Univerzita Hradec Králové Pedagogická fakulta Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Voyage, chateau, baggage: vliv francouzského jazyka na anglickou slovní zásobu z oblasti cestovního ruchu

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Voyage, chateau, baggage: the influence of the French language on English tourism vocabulary

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Bakalářská práce zkoumá vliv francouzského jazyka na anglickou slovní zásobu z oblasti cestovního ruchu. Teoretická část za pomoci odborné literatury charakterizuje historické události, které vedly k ovlivnění anglického jazyka francouzským. Cílem praktické části práce je doložit významný vliv francouzštiny na základní slovní zásobě vybrané z učebnice cestovního ruchu English for International Tourism.

The bachelor thesis explores the influence of the French language on English vocabulary concerning the field of tourism. The theoretical part, based on the specialized literature, characterizes historical events resulting in the massive influence of French on the English language. The objective of the practical part is to demonstrate the significant impact of French on basic vocabulary chosen from the textbook of tourism English for International Tourism.

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HICKS, Leonie V. A short history of the Normans. London; New York: I.B. Tauris, 2016. ISBN 978-1-78076-212-8.

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Prohlašuji, že jsem bakalářskou práci Voyage, chateau, bagg anglickou slovní zásobu z oblasti cestovního ruchu vyp	
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Anotace

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Tato bakalářská práce zkoumá vliv francouzského jazyka na anglickou slovní zásobu z oblasti cestovního ruchu. Teoretická část se zabývá historickými obdobími anglického jazyka a každé charakterizuje z pohledu významných historických událostí, které vedly k jazykovým změnám. Důraz je zde kladen jak na vývoj slovní zásoby, tak i na změny v gramatice a výslovnosti. Praktická část analyzuje slovní zásobu vybranou z anglické učebnice cestovního ruchu. Slovíčka jsou rozčleněna do tematických kategorií a analyzována s pomocí slovníku *Oxford English Dictionary*. Analýza je zaměřená především na etymologii slovíček a jejich první výskyt v angličtině. Také je zkoumán význam a rozdíly v moderním a středověkém pravopisu sledované slovní zásoby v anglickém i francouzském jazyce. V závěru jsou uvedeny výpůjčky z dalších cizích jazyků pro porovnání míry vlivu s francouzským jazykem.

Klíčová slova: anglický jazyk, slovní zásoba, cestovní ruch, francouzský jazyk

Annotation

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This bachelor thesis deals with the influence of the French language on the English vocabulary

from the field of tourism. The theoretical part explores the historical periods of the English

language and characterizes each of them from the point of historical events which led to

language alterations. Emphasis is put both on the vocabulary and the changes in grammar and

pronunciation. The practical part analyses the vocabulary chosen from an English textbook

dedicated to tourism. The vocabulary is classified into thematic categories and analysed with

the aid of Oxford English Dictionary. The analysis is notably aimed at the etymology of the

words and their first occurrence in the English language. In addition, meaning of words and the

changes in modern and ancient spellings both in French and English are examined. At the end,

there are examples of other foreign borrowings to compare the share of influence to the French

language.

Keywords: English, vocabulary, tourism, French

Abstrakt

Tato bakalářská práce zkoumá vliv francouzského jazyka na anglickou slovní zásobu z oblasti cestovního ruchu. Teoretická část se zabývá historickým vývojem anglického jazyka s důrazem na události, které způsobily přejímání slovní zásoby z jiných jazyků, zejména z francouzštiny. Anglický jazyk je zde rozčleněn do tří historických období (Old English, Middle English a Early Modern English), která jsou charakterizována z pohledu slovní zásoby, změn v gramatice a výslovnosti.

V teoretické části je uvedeno, že početná skupina slovíček francouzského původu se do anglického jazyka dostala po roce 1066 za dob vlády normanského vévody Viléma, také známého jako Vilém I. Dobyvatel. Jeho vláda způsobila, že veškerá správa království (administrativa, náboženství, právo) byla vykonávána ve francouzštině. Jelikož Normané zastávali nejvyšší pozice ve společnosti, francouzština se rychle rozšířila a mnoho slovíček se dostalo do angličtiny právě tehdy. Anglický jazyk vděčí Normanům například i za názvy druhů masa (hovězí, vepřové, telecí).

Dalším významným obdobím pro obohacování slovní zásoby byla renesance. Vznikaly nové vynálezy a objevy, pro které neexistovalo pojmenování. Jedním z vynálezů byl i knihtisk, který umožnil rychlé rozšíření nových poznatků. Často byla slova přejata z cizích jazyků místo toho, aby vzniklo nové anglické slovo. Nová slovní zásoba se týkala především vědy, umění a medicíny a byla přejata z nejrůznějších jazyků.

V praktické části jsou za pomoci slovníku *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* analyzována anglická slovíčka z učebnice cestovního ruchu *English for International Tourism* od autora Petera Strutta, která je určena studentům cestovního ruchu s úrovní anglického jazyka B2. Učebnice obsahuje tematické okruhy, které studenty vzdělávají a připravují na budoucí práci v cestovním ruchu. Na základě podobnosti anglického pravopisu s francouzským je vytvořen korpus, který je podrobněji analyzován.

Slovíčka jsou rozčleněna do šesti tematických oddílů týkajících se cestovního ruchu: Gastronomie, Umění a Architektura, Peníze a Business, Cestování, Ubytování a Doprava, Zábava, a také jeden speciální oddíl: Slovesa. Každé slovo je zkoumáno z pohledu významu, etymologie, prvního výskytu v anglickém jazyce a změn v pravopisu. Definice jednotlivých slovíček jsou citovány přímo ze slovníku OED. Ačkoliv má mnoho slovíček více významů, byl citován ten, který se týká cestovního ruchu. Zároveň je k němu přiřazeno datum prvního

výskytu v anglickém jazyce (někdy jen orientační). Pokud se slovíčko vyskytlo již dříve, ale v jiném významu, je tato informace v analýze uvedena.

Na konci každého oddílu je sestavena tabulka, která porovnává moderní a historický pravopis v anglickém a francouzském jazyce. Zejména u historických forem anglického jazyka nebylo možné uvést všechny tvary daného slova, jelikož byly mnohem početnější, než je tomu v moderním jazyce. Jsou tedy uvedeny pouze příklady některých tvarů. Moderní forma ve francouzském jazyce byla zkontrolována se slovníkem *Le Robert*.

Pro porovnání vlivu francouzského jazyka a dalších jazyků (např. latina, italština, germánština) jsou zde také uvedeny příklady z těchto jazyků, které ale nejsou zdaleka tak početné jako slovíčka převzatá z francouzštiny.

V průběhu analýzy se vyskytlo několik problémů. U některých slovíček nebyl ve slovníku uveden původ nebo byl nejistý. Taková slovíčka nebylo možné pro analýzu použít. Také nebylo možné sledovat změny ve výslovnosti, jelikož se v období Great Vowel Shift (Velký samohláskový posun) nedochovaly záznamy způsobu výslovnosti, a tak je o ní pouze spekulováno.

Cílem práce bylo poskytnout vhled do etymologie slovní zásoby používané v cestovním ruchu. Na základě výše zmíněné analýzy slovní zásoby vyplynulo, že slovní zásoba z cestovního ruchu je silně ovlivněna francouzským jazykem. Vyskytla se zde sice i slova převzatá z jiných jazyků, ale vliv francouzštiny převládá. Z ostatních jazyků bylo zaznamenáno největší množství slovíček latinského a germánského původu. Zatímco germánská slovíčka se zdají být kratší a reprezentují základní činnosti a denně používané předměty (např. go – jít, bed – postel, boat –loď), slovíčka latinského původu bývají delší a jejich význam složitější (např. participate – zúčastnit se, expenditure – výdaje, indigenous – domorodý). Vyskytla se i slova převzatá ze španělštiny, holandštiny nebo řečtiny, nicméně nebyla zdaleka tak početná.

Většina slovíček přejatých z francouzštiny z oblasti gastronomie byla zřejmě uvedena do anglického jazyka díky vlivu Normanů. Jak již bylo zmíněno, například některé druhy masa pochází právě z této doby. Domnívám se, že je tomu tak i u dalších potravin a pokrmů. Slovíčka, která se v angličtině vyskytla později, zřejmě vděčí dobré pověsti a oblíbenosti francouzské gastronomie ve světě. Většina slovíček, která se týkají umění a byla přejata z francouzštiny, pravděpodobně pochází z období Renesance, kdy byl kladen důraz na umění a poznání. Také některá slovíčka týkající se cestování mohou pocházet z tohoto období, jelikož cestování bylo jedním ze způsobů, jak se šířily nové poznatky a vynálezy.

Z mého pohledu by práce mohla být přínosná jak pro zaměstnance v cestovním ruchu, tak i pro turisty. Dokazuje společný původ zkoumaných slov a poukazuje na jejich podobnost v anglickém a francouzském jazyce. To umožňuje lepší orientaci v nápisech na značkách a cedulích, na které při cestování narazí, ale i v textu obecně. Ačkoliv jeden z jazyků neznají, jsou schopni si vyvodit význam na základě stejného nebo podobného pravopisu.

Seznam použitých zkratek:

AD – Anno Domini

EModE – Early Modern English

F – French

L-Latin

ME – Middle English

OE - Old English

OED – Oxford English Dictionary

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1 Introduction

English and French – two languages which have coexisted side by side for centuries. Although these two languages belong to different branches of the Indo-European language family (the former being Germanic and the latter Romance), they have a lot in common. Several historical events have caused that English and French became interwoven, showing an intriguing similarity in their vocabulary.

