SEMANTIC AND STRUCTURAL CHANGES OF LEXEMES IN CLOSELY AND DISTANTLY RELATED LANGUAGES

Dumitru MELENCIUC

Catedra Filologie Engleză

Este analizată evoluţia semantică sincronică şi diacronică a unităţilor lexicale în diferite limbi. Structurile semantice ale lexemelor sunt expuse unui proces continuu de modificare în dependenţă de nivelul de dezvoltare a comunităţii lingvistice şi datorită progresului societăţii umane. Evoluţia semantică este cauzată de factori lingvistici şi extralingvistici, care ţin de diferite schimbări economice, politice, sociale, de modul de viaţă, de idei şi concepţii ştiinţifice ale unei comunităţi, reflectate în structurile semantice ale lexemelor. În cadrul acestui articol, se întreprinde o analiză diacronică şi sincronică a unor cazuri de modificare a formelor şi structurilor semantice ale unor unităţi lexicale în limbi înrudite.

Of special interest, in the present article, are the lexical units having a common origin in related and even unrelated languages. The Romanian language has preserved many lexical units close to Latin variants: *biserica – L. basilica, Dumnezeu (Dominus Deus), altar, înger, idol, profet, psalm, templu, etc.* Manz Latin words with time modified their meanings: for example, *cernere* meant *to separate*, now it means *a cerne (to sift)*; *crapare (to resound)*, now – *a crăpa, a se sparge (to crack); frigus – rece (cold)*, now – *friguri, febră (fever)*; *necare* meant *a face să piară, a ucide, a sugruma*, now – *a (se) îneca (to drown)*, etc. The Romanian lexeme *Dumnezeu (Dominus Deus)* has the equivalents in English, Dutch – God, French-Dieu, Spanish. – Dios, Italian – Dio; Portuguese – Deus, German – Gott, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian – Gud, Russian, Serbian, Croatian, Polish – bog, Yiddish – got, Greek – Theos, Indonesian – Tuhan, *Allah* in many Muslim countries – Allah, with some variations Hebrew – *el*. [8, p.114]. In the biblical times the word "*danai*" was used by Moses as a euphemism to substitute the lexeme "god". After the exodus of the Jews from Egypt they had 40 years of hard times wondering about the Sinai Peninsula and many of them started to worship other deities. God got angry and forbade them to use his name. *Danai* was used instead and in Latin it turned into *dominus/domini,* which has developed a rich thematic group in the European languages. The Latin *deus* (god) corresponds to the Hindi *dăo* in the meaning of *god*. Cf. also the Hindi *daiv* 1. *divine, godlike*; 2. *fate; fortune; destiny*; 2) *god, creator*; 3) *heavens (see also diu as heavens); daivi – divine, godlike*. Some derivatives: *dăota – god, deity*; *dăotulia – godlike; divine; dăodas – minister of religion; ecclesiastic; dăodut – angel; messenger; herald; dăoloc – paradise; dăovani – oracle; dăosthan or dăvălai* 1) *heavens;* 2) *temple; dăvasur – gods and demons; dăvi* 1) goddess, lady; 2) addressing smb as *doamnă, госпожа, lady, doňa, dueňa, Seňora Doňa*, etc. [4;5]. In the Latin *domine deus*, both elements had and still have the meaning of *god,* In Hindi we find related words to the Biblical *danai* such as **dana** – *wise, clever, wise man; grain, corn; seed;* **danai** – *wisdom.* Both *dana* and *danai* in Hindi are related to **dan** – *gift, talent*, and **dai** – *gift; inheritance; money to be given away,* **dani** – *generous.* To our surprise we find many equivalent relatives in the European languages: in Russian – *дать, давать* (give), *дань* (tribute, levy, homage) and the word combination "*дары данайцев*" (Greek gift - a gift made with the intention to deceive) [5]. Very close to the Hindi meaning is the Romanian *"danie"* explained as *"faptul de a dărui (avere, bani, donaţie, donator, donor, etc.); dar (obiect primit de la cineva fără plată, donaţie, avantaj, binefacere, har divin, etc.* [6, p.259-260]. In colloquial speech people use the verb *a dona.* The Latin verb *dare* (to give) corresponds to the Romanian *a da, a dărui,* Italian *dare*, Spanish *dar*, Russian *давать, дать, дарить, даровать.* In French *donner, donne, donné, données, donneur, donneuse* with their corresponding semantic structures are being used. In English *donate, donation, donator, donative*, have appeared under the French influence [5]. Spanish has a several lexemes of the same origin with rich semantic structures: *don* (gift, donation, talent, capability, in polite address), – Don Piedro; *dar* (give). Next comes an example of a lexical units, which have developed for thousands of years and still can be readily identified in many closely and distantly related languages. The Sanscrit *juvah*, the Avestian *jivo*, the Latin *vivo, vividus, vivus, vita*, the English *life, live, alive, vivid, vivacity*, vividness, the French *vivre, vie, vivant, vif;* the Italian *vivere, vivo, vivente, vita;* the Spanish *vivit, vivo, vida;* the German *Leben, leben, lebendig;* the Russian *жизнь, живой, жить, живо, живить, живительный, животворность, животное, and живость, живот, etc.* [5] and the Ukranian*: живий, живі, живлючий, живо, жваво,*

