries after the Conquest England and France were in ceaseless contact. William and his sons were still Dukes of Normandy, the Plantagenet kings ruled vast provinces in France and much of the country was subject to the English crown during the Hundred Years War, which began in 1337.

These centuries were a rather barren period in English literature. Because French was at that time the international language of trade, it acted as a conduit, directly or indirectly (via Latin), for words from the markets of the East. Arabic words that it then gave to English include: 'saffron' (*safran*), 'mattress' (*materas*), 'hazard' (*hasard*), 'camphor' (*camphre*), 'alchemy' (*alquimie*), 'lute' (*lut*), 'amber' (*ambre*), 'syrup' (*sirop*). The word 'checkmate' comes through the French 'eschec mat' from Arabic 'Shah mat', meaning the king is dead⁽⁵⁾.

French was not only, until 162, the language of the law and administration, but also that of polite society. The town crier's *Oyez!* is Old French for "Hear" (an interesting survival). As late as the 14th century schoolboys construed their Latin into French, all who aspired to social elegance interlarded their remarks with French words and phrases, and educated products of the schools were generally tri-lingual. A friend of Chaucer, "Moral Gower", the poet and philosopher, who died in 1408, wrote one book in English, one in French, and one in Latin.

French contributed words of the ruling race. The native king and queen survived, but borrowed their *throne*, *crown* and *scepter* from Old French. Titles of the chief officers of the crown are French such as, *chancellor*, *marshal* and *constable*. The same applies to most words connected with the administration of justice, e.g. *judge*, *jury*, *assize*, *prison*, *goal*, and the formal names of crimes such as *felony*, *arson*, *larceny*. These terms belong to Law French, a barbarous form of Anglo-French which was not formally abolished till 1731.

Also words connected with property include *lease*, *tenant*, *heir*. *Peace* and *war* and most of the words connected with the latter are also French, e.g. *host*, later replaced by *army*, *armour*, *banner*, *battle*, *fortress*, *siege*, *tower*. *Sir* and *madam*, *master*, *mistress* and *servant* are evidently from the vocabulary of a dominant class and are French. Ecclesiastical words which point to the influence of the Norman churchmen are *abbey*, *altar*, *clergy*, *cloister*, *parish*, *saint*, *sermon* and the verbs *pray* and *preach*. While names of the domestic animals are English, the meat they provide has French names, such as beef, mutton, pork and veal due to superiority of French cooking over English.

It may be remarked that the chief meal of the day, *dinner*, has a French name and that epicures like to employ a chef as the ruler of their cuisine.

Artistic sport gave English *chase*, *park*, *leach*, *quarry*, *scent*, *falconry* and from knightly exercises we have *tourney*, *joust*, *lists*. The superiority of the foreign architects is seen in *aisle*, *arch*, *column*, *nave*, *dungeon*, *palace*, *pillar*, *porch*, *vault*. Names of relationship outside the family circle, *uncle*, *aunt*, *cousin*, *nephew*, *niece*, are all French. While humble trades remained English (e.g. baker, miller, smith, weaver), the luxury trades took French names, such as *draper*, *spicer*, *tailor*. It was probably during the early period, when the 2 languages existed side by side, but had not yet become one, that it became the practice to add an explanatory French word to an English word. Familiar examples are "goods

and chattels", "law and order", "ways and means", "lord and master". Later this became merely a literary mannerism.

By Geoffrey Chaucer's time (1340-1400), the fusion was complete. The nation and the language were both unified, and the noble of Norman descent, whose ancestors had despised the conquered English, now gloried in the name of Englishman. The upper class is no longer French, nor the peasant class Anglo-Saxon: all are English.

So complete was the fusion of the 2 languages that we are not conscious of using an English and a foreign word in such familiar collocations as "wholesale and retail", "touch and go", "a happy release", "a blessing in disguise" in alliterative phrases like "without fear or favour", "slow and sure", "rack (originally wrack) and ruin", or in compounds such as *absent-minded*, *poverty-stricken*. English people can add an English suffix to a French word as in *dukedom*, *artless*, or a French suffix to an English word as in *riddance*, *eatable*. Many compound nouns e.g. *arm-chair*, *time-table*, *gentle-man*, *grand-father*, *common-wealth*, are hybrid formations.

The borrowing of French words has gone on steadily through the centuries. During the long reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715) France was the dominant power in Europe and French manners, literature and fashions were everywhere imitated. From approximately this period dates the greater part of military vocabulary, words such *colonel*, *lieutenant*, *brigade*, *reconnoiter*, *sortie* (See Table below on Title-names of the Military Ranks).

Since the Peace of Nymwegen (1678) French has been recognized as the diplomatic language of Europe, hence such words and expressions as *ballon d'essai*, *charge d'affaires*, *de'marche*, *de'menti*, *entente*, and in recent times a great number of French words and phrases have become current English, justifiably so as English has no exact equivalent. Such are *agent provocateur*, *camouflage*, *canard*, *cliché*, *coup d'état*, *flair*, *laissez-faire*, *nonchalant*, *sabotage*, *succès d'estime*.

Norman French ruled for almost 300 years, making English the third tongue (Latin was the language of the powerful Church) in its own country. The amazing story here is that of a subjugated and oppressed language literally taking on its conqueror (in these years English absorbed over 12,000 French words) and turning the oppressor's tongue into its own⁽⁴⁾.

(Table on the Title Names of the Military Ranks in Different Languages)

Notice that the French words for military ranks (the origin of Anglo-American words): Marshal, General, Colonel, Capitaine, Sergeant, Caporal, and Soldat (in French) are words that are derived from Arabic origin

FRENCH	ANGALO-AMERICAN	PAKISTANI	ARABIC
MARSHAL	FIELD-MARSHAL	MARSHAL	مُشِير (مهيب) (تاج وسيفان و ۲ نجوم)
GENERAL D'ARMEE	GENERAL	GENERAL	فريق أول (تاج وسيفان ونجمتان)

FRENCH	ANGALO-AMERICAN	PAKISTANI	ARABIC
GENERAL DE CORPS- D'ARMEE	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	LIEUTENANT GENERAL	فريق (تاج و سیفان و نجمة)
GENERAL DE DIVISION	MAJOR GENERAL	MAJOR GENERAL	لواء (تاج و سیفان)
GENERAL DE BRIGADE	BRIGADIER GENERAL	BRIGADIER	عمید (تاج و ۳ نجوم)
COLONEL	COLONEL	COLONEL	عقید (تاج و نجمتان)
LIEUTENANT COLONEL	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	LIEUTENANT COLONEL	مقدم (تاج و نجمة)
COMMANDANT	MAJOR	MAJOR	رائد (تاج)
CAPITAINE	CAPTAIN	CAPTAIN	نقیب (۳ نجوم)
LIEUTENANT	FIRST LIEUTENANT	LIEUTENANT	ملازم اول (نجمتان)
SOUS-LIEUTENANT	SECOND LIEUTENANT	SECOND LIEUTENANT	ملازم (نجمة)
ADJUDANT CHEF	SERGEANT MAJOR OF the army	SUBEDAR MAJOR	رئیس رقباء
ADJUDANT	SERGEANT MAJOR	SUBEDAR	رقیب اول
SERGEANT-CHEF	MASTER SERGEANT	NAIB / SUBEDAR	رقیب
SERGEANT	SERGEANT	HAVILDAR	وکیل رقیب
CAPORAL-CHEF	CORPORAL	NAIK	عریف
CAPORAL	PRIVATE FIRST CLASS	LANCE NAIK	جندی اول
SOLDAT	PRIVATE	SEPOY	جندی

In 1399, King Richard II was deposed by Henry, Duke of Lancaster. The document deposing him and his speech of abdication are in English. Parliament was summoned to the Great Hall at Westminster. The dukes and lords, spiritual and temporal, were assembled. The royal throne, draped in cloth of gold, stood empty. Then Henry stepped forward, crowned himself, and claimed the crown (**King Henry IV**). In a great symbolic moment he made his speech not in the Latin language of state business, not in the French language of the royal household, but in what the official history, tellingly, calls 'His Mother Tongue' English:

'In the name of Fadir, Son, and Holy Gost, I, Henry of Lancaster challenge this rewme of Yngland and the corone with all the members and the appurtenances, als I that am disendit be right Tyne of the Mode comyng fro the gude lorde Kyng Henry Therde, and thorghe that ryght that God of his grace hath sent me, with the helpe of my kyn and of my frendes, to recover it - the whiche rewme was in poynt to be undone for defaut of

governance and undoing of the gode lawes.'