The main objective of this bachelor thesis is to provide insight into the etymology of the English vocabulary used in tourism and to point at the number of words of French origin that are present in the English language. The theoretical part of this bachelor thesis is focused on the historical development of the English language and more precisely on how it has been influenced by other languages, notably French. The historical periods of English are characterized from the point of view of significant events which led to far-reaching changes in vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation.

The practical part aims to examine the foreign influence on the vocabulary from the field of tourism and compare the French impact to the impact of other languages. The analysis is performed on the vocabulary chosen from Peter Strutt's textbook *English for International Tourism*. The vocabulary is classified into 6 thematic sections related to tourism: Gastronomy, Art and Architecture, Money and Business, Travel, Transport and Accommodation, Entertainment, and one special section: Verbs. Each word is analysed from the point of its meaning, development of spelling and etymology. The analysis is executed with the aid of *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED). Each word is accompanied by a definition quoted directly from OED, and the first supported occurrence in English. If a word occurred earlier denoting a different meaning, the definition and the first use are also noted. At the end of each section, there are tables comparing the modern English and French spellings, as well as the earlier forms of spelling (if stated in OED). Words of different origins are stated at the end of each thematic section to compare the share of influence of different languages.

The objective of the analysis is to prove or disprove that the majority of the English vocabulary from the field of tourism has its origins in French.

2 English before the Norman Conquest

English, as well as any other language, has been developing continuously. A language develops from series of historical occurrences. One little shift would be sufficient to change its whole destiny. If the Romanized Britons had been able to stop the plundering of the Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes, the English we know today might have been Romance or Celtic. In fact, it would probably not be even known as the English language. However, the events that history has seen have shaped the English language we know today. (Pei: 3)

According to Brinton and Arnovick, the history of the English language can be further divided into four or five periods which are characterised by significant social and political changes. The first one is the Old English period (previously known as the Anglo-Saxon period), extending from about 450 to 1100 A. D. This is followed by the Middle English period which stretches from the Norman Conquest (1066) to almost 1500. The third period, dating from about 1500 to 1700, is called the Early Modern English period. The following period is either referred to as the Modern English period (from 1700 to the present) or it can be split more accurately into Late Modern English (from 1700 to 1900) and Present-day English (from 1900 to the present). Although the periods are divided, their boundaries are set merely approximately since the changes have not happened suddenly but gradually. (Brinton & Arnovick: 9,10)

Therefore, it is natural that Old English, Middle English, and Modern English vary considerably both in written and spoken form. For instance, the earliest form of English used characters called runes instead of the Latin alphabet used nowadays. Freeborn posits that even untrained present-day native speakers would not be able to pronounce the Old English sounds correctly and decipher the meaning of Old English texts. (Freeborn: 21)

2.1 Where did English come from?

Before the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons, the languages in Britain were Celtic with diverse dialects. Subsequently, the Romans invaded Britain and brought Christianity. Their legacy persists in the names of English towns ending in *-chester*, such as Colchester and Winchester. (Crystal, 2002: 170; Hogg: 10) It was them who built the first cobbled roads across England and there was such equipment as baths or heating apparatus found in their houses. (Baugh & Cable: 41) Baugh and Cable state that around 410 A. D., when the Romans began to withdraw from Britain to defend other parts of the Roman Empire, the land became an easy target for

tribes of invaders. This provoked the Germanic tribes of the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes who lived along the south-eastern coast of the North Sea (parts of today's Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands) to start raiding the territory. Britain was first attacked by the Saxons in the fourth century. At that time, Britain was still under the Roman rule. Not only did the Romans fight the Saxons but they also had to face Picts and the Irish who attacked from the north. Eventually, the Celts became dependent on the Roman protection. Therefore, when the Romans withdrew in 410, the Celts found it disadvantageous and inconvenient. Alone, they were not capable of stopping Scots and Picts and even though they asked the Romans for assistance several times, they were too occupied by defending their own territory. The Celtic leader at the time, Vortigern, reached out to the Jutes to help the Celts fight off Picts and Scots. The Jutes, however, became aware of the vulnerability of the Celts and decided to stay and form settlements in the southeast. According to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, some of the Saxons arrived and settled in Sussex in 477. Later, more Saxons came to Britain and settled themselves in Wessex. (Baugh & Cable: 43) On the other hand, Venerable Bede claims that the Saxons arrived already in the middle of the fifth century. (Historia Ecclesiastica: 15) And finally, the tribe of the Angles established an Anglian kingdom north of the Humber in 547. (Baugh & Cable: 43)

The Celts referred to all the invaders as Saxons, regardless of their actual tribe. Latin writers employed this term in their writings as well. It was not until later in the sixth century when the term Angli (Angles) was used. The king of Kent, Æthelbert, was called rex Anglorum, which means "King of the Angles" as far back as in 601. In the course of the seventh century, the terms Angli or Anglia which referred to the country, were commonly used. Concerning the name of the language, the term Englisc was found in the Old English texts. Although the spelling differs, the pronunciation of sc was equal to the sound sh, /ʃ/. (Crystal, 2019: 7)

These invaders established "Heptarchy" – seven separate kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Kent, Sussex and Wessex. Nevertheless, it was not always like that – sometimes two or more kingdoms were fused while being ruled by one king. (Baugh & Cable: 44) As maintained by Pei, the languages that were spoken there resembled each other and some believe that the inhabitants even mutually communicated and understood one another. However, the mutual relationships among these kingdoms were not so peaceful and it took waves of Danish raids for the kingdoms to unify under Alfred the Great of Wessex. (Pei: 12; 13; 16)

According to Crystal, there were several dialects spoken across England. In fact, these dialectical divisions are still perceptible in today's Britain. The area that was taken by the

Angles generated two main dialects – *Mercian* that was spoken in the Midlands and *Northumbrian* that occurred to the north of Mercian stretching to the eastern lowlands of today's Scotland. The Jutes communicated in *Kentish* that was spoken in the area of Kent and the Isle of Wight. The last of the main dialects was *West Saxon* that was used by Saxons south of the river Thames and west up to Cornwall. Even though West Saxon was considered as the leading language in which most of the Old English texts were written, it was Mercian from which modern standard English was developed. (Crystal, 2002: 173)

As maintained by Pei, the Norse and Danish Vikings were plundering eastern and southern parts of Britain between 787 and 850. Initially, they were not easy to convert or adapt but after some time the raids turned into permanent settlements. That facilitated the process of assimilation into the society. Although the Vikings were able to seize London and York, their assault was stopped by King Alfred the Great in 878. He established for them several territories in England known as the *Danelagh* or Danelaw, which included old Anglia and parts of Mercia. This was considered to be their own province. Within the tenth century, Danes and Anglo-Saxons mingled as their language, appearance and even customs were closely related. By 1014, England was ruled by a Danish king Cnut which would earlier be unthinkable. (Pei: 17) England remained under the Danish rule for twenty-five years. (Crystal, 2002: 175)

2.2 Old English

Discoveries from the eighteenth century indicate that there was a language of ancient India named Sanskrit that existed long before any of the European languages. It is suggested that English and other European languages gradually developed from Sanskrit which consisted of an elaborate system of declensions and conjugations. It was revealed that there were many similarities and clearly these languages had the same origins. (Baugh & Cable: 17)

Old English was first written with the aid of the runic alphabet. The alphabet was used not only in the British Isles, but also in Northern Europe and today's Germany. It is estimated that it was developed around the third century AD. No-one is truly familiar with the origins of this alphabet except for the fact, that it developed from one of the alphabets of southern Europe. However, the runic inscriptions are similar to those of the Roman alphabet. Interestingly, the alphabet could be written both from right to left and from left to right. In Britain, it is called the 'futhorc' which is a name composed of the first six letters. There were twenty-four letters in total in the commonly used runic alphabet. However, the form discovered in Britain from the ninth century in Northumbria, consisted of thirty-one letters to deal with the Old English sounds. (Crystal,

2002: 179) According to Freeborn, the best-preserved monument showing the runic alphabet in Britain is the Ruthwell Cross, which probably dates from around the eighth century. The runes that are engraved on it are of Northumbrian dialect, and they compose a poem called *The Dream of the Rood*. (Freeborn: 21)



The Ruthwell Cross

Crystal states that the symbols can be quite confusing since many of them express sounds which were not used in the Latin alphabet. For instance, þ (known as "thorn") and ð (known by its Scandinavian appellation "eth"), used to represent the sound of *th* letters as in this and thin. (Crystal, 2002; 167, 168)

Except for a couple of runic inscriptions, there is very little evidence of what the language was like after the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons. The situation was changed by the Roman missionaries conducted by Augustine. Upon his arrival in Kent in AD 597, monasteries were being built. As a result, Latin manuscripts, especially regarding the Bible and religion, started being written. This created the right environment for Old English manuscripts to be produced as well. The best-known literary writing of the period is undoubtedly the heroic poem called *Beowulf*. Although written around the year 1000, it was probably composed some 250 years earlier. During the reign of King Alfred the Great, many texts written in Latin were being translated, historian Venerable Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* included.