живість, жвависті, жівит, жівотаю живучий, etc. [7]. are relatively the closest in form and meaning to the Sanscrit and Hindi variants; the Romanian *viu, (jiu – in the colloquial non-literary language), vivace, vioi, vivacitate, vivandieră, vivant, vivariu, vivieră, vifiant, vivpar, vital, vită viaţă, a veţui, a conveţui,* etc. [6]. If compared with **jivan** [d ivan] (*life, existence*) in Hindi [4]. Even in cases of closely related languages we come across "false friends", words coming from the same source, but developing in different speaking communities with different life experience, we should readily expect their respective semantic structures not always to coincide, to partially coincide or even to be completely different. In the course of the last fifty years a great number of international words in different languages have been under a process of constant change of their meanings in dependence of rhythm of development of the given society, economic, political, scientific and technological development. New meanings appeared, others were entirely dropped out. We can observe the linguistic phenomenon of generalization, specialization and semantic borrowing. For example, the word *frontier* in English has acquired additional meanings: as a permanently moving frontier in the direct and transv ferred meanings. The frontier in this case is permanently mobile, in the state of change. The words *pioneer* and *cadres* have acquired new meanings under the influence of the Russian *пионер* and *кадры*. In the translation process the translator should avoid misleading international counterparts. The English *artist* is not translated into Romanian and Russian as *artist/ артист*, but by the lexemes *pictor, om de artă* and *художник*. From the point of view of the theory of the language the loan translation, which takes place under the influence of translator's "false friends", represents a particular case of interference. Interference is an erroneous speech product, created either by extending the rules of one's mother-tongue onto the foreign language or mixing up some similar things within the same language. In the first case we deal with intralingual interference [1, p.59-64]. There are quite a number of examples of words which cease to be "false friends", because the non-coinciding meanings may be borrowed as well because they are important and socially indispensable. Interference is inevitable to appear because of a great number of differences in the lexical systems of the mother-tongue and of the foreign language. If the two lexical systems were identical the student could simply transfer his knowledge of mother-tongue into the language studied without any mistakes. Due to various reasons these systems are different. When a language is leant, the student is liable to identify the linguistic phenomena studied with those of the mother-tongue. In such a way these phenomena form a system, which is identical with that of the mother-tongue and does not coincide with the actual system of the foreign language. International words differ from other borrowings in reflecting the relations of a number of countries and not the relations between two countries as is the case with the borrowed words. [1, p.59-64]. There have been many redundant borrowings in particular historical situations when the use of words of another language was a matter of fashion or prestige. This applied to donor languages such as French, English, German, Latin, Greek, etc., which played an important part as languages of regional or international communication, scholarship and learning. Borrowing from English now is highly motivated by the rapid development of science and technology, economy, culture, etc. in the USA and Great Britain, and the necessity to coin new words, or use existing words to express new concepts. Communication, social, political, military and economic relations of the world community have contributed to the development of the modern civilization to such an extent that new advanced technologies and goods spread all over the globe, the English language in this case is being used as an international language [2, p.77-80]. The borrowing of non-native lexical units have brought to the adoption of foreign adjectival forms to native nouns: *finger - digital, eyes - ocular, mouth - oral, sky - celestial, eye - ocular, water - aquatic, house - domestic, moon - lunar; son - filial, sun - solar, town - urban, mouth - oral.* Parallel adjectives, nouns and verbs exist for different styles: *motherhood - maternity, brotherhood - fraternity, sisterhood - sorority, town - urban, earthly - terrestrial, motherly - maternal, timely - temporal; cloudy - nebulous, bodily - corporal, begin - commence, begin - initiate,* etc. The difference between the British and American variants of the English language in vocabulary and usage tends to be leveled out especially owing to the influence of the cinema, radio and television. As far as phonetics is concerned the American standard, as distinct from the Southern British pronouncing standard, is fully described. Cf. for example: the American variant – the British variant differences: *either (i: er) - (ei);
tomato -tomeiton) – (t ma:tou); top (t p) -(top); laugh (l f) - (la:f); new (nu:) - (nju:).* The American variant of English has a difference in the stress pattern of words like *'dictionary - dicti'nary; 'culinary - culi'nary; 'seminary - semi'nary; 'cemetery - ceme'tery,* preserving the secondary and the main stresses in the given words, in the British English now these words are used with only a single stress. There are words which have been formed or borrowed in the USA (Americanisms): *dumb – stupid, cracker, cookie – biscuit,*