(In the name of the Father, Son and Holy Ghost, I, Henry of Lancaster, claim this realm of England and the crown with all its property and privileges - because I am legitimately descended from the blood of the good lord King Henry the Third - and by that right that God's grace has granted me, with the help of both my family and my friends recover it: the which realm was in danger of being ruined by the government and the undoing of good laws.)

Henry, Duke of Lancaster became King Henry IV and English, was once again a royal language. It had been touch-and-go many times. And Latin and French had not lost their grip as the languages of official business and of the Church. But English had made its boldest public gain for three centuries and it sat once more on throne. At last the tide seemed to be turning in its favour, although there would be much blood spilled before it gained status as the language in all matters to do with English life.

III. Latin influence: The other great foreign element in English language is Latin. Latin language influenced English on 4 occasions:

- following Roman occupation;
- during christening of Britain;
- during Norman French invasion; and
- perhaps from Wycliffe English Bible (translated from Latin).

The most potent influence in the civilization of Western Europe was that of the Romans. From Latin come Italian, French, Spanish and other Romance languages with only trifling contributions from other sources. The Teutonic races took from Latin only those words which might naturally be useful where the 2 races came in contact. The earliest are, apart from religious element, mostly short words of a purely material character, descriptive of the improved standard of life due to the superiority of the Romans in the useful arts. The names of fruits (except the native apple and berry) come either immediately from Latin or indirectly through French and the same applies to vegetables, among which only the homely bean is English. From Latin come also: *wine, cook, kitchen, dish, butter and cheese*, and the superiority of Roman building is reflected in the words: *tile* and *wall*. Commerce and administration have given: *mile, inch, mint, pound*.

The early Church words are mostly Greco-Latin and some of them, such as *angel, devil, minster, church*, were known to the Anglo-Saxons before they arrived in Britain, for, though they had never worshipped in Christian churches, they had often sacked or burnt them; but the great mass of Church words came in with St. Augustine and his successors. The Anglo-Saxons took over the chief ecclesiastical titles, such as *bishop (episcopus), abbot (abbas), monk (monachus)*, etc. but they generally translated other Church words. The Greco-Latin *evangelium*, good tidings, became *god-spel*, now *gospel*; but in the Wycliffite Bible most of this vocabulary was replaced by words of Latin origin, e.g. *Trinity* instead of the Anglo-Saxon thrines, and *resurrection* instead of aerie.

Indeed Latin in Anglo-Saxon and medieval times was practically the only subject of instruction in schools, and serious literature, from the time of the Venerable Bede (675-735) down to that of Francis Bacon (1561-1626), was generally written in that language. The great prestige of French literature during the Middle Ages familiarized people with a vocabulary of Latin origin and the Wycliffite translation of the Bible, made from Latin texts, brought further

reinforcement. The consequence is that English, alone of the Teutonic languages, is saturated with Latin, and a census of English vocabulary would show that the Latin element is the largest of all. Latin influence grew greatly during the 17th and 18th centuries; opinions differ regarding this great importation of Latin into English. Scientific writers, from T. H. Huxley to H. G. Wells were hostile to classical studies. The latter (H. G. Wells) criticized Latin boring grammar; but in his book (*Phoenix*), he makes use himself of such Latin tags as *homo sapiens*, *a priori*, *quid pro quo*, *ad hoc*, *sine qua non*, reminiscent of the medieval theologians and philosophers for whom Latin was a kind of native tongue.

Few people realize what an immense number of Latin words and phrases we use in an unaltered form, e.g. such nouns as *genius*, *index*, *omen*, *tribunal*; or such phrases, many of them from Low Latin, as *prima facie*, *bona-fide*, *post-mortem*. Nouns were made from the adverb: *alibi*, *interim*, *item*, *tandem*; and from the verb forms *memento*, *memorandum*, *fiat*, *propaganda* and *innuendo*. We have the dative plural in *omnibus*, a genitive plural in *quorum*. The adverb *quondam* has supplied us with an adjective. We are hardly conscious of using Latin words when we say *junior* and *senior*, *maximum* and *minimum*. Often people indulge of their love of abbreviation, as in *postscriptum*, *infra dig(nitatem)*, *pro tem(pore)*, *nem(in-) con(tradicente)*, or indulge in ellipses as in *status quo (ante)*.

Another result of the wholesale adoption of Latin words is that the adjective connected with a noun is often remote from it in origin. Thus, corresponding to the nouns *mouth*, *nose*, *eye*, we have the adjectives *oral*, *nasal*, *ocular*, the *ox* is *bovine*, the *dog* is *canine*, the *cat* is *feline*, whereas in a kindred language like German the adjective is constructed from the noun. Some consider this a defect in the English language.

One result of the language was that many words were reconstructed in accordance with their derivation. The parfit from Old French became *perfect*, with a changed pronunciation, but *visual* for the earlier *vittle* (French *vitaille*) is still sounded and pronounced (*vit'l*) as it was by ancestors. There are also pairs of words, often with different meanings, e.g. *frail*, *poison*, *fealty*, *caitiff*, from Old French, are now accompanied by *fragile*, *poison*, *fidelity*, *captive* from Latin.

In spite of the fact that English language is now a complete fusion of Old English (i.e. Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse), French and Latin, it is still, by its essential vocabulary, its grammatical structure and what may be called its machinery, a Teutonic tongue. For many ideas we now have 3 words: native, French and Latin, e.g. *kingly*, *royal*, *regal*, each with its own special appropriateness, but it will generally be found that the native word is the richest in emotional and picturesque content.

Greek Element of English⁽¹⁾

Is rather insignificant, until recent times. The earliest words from this source, such as *apostle* and *bishop*, reached us in a Latinized form through the Roman missionaries. Few men knew Greek in the Middle Ages, but some essential words, such as *arithmetic*, *astronomy*, *mathematics*, *comedy* and *tragedy*, *physic*, are recorded. These usually came through Old French with a phonetic spelling, e.g. *fisicien*, now restored to *physician*. So also French *fantaisie* gave *fantasy*, soon reduced to *fancy* and later accompanied by learned form *phantasy*. At the Renaissance, Greek words began to be adopted freely, often in an unaltered form, e.g. *analysis* and *synthesis*, *climax*, *hypothesis*, *nemesis*, *pathos*, all recorded in the 16th and 17th centuries.

The compounds of such prefixes as *meta-*, *para-*, *hyper-*, *hypo-* run into hundreds and the same applies to words beginning with *auto-*, *hetero-*, *hydro-*, *phenol-*, or ending in *-ology* and *-ism*. This vocabulary is rather algebraic than linguistic, but is of great value for international currency. Greek is peculiarly fitted for scientific language because of its richness in affixes and its adaptability to new formations. For instance, *supposition* is the exact Latin translation of the Greek *hypothesis*, but nobody would deny that for scientific purposes hypothesis is the better word.