(Crystal, 2019: 10) Another work which is worth mentioning is *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. Started by King Alfred the Great, it contained historical records. Crystal states that it contains year-by-year records with some years described in detail while others left with blank pages. (Crystal, 2019: 15)

2.2.1 Old English grammar

According to Baugh and Cable, Old English is very distinct from Modern English in spelling, pronunciation, word stock and grammar. Therefore, it is necessary to study it thoroughly to be able to read texts written in OE. (Baugh & Cable: 47) Old English distinguished five cases: nominative (the subject), genitive (the possessor), dative (the indirect object), accusative (the direct object), and instrumental (the way something is done). (Brinton & Arnovick: 184) Due to the ability of inflection, the purpose of a word in a sentence was evident. Therefore, word order did not use to be as strict as it is in Modern English. Roles of words could be distinguished simply by their endings. In comparison to Old English, Modern English must rely on word order for us to comprehend the meaning. (Crystal, 2002: 169)

Brinton and Arnovick state that concerning nouns, only distinctions of number and genitive case survived to this day. Although number and genitive case are distinguished in written form, it is more difficult to recognise them in spoken language as the pronunciation is usually identical. Nevertheless, some nouns form four distinct phonological forms. (Brinton & Arnovick: 187)

Singular	Singular genitive	Plural	Plural genitive
boy	boy's	boys	boys'
man	man's	men	men's

Old English differentiated two types of nouns according to their declensions – vowel declension and consonant declension, also known as strong and weak declensions. Nouns are classified into these categories according to the ending of their stems in Germanic (vowel or consonant), and there are more subdivisions to each declension. (Baugh & Cable: 50) Brinton and Arnovick state that these subdivisions can be deceptive as the nouns are classified according to their stems in Germanic and not in Old English. For instance, a-stem nouns all existed with an "a" between the root of the substantive and the inflection in Germanic, but in Old English, the "a" is no longer present in that position. (Brinton & Arnovick: 188) Whether a noun is strong or weak is determined by its case, gender, and inflectional endings. Strong nouns show more flexibility

in terms of forming distinctive endings, whereas weak nouns exist in fewer forms. (McColl Millar, ed. Momma and Matto: 46)

The linguistic gender of nouns in Modern English is based on the biological sex of the entity. It is indicated by personal pronouns (*he, she, it*), compounds (boyfriend) or derivational affixes (waitress, actress, widower). This system is referred to as *natural gender*. Old English, on the other hand, employs a system named *grammatical gender* which has nothing in common with the actual sex of the object. This system still widely occurs in other European languages, such as French, Italian or German. For instance, the French word for "the day" is of masculine gender (*le jour*) and german *das Weib*, meaning "the woman", carries the neuter gender. (Brinton & Arnovick: 183)

Another difference in the word order is the verb placement. Verbs frequently occurred before the subject, or they were sometimes placed at the very end of the sentence with everything preceding. However, there are even some similarities. For example, adjectives were usually placed before nouns, as were prepositions and articles. (Crystal, 2002: 169)

2.2.2 Old English vocabulary

From the point of view of vocabulary, many Old English words existed with prefixes and/or suffixes which have since vanished. For instance, the verb sing contained the suffix -an (singan). The prefix ge-, which is still employed in modern German, was also commonly used in Old English. If we removed this prefix from the word gehyrde, one might recognise the similarity with heard. On the contrary, many of the words are unidentifiable and it is perplexing to deduce their meaning unless one looks it up in an Old English dictionary. (Crystal, 2002: 168)

It is estimated that from the word stock present-day English speakers use, one third originated in Old English. The rest is a result of many invasions that England has faced. The invaders always brought their own unique language that left traces in the form of vocabulary which was gradually integrated to the languages already spoken on the island. In the Anglo-Saxon period, there were two major occurrences. (Crystal, 2002: 173)

In the first case, it was the Christian missionaries that not only generated major growth in literacy but also significantly enriched English in Latin vocabulary. The missionaries brought around 450 new words into the language, mostly related to the church but also words connected with biology. Some Latin borrowings from the Old English period are for instance: abbot, altar, angel, candle, cucumber, martyr, mass, organ, pope and many more. (Crystal, 2002: 174)

The second event that caused an influx of new words to English were the Viking raids on Britain which started in 787 and continued repeatedly in gusts until the beginning of the eleventh century. It resulted in over 1,800 words of definite or probable Scandinavian origin that were brought to the English language and are still being employed in Modern English. Some commonly used words borrowed from Scandinavian are: birth, dirt, egg, kid, knife, reindeer or sister. (Crystal, 2002: 175) Old Norse, the name that was given to the Scandinavian languages spoken by the Vikings, and Old English were cognate. That means that both of the languages developed from the same Germanic language and were therefore similar. (Freeborn: 46)

Another Viking heritage can be found in place names. There are over 1,500 of them, most of them situated in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. The majority of the places end in -by which carries the Danish meaning of 'farm' or 'town' – Derby, Grimsby, Rugby etc. Other places' names end in -thorp (village), -thwaite (an isolated area) or -toft meaning 'a piece of ground'. Surnames ending in -son, such as Davidson or Henderson are also of Scandinavian origin. Some of the most essential words used on daily basis, such as they, their, them or one of the forms of the verb 'to be' – are, were brought from Scandinavian as well. Frequently used verbs such as get, give, and take have the same origins. (Crystal, 2002: 175; 178)

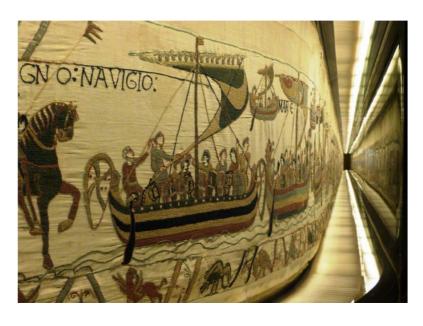
3 The Norman Conquest and Middle English

When the Anglo-Saxon King Edward the Confessor died childless in January 1066, it was necessary for England to select a new successor. Edward had divided England into several smaller regions during his reign, each of the areas governed by an earl. Naturally, the choice was likely to fall on one of them. It was the son of earl Godwin, Harold, who was responsible for national affairs, that succeeded Edward on the English throne. Although unjustly, Duke William of Normandy, who was second cousin to the deceased king, also demanded his rights for succession. (Baugh & Cable: 99) Following the vision of the English throne, he started contriving plans to conquer England. Meanwhile, King Harold and his army were forced to face attacks in the north by the Norwegian Harald Hardrada. Even though Harold was successful and defeated Harald Hardrada at Stamford Bridge, exhausted, his army had to rush southwards to stop Duke William. (Freeborn: 51)

Crystal states that the battle that took place on the 14th of October 1066 in Hastings marks a turning point in British history and the development of the English language. (Crystal, 2002: 184) The effect it had on the English language cannot be compared to any other event in history.

(Baugh & Cable: 98) Unlike the Viking attacks, the Norman offence was quite swift for some parts of Britain. It began in 1066 and within a few years, the conquest of England was complete. In Wales, however, the conquest began by 1070 and it took the Normans almost following 200 years to seize control. Concerning Scotland, although the Normans undertook several expeditions, they never conquered this part of the territory. (Davies: 1) The effects of the battle of Hastings, however, were not immediate and it does not indicate the boundary between the Old English and Middle English eras. In fact, even after 1100, texts were still being written in West Saxon that had emerged after the reign of King Alfred. (Crystal, 2002: 184)

Displayed in the Bayeux Museum in Normandy, the Bayeux Tapestry is a 70 meters long embroidery which depicts the events of the battle of Hastings. (Bayeux museum) The embroidery narrates the occurrences of this famous battle in a linear form which means that even the events that happened simultaneously are depicted sequentially. It stresses the importance of horses to the Norman troops. The Norman offense was based on cavalry since horses enabled them to move quickly across battlefields. The Normans are portrayed leading their horses on ships to traverse the Channel, the horses' heads leaning over the edges of ships. According to Hicks, the journey across the Channel must have been disagreeable for both horses and men. As the battle proceeds, one can observe a violent and bloody clash between the English and the Normans – archers loosing off arrows at the enemy, exhausted horses tumbling down and corpses of soldiers, some of them beheaded. Hicks also states that the Normans incorporated feigned flight into their tactics. That meant that the Norman cavalry pretended to flee in order to lure the enemies out and then strike. (Hicks: 54; 55)



Part of the Bayeux Tapestry depicting the journey across the Channel

3.1 The shift to French and the English defiance

For five years after the battle of Hastings, the Normans were remorselessly supressing resistance. Defeated and deprived of their property, the Saxons surrendered at last. That was the beginning of Norman England. The conquerors spoke only French and Latin, therefore these two languages became the languages of administration and law. However, the rest of the inhabitants still communicated in Old English. As of the position of English in society, Pei states that there is a clash of opinions between historians. Some historians claim that there was no concord between conquerors and conquered and that there was a clear boundary between these two cultures. Others, however, believe that William himself tried to learn English although unsuccessfully. What is more, they even speculate that there was mutual respect between Saxons and Normans. Lastly, some hold the opinion that English was forbidden once the conquerors arrived and for a period of time, there were no written records of it. (Pei: 34)

Vachek states that it is estimated that during the reign of William I, the Norman incomers accounted for one fifth of inhabitants in England. (Vachek, 1978b: 132) On the other hand, according to Baugh and Cable, it is not possible to determine the number of Normans settling in England after the Conquest. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that Norman influence was powerful as they occupied the highest of administrative positions. (Baugh & Cable: 103)