sick – ill, elevator – lift, truck – lorry, baggage – luggage, candy – sweets, etc. The lexeme *bug* in British English has a much narrower meaning (*ploşniţă*) than in the American variant, where it has acquired a wider meaning of *insect*, and also that of *bacteria, fashion*, etc. The combination *bed bug* corresponds to the BE *bug*. *Bug* in both variants has acquired the meaning of "electronic listening device". Quite a number of the so-called Americanisms can be found in the archaic or dialectal British English: the equivalent of *autumn* in the USA is *fall*, which is archaic in the BE. The same lexeme may be used to express different meanings: *pavement* in the USA means "the hard part of the street" and in the BE it means *sidewalk* in the USA. In the XXth century, especially after the Second World War, there started an active of the AmE on BE. The fact that the USA has become one of the leading political, military and economic powers in the world has made the AmE variant preferable and its influence on the BE has considerably increased due to modern communication means. Many "Americanisms" are not rejected on the British Isles, especially among the young generation. Even in pronunciation of words we can detect changes in the BE as a result of the AmE influence. One can hear in BE the same pronunciation of "[t, d, s, z]" in front of "[r]" [j] sounds: "Glad to meet you" ("t" is pronounce like "t " in "choice"); "Press report", ("s" pronounced like " " in "fish"); "It was you…" (the sound [z] is pronounced like [ ] in "garage" or "measure"); "Did you see him yesterday?" ("d" in front of "y" here is pronounced like [d] in "George" or in "joy"). There is a process of levelling out of the variants and creating a kind of general or world English. Still there are many words that the Americans and the British would recognize that they are not part of their variant yet, but part of the world English: *apartment – flat; dormitory (fraternity, sorority) – hostel; cereal – porridge; pants – trousers; vacation – holiday; campus – grounds; accord – agreement,* etc. [1, p.47-51]. Within the same language we observe considerable semantic change of lexical units. Thus, in Boston or New England dialect one comes across familiar simple words with their meanings unusually modified. Some examples prove the fact that there we find semantic difference from the official variant of English and the local dialect: *I calculate* is used, in the meaning of *I know* (*I calculate he is at school*). *To swim* means *to bathe*; the lexeme *master* is synonymous to *excellent* (*a master job*); I *aim to work in the garden* means *I intend to work in the garden. Body* may be used in the meaning of *person* (*How can a body get to the airport?*). In Pennsylvania Dutch Country people use a kind of dialect used by a religious group, preserving elements of German, with specific syntactic structures: *come and eat yourself = come and have dinner with us, help yourself; if I eat myself = if I pay for my food; He **wants** rain = He* predicts *rain.* [3, p.144].