Arabic Element of English Language:

The Arabic influence is deeply rooted within the English language, but it is unfortunately either wittingly marginalized or unwittingly ignored (*For details, see Chapter 3 of 'Paradise Introduction' and also see 'Paradise Dictionary' in its entirety*). *Sources of Arabic words in English Language* include:

- Arab's interaction with **Scandinavian Vikings** is well rooted in history⁽⁶⁾. The Arabic traveller Ahmad Ibn Fadlan, an Arabic chronicler, wrote the embassy to the king of the Bulgars of the middle Volga in the year A.D. 912. He described how the Vikings acted and what they looked like when they were trading in the Bulgar Capital. This embassy provided a unique source for all academic studies about the Vikings: it displayed a good overview about how the Vikings lived their lives and details of Scandinavian personal qualities, tradings, culture, as well as their death sermons (his journey was shown in a famous movie: *'The 13th Warrior'*). Furthermore, many Arab authors as Ibn Horradadbeh (died 912 A.D.) and Ibn Rustah (died after 923 A.D.) described Norsemen and Scandinavian traders in Russia. Conversely, Many Vikings like Orm and Ingvar visited Baghdad (centre of Islamic Caliphate) circa A.D. 1020. Great Scandinavian fur trade and iron in ingot form were probably imported into Muslim countries from the North. An archaeologist has no difficulty in identifying exotic things found in Viking graves – a coin from Baghdad for example. Indeed, that the Vikings used coins from Western Europe and the Arab world is well attested by the following table which records the approximate number of coins dated between 800 and 1100 found in Scandinavia. This of course omits the coins minted in Scandinavia in the late Viking period, of which quite a large number survive (6,600 for example from Denmark):

	Arabic	Anglo-Saxon	Frankish/German
	coins	coins	coins
Norway	400	2,600 +	2,500 +
Sweden	52,000	30,000	58,500
Denmark	3,500	5,300	9,000

Generally speaking the Muslim coins (silver dirhams) are the earlier element (first appearing in the North towards the end of the ninth century), but about A.D. 970 there seems to have been a crisis, perhaps owing to the mid-tenth-century development of silver mines in the Harz mountains, and western coins and coins from the western part of the Islamic Caliphate begin to predominate in the Scandinavian hoards⁽⁶⁾. *This huge volume of Arab-Viking trading exchange and extensive contacts with Islamic civilisation must have been*

*reflect*ed in linguistic Arabic influence on the Norse and the Scandinavian language (which is an important source of Old English language).

- English borrowed from Arabic indirectly through interactions with Portugal and Spain i.e. Iberian Peninsula where the Arabic-speaking Muslims conquered, settled, and flourished for nearly 8 centuries from 711 to 1492 where they were expelled by Spanish Reconquest (See chapter 3).
- Also Arabic words entered English through Norman French medium. Norman French people occupied England and occupied Arabic Sicily and during the Crusade wars occupied the Arabic Mediterranean coast as well. Such Arabic words entered Old French, and then through Normans entered English. Alternatively, Arabic words entered Latin, then entered French and, then through French Norman medium entered into English. Thus Norman French was the carrying medium for Arabic words twice.
- English borrowed from Arabic directly during the long occupation by English armies of the Arabic Mediterranean coast during the Crusade wars. The correspondence between king Richard Coeur de Lion (the Lionhearted) and Sultan Saladin represents a sample of contacts and Arabic influence on English language (see chapter 3).
- Reversed translation of Arabic textbooks into Latin during Renaissance period. Indeed, such Latin translated versions of Arabic Textbooks proved to be an important source of the European Renaissance. Latinized versions of Arabic words in Science and Medicine were borrowed either in the same Arabic form (e.g. Canon, law from Arabic *qanoon*) or as a Latin calque, a loan adapted word i.e. literal translation of foreign expression (e.g. *pia mater*, the intimate mother of the brain is from Arabic *umm hanoon*).
- Arabic words were borrowed into English during geographical explorations and commercial communications directly or indirectly via Spanish, French, and Italian languages.
- Arabic words entered English directly via British colonization of the Middle East particularly Egypt. Alternatively, Arabic words entered English indirectly via colonization of India (from Arabic into Hindi and then into English). Thus British colonies provide a carrying medium for Arabic words twice.
- More importantly, the Arabic-related Sumero-Phoenician language has tremendous influence on the pre-Roman Britain and pre-history Europe. Dr L. Austine Waddell in a pioneering contribution and original research, documented in his book entitled: "The Phoenician Origin of Britons Scots and Anglo Saxons Discovered by Phoenician and Sumerian Inscriptions in Britain, by Pre-Roman Briton Coins & A Mass of New History" (printed by Williams & Norgate, 1924, and 2nd edition, 1925 - Kessinger Publishing Rare Reprints www.kessinger.net), he revealed a Plate showing: Phoenician inscriptions on Newton Stone of "Partolon, king of the Scots" about 400 B.C. calling himself "Briton", "Hittite", and "Phoenician". Dr Waddell then said in the preface, page v:

(That long-lost origin and early history of our ancestors, the Britons, Scots, and Anglo-Saxons, in the "Pre-historic" and Pre-Roman periods, back to about 3000 B.C., are now recovered to a great extent in the present work, by means of newly discovered historical evidence).

Dr L. Austine Waddell then wrote another book entitled: "Sumer-Aryan Dictionary – An Etymological Lexicon of the English & Other Aryan Languages Ancient & Modern & The Sumerian Origin of Egyptian & Its Hieroglyphs" with plates (printed by Luzac & Co. London, 1927 - Kessinger Publishing Rare Reprints www.kessinger.net) said in the introduction, pages ix-x:

(I was led by the facts to observe that the Sumerians were the Early Aryans...that "the whole family of Aryan languages with their written letters is derived from the Phoenician language and script and its parent the Sumerian, and that about fifty per cent. Of the commonest words in use in the English language to-day is discovered to be Sumerian in origin with the same word-form, sound and meaning.")

Also Dr L. Austine Waddell in his book entitled: "The Aryan Origin of the Alphabet: Disclosing the Sumero-Phoenician Parentage of our Letters, Ancient and Modern" with plates and other illustrations (printed by Luzac & Co. London, 1927 - Kessinger Publishing Rare Reprints www.kessinger.net) said in page 3:

(the "Cadmean Phoenician" is the immediate parent of our modern English and European alphabet. The name "Cadmean" was applied to it by the early Greeks after its introducer, King Cadmus The Phoenician of Tyre).

But whether Sumero-Phoenician is Aryan (as Dr Waddell thinks), or Semitic or Hamitic (as others think) is a matter of speculations. Indeed, Dr Waddell himself said on the same last page of quotation. *(The earliest-known instances of reversed or "Semitic" (or rather, according to the Hebrew nomenclature, Hamitic). Perhaps, the proximity and the strong relationship of Sumero-Phoenician language to the Arabic language might have deterred the biased Eurocentric westerners not to attribute their language to the Arabic-Asian Semite origin (relating to Sam or Sham, the son of Noah). However, such Europeans should find some consolation in the First Chapter which, revealed that the Arabic language was in fact, the mother language of Adam on Earth, right from the very beginning, and long before the coming of Noah and his sons, i.e. the Arabic was the mother-tongue the first global village.*

English Love of Abridgement & Acronyms⁽¹⁾

Slack pronunciation makes an Englishman talk comfortably even with a pipe in his mouth, whereas a foreigner must first remove anything that obstructs his vocal efforts. In such a word as pardonable, only the first syllable is uttered distinctly, the others petering out in a vague murmur. Therefore, contraction of long words is common, e.g. to make halfpenny-worth into *haporth* and God be with you into *good-bye*, or to clip off unstressed syllables, as in *sport* for the older *disport* or *raiment* for the older *arrayment*. Also deliberate use of only the first or last syllable of a word is common, e.g. *van*, which stands for both *vanguard* and *caravan*; the quite modern *mike* for microphone and *tote* for totalizator. Where a long word does not easily contract, English often substitutes a shorter one, e.g. most people call a telegram *a wire*, and *hunch* tends to supplant premonition or intuition. English people leave sentences unfinished, feeling that that was satisfactory for intelligent listener, e.g. *for the duration, that depends, not an earthly, Well! I never!; or 'loitering with intent'.*

As for the acronym, an abbreviated word of first letters of the words of a long phrase. Examples are:

Loran, long range aid to navigation

Laser, light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation

Radar, radio detecting and ranging

Most of English nouns can be used as adjectives, as in gold watch, stone wall, field sports recreation ground. Almost peculiar to English are such compound epithets as a *matter-of-fact man*, *an up-to-date idea*, *a never-to-be-forgotten kindness*.