In the course of the twelfth century, the English language was in retreat. The clergymen who were greatly responsible for erudition and literacy in society were also replaced by William's men. The outcome of these measures was inevitably mirrored on the written language. Literary works in French were thriving. In fact, Pei states that most of the finest Old English literary works were created not in France but in English territory. The *Song of Roland*, the *Pèlerinage de Charlemagne à Jérusalem* and many of French *fabliaux* were composed in England. (Pei: 35)

At the very beginning of the thirteenth century, English, French and Latin all played a more balanced role in society. Each of the languages was used for a different purpose and had its specific role. French served as a language of literature, Latin was exercised in matters of the church and law and English was used for common daily purposes. Nevertheless, in 1204, King John lost the Duchy of Normandy to the French king. This provoked a boost to the English language and a rise of nationalism among the former Norman Barons, now Englishmen. In 1295, the English king made an accusation against the French kings for trying to eradicate the English language. At the close of the 13th century, although French was experiencing

an upswing on the continent, it was considered as a hostile and foreign language in England. In 1332, an act of Parliament was issued that stated that pupils of the upper classes would be taught French so that they get familiar with the speech of the enemy. The animosity between the English and the French culminated in a long conflict known as the Hundred Years' War. (Pei: 36)

3.2 Normandy and Duke William II

Normandy is the name of the region in northern France separated from Britain by the English Channel. As the name indicates, the region was inhabited by men who came from the north and established settlements. The Northmen led by Rollo could easily penetrate inland following the current of the river Seine. In fact, the settlements around the Humber were formed in a similar way. (Baugh & Cable: 98)

Although the contact between England and Gaul had been established centuries before, it was not until Æthelred married Richard II's sister Emma in 1002 that diplomatic relations grew closer between England and ducal Normandy. In 1042, Edward the Confessor who was half-Norman and French-educated, acceded to the throne. This deepened the connection between these two regions even more. (Gillingham, ed. Davies: 214) According to Hicks, Edward the Confessor was strongly influenced by his exile in Normandy. He relied on his Norman advisors and appreciated the relations with the duchy. Hicks also posits that his reconstruction of Westminster Abbey in the Romanesque style was likely inspired by the Norman architecture. (Hicks: 46)

Duke William II of Normandy, through the history also known as the Bastard or the Conqueror, became duke after his father, Robert the Magnificent, died on his way back from the pilgrimage to Jerusalem. According to Robert Wace, William was predestined to achieve great things in life from the very beginning. Assuming responsibility for the duchy at such a young age shaped his personality. It is also said that he witnessed a great deal of violence in his youth, including the murder of his steward Osbern, which took place in the same room where they both slept. "Historians, notably David Douglas, have traditionally regarded William's character as having been forged in these troubles from which he emerged as an extremely able military commander, with steely determination and a pronounced ruthless streak." (Hicks: 39)

3.3 Language development

From the point of language, the period from the beginning of the 12th century to the middle of the 15th is called Middle English. The Middle English period offers a more thorough documentation of the language than Old English period had offered. (Jackson, Zé Amvela, 83) Within this period, the English language underwent significant changes. What once was a synthetic language with a relatively free word order and an elaborate system of inflections now transformed on many different levels. The majority of the inflectional endings vanished, and emphasis was put on a word order and prepositional phrases. (Vachek, 1978a: 65) As Baugh and Cable state, the disappearance of the inflections was caused primarily by phonetic changes. Therefore, the inflections lost their purpose in written form. The first change to have occurred was likely the replacement of the final -m by -n. Baugh and Cable give the example of mūðum (to the mouths), which was modified to mūðun. This final -n was later eliminated and that resulted in the form mūðu. Initially, the inflections were distinct, but gradually, a reduction in pronunciation occurred. As a result, the inflectional endings merged and lost their meaning. (Baugh & Cable: 147)

According to Townend, those who expressed themselves in French in the first decades after the Conquest were the Norman invaders. However, the situation changed some generations later. Around the middle of the twelfth century, most of the members of the nobility were already bilingual. Furthermore, there is a high probability that their mother tongue was English. Townend states that there were none or only few monolingual noblemen who spoke French. Not only was French learned by the nobility but also by the people belonging to lower classes. French was barely anyone's mother tongue in England anymore and was more associated with cultural life. (Townend, ed. Mugglestone: 67)

While most of the OE vocabulary was almost solely of Germanic origin, the ME word stock is heavily influenced by Scandinavian and Romance elements (initially Norman French and later French of the Paris region). (Vachek, 1978a: 66)

"By 1400 about 10,000 new lexemes had come into the language from French, and several thousand more had entered from Latin. By the end of the Middle English period, the surviving Old English lexicon was already in the minority." (Crystal, 2019: 135)

According to Crystal, traces of French started to be apparent in the 13th century. It has been estimated that during that time, some 10,000 French words became part of the English language. Many of these words had previously existed in French as borrowings from different languages,

hence French was a kind of mediator between these languages. Since French was spoken mainly by the nobility, it was the language of administration, law and government. The word stock which has found a way into English was therefore primarily related to these spheres. However, words regarding fashion, food, science, or art equally figure on the list. Plenty of the borrowed words were abstract, often taking on the affixes *trans-*, *con-*, *pre-*, *-tion*, *-ance*, and *-ment*. Interestingly, about three quarters of all these borrowings are still being employed in English today. (Crystal, 2019: 46)

Walter Scott gives a good example of how the society was split in his novel *Ivanhoe*. Living domestic animal names kept their Anglo-Saxon origin as they were taken care of by ordinary people. In contrast, the dishes prepared from them that were served to the Norman upper-class took their French equivalents (e.g.: cow – beef; swine – pork; sheep – mutton). (Vachek, 1978a: 80)

The following table shows examples of French borrowings that have entered English:

Law	Administration	Religion	Food	Other
advocate	chancellor	baptism	beef	comfort
to accuse	council	cathedral	biscuit	courage
blame	duke	clergy	fruit	probable
to convict	government	miracle	mustard	to continue
evidence	minister	prayer	pork	to refuse
justice	parliament	temptation	poultry	to enter
verdict	royal	virtue	raisin	to prefer

Naturally, as new words were accumulating, their OE equivalents were either replaced completely or the two words existed side by side while developing slightly different meanings. For instance, the OE word *wlitig* ceased to exist and was replaced by *beautiful* while *hearty* (OE) and *cordial* (F) both exist expressing similar meanings. (Crystal, 2019: 46)

Borrowings from Latin and French are the main reason why synonyms occur abundantly in English. In general, OE words are usually shorter and belong to the colloquial layer of vocabulary. On the contrary, words of Latin or French origin incline to longer forms and are considered more formal. Here are some examples: ask for (OE) – request (F); need (OE) – require (F); rope (OE) – cable (F); smother (OE) – suffocate (L). Additionally, words which

came to English directly from Latin may appear to be more formal and more specialized than their synonymous expressions that penetrated to English as a result of the Norman invasion. (Jackson, Zé Amvela; 117)

French-derived word	Latin-derived word
commencement	inception
generous	munificent
imprison	incarcerate
mount	ascend

4 Renaissance and Early Modern English

Baugh and Cable claim that certain historical events were often determining the development of the language itself. The Early Modern English period, which comes together with the Renaissance period, is no exception. The modifications in the English language were caused by such occurrences as the invention of the printing press, the growth of literacy and popular education, and the expansion of specialised knowledge. Especially the invention of the printing press was revolutionary and had significant impact on the expansion and distribution of new pieces of knowledge. It originated in Germany around the middle of the fifteenth century and was first introduced in England in 1476 by William Caxton, who had mastered the technique in the continental Europe. (Baugh & Cable: 187)

According to Crystal, Modern Standard English developed from the blend of the Middle English dialects but mainly from the East Midland dialect. The area where this dialect was spoken was the largest and included cities such as Oxford, Cambridge, and London where political and social life concentrated. The triangular area formed by these three cities was also very prosperous agricultural place and functioned as a connecting line between the Southern and Northern dialectical areas. Crystal points out that Caxton opted for the English of London in his translations, which was mirrored in the perception of "standard" and "regional" speech. The standard speech was considered correct and distinguished, whereas the latter was perceived as inferior and incorrect. (Crystal, 2002: 205) Crystal also states that the introduction of the printing press enabled to distribute people's works in a quicker manner and therefore accelerated the development of the English language. From this turning point onwards, there is more evidence of the language development and even publications pursuing grammar and vocabulary are being published. (Crystal, 2002: 207)

4.1 The Great Vowel Shift

According to Freeborn, between the time of Chaucer and Shakespeare, in the period called Early Modern English (EModE), a significant alteration in pronunciation occurred. All the long vowels that existed in the English of the Midlands and the South of England shifted for unknown reasons. (Freeborn: 293) Professor Handke suggests that the reason for this change could be the social mobility caused by the Black Death that resulted in the mixing of dialects. Another suggestion is that the English aimed to differentiate their way of pronunciation from the French one. (Handke, 2012) As no such shift had taken place in the history of the language, it became known as The Great Vowel Shift. Based on John Hart's publications on spelling reform between 1551 and 1570, Freeborn deduces that there had been two ways of pronunciation of the vowel "i" in the word *exercise*. One way of pronunciation was "the vowel only" /i:/. The second possible way was a diphthong spelt by Hart as "ei". As Freeborn suggests, it was probably pronounced as /ai/. A similar example is the word *instruments*, where two ways of pronunciation of "u" were possible. These distinctions of pronunciation indicated social dialect. Interestingly, the once inferior way of pronunciation is now anchored in the current one. (Freeborn: 293)