In spite of the tendency of rapprochement within the English variants the opposite tendency is still available within the dialectal variation in case of both the semantic and phonological aspects. The realization of affricates, of all the phonemes in general in the literary and non-literary colloquial styles, is quite different depending on prosodic variation. In the Pennsylvania Dutch Country dialect [**d** is often substituted by the phoneme [t or [tt]: *porch - bortsch; bridges – bridches; jam – cham; jaw – chaw; job – chob; juice – choose; judge – chudge; garage – crotch.* In the early Modern English there started a process of change of consonants like [t, d, s, z] followed by [j, r]: habitual, habituate, nature, naturalism, natural, etc. this process has been strongly enhanced in the USA and now, as we have mentioned above, is having an impact on BBC RP: Cf. *tube* [tju:b] and [t u:b], ***don't you*** [dount u(:)] is more often used than [dountju(:)]; ***did you*** [did u(:)] - ['didju(:)]. We observe that [t, d, s. z] combined with [r] or [j] are pronounced in the literary and especially in the informal variant as /t ʊ ʊ ʊ /. Sometimes variant pronunciations of words have resulted from a fusion of [sj] into [and [zj] into [. For instance ['isju:] (***issue***) has alternative pronunciations ['i u:], and ['i u:], and ['frizj n] (*Frisian*) is sometimes pronounced ['fri n] or ['fri ( )n]. There is a tendency to replace [tj] and [dj] by [t and [d in many words. We can hear variants of pronunciation in cases like: ***tube.*** (RP [tju:b] as [t u:b] ***don't you*** as [dount u(:)] rather than [dountju (:)] ***did you*** as [did u(:)] rather than ['didju(:)]. In dialectal and colloquial speech one may also hear ['ind n] for RP ['indj n] (*Indian*). *Woud [you like to come? His [ ] request. Industrial. [t]. Doun't [t] you know? And [you? News [report. You'll miss [ ] your plane.* To continue their <u>Strife</u>[t] towards, <u>strife</u> [t]. Call for re<u>straint</u> [t], Thi<u>s</u> [ ] <u>F</u>riday. Did you? [di d]. *Did you hear me? [d uhhirmi:]. Thi<u>s year</u> [ ]; Last [la: t] Press / / <u>you</u>. "New<u>s report</u>" [nju: po:t].* Some people in the USA started to pronounce the assimilated variants in conditions where there is no [r] or [j] sounds: *This is [i] very important.* Let's take some examples from various speeches in 1994 of the ex-president of the USA Bill Clinton, demonstrating the fact that the above mentioned assimilation process has become part of the formal literary language: *My friend Boris [ ] Yeltsin. His [ ] request. Indu<u>str</u>ial / /*

development. They continue their strife[tr]. This [ ] Friday. The Congress [ ] will pass the law. Respect [p], [t] you. Tax [ ] return. The first [t] administration… Program of edu[d]cation. I'll be the last [t] person. Makes[ ] sure. Others [ ] make the process. Students [t]. Here we detect some other contexts, favouring the assimilation process. In dialectal speech there is a strong reduction or change of the assimilated words: *Did you? – [d u], Won't [t] you – [wont]* (the USA southern dialect). T**exas**: rich [rett]. Afro-American English: *did you? [did]. I can bet you [I kn bet].* Here we can also find the phenomenon of reduction of affricates: *creature – [crit].* Both progressive and regressive assimilation are realized in the examples above.