Word-Making and Word-Makers

When William Caxton started printing in England in 1476, he had to deal with a language compounded of 3 elements, native, French and Latin. It was the East Midland dialect spoken in Cambridge and London and, to some extent in Oxford, which eventually became standard English. Education continued to be based almost entirely on Latin and the diffusion of books in English was slow and scanty. The scholarly still regarded Latin as the proper vehicle of literature. Sir Thomas More's *Utopia* was published in Latin in 1516 and not put into English till 1531. In 1620, four years after Shakespeare's death, Bacon had so little confidence in the English language that he wrote his *Novum Organum* in Latin and the great Sir Isaac Newton still followed his example towards the end of the century. An exception was the circulation of the Bible in English.

There must have been a certain amount of word-making in the Middle Ages, but it remains anonymous, while, beginning with the period of the Renaissance and the Reformation, we can watch the word-makers at work, from Coverdale and Tyndale's Bible onwards.

Coverdale gave us such expressive compounds as *bloodguiltiness*, *kindhearted*, *lovingkindness*, *tender mercy*. Tyndale gave us *long-suffering*, *broken-hearted*, *stumbling-block*, *filthy lucre*, *mercy-seat* and even such a necessary word as *beautiful*, while his *scapegoat*, though possibly a mistranslation, is now indispensable.

The other great contributor to English vocabulary and phraseology is Shakespeare, whose influence on English has no parallel in language history. An immense number of words were first recorded in Shakespeare's work (see below). Between English Bible and Shakespeare comes Spenser, "the poets' poet". His language is a rather artificial medley; he was an enthusiastic admirer of Chaucer, "well of English undefiled", but was also much influenced by the great Italian and French poets of the Renaissance. He constructed a picturesque vocabulary to which poets of the Romantic period often turned for inspiration. He invented the words: *blatant* and *braggadocio*, possibly also *elfin*, and was the first to imitate the Greeks by calling the dawn *rosy-fingered*.

More recent coinages are Huxley's *agnostic*, Galton's *eugenics* and Shaw's *superman*. Scientific invention and discovery have necessitated much word-making, usually from Greek materials. Such words as *photograph*, *dynamite*, *cinematograph*, *Neolithic*, etc. explain themselves immediately to any one has a smattering of Greek.

However, England had to wait until the dawn of the seventeenth century, 1604 to get its own dictionary. This represents the first indication of a challenge to the rest of Europe as it was 8 years ahead of the first Italian dictionary, and 35 years before the French. Although, to put it in a rather longer perspective, it was 800 years after the first Arabic dictionary and

nearly a 1000 years after the first Sanskrit dictionary in India. The word 'dictionary' is first used in its Latin form, 'dictionarius', around 1225. In many ways a dictionary is particularly well suited to the English language, a language that has absorbed so many others.

The first English dictionary was put together in 1604 by Robert Cawdrey. He called it *The Table Alphabeticall* - the only surviving copy - is in the Bodleian Library in Oxford. It is a small, slim volume, about the size of the palm of an average hand. It is a list of English words, mainly though by no means wholly, of Latinate origin, with a brief explanation of the meaning of each. So the first word in this first dictionary is 'abandon' - 'cast away or yeelde up, to leave or forsake'. 'Maladie' is 'a disease', 'summarilie' is 'briefly' or 'in fewe words'. 'Argue' is 'to reason' and 'geometrie' is 'art of measuring the earth'. 'Elegancie' is 'finesse of speech' and 'empire' is 'gouvernement or kingdome'. 'Quadrangle' is 'fourre-cornered' and 'radiant' is 'shining or bright'. There are only 2543 words in this dictionary. It was a meagre word-board but a first attempt at a collection. More than anything, this little book was a recognition of the new status of the English language. Cawdrey intended his dictionary to be used by those who might not understand words 'which they shall heare or read in Scriptures, Sermons or elsewhere'. This was not a book for scholars.

1. Protestant Reformation and story of The English Bible⁽³⁾

To replace that Latin with English it would be a formidable struggle to wrench that power from the priests. This is a time of martyrdom and high risk, of daring, scholarship and above all a generous and inclusive belief that the word of God should be in the language of the people. The battle would eventually tear the Church in two, an inconceivable outcome when the first rumblings began in the second half of the 14th century. It would claim many lives. But many were ready to die for it, to make English the language of their faith. Thus, the role of English was given impetus by the Protestant Reformation, which placed a religious duty of literacy on all, and provided national texts for the purpose; the vernacular Bible and Prayer-Book⁽⁵⁾.

The prime mover in the 14th century was a (pro-protestant) scholar, **John Wycliffe**, probably born near Richmond in Yorkshire, admitted to Merton College, Oxford, when he was 17, charismatic and a fluent Latinist. He was a major philosopher and theologian who believed passionately that his knowledge should be shared by everyone. From within the sanctioned, clerical, deeply traditionalist honeyed walls of Oxford, Wycliffe the scholar launched a furious attack on the power and wealth of the Church, an attack which prefigured that of Martin Luther more than a hundred years later.

His main argument was to distinguish the eternal, ideal Church of God from the material one of Rome. In short, he maintained that if something is not in the Bible there is no truth in it whatever the Pope says - and, incidentally, the Bible says nothing at all about having a Pope. This was inflammatory and cut away the roots of all established authority, especially as he and his followers like John Ball coupled this with a demand that the Church give away all its worldly wealth to the poor. The Church saw no option but to crush him. For Wycliffe went even further. He and his followers attacked *transubstantiation*, the belief that, administered by the clergy, *the wine and bread turn miraculously into the blood and body of Christ*; he attacked clerical *celibacy*, which he thought of as an institutional control system over the army of the clergy; he attacked *enforced confession*, the method, Wycliffe argued, by which the clergy could trap dissidents and check errors in thought; and *indulgences*, the purchase of

which were said to bring relief from purgatory but also brought wealth to the Church; *pilgrimages*, as a form of idolatry; and *mystery plays*, because they were not the word of God. Wycliffe took no prisoners.

His prime and revolutionary argument, one which, if accepted in any shape or form would have toppled the Church entirely, was that the Bible was the sole authority for religious faith and practice and that everyone had the right to read and interpret scripture for himself. This would have changed the world and those who ruled the world knew it. He was to become their prime enemy. It is ironic that his main arguments had to be written in Latin - the international language of scholarship and theology - though there are English sermons by him and his followers.

A full Bible in English was unauthorized by the Church and potentially heretical, even seditious, with all the savage penalties including death which such crimes against the one true Church exacted. Any translation was very high risk and had to be done in secrecy in Oxford colleges.

The Bible, through English, now called out directly to the people. This could not be tolerated. On 17th May 1382 in Blackfriars in London, on a site now boasting a Victorian public house whose tiled decor remembers Wycliffe's time, a synod of the Church met to examine Wycliffe's works. There were eight bishops, various masters of theology, doctors of common and civil law and fifteen friars.

It was a show trial. Their conclusions were preordained and on the second day of their meeting they drafted a statement condemning Wycliffe's pronouncements as outright heresies. Wycliffe's followers were also condemned. The synod ordered the arrest and prosecution of itinerant preachers throughout the land. Many of those caught were tortured and killed. Perhaps most significantly of all as far as the English language is concerned, the synod led, later, to a parliamentary ban on all English-language Bibles and they had the powers to make this effective. Wycliffe's great effort was routed. He had taken on the power of the Church and he had been defeated. His Bibles were outlawed. The doors of the Church, from the greatest cathedrals to the lowliest parish churches, were still the monopoly of Latin. On 30 May, every diocese in the land was instructed to publish the verdict. Wycliffe became ill. He was paralysed by a stroke. Two years later he died on the last day of 1384.