Hart's pronunciation /i:/	Hart's pronunciation /əi/	
advertised	describe	
derived	lively	
devised	devise	

Crystal maintains that the seven long vowels /i:/, /e:/, /e:/, /u:/, /o:/, /o:/ and /ɑ:/ were influenced by these modifications. Every one of the vowels shifted in sound, however, the difference between one vowel and another could be distinguished. Crystal stresses that although the pronunciation of /e:/ and /ɛ:/ blended, it happened as late as in the eighteenth century. Crystal also claims that the general opinion is that one change created a chain reaction of changes. Hence, when one vowel moved, others moved as well. However, it is not clear which vowel was the first to move. (Crystal, 2019: 55)

4.2 Foreign loan-words

Freeborn claims that by the end of the sixteenth century, many Latin and Greek words were assimilated into the written form. He claims that it was easier because of the previous experience with French borrowings. In addition, English adopted many foreign prefixes and suffixes which were employed with English words. Words have been borrowed from various languages (French, Latin, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and others). However, it was also common that a new word was taken to English indirectly, via different language. In most cases, words were adopted from foreign written works and culture or through travelling. (Freeborn: 317)

Prefixes	Suffixes
circum-	-able
со-	-acy
dis-	-ance
sub-	-ician

Freeborn suggests that French loan-words that were brought to English between 1650 and 1699 and those embraced in the following centuries often preserve their original spelling and partially even pronunciation. The level of the genuineness of the French pronunciation is likely associated with speaker's social class. The following words are examples of this case: naïve, rapport, chandelier, champagne, ballet, commandant, or salon. (Freeborn: 372)

French		Latin	
trophy	1513	legal	1500
pilot	1530	alienate	1513
anatomy	1540	resuscitate	1532
machine	1549	peninsula	1538
vase	1563	extinguish	1545
combat	1567	hereditary	1577
invalid	1642	excavate	1599
soup	1653	specimen	1610
chandelier	1663	assassinate	1618
ballet	1667	minimum	1663

(Freeborn: 302; 319; 347; 348; 373)

Crystal states that Renaissance brought an influx in new publications because of the restored interest in classical literary works and the swift advancement in the fields of science, medicine, and arts. The main target of change was logically the field of vocabulary since there had been no appellations for the emerging inventions. In the course of the sixteenth century, translators were faced with a large number of foreign terms for which there was no English equivalent. According to Crystal, some of them tried to create a new word to enrich the English language. However, in most cases, they had to maintain the term and explain it to readers. As Crystal mentions, Thomas Elyot even apologises for using a Latin word in *The Governour*. (Crystal, 2002: 209) Interestingly, there are some words which did not come to anchor in the English language, such as *disacquaint* (antonym of acquaint) or *expede* (antonym of impede). (Crystal, 2002: 212)

The intake of new words was powerful especially in the period between 1530 and 1660. Foreign borrowings accounted for almost half of the new words and the rest were words created by using various types of word formation. Crystal claims that this period has been estimated as the one that experienced the fastest lexical accretion in the history of the English language. In addition, semantic changes were common as existing words gained new meanings. Naturally, as the foreign words and neologisms were rapidly accumulating, concerns about the future of the language started appearing. According to Crystal, particularly alarming were the areas of spelling and punctuation, which were unstable and variable. Supposedly, there were individuals who spelled words the same way they spoke, for instance *sartinly* instead of *certainly*. (Crystal, 2019: 76)

With that rapid enrichment of the English language, demands for a dictionary that would explain all the new terms grew. The first extensive dictionary was issued by Nathaniel Bailey in 1721. Bailey's *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* contains about 60,000 headwords but lacks in illustrations and provides readers with few instructions for orientation. In 1755, Samuel Johnson publishes *A Dictionary of the English Language* clarifying approximately 40,000 headwords. Although it contained fewer entries, Johnson's selection is more diverse and advanced. Below are some of his famous definitions for which he sometimes had to face problems.

Lexicographer: A writer of dictionaries; a harmless drudge, that busies himself in tracing the original, and detailing the signification of words.

Oats: A grain, which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people.

Pension: An allowance made to anyone without an equivalent. In England it is generally understood to mean pay given to a state hireling for treason to his country.

(Crystal, 2019: 78)

5 Practical part

The aim of the practical part is to examine the etymology of the vocabulary commonly used in tourism and compare the influence of French with the influence of other languages. The analysis is performed on the vocabulary chosen from Peter Strutt's textbook *English for International Tourism*. It is a textbook intended for students of tourism of upper intermediate level of English. Containing thematic chapters focused on various branches of tourism, it prepares students for their future professions. The objective of the analysis is to prove or disprove that the majority of the English vocabulary from the field of tourism has its origins in French.

The vocabulary was chosen based primarily on the similarity of its spelling to the French spelling and classified into 6 sections related to tourism: Gastronomy, Art and Architecture, Money and Business, Travel, Transport and Accommodation, Entertainment, and one special section: Verbs. Each word is analysed from the point of view of its meaning, spelling, and etymology. The analysis was executed with the aid of *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), and the definitions were quoted directly from this dictionary. Although many words have several meanings, the definition referring to tourism is stated, accompanied by the date of the first supported occurrence in English. If the same word occurred earlier, denoting a different meaning, the date is also mentioned. Borrowings of different origins are also added to each section to compare the foreign influence.

At the end of each thematic section, there are tables comparing spellings as they were changing in time, both in English and French. However, it was not possible to quote all of the Middle English forms, as they were usually plentiful and varied significantly. Concerning the Modern French spelling, it was verified using the French online dictionary *Le Robert*. The earlier forms of French spelling (if stated) were taken from *Oxford English Dictionary*. It is necessary to mention that the vast majority of the analysed words are very rich in terms of etymology and have their roots in various languages, such as Latin, Italian, Low German and others. However, this study is primarily focused on the French impact.

The pronunciation of the words was not analysed as there were many possibilities how to pronounce a single word or one of its forms throughout history of the language. Moreover, during the Great Vowel Shift, major changes in pronunciation for which there is no record in orthography, occurred. Hence, the correct pronunciation can only be estimated.

5.1 Gastronomy

• Appetite (noun)

= craving for food, hunger

From Old French apetit

First occurrence in English: 1303

• Aubergine (noun)

= the fruit of the Eggplant, Solanum esculentum, resembling a goose's egg in size and shape, and usually of purple colour; also called brinjal

From French diminutive of auberge

First occurrence in English: 1796

• Banquet (noun)

= a feast, a sumptuous entertainment of food and drink; now usually a ceremonial or state feast, followed by speeches

A borrowing from French (etymon *banquet*)

First occurrence in English: 1483

• Beef (noun)

= the flesh of an ox, bull, or cow, used as food

From Old French *boef* (Modern French *bœuf*)

First occurrence in English: 1300

• Chef (noun)

=a professional cook, esp. the head cook in a restaurant, hotel, etc.

From French chef de cuisine, formed within English by clipping or shortening

First occurrence in English: 1826

• Courgette (noun)

= a variety of small vegetable marrow

From French diminutive of courge gourd

First occurrence in English: 1931

• Cream (noun)

= the oily or butyraceous part of milk, which gathers on the top when the milk is left undisturbed

Borrowed from French (etymon crème)

First occurrence in English: 1332

• Cuisine (noun)

= kitchen; culinary department or establishment; manner or style of cooking; kitchen arrangements

From French cuisine

First occurrence in English: around 1483

• Cutlery (noun)

= knives, forks, spoons, etc., used for eating or serving food; a set of table utensils of this kind

From Old French coutelerie

First occurrence in English: 1821 – referring to the definition above; 1449 – concerning the art or trade of the cutler

• Cutlet (noun)

= a small piece of meat, generally mutton or veal, in the former case usually cut off the ribs, esp. the smaller ones near the neck, used for broiling, frying, etc.

From French *côtelette* (formerly *costelette* – diminutive of *coste*, *côte* = rib)

First occurrence in English: 1706

• Dessert (noun)

= A course of fruit, sweetmeats, etc., served after a dinner or supper; the last course at an entertainment (Johnson)

A borrowing from French (etymon *dessert*), French *desservir*: to remove what has been served, to clear (the table)

First occurrence in English: 1600

• Dine (verb)

= to eat dinner; (now typically) to eat a meal in a restaurant or at a formal dinner A borrowing from French (etymon *diner*)

First occurrence in English: 1325

• Fondue (noun)

= A dish traditionally made in Switzerland, consisting of a mixture of melted cheese, white wine, and (sometimes) kirsch, served in a communal pot kept warm over a portable heater and eaten by dipping bread into the cheese mixture with a fork. Also in extended use: any dish in which food is dipped into a communal pot of a warmed liquid, such as melted chocolate, hot oil, etc.