Phraseological units, including sayings, are subject to change. They may be intentionally changed to produce a stylistic impact on the reader, listener or TV viewer: *A bird in hand is worth two in the bush – Time was passing his bird in the bush no nearer the hand* [J Galsworthy] – *He was to be approached with a sizable bird in hand.* [Dreiser] This idiomatic expression in different European languages has developed different forms: Romanian – *Nu da pasărea din mână pe cea de pe gard;* Russian – *Лучше синица в руке, чем журавль на небе.* English – *A bird in hand is worth two in the bush* is changed in *Time was passing, his bird in the bush no nearer the hand.* Or: *He was to be approached with a sizable bird in hand.* Here we could give examples of deformations of idioms in Russian and Romanian. An example of advertising beer on Russian TV: *Лучше бутылка пива в руке, чем прекрасная девица на песке.* Romanian TV: *Pară mălăiaţă în cavitatea bucală a consumatorului* (deformation of: *Pară mălăiaţă în gura lui Nătăfleaţă).* Examples of this kind are numerous: *To be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth (They had sucked their silver spoon so long... now she is threatened with a spoon of bone).* [J.Galsworthy] *It is the last straw that breaks the camel's back... (He said public patience was a camel, on whose back the last atom that could be borne had already been laid. To cry over the spilt milk... (Try to make him feel that we admire him for spilling the milk… There is no help for spilt milk)* [Trollope]. *One may as well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb (If he was to be hung by the law, by all means let it be for a sheep).* [J Galsworthy]. Idioms belong to the periphery of the language and mostly they are used for stylistic purposes, making speech more expressive and produces are stronger impact on the reader/listener.

Semantic change of related languages of common origin lexemes is considerable. In case of very distant related languages recognizable common origin lexemes represent a good material to as to the degree of semantic change since distant times. In spite of the fact that Hindi is a distantly related language in comparison with Germanic, Romance and Slavonic languages we still find a multitude of recognizable equivalents in the European languages. For example: the Latin *Oculus – oculi;* Romanian *ochi – ochii,* Spanish – *ojos,* German – *Auge,-n (Augenarzt);* French – *œil, des yeux,* Russian – *око – очи, очки, очкаристый, очковтирательство, околдовывать, окошко, окно, очко, окулист* are related to the Hindi *akh – akşi – akşan* [4]. Some Hindi units are very close in form and sound to many lexemes in the European languages. The Latin – *dies,* Romanian, *zi – ziua* (in colloquial speech one can still hear *buna dziua), ziar, diurne, cotidian, jurnal;* Spanish – *dia* in *buenos dias,* Italian – *bon giorno, giornata, giornale de bordo, cotidian, quotidianità,* French – *jour, journal,* Russian – *день, дни, дневной, дневник, журнал;* Hindi – *dĭa – zi, adĭa* – azi (today) [4]. The Hindi words *ab, abi, udic* have equivalents in most European languages: Romanian – *apa, acvatic, ud, udeală, umed, umiditate;* Russian – *вода, водный,* German – *wasser,* English – *water, humid, humidity,* French – *eau, humide, humidement, humidier, humidificateur, humidification, humidifier, humidifuge, humidigène, humidimètre, humidité,* Italian – *acqua, umidità, umidezza, umidiccio, umidetto, umido, umidificante, umidificatore, umidificazione, umidire,* Spanish – *agua, húmedo. húmido, humedad, humectación, humectador;* a**mar**- ne**mur**itor, бесс**мерт**ный a**mar**an – ne**mur**ire, бесс**мерт**ие; im**mor**tal, im**mor**tal, i**mor**tel, im**mor**talité. Cf. with the Hindi examples **мар**ан – (death, moarte, смерть), **мар**ан кал – momentul **mor**ţii, **moart**ea, **смерт**ный час, смерть; **мар**ан гати – **mor**tatlitate, смертность; **мар**ан шил – **mur**itor, смерт**ный**. **мар**анасанна – **muri**bund, умир**ающий**; **мрит** – **mort**, decedat, скончавшийся, умерший; мёрт**вый**; **мрит**ак – **mort**ul, corpul neînsufleţit, **мерт**вец, труп [4]. In most cases here we discover considerable recognizable coincidences in spite of thousands and thousands of years of separate development of Hindi and the European languages. Both Hindi and its European relatives contributed to the enrichment of the vocabulary of other language families. Thus, the Hindi lexeme *araba* corresponds to the Turkish *araba (cart; wag(g)on; vehicle, conveyance; carriage, car),* English *carriage, cart,* French *fiacre,* Romanian *trăsură, haraba* and Arabic *araba.* In Romanian *haraba* has a relatively narrower meaning than the equivalents