After Wycliffe's death and despite the condemnation and harshness of the Church, copies of Wycliffe's Bible continued to be produced and circulated - even when it became a mortal crime to own any of Wycliffe's works. With astonishing courage, Catholics who spread the English language were prepared to defy the Pope and take a chance with their lives and their eternal souls in order to read the word of God to the English in their own language. But the hierarchy could not bear it. In 1412, twenty-eight years after Wycliffe's death, the Archbishop of Canterbury ordered all of Wycliffe's works to be burned and in a letter to the Pope entered a list of 267 heresies 'worthy of the fire' which he claimed to have culled from the pages of Wycliffe's Bible. He is quoted as having said, 'That wretched and pestilent fellow, son of the Serpent, herald and child of Antichrist, John Wycliffe, filled up the measure of his malice by divining the expedient of a new translation of Scripture in the mother tongue.'

For reasons sincere and cynical, Latin was held to be the language of the Holy Book and ever more must be kept inviolate. Wycliffe had threatened the very voice of the Universal Church of the One Invisible God. It is a terrible example of the power in language.

The Church was not finished with him yet. The Emperor Sigismund, King of Hungary, called together the Council of Constance in 1414. It was the most imposing council ever called by the Catholic Church. In 1415 Wycliffe was condemned as a heretic and in the spring of 1428 it was commanded that his bones be exhumed and removed from consecrated ground. The Bible remained in Latin and Wycliffe's failed attempt was an implacable and damning lesson to anyone foolish enough to attempt to mount another unholy attack on the side of English. Wycliffe's remains were burned on a little bridge that spanned the River Swift which was a tributary of the Avon.

William Tyndale's Bible

The 2 great names connected with the English Bible are William Tyndale and Miles Coverdale, both of whom worked in exile in Germany. Tyndale translated from Greek and Hebrew texts, Coverdale from Latin and from Luther's German version. Tyndale excelled in accuracy and vigour, while Coverdale is more graceful and musical. The Authorized version is almost entirely based on Tyndale, while to Coverdale's translation English Bible owe the Prayer Book version of the Psalms.

Early in the reign of Henry VIII, the new king was still promising the Pope that he would burn any 'untrue translations'. By these he meant Wycliffe's Bible which, despite all the efforts of the court and the Church, was still relentlessly circulating in the land in hand-copied editions.

Henry VIII set his powerful and efficient Lord Chancellor, Cardinal Wolsey, to hunt down heretical books. Wolsey, aware that Martin Luther had shaken the Roman Catholic Church in 1517 with the demands he had nailed on the church door at Wittenberg, and as anxious as his master to please the Pope, instituted a nationwide search. On 12 May 1521, a bonfire of confiscated heretical works was made outside the original St Paul's Cathedral. The flames, it was said, burned for two days. The great book-burning was clearly a foretaste of what could and would happen to those who insisted on challenging the Pope's authority. This was the year in which William Tyndale began his public preaching on St Austen's Green and set out on the path which was to bring about a radical change both in the English language and in English society.

It is not always easy to fully comprehend or even imagine what was at stake. It was a great power battle. The reach of the Roman Catholic Church across many countries, states, principalities and peoples was unique. It was wealthy and a sought-after ally in war. It demanded obedience through its monopoly of the one true faith. Its parish priests covered almost every acre of ground, heard confessions, had the power to absolve sins, enforced attendance at church, the paying of Church taxes and conformity with the Church's rulings, on all matters of public and of private morality; even sex was a Church matter. Above all, and key, the Church had unique access to God and so to eternal life. Only through the Roman Catholic Church could anyone contact God and have any chance of resurrection.

Wycliffe, Luther and Tyndale challenged that. They wanted ordinary people to have direct access to God, and a Bible in the language of the people was the way to make that happen. The battle over language became outright rebellion against the Roman Catholic Church as the gatekeeper to God, the claim to be His sole representative on earth, whose earthly laws all Christians must obey every bit as much as they obeyed the laws of heaven. This had proved intolerable to different groups over the centuries and now the river of protest

was swelling. The rebellion was led by deeply religious men and women. They too believed in the virgin birth, in the divinity of Christ, above all in the Resurrection. They were light years away from atheism or even agnosticism. They wanted the souls of the people to be saved but not through orders and sermons handed down from a central Latinate control in Rome for whose authority they found no evidence in the Bible. And to the rebels, the fate of the soul was the most vital matter in life; it was worth dying for.

Centuries later there would be those who would feel much the same about liberty, but even they could not have been more zealous, even fanatical, more totally convinced of the rightness of their cause as men such as William Tyndale were of theirs. After all, Tyndale was doing no less than serve the one true God, the maker, of all things, the Creator, the Almighty, the giver and taker of life, the judge of all men and women. There could be no greater service in life than to do His work.

To Tyndale, English was, in effect, the way in which God could best reach the people of that language and the way in which they could best reach Him. The fight for the English Bible was a battle for salvation through the scriptures.

Like Wycliffe, Tyndale was an Oxford classical scholar and like Wycliffe he wholly contradicted the idea that such a scholar who was also, as Tyndale was, an ordained priest, was fated to be a mild, place-seeking conformist. Tyndale took risks and lived a life comparable to that of any twentieth-century revolutionary 'hero', and met an end worse than most of them. It is interesting that the large household in Gloucestershire in which he was tutor was owned by a wealthy family, a new breed of successful wool merchants who called themselves 'Christian Brethren', politically safer name, and they appear to have been happy secretly to fund Tyndale's plans. This quality of support so early in his life must have given Tyndale any extra encouragement he might have needed.

But like Wycliffe, he appears to have been a man totally driven by an idea. In 1524, at the age of thirty, William Tyndale left England to pursue his work outside the repressive spy-state set up by Henry VIII and Cardinal Wolsey. He would never return. He met Erasmus and later Luther the two key men in the movement towards what became Protestantism. He settled in Cologne and began single-handedly to translate the New Testament not from Latin but from the original Greek and Hebrew. It was this, no doubt, coupled with Tyndale's genius for language, which made his translations so telling and memorable.

Two years later, 6,000 copies had been printed abroad - evidence of the substantial nature of the patronage Tyndale must have received from the wool merchants of Gloucestershire, and of the speed and efficiency of print. The new Bibles were packed and sent to the coast ready to be smuggled into England. Yet again English comes to England from across the sea, this time written English, some of the most sublime ever put on paper. But Henry VIII and Wolsey's spies informed them of this invasion. It now seems quite extraordinary, but the whole country was put on alert. In order to prevent the word of God in English landing in the land of the English, naval ships patrolled the coastal waters, boats were stopped and searched, men were arrested and a great many Bibles were intercepted. The action taken was indistinguishable from being on a war footing and to Henry VIII and Wolsey it was just that. Latin was the only word of God allowed by the state and now the state came out in full armed force to defend its most loyal ally, the Church.

At first tens and then hundreds got through the lines. The Bishop of London then tried another tack: he sought to buy the entire print run through an intermediary.

'O he will burn them,' Tyndale is supposed to have said when he heard of this. 'I am the gladder,' he went on, 'for these two benefits will come thereof. I shall get money of him for these books to bring myself out of debt and the whole world shall cry out upon the burning of God's word.' And that is what happened. The bishop bought and burned the books and Tyndale used the money to rework, prepare and print a better version, as it were at the Church's expense.

Before long, England was ablaze for Tyndale's Bible, this time on fire to read it. Thousands of copies were smuggled in. In Tyndale's own happy phrase, 'the noise of the new Bible echoed throughout the country'. Produced in a small pocket-sized edition that was easily concealed, Tyndale spent his life on the run. Constantly hounded by Catholic spies he moved secretly around the Protestant-sympathising lands of northern Europe. In 1530, Old Testament was translated and printed in Antwerp. It was in Antwerp that Tyndale became friendly with 2 Englishmen. They were hired assassins. They trapped him and took him to Vilvorde Castle where he was imprisoned in the dungeon. He continued writing phrases poignantly and heart-breakingly, like: 'a porphet has no honour in his own country', 'a stranger in a strange land', and 'let my people go'. But in April 1536 Tyndale was found guilty of heresy by a court in the Netherlands. The way they chose to kill him was to strangle him, to cut him off at the voice which they did on 6 October 1536. Finally his body was burned at the stake. It is said that his last words were: 'Lord, open the King of England's eyes!'