A borrowing from French (etymon *fondue* = feminine past participle of *fondre* – to melt) First occurrence in English: 1899 – referring to the definition above; 1806 – referring to a baked dish made of beaten eggs mixed with cheese, somewhat resembling to a soufflé

• Garnish (verb)

= to decorate (a dish) for the table

A borrowing from French (etymon garniss-)

Old French *garniss*-lengthened stem of *garnir*, *guarnir*, *warnir* (to fortify, to defend)
First occurrence in English: 1693 – referring to the definition above; around 1400 – referring to various other meanings

• Gourmet (noun)

= a connoisseur in the delicacies of the table

From French *gourmet*, representation of Old French *gourmet*, *groumet*, *gromet*, a winemerchant's assistant, a wine-taster

First occurrence in English: 1820

• Grape (noun)

= any one of the berries, growing in clusters in a vine, and from the juice of which wine is made

From Old French grape, grappe (feminine), modern French grappe

First occurrence in English: 1290

• Herb (noun)

= applied to plants of which the leaves, or stem and leaves, are used for food or medicine, or in some way for their scent or flavour

A borrowing from French (etymon *erbe*)

First occurrence in English: 1290

• Onion (noun)

= the edible rounded bulb of Allium cepa, which consists of fleshy concentric leaf-bases with a strong pungent flavour and smell, varying in colour from dark red to white, and is used as a culinary vegetable, eaten raw, cooked, or pickled

A borrowing from French (etymons: vngeon, unnium, oynoun, oignon)

First occurrence in English: 1356

• Quiche (noun)

= an open flan or tart consisting of a pastry case filled with a savoury mixture of milk, eggs, and other ingredients baked until firm

A borrowing form French (etymon quiche)

First occurrence in English: 1925

Salad (noun)

= a cold dish of herbs or vegetables (e.g. lettuce, endive), usually uncooked and chopped up or sliced, to which is often added sliced hard-boiled egg, cold meat, fish, etc., the whole being seasoned with salt, pepper, oil, and vinegar

A borrowing from French (etymon salade)

First occurrence in English: around 1481

• Sauce (noun)

= a topping, condiment, or accompaniment for other food, usually fluid in consistency and typically prepared from several ingredients

A borrowing from French (etymon sauce)

First occurrence in English: 1340

• Savour (verb)

= to be pleasing or agreeable to (a person, the senses, etc.). Obsolete.

A borrowing from French (etymon savurer)

First occurrence in English: around 1300

• Soufflé (noun)

= a light dish, either sweet or savoury, made by mixing materials with white of egg beaten up to a froth, and heating the mixture in an oven until it puffs up

A borrowing from French (etymon soufflé – past participle of souffler, to blow)

First occurrence in English: 1813

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
appetite	apetyte, apetyght, apetide, appetyd	appétit	apetit
aubergine	_	aubergine	_
banquet	bankat, bankette, bancket, bancquet	banquet	_
beef	boef, bouf, befe, byffe, buif	bœuf	boef
chef		chef	_
courgette	_	courgette	_
cream	creyme, creem, craym, kreme	crème	cresme
cuisine	kusyn	cuisine	_
cutlery	cutellerie	coutellerie	coutelerie
cutlet	costelet(te) *1700s	côtelette	costelette
dessert	desert, desart, disart *1700s	dessert	_
dine	digne, dyne, dine	dîner	diner, disner, digner
fondue	fondeau, fondu *1800s	fondue	_
garnish	garnesche, garnesshe, garnisshe	garnir	garnir, guarnir
gourmet	_	gourmet	gourmet, groumet, gromet
grape	grap, graap	grappe	grape, grappe
herb	erbe, herbe, eerbe, earbe, heerb	herbe	erbe
onion	hunyn, on3one, oygnon, vniune	oignon	hunion, ognon
quiche	_	quiche	_
salad	selad, sallade, salad, salette, sallat	salade	salade
sauce	salse, sauce, saus, sawse, sause	sauce	sauce, sausse, salse, saulce
savour	safer, sauere, sauir, sauyor, savyr	savourer	savourer, savorer
soufflé	souflet, soufflée *1800s	soufflé	_

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

• Latin: cook, pepper, recipe

• Italian: zucchini, artichoke, pizza

• Spanish: tomato, potato

• Germanic: food, bread, water, meat, bean, bake, chicken, drink

5.2 Art and Architecture

• Antechamber (noun)

= a smaller room leading to a larger one; spec. an anteroom in which visitors wait, originally for admission into the bedchamber of a monarch or other influential person A borrowing from French (etymon *antichambre*)

First occurrence in English: 1587

• Arcade (noun)

= A continued arch (Johnson); a passage arched over; a walk formed by a succession of arches having a common axis, and supported on columns or shaft

From French arcade

First occurrence in English: 1731

• Arch (noun)

= a curved structure of firm material, either capable of bearing weight or merely ornamental

From Old French arche

First occurrence in English: around 1400

• Balustrade (noun)

= a row of balusters, surmounted by a rail or coping, forming an ornamental parapet or barrier along the edge of a terrace, balcony, etc.

A borrowing from French (etymon balustrade)

First occurrence in English: 1644

• Baroque (adjective)

= Irregularly shaped; whimsical, grotesque, odd. applied spec. to a florid style of architectural decoration which arose in Italy in the late Renaissance and became prevalent in Europe during the 18th century

From French (etymon *baroque*) First occurrence in English: 1765

• Bas-relief (noun)

= low relief; sculpture or carved work in which the figures project less than half of their true proportions from the surface on which they are carved

A borrowing from French (etymon bas-relief)

First occurrence in English: 1667

• Chandelier (noun)

= an ornamental branched support or frame to hold a number of lights (originally candles), usually hung from the roof or ceiling

From French chandelier

First occurrence in English: 1736

• Colonnade (noun)

= a series of columns placed at regular intervals, and supporting an entablature

From French colonnade, colonne (column)

First occurrence in English: 1718

• Design (noun)

= a decorative pattern

A borrowing from French (etymons desain, dessein)

First occurrence in English: 1670 – referring to the definition above;

1565 – denoting a plan conceived in mind

• Embellish (verb)

= to render beautiful

A borrowing from French (etymon *embelliss*-= lengthened stem of *embellir*)

First occurrence in English: around 1385

• Façade (noun)

= the face or front of a building towards a street or other open place, esp. the principal front

A borrowing from French (etymon façade)

First occurrence in English: 1656

• Gallery (noun)

= an apartment or building devoted to the exhibition of works of art

A borrowing from French (etymon *galerie*)

First occurrence in English: around 1616; also earlier in a different meaning

• Jewel (noun)

= a precious stone, esp. when cut and polished; a gem

A borrowing from French (etymon jewel)

First occurrence in English: around 1300

• Mosaic (noun)

= the process of creating pictures or decorative patterns by cementing together small pieces of stone, glass, or other hard materials of various colours.

A borrowing from French (etymons *musayque*, *mosayque*)

First occurrence in English: around 1540

• Parquet (noun)

= flooring composed of blocks of wood (or occasionally other materials) arranged in a geometric pattern

A borrowing from French (etymon *parquet*)

First occurrence in English: 1814 referring to the definition above; around 1650 in a different meaning

• Portrait (noun)

= a drawing or painting of a person, often mounted and framed for display, esp. one of the face or head and shoulders; (also) an engraving, photograph, etc., in a similar style A borrowing from French (etymons *portrait*, *portret*)

First occurrence in English: 1585

• Pottery (noun)

= the art or craft of manufacturing porcelain, earthenware, etc.; ceramics

A borrowing from French (etymons *poterie*, *potterie*), probably partly formed within English by derivation

First occurrence in English: 1601 referring to the definition above; around 1480 denoting a potter's workshop

• Vase (noun)

= a vessel, usually of an ornamental character, commonly of a circular section and made either of earthenware or metal, but varying greatly in actual form and use

From French vase

First occurrence in English: 1629

• Vault (noun)

= a structure of stones or bricks so combined as to support each other over a space and serve as a roof or covering to this; an arched surface covering some space or area in the interior of a building, and usually supported by walls or pillars; an arched roof or ceiling From Old French *voute*, *voute*, *voute*, *voute*, *voute* (modern French *voûte*)

First occurrence in English: 1387

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
antechamber	_	antichambre	antichambre
arcade	_	arcade	_
arch	arche	arc	arche
balustrade	_	balustrade	_
baroque	_	baroque	_
bas-relief	basse relieve, base relief, bas-relieve *1600s-1700s	bas-relief	_
chandelier	chandeleer *1700s	chandelier	_
colonnade	collonade *1700s	colonnade	_
design	deseigne, designe, dessein, disseigne *1500s-1700s	design	desain, desaing, desseign
embellish	embelyssh, enbelyse, embellish, embelyce	embellir	_
facade	_	façade	_
gallery	galary, gallerie *1500s–1600s	galerie	_
jewel	juele, jwelle, iuele, iuyelles	1	joiel, joyel
mosaic	mousaique, musycke *1500s	mosaïque	musayque, musaïque
parquet	parquette *1800s	parquet	_
portrait	portraicte, portrayt, portract *1500s	portrait	portraict, pourtraict
pottery	potterye	poterie	potterie
vase	vase, vause, vaze *1500s and 1600s	vase	_
vault	voute, woute, wout, vowte	voûte	voute, voulte, volte, vaulte, vaute

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

Italian: balcony, cupola, replica

• Germanic: floor, spire, hall

• Latin: rotunda, museum

• Greek: aesthetics

5.3 Money and Business

• Accountant (noun)

= a person who professionally prepares, maintains, analyses, or inspects financial accounts, esp. within the context of a business, a bookkeeper

A borrowing from French (etymon *accontant*)

First occurrence in English: 1540 – denoting the profession; 1430 – in a different meaning

• Advertisement (noun)

= the action or an act of informing or notifying; the result of this; information, notice; notification

A borrowing from French, partly from Italian (French etymons avertissement, advertisement; Italian etymon avvertimento)

First occurrence in English: 1426

• Benefit (noun)

= pecuniary advantage, profit, gain

A borrowing from French (etymon benfet)