in Hindi, Turkish and Arabic and means a vehicle with high lateral sides to transport a large amount of load or goods. (Cf. also the Romanian harabaie, reg. hărăbaie (Turkish- harabe) – *vehicul mare*, cf. also: *casa, încăpere mare*; *harabagie /cărăuşie, harabagiu-căruţaş* – Turkish *arabaci*).

An interesting case represents the lexeme *garbage* (syn. *food waste, refuse, entrails, offal, trash, corrupted data* in computers), borrowed (via Norman French) from the Italian *garbuzo*', coming from the Old Italian *garbuglio*. In Modern Italian *garbuglio* means *confusion, muddle, mess; jumble, mishmash, Cf. garbugliare, ingarbugliare ((en)tangle; muddle, complicate; confuse,*). In English we find backformations like *garble*. Of the same origin with the Italian *garbulio* are the Romanian *harababură* (variant – *arababură*) – (*dezordine, învălmăşeală, încurcătură, gălăgie, scandal),* the Spanish *garbullo (1.brawl, fight, scuffle, thrashing, whipping, beating; 2.disposal dump, refuse dump, refuse tip, rubbish dump, spoil area, waste tip*), and the French *grabuge (quarrel; altercation; variance; falling-out, wrangle, squabble; noise, scandal; scuffle, fight*). In Hindi the related word is **gar-bar** *(1.*1) *uneven* (of roads*); 2) disorderly, confused; twisted;* 2. м. 1) *disorder, confusion, mess; muddle, jumble, mishmash; chaos*; 2) *confusion, disarray (embarrassment, confusion); commotion, perturbation (panic), implication. Harb* (war) sounds identical in Arabic and Turkish, in their turn seem related to the Rom. – *grăbi – a acţiona mai repede, a înteţi mişcarea, mersul... a accelera, a devansa ceva... a se pripi, a face ceva repede nechibzuit...* (cf. Bolgarian – *grabja*), Russian *грабеж – robbery; pillage, plunder(ing), robber; burglar;* Ukranian – грабувати, грабíж. See also a number of quite different meanings of the English *grab* and the German *graben, Grab* [6]. In English grab has developed a rich semantic structure: clutch, grasp, seizure; snatcher, resurrectionist, catchpoll, bumbailiff, policeman. It also has a number of semes belonging to technical terminology: excavator, digger, power shovel, steam shovel, earth-moving machine, scoop, dipper, ladle; bucket. Cf. Also *grab грейфер; захват, захватываю-щее приспособление; захватное устройство, захватные крюки, черпак; air, operated grab, alligator grab, automatic grab, bailer grab, cactus grab, casing grab, crane grab, fork grab, hook grab, hydraulic grab, independent, tine grab, iron grab, ladder grab, multijawmultiprong grab, multijaw grab, pickup grab, pipe grab, pneumatic grab, rope grab*. In the German *Selbst sein Grab graben* we find identical menings to the Russian *гроб* and Ukranian *гріб, гробу*. The Romanian *gropari, (a săpa) groapă*, the Russian грабарить (dig out), грабарский, Ukranian *грабарь (navvy; digger)* and *грабарувати* (dig out) are in a way related to the German *graben*. It is not surprising that most semantic structures have most of their semes developed in the given speaking communities. Any remnants of complete or partial coincidence of certain semes of a given lexeme are very important to be singled out from those which have developed different meanings and still having identical or recognizable forms characteristic to "false friends".

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