Two years before Tyndale's execution, Henry VIII, who had earlier been given the title 'Defender of the Faith' by Pope Leo X for denouncing Luther's ideas, had left his wife Catherine and secretly married his pregnant mistress Anne Boleyn. A new Pope, Clement VII, threatened him with excommunication. In 1535, Miles Coverdale, using Tyndale's text wherever possible, published a complete Bible dedicated to the king, the first legal Bible in English. That was a year before Tyndale's execution. Needing allies, Henry entered negotiations with some Lutheran princes in Germany in 1536, the very year of Tyndale's execution, but there is no record of him giving a thought to the man whose words would now help him seal a hold on a new Protestant England. In 1537, the Matthew Bible – an amalgam of Coverdale's and Tyndale's – was allowed to be printed in England. In 1539 we have the Great Bible – the official version. Now with the split from Rome, English conquered the last and highest bastion, the Church. The English language flowed into religion. It was a principle of Protestantism that the Bible be available to everyone. By the beginning of the 17th century there were so many competing versions that 750 reformers from within the Church of England requested James VI of Scotland, who became James I of England, to authorize a new translation. So 54 translators were chosen from the church and the universities to produce an edition which took 5 years and it is said that Tyndale's words and phrases influenced between 60-80% of the King James Bible of 1611, and in that second life, his words and phrases circled the globe. This official Bible is a tremendous endeavour and makes the achievement of Tyndale appear all but superhuman.

2. Shakespeare's contribution to English Language⁽³⁾

Shakespeare was born in Stratford-upon-Avon in 1564 His father, John, was a glover; his mother, Mary Arden, came from a farming family. He was the eldest of three sons and four daughters and was educated locally until he was fifteen or sixteen. What happened to him

until he landed in London in around 1591 is unclear, save that in 1582 he married 'Anne Hathaway' (he was 18) and they had 3 children. Did he work for his father? Was his father secretly, a Catholic which was extremely dangerous under Protestant Elizabeth with all the Popish plots against her? All this is unclear. Indeed, many aspects of Shakespeare's life and family are not known. What we know is that his principal teacher in the local grammar school was part of a Catholic circle which shadowed Stratford. At the beginning of the 1590s he arrived in London as an actwriter. Shakespeare was honey-tongued. Most scholars today attribute *38 plays, 154 sonnets and other major poems to Shakespeare*. He brought us characters who describe those we know: Falstaff, Kate, Polonius, Iago; figures from history, more memorable than their 'true' historical counterparts: Richard III, King Lear; dramas and plays still produced and as dramatic today: Macbeth, Othello, Hamlet. You can scale Shakespeare by many routes: here we concentrate on his contribution to English. *Well over 2000 of our words today are first recorded by him, either plucked out or invented by him.*

Although he may or may not have invented them, the words 'obscene', 'accommodation', 'barefaced', 'leap-frog', and 'lack-lustre' are just a few of those which make their first appearance in his work. Other words that make their first appearance include 'courtship', 'dextrously', 'indistinguishable', 'premeditated' and 'reliance'. Over 400 years ago, Shakespeare had a vocabulary of at least 21,000 different words: some have estimated that with the combination of words, this could have reached 30,000. Comparisons are entertaining; the King James Bible of 1611 used about 10,000 different words. The average educated man today, (more than 400 years on from Shakespeare) with the advantage of the hundreds of thousands of new words that have come in since his time, has a working vocabulary of less than half that of Shakespeare.

An immense number of words were first recorded in Shakespeare's work; examples are: **aerial bump, countless, dwindle, eventful, fitful, gnarled, hurry, lonely, monumental**. He is even the earliest authority for *blood-stained*. Among his creations are such wonderful epithets as *fancy-free, ill-starred, proud-pied* (used in describing April), *cloud-capped* (towers), *heaven-kissing* (hill), *lackluster* (eye), while Shakespearian phrases now form an integral part of our everyday vocabulary, e.g. "*the mind's eye*", "*caviare to the general*", "*a pound of flesh*", "*the bubble reputation*", "*a tower of strength*", "*yeoman's service*", "*to the manner born*", "*not wisely but too well*", "*by flood and field*", "*to wear one's heart upon one's sleeve*". From Hamlet alone it would be possible to enumerate some 50 such expressions, and many a man who has never read a line of Shakespeare quotes him unconsciously every day. Shakespeare coupled words making compound words, such as **ill-tunec, baby-eyes, and smooth-faced**. If the stature of a writer depends on his quotability then Shakespeare appears to be unmatched. '*To be or not to be, that is the question*' is known around the world. It is probably the best known quotation in any language ever.

Word-Borrowing

1. Renaissance of Words⁽³⁾

England had indeed a famous victory (against the Spanish Armada), blessed by some luck, over a much superior enemy. And English had a famous escape. For Spanish too was a marauding and conquering language.

After 1588, the naval effectiveness of the comparatively small island grew even stronger and opened up the world to trade. This brought a massive injection into the language. As England imported a huge cargo of goods, English imported a huge cargo of vocabulary. Another 10,000 - 12,000 new words entered English in this Elizabethan and Jacobean period and delivered a new map of the world and new ideas.

At the time of the Spanish Armada, England was well behind other European powers in the reach of its colonial conquests and English inevitably lagged badly in the influence it exerted abroad. Portuguese had already made its mark in Brazil and was biting deeply into southern America; Spanish had been spoken in Cuba and Mexico for more than half a century and Spain was taking its trade, its religion and its culture and its language all around the New World.

Over 800 years earlier, **Arabic** had raced through the Middle East and North Africa and could still be called an *imperial language*, while Hindi was comfortably establishing itself as a vernacular if not a literary language throughout the populous Indian region (Arabic was the literary language). On a very much smaller scale during the sixteenth century, English had begun to spread more widely to parts of Wales, Scotland and Ireland. Yet even in its more limited scope, English showed its voracity for new words and its power to enfold them almost instantly into the mother language. When English sailors encountered new foods and fruits and barrelled them up to try their luck in the riverside markets of England, they brought the names or an Anglicization of the original names with them: '*apricots*' and '*anchovies*' from or via Spain and Portugal, '*Chocolate*' and '*tomato*' from French; though, a good example of the melting pot of language, '*tomato*' could also be from the Spanish. About fifty other languages joined the cargo of new words brought back in this period and swiftly integrated into English. In some cases there was an intermediary language. The language of the Renaissance bristled with imported words. '*Bamboo*' (Malay); '*bazaar*' (via Italian) and '*caravan*' (via French) both Persian; '*coffee*' and '*kiosk*' (Turkish via French); '*curry*' (Tamil); '*flannel*' (Welsh); '*guru*' (Hindi); later there would be '*harem*' and '*sheikā*' and '*alcohol*' (Arabic); '*shekel*' (Hebrew); '*trousers*' (Irish Gaelic). Off they went, English ships all over the world, trading in goods, looting language. But this game or addiction was not confined to men on ships. It was a time when English artists, scholars and aristocrats began to explore Europe. Their preferred destination was Italy, the dominating culture of the time. There they were awestruck by the architecture, the art, the music, and brought back words which described what they saw and once again provided a platform for new ideas, in this case ideas about a cultural explosion, which England so far had heard mostly from an islanded distance. But back they came, flashing off their purchases from abroad: '*balcony*', '*fresco*', '*villa*' (from Latin), '*cupola*', '*portico*', '*piazza*', '*miniature*' and '*design*' - all from Italian - as are '*opera*', '*violin*', '*solo*', '*sonata*', '*trill*', '*cameo*', '*rocket*' (which could also be French) and '*volcano*'; '*soprano*' and '*concerto*' came later.