First occurrence in English: 1606 – referring to the definition above; 1377 – denoting a thing well done, a good or noble deed

• Campaign (noun)

= an organised course of action designed to arouse public opinion throughout the country for or against some political object, or to influence the voting at an election of members of the legislature

From French *campagne* (country), introduced into English in the 17th century

First occurrence in English: 1809 – referring to the definition above; 1628 – denoting a tract of open country, a plain

• Company (noun)

= an association or corporate body formed to engage in trade or industry, typically having a legal identity distinct from that of its members; a commercial business, a firm Probably a borrowing from French (*compagnie*)

First occurrence in English: 1532 – referring to the definition above; 1275 – denoting the state of being with others, especially friends

• Demand (noun)

= an act of demanding or asking by virtue of right or authority; an authoritative or peremptory request or claim

A borrowing from French (etymon *demande*)

First occurrence in English: around 1290

• Entrepreneur (noun)

= a person who owns and manages a business, bearing the financial risks of the enterprise

A borrowing from French (etymon *entrepreneur*)

First occurrence in English: 1762

• Expertise (noun)

= the quality or state of being expert; skill or expertness in a particular branch of study A borrowing from French

First occurrence in English: 1868

• Interview (noun)

= a formal meeting in which an applicant for a job, course of study at a college or university, etc, is asked questions in order to assess his or her suitability

A borrowing from French (etymon *entrevue* – feminine past participle of the verb *entrevoir*)

First occurrence in English: 1845 – referring to the definition above; 1514 – denoting a formal or ceremonial face-to-face meeting of people

• Merchant (noun)

= a person whose occupation is the purchase and sale of goods or commodities for profit A borrowing from French (etymon *marchand*)

First occurrence in English: around 1225

• Niche (noun)

= a position from which an entrepreneur seeks to exploit a shortcoming or an opportunity in an economy, market, etc.

A borrowing from French (etymon *niche*)

First occurrence in English: 1963 – referring to the definition above; 1610 – denoting a shallow ornamental recess or hollow set into a wall

• Payment (noun)

= a sum of money (or equivalent) paid or payable, esp. in return for goods or services or in discharge of a debt; wages, pay

A borrowing from French (etymon *paiement*)

First occurrence in English: 1370

• Profit (noun)

= a financial gain, esp. the difference between the amount earned and the amount spent in buying, operating, or producing something

A borrowing from French (etymon *profit*)

First occurrence in English: 1395

• Purchase (noun)

= the action or an act of obtaining something in exchange for payment in money or an equivalent; buying

A borrowing from French, probably also partly formed within English by conversion (French etymons *purchas*, *porchas*)

First occurrence in English: 1426 – referring to the definition above; 1325 – denoting the action or process of obtaining or gaining something for oneself in any way

• Questionnaire (noun)

= a formulated series of questions by which information is sought from a selected group, usually for statistical analysis; a document containing these

A borrowing from French (etymon questionnaire)

First occurrence in English: 1890

• Recruit (noun)

= a new member of a group or supporter of a cause; a new employee, a beginner, an initiate

A borrowing from French (etymons *recrue*, *recrute*)

First occurrence in English: 1749 – referring to the definition above, 1626 – a military term denoting supplementary troops

• Research (noun)

= systematic investigation or inquiry aimed at contributing to knowledge of a theory, topic, etc, by careful consideration, observation, or study of a subject

Apparently formed within English, by derivation; modelled on a French lexical item (recherche)

First occurrence in English: 1604

• Reunion (noun)

= the action or an act of reuniting or coming together again; the state of being reunited A borrowing from French (etymon *reunion*)

First occurrence in English: 1576

• Revenue (noun)

= income; spec. that deriving from property, possessions, trade, or investment A borrowing from French (etymons *revenu*, *revenue*)

First occurrence in English: 1433

• Vendor (noun)

= one who disposes of a thing by sale; a seller

Anglo-Norman vendor, French vendeur

First occurrence in English: 1594

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
accountant	accomptaunt, accomptant	comptable	accontant, acomptant, accomptant
advertisement	aduertysement, advertysment, aduertysment	avertissement	avertissement
benefit	benfet, bynfet, benfait, beenfete	bénéfice	bienfait
campaign	campagne, campaine *1600s	campagne	campagne
company	comopaignye, compeney, cumpani	compagnie	compainie, compagnie, compaignie
demand	demaunde, demande	demande	demande
entrepreneur	_	entrepreneur	_
expertise	_	expertise	_
interview	enteruieu, enteruew, entervew *1500s–1600s	entrevue, interview	entrevue
merchant	marchont, marzhaunt, marchante	marchand	marchant, marchaunt, merchand
niche	neece, niece, niech *1600s	niche	_
payment	pay3ement, paymentte, pament	paiement	paiement, payement
profit	profete, proffett, profijt, proffite	profit	profit, proufit, pourfit
purchase	purchaas, purchache, purchese	pourchasser	porchas, porchaz, pourchas
questionnaire	_	questionnaire	_
recruit	recruite, recrute *1600s	recruté	recreue
research	researche, research, reserche *1600s	recherche	recerche
reunion	revnion *1500s-1600s	réunion	reunion
revenue	reuenine, reuenus, reuenewes	revenu	revenue, revenu
vendor	_	vendeur	vendour, vendeur

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

• Latin: candidate, expenditure, agenda, agency, spend, prospect, deposit, project

• Germanic: brand, work, staff, share

• Greek: strategy

5.4 Travel

• Avenue (noun)

= a fine wide street

From French *avenir* (noun formed from feminine past participle)

First occurrence in English: 1780; also earlier in various other meanings

• Boutique (noun)

= a small shop

From French boutique

First occurrence in English: 1767

• Brochure (noun)

= a short printed work, of a few leaves merely stitched together; a pamphlet From French *brocher* (to stitch)

First occurrence in English: 1765

• Channel (noun)

= the hollow bed of a river, stream, or other body of running water; the course through which a river or stream flows

A borrowing from French (etymon chanel)

First occurrence in English: around 1387

• Circuit (noun)

= the action of going or moving round or about; a circular journey, a round

From French circuit

First occurrence in English: 1483

• Fortress (noun)

= a military stronghold, fortified place

From Old French *forteresse* (strength)

First occurrence in English: around 1330

• Guard (noun)

= the condition or fact of guarding, protecting, or standing on the defensive; watch From French *garde*, earlier *guarde*

First occurrence in English: 1596; also earlier in various other meanings

• Guide (noun)

= one who leads or shows the way, esp. to a traveller in a strange country

From French guide, earlier guie in Old French

First occurrence in English: 1362

• Heritage (noun)

= characterized by or pertaining to the preservation or exploitation of local and national features of historical, cultural, or scenic interest, esp. as tourist attractions

A borrowing from French (etymons *eritage*, *heritage*)

First occurrence in English: 1970 – referring to the definition above; 1225 – denoting property which has been or may be inherited

• Lake (noun)

= a large body of water entirely surrounded by land

From Old French lac, Latin lacus

First occurrence in English: around 1275

• Leisure (noun)

= freedom or opportunity to do something specified or implied

From Old French leisir, modern French loisir

First occurrence in English: 1303

• Marine (adjective)

= of, relating to, or characteristic of the sea; existing, originating, or found in the sea; produced by the sea; inhabiting or growing in the sea

A borrowing from French (etymons *marin*, *marine*)

First occurrence in English: around 1440

• Pilgrimage (noun)

= a journey (usually of a long distance) made to a sacred place as an act of religious devotion

A borrowing from French (etymons pilrimage, pelerinage)

First occurrence in English: around 1275

• Property (noun)

= a (usually material) thing belonging to a person, group of persons, etc; a possession A borrowing from French (etymons *properté*, *proprieté*)

First occurrence in English: around 1393

• River (noun)

= a large natural stream of water flowing in a channel to the sea, a lake, or another, usually larger, stream of the same kind

A borrowing from French (etymons *river*, *riviere*)

First occurrence in English: around 1300

• Souvenir (noun)

= something that is given or kept as a reminder of a place, person, event, etc.