The Renaissance was a time when scholarship, the arts and intellectual pursuits in many areas were re-energized basically by the rediscovery of the classical past, much of it transferred to western Europe by **Arabic genius scholars and their original works and textbooks including inter alia Arabic translation of Greek books**. Arabs injected English with new words in relation to Science, Medicine, Education, Trade, and to the refined aspects of life, as well as words related to food, cooking, and Arabic Cuisine. Indeed, without Arabs, the European Renaissance could never happen in the first place, and if it theoretically had

taken place without them, it would have been hollow, if not baseless. Science was once more of legitimate concern and as new worlds were discovered on the planet so new words were discovered above, inside and around the planet. Medicine too awoke in Europe from the sleep of over a thousand years. It was to Latin and Greek that the scholars often went to initiate their studies and it was to these ancient languages they went to describe what they found. From Latin, or from Greek via Latin, we borrowed '*concept*' and '*invention*' and '*technique*'.

A closer look at the words borrowed from Latin and Greek in the developing area of medicine gives us a snapshot of the time. So successful was the classical branding of medical terms during the Renaissance that it has gone on ever since. Among the hundreds of words that arrived from Greek via Latin were '*skeleton*', '*tendon*', '*larynx*', '*glottis*' and '*pancreas*'. From Latin, English also inherits '*tibia*', '*sinuses*', '*temperature*' and '*viruses*' as well as '*delirium*' and '*epilepsy*'. Also '*parasites*' and '*pneumonia*', even our '*thermometers*', '*tonics*' and '*capsule*' are all words of classical origin. We talk of our bodies in ancient tongue:

2. Word-Borrowing from the World at Large (Explorations and Colonization)⁽¹⁾

In addition to the 3 main sources dealt with, English language has borrowed words from all over the world, beginning with the Hebrew contribution from the Bible, e.g. *cherub*, *Sabbath*, *shibboleth*, and the scientific terms which we owe to the Arabs, who were the great preservers of science during the Middle Ages, e.g. *alchemy*, *algebra*, *zenith*, *zero*.

The hospitality of English to foreign words has often commented on; indeed, borrowing is the characteristic method whereby English expands its vocabulary, something which marks English off from its near-relatives such as German⁽⁵⁾. From about the period of the Renaissance, European travel became the fashion and the chief country visited in making the 'grand tour' was Italy from which English took a host of words dealing with music, art and architecture. The Spanish element in English gives a clue to English struggle with Spain and the conflict for the wealth of the New World, while from Holland English has taken, as might be expected, seafaring words and part of English vocabulary. Some European borrowings have made long journeys to reach us, e.g. *boss* (governor) has crossed the Atlantic twice on its way from Holland to England; and the Portuguese *cobra* and *padre* were picked up in India. Accident may give sudden popularity to a word, e.g. *bosh* (worthless), a Turkish word in common use, occurs frequently in an Oriental story 'The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan' by Morier (1834); *mascot* dates from Andrané's operetta, *La Mascotte* (1880); and the Czech *robot* from Karel Capék's play 'Rossum's Universal Robots (RUR)', produced in London in 1923.

The story of English from 1500 AD onwards is one of constant growth. Explorers discovered new lands, containing new plants (*potato*, *tomato*, *tulip*), new animals (*hippopotamus*, *giraffe*, *kangaroo*), new foods and drinks (*tea*, *coffee*, *rum*). Thinkers re-discovered Greek words and ideas (*democracy*, *aristocracy*, *equator*). Religious reformers needed new words for new concepts (*transubstantiation*, *mystical*, *agnosticism*). And finally, the great artists and scientists added word after word as their experiments led them into new dimensions of thought. It is interesting to note the first usages of words, as they record the very growth of human consciousness. '*Evaporate*' was first used in 1545, '*vacuum*' 1550, '*parabola*' 1579, '*skeleton*' 1578, '*mosquito*' 1583, '*laboratory*' 1605, '*atmosphere*' 1638, '*gravity*' 1641, '*microscope*' 1656, '*stalagmite*' 1681. The large Oxford English Dictionary

gives thousands of 'firsts' like these. There are many surprises, for example: the word '*agnostic*' was 'invented' one evening in 1869 by the Victorian thinker, T. H. Huxley⁽²⁾.

With the exploration of the world, English has acquired an immense number of words, mostly the names of strange animals and products, and unlike the South African Dutch, who made up their own names for animals and flowers (whence such words as *springbok*), English has taken them ready-made from the natives. The consequence is that English dictionaries contain a very much larger number of exotic words than those of other countries. English collection of Indian words, especially, is very large and contains many terms so familiar that English people hardly think of them as foreign, e.g. *bungalow*, *cot*, *loot*, *pyjamas*, *totally*. The Red Indian *totem* and the South Sea Island *tabu* have supplied useful terms to anthropologists; the Australian *boomerang* has given us an effective metaphor; from Chinese we have translated the expression '*to save one's face*' and *nirvana*; from India expressions that express what cannot be expressed otherwise.

With geographical explorations, we also have *maize*, *potatoes* and *cannibals* from 'Indian' languages. 'Cannibals' came from the alternative version of the name for the Carib people; they were also called 'Camibales' and legendary for their ferocity and their ruthless treatment of captives. The Carib language gave English '*cayman*', '*curare*' and '*peccary*' amongst much else. And from the other main local people, the Arawaks, English took '*hurricane*' (as well as '*maize*'), '*guava*', '*hammock*', '*iguana*' and '*savannah*'. From Haiti '*Canoe*' and '*potato*'. But once out of the seas to the west, English looted every ship of tongues it encountered. From Nahautl, Aztec and Mexican came '*chocolate*', '*chilli*', '*avocado*', '*cocoa*', '*guacamole*', '*tamal*', '*tomato*', '*coyote*', '*ocelot*', '*Mescal*' and '*peyote*'; many of these indirectly through other European languages. It was the Spanish who conquered Peru but English was soon in there, capturing '*condor*', '*llama*', '*puma coccaine*', '*quinine*' and '*guano*'. The languages of Brazil, like Tupi and Guarani, are the original source of '*cougar*', '*jaguar*', '*piranha*', '*macaw*', '*toucan*', '*cashew*' and '*tapioca*'. English was a huntergatherer of vocabulary, a scavenger on land and sea. The English sea dog became a popular hero especially when he was annoying the Catholic King of Spain, who had put a price on the head of Elizabeth. Piracy was patriotic. '*Freebooters*', they were called, '*filibusters*' (sixteenth century) and '*privateers*' and the '*old sea-dogs*' (seventeenth century). '*Cutlass*' was a century earlier, the '*Jolly Roger*' a century later, but robbery with violence on the high seas had a good press back in Britain and the word - '*buccaneer*' is another - had a chauvinistic swagger about them⁽³⁾.

English settlement began in Bermuda in 1609, and reached the Caribbean in 1624 when Thomas Warner and 12 companions settled in Sandy Bay, St Kitts. In 1626 the first African slaves arrived in St Kitts, which was the first place where the British followed the example of the other European nations and systematically exploited slave labour. To begin with, *tobacco* was the crop. *Sugar* proved to be much more profitable - sugar needed more labour; the slave population grew and into the crushed but not wholly eradicated native tongues of the West Indies, soon to be spliced and mated with the European implants, came the invasion of African languages. Even by the end of the sixteenth century, the Africans outnumbered the Europeans and the African population grew massively in the next century.

Racism and Snobbery in English Language ⁽¹⁾⁽³⁾

English was a language divided into various dialects, often showing great differences of vocabulary and pronunciation. Perhaps, the superiority of French elite (after Norman conquest) and their snobbish attitude in the dissociation from their inferior Anglo-Saxon natives and peasants had influenced a snobbish course in the English language. Laterly, the triangle between Cambridge, London and Oxford became the classical representative of English language, a King's or Queen's language. Perhaps, snobbery produced the slack pronunciation of an Englishman talk as if there is a marble in his mouth, to reflect his superior status over others. Inside Britain, English snobs used to stratify people according to their linguistic accent and thus easily marking them as being Scottish, Welsh, or Irish and regard them as somewhat inferior to themselves. Outside Britain too, with the building of British Empire, colonial mentality developed, and with English language rapid growth, racism emerged. Power play, snobbery and cherished distinctions in style, in class, in accent have played an entertaining role in the adventure of English. '*Speak as we speak or you will show that you are inferior*' has been a refrain of the controlling elite throughout languages.

Racism has to make other groups inferior. Racial denigration is always a demonstration of power, an attempt at total control, the use of language to stave off fears, reinforcing ignorance with prejudice. In what is often described as the first English novel - *Robinson Crusoe*, Daniel Defoe's shipwrecked Crusoe encounters a black native who has been put on the island as a punishment and expected to die. Crusoe relates: 'I understood him in many Things, and let him know; I was very well pleas'd with him; in a little Time I began to speak to him and teach him to speak to me; and first I made him know his name should be *Friday*, which was the Day I saved his life; I call'd him so for the Memory of the Time; I likewise taught him to say *Master*, and then let him know, that was to be my Name; I likewise taught him to say, Yes and No and to know the Meaning of them.'

It is a paragraph exceptionally rich in pickings - there is the saving of life and the use not of force but of language, which is seen as the method of control; and that first word '*Master*', a word will tormented so many slaves for certain. But Master it was, in 1719, and in some ways that word alone sets the scene for the next 200 years.

Nigger is in many places now thought the most unsayable word on the planet. No matter that it has a neutral history, that it comes from the word for the colour black in Latin and then in French, adopted by English, '*nigger*' carries the lash of a plantation whipping. So was '*wog*', supposedly an acronym for '*worthy*' (or '*wily*') *oriental gentleman*', an offensive word describing a non-white foreigner; '*sambo*', from Spanish '*zambo*' offensive to Mowallad, from a black father and white mother or vice versa, i.e. meaning a person of mixed Indian and African descent; '*coolie*' from the Tamil offensive word for 'a hired person usually Indian or Chinese emigrated under contract to a foreign country'; '*kaffir*' from the Arabic word for 'infidel'; '*dago*' from the Spanish '*Diego*', offensive meaning a man of Spanish, Portuguese or Italian origin; '*frog*', applied first to the Dutch and then to French, as a contemptuous name for frog-eating frenchmen. '*Savage*' is indiscriminate. '*Kaffir*' was used to insult the British in India before English absorbed it as an insult-word in South Africa. '*Barbarian*' - commonly used, like '*savage*' - can be traced back to the Greek word for stammering and used by the Greek to describe and laugh at the sound of languages other than their own.

Today and beyond ^{(1) (2) (3) (5)}

John Adams, the second President of the United States, wrote a letter in 1780: *'English is destined to be in the next and succeeding centuries more generally the language of the world than Latin was in the last or French is in the present age. The reason of this is obvious, because the increasing population in America and their universal connection and correspondence with all nations will, aided by the influence of England in the world, whether great or small, force their language into general use, in spite of all the obstacles that may be thrown in their way, if any such there should be'*. It may have read then, and read now, as an exuberant boast; but he was right. Adams took the English language into the destiny of America not unlike Henry IV and Elizabeth I had done in England itself. The plain speaking of English would underpin the American democratic ideal. It was no longer the King's English, it was the people's English. He even attempted to set up the first public academy for refining and improving English but it never got going. Liberated Americans were enthralled by what their new country could and would do with what they now saw as 'their' language. **Noah Webster** wrote: *'North America will be peopled with a hundred millions of men, all speaking the same language... the people of one quarter of the world will be able to associate and converse together like children of the same family.'* This visionary, Noah Webster, was a schoolteacher who wrote a little book, known as the *American Spelling Book*. It sold in general stores at 14 cents a copy and in its first hundred years it sold 60 million copies, more than any book in America with the exception of the Bible. It is one of the most influential books in the development of English. Webster was not an admirer of the English aristocratic clipped vowel and his classroom drill could have been especially designed to oppose it. He wanted to teach America to spell and this nationwide embrace of spelling shows that they treat their language with care and seriousness⁽³⁾.

This process of assimilation continues. The English language seems to have an unquenchable thirst for new words. New methods of rapid communication, together with the ever-growing complexities of the *computer world* and the *internet*, are producing virtually an extra new language. Our desks are cluttered with *faxes*, *modems* and *mouses* (or *mice!*). And English has spread throughout the world, becoming what is for all practical purposes an international language. Equipped with even a smattering of English, one can be understood virtually everywhere. This voracious, vital and vibrant language has a fascinating past. The future will certainly see many further changes. It will never stay still.

It is this wealth of vocabulary, combined with the practical use made of it by the national temperament, that makes English the richest, most expressive and most flexible language among all European languages. From the mid twentieth century the English language flooded all over the world until by the year 2000 no one was in any way surprised that a Polish-speaking Pope, the head of a Latin-speaking Vatican, on his arrival in a Hebrew-speaking state, should say in English: *'May this be God's gift to the land that He chose as His own - Shalom.'* Nor does it surprise anyone that so many of the diplomats and leaders of states at the United Nations are speaking to the world's press in English. And English is the first language among equals at the United Nations, at NATO, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund. It is the only official language of OPEC, the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries, and the only working language among European languages in the European Free Trade Association. A lateral-thinking way to look at this is to measure the economic strength of different languages. Measured in billions of pounds, Chinese is 'worth'

448 billion, Russian 801, German 1090, Japanese 1277, English 4271 billion. English is also, the buyers' and sellers' language, i.e. the stock language of the market⁽³⁾.

In conclusion, English, apart from comparatively recent accretions, is a fusion of 3 main elements – Old English (i.e. Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse), Old French and Latin. Through French and Latin vehicles, English is perfused with a plethora of Arabic words and terms much more than Greek words, and perhaps can easily equate if not exceed any one of these 3 contributory elements individually. Although much of the core vocabulary of English is derived from Old English (e.g. hand, head, wife, child, stone, name, man, fish, ride, choose, bind, love, etc); the lexicon in general has been greatly augmented by borrowings from other languages, Scandinavian has affected some of the basic features of the language, such as the pronoun system (e.g. they, their and them) and grammatical system (e.g. the –s endings on some parts of the verb – paradigm in loves etc). Further, some items of core vocabulary are Scandinavian origin (e.g. take, ill, egg, skin). Arabic contribution is extensive despite ignorance (See chapters 3 and 5 of 'Paradise Introduction' and see 'Paradise Dictionary' in its entirety). French has a massive effect on the range of lexical items available in the language⁽⁵⁾.

REFERENCES

- (+) Readers are referred to the beginning of **Chapter One: Arabic, Language of Paradise And Mother Tongue of Adam on Earth**, with the relevant references:
1. Michael Balcon, WJ Blyton, Richard Church, et al. **English Language and Literature**. New Educational Library, Oldhams Press Ltd, London (Undated), Pp 7-29.
 2. David Hilliam. **English Word Origins**. Pocket Reference Books. Bournemouth, 1996. Pp 129-32.
 3. Melvyn Bragg. **The Adventure of English (The Biography of a Language)**. Sceptre (Heldler & Stoughton), England, 2003.
 4. Melvyn Bragg. **Foreword**. In **The Chambers Dictionary (New Ninth Edition)**. Editor-in-chief: Ian Brookes, Editorial Consultant: Catherine Schwarz, Editors: Christina Gleeson, Michael Munro, Megan Thompson. Chambers Publishers, Edinburgh 2005.
 5. Jeremy J. Smith. **A short history of English**. In **The Chambers Dictionary (New Ninth Edition)**. Editor-in-chief: Ian Brookes, Editorial Consultant: Catherine Schwarz, Editors: Christina Gleeson, Michael Munro, Megan Thompson. Chambers Publishers, Edinburgh 2005.
 6. P G Foote and D M Wilson. **The Viking Achievement (The society and culture of early medieval Scandinavia)**. London, published by Book Club Associates by arrangement with Sidgwick and Jackson Ltd, First edition 1970 and also published on 1974, Pages 107, 191, 198, 200, 201, 399, 408, 412.

﴿ ۸ ﴾