A borrowing from French (etymon souvenir)

First occurrence in English: 1776

• Tour (noun)

= a going or travelling round from place to place, a round; an excursion or journey including the visiting of a number of places in a circuit or sequence

From Old French tor, French tour

First occurrence in English: 1642 – referring to the definition above; around 1320 – denoting one's turn or order to do something

• Village (noun)

= a collection of dwelling-houses and other buildings, forming a centre of habitation in a country district

From Old French village, village

First occurrence in English: around 1386

• Visitor (noun)

= one who visits a place, country, etc., esp. as a sightseer or tourist

Anglo-Norman visitour, Old French visiteor, visiteur

First occurrence in English: 1728; also earlier in various other meanings

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
avenue	advenue, avenew *1600s	avenue	-
boutique	_	boutique	
brochure	_	brochure	
channel	chanayle, chanelle, chanel	canal	chanel, chanal, chenal
circuit	cyrcuyt, sircuyte, circuite, circuite	circuit	_
fortress	forteresse, forceress	forteresse	forteresse
guard	garde	garde	guarde
guide	gyde, guyde, gydde	guide	guie
heritage	eritage, herytage, heretage	héritage	eritage, heritage
lake	lac, lak, laake, leke	lac	lac
leisure	leisere, leysir, layser	loisir	leisir
marine	maryn, maryne	marin (masculine), marine (feminine)	marin, marine
pilgrimage	pelgrimage, pelrimage, pylgramege	pèlerinage	pelerinage
property	properete, propperte, propte, propyrtee	propriété	propritei, propreté
river	riuyere, ryuare, riuer	rivière	riviere
souvenir	_	souvenir	suvenir
tour	toure *1600s	tour	tor
village	vylage, villach, vyllage	village	vilage, village
visitor	visitur, visitoure	visiteur	visiteor, visiteur

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

• Latin: itinerary, destination, indigenous, flora, fauna

• Germanic: guest, pool, sea, sun, shell, bridge

• Italian: archipelago

5.5 Transport and Accommodation

• Baggage (noun)

= the collection of property in packages that one takes along with him on a journey; portable property; luggage

From Old French *baggage* (property packed up for a carriage)

First occurrence in English: around 1430

• Cabin (noun)

= a permanent habitation of rough or rudimentary construction; a poor dwelling A borrowing from French (etymons *cabane*, *cabine*)

First occurrence in English: around 1440; also earlier in various other meanings

• Delay (noun)

= an instance or episode of being held up or kept waiting; a period of time during which action is held up

A borrowing from French (etymon delai)

First occurrence in English: 1570

• Departure (noun)

= the action of departing or going away

A borrowing from French (etymon departeure)

First occurrence in English: around 1515

• Hotel (noun)

= a building or establishment where travellers or tourists are provided with overnight accommodation, meals, and other services

A borrowing from French (etymon *hôtel*)

First occurrence in English: 1687

• Passenger (noun)

= a person in or on a conveyance other than its driver, pilot, or crew

A borrowing from French (etymon *passager*)

First occurrence in English: 1511 – referring to the definition above; 1347 – referring to the pilot of a ferry

• Route (noun)

= a way or course taken in moving from a starting point to a destination

A borrowing from French (etymon *route*)

First occurrence in English: around 1225

• Suite (noun)

= a set of rooms in a hotel, large house, etc., for use by one person or group

A borrowing from French (etymon *suite*)

First occurrence in English: 1716 – referring to the definition above; 1579 – denoting a group of followers

• Ticket (noun)

= a slip, usually of paper or cardboard, bearing the evidence of the holder's title to some service or privilege, to which it admits him

From French etiquette, Old French estiquet(te)

First occurrence in English: 1673; also earlier in various other meanings

• Vessel (noun)

= any structure designed to float upon and traverse the water for the carriage of persons or goods

From Anglo-Norman and Old French vessel, modern French vaisseau

First occurrence in English: around 1300

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
baggage	bagage, bagguage, bagige	bagage	bagage
cabin	cabaign, cabayne, kaban	cabane	cabane
delay	dalay, delee, delai, dilaye	délai	delai, delay
departure	_	départ	departeüre, desparteüre
hotel	hôtel *1600s	hôtel	hôtel
passenger	passagour, passynger	passager	passager, passagier
route	rute, route, roote	route	rute, rote, route, routte
suite	suitte *1600s–1700s	suite	suite
ticket	_	ticket	etiquet
vessel	vessele, wessel, uessel, fessell	vaisseau	vessel, vesseal, vaissel

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

• Germanic: bed, boat, ship, flight, room, inn

Dutch: yacht Inuit: kayak

5.6 Entertainment

• Attendance (noun)

= the action of coming or fact of being present, in answer to a summons, or to take part in public business, entertainment, instruction, worship, etc.

From Old French atendance, atendre

First occurrence in English: around 1460 – referring to the definition above; also earlier in various other meanings

• Café (noun)

= a coffee-house, a restaurant; strictly a French term, but in the late 19th century introduced into the English-speaking countries

A borrowing from French (etymon café)

First occurrence in English: 1802

• Genre (noun)

= a particular style or category of works of art; esp. a type of literary work characterized by a particular form, style, or purpose

From French genre

First occurrence in English: 1770

• Impression (noun)

= the effect produced by external force or influence on the senses or mind

A borrowing from French (etymon impression)

First occurrence in English: 1632 – referring to the definition above; also earlier in various other meanings

• Library (noun)

= a place set apart to contain books for reading, study, or reference

From French *librairie* (now only referring to a bookseller's shop)

First occurrence in English: around 1374 – referring to a room in a house; around 1449 – denoting a building containing a collection of books for the use of the public

• Marquee (noun)

= a tent large enough to hold many people (now usually one used for social or commercial functions)

Probably a borrowing from French (etymon marquise)

First occurrence in English: 1690

• Massage (noun)

= the rubbing, kneading, or percussion of the muscles and joints of the body with the hands, usually performed by one person on another, esp. to relieve tension or pain A borrowing from French (etymon *massage*)

First occurrence in English: 1866

Movement (noun)

= the action or process of moving; change of position or posture; passage from place to place, or from one situation to another

A borrowing from French (etymon *movement*)

First occurrence in English: around 1393

• Procedure (noun)

= a surgical or (later) other therapeutic or diagnostic operation or technique; an instance of performing a particular operation

A borrowing from French (etymon *procedure*)

First occurrence in English: 1853 – referring to the definition above; also earlier in various different meanings

• Stage (noun)

= the platform in a theatre upon which spectacles, plays, etc. are exhibited From Old French *estage*, modern French *étage*

First occurrence in English: 1551 – referring to the definition above; around 1300 – denoting a story or floor of a building

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
attendance	attendaunce, atendans	verb <i>attendre</i> (to wait)	atendance
café	_	café	_
genre	_	genre	_
impression	enpression, inpression	impression	impression
library	librarie, lyberary, liberary	librairie	librairie
marquee	marquee, marki *1700s	marquise	-
massage	_	massage	-
movement	meuement, moevement, mouement	mouvement	movement, mouvement
procedure	procedor, procedour *1600s	procédure	procedure
stage	_	étage	estage

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

Italian: casino Latin: rhythm

• Germanic: shop, game

• Sanskrit: yoga

• From a proper name: spa (a bath in Belgium)

5.7 Verbs

• Accompany

= to go with (a person) as a companion, escort, or attendant

A borrowing from French (etymon accompagner)

First occurrence in English: 1426

• Accomplish

= to fulfil, perform, or carry out successfully; to achieve (one's object)

A borrowing from French (etymons accompliss-, accomplir)

First occurrence in English: around 1405

• Advance

= to move, put, or push (something) forward, esp. in a purposeful way

A borrowing from French (etymon avauncer)

First occurrence in English: around 1393

• Arrive

= to come to the destination of a journey or reach a specified place, person, etc.; to come on the scene, make one's appearance

A borrowing from French (etymon arrive)

First occurrence in English: around 1400 – referring to the definition above; around 1275 – denoting the action of coming to one's destination by boat

Change

= to substitute one thing for another, to replace something with something else

A borrowing from French (etymon changer)

First occurrence in English: around 1225

• Compare

= to mark or point out the similarities and differences of two or more things

From Old French comperer

First occurrence in English: 1509

• Continue

= to carry on, keep up, maintain, go on with, persist in (an action, usage, etc.)

From French continuer

First occurrence in English: around 1340

• Encourage

= to inspire with courage, animate, inspirit

A borrowing from French (etymon encoragier)

First occurrence in English: 1490

• Entertain

= to provide amusement or enjoyment for (a person); to amuse, divert, esp. with a performance, public event, etc.

A borrowing from French (etymon *entretenir* – to support, to be linked to each other) First occurrence in English: 1593 – referring to the definition above; around 1452 – meaning to keep up, maintain

• Escape

= to gain one's liberty by flight; to get free from detention or control, or from an oppressive or irksome condition

A borrowing from French (etymons eschaper, escaper)

First occurrence in English: around 1292

Establish

= to set up on a secure or permanent basis; to found

From Old French etabliss- (lengthened stem of establir)

First occurrence in English: around 1460

• Imagine

= to represent to oneself in imagination; to form a mental image of, picture to oneself (something not real or not present to the senses)

A borrowing from French (etymon *imaginer*)

First occurrence in English: around 1398

• Maintain

= to keep up, preserve, cause to continue in being (a state of things, a condition, an activity, etc.)

A borrowing from French (etymon *maintenir*)

First occurrence in English: around 1375

• Mention

= to make mention of; to refer to briefly and without entering into detail; to remark upon incidentally

A borrowing from French (etymon *mentioner*)

First occurrence in English: 1530

• Oblige

= to be obliged: to be morally or legally bound; (more generally) to be under a necessity, to be behoved

A borrowing from French (etymon *obliger*)

First occurrence in English: 1398

Occupy

= to keep busy, engage, employ (a person, or the mind, attention, etc.)

A borrowing from French (etymon *occuper*)

First occurrence in English: around 1325

• Prefer

= to favour (one person or thing) in preference or to another; to like better

A borrowing from French (etymon *preferer*)

First occurrence in English: around 1393

Propose

= to put forward or suggest as a scheme, plan, or course of action; to recommend or advocate that something be done

A borrowing from French (etymon *proposer*)

First occurrence in English: 1614 – referring to the definition above; 1340 – employed to form an intention or design

Pursue

= to try to obtain or accomplish, to work to bring about, to strive for (a circumstance, event, condition, etc.); to seek after, aim at

A borrowing from French (etymons *pursure*, *pursivre*, *porsure*, *porsure*, *porsure*)

First occurrence in English: around 1382

• Regret

= to feel or express sorrow or regret

A borrowing from French (etymon regretter)

First occurrence in English: around 1450

• Satisfy

= to meet or fulfil the desire, wish, or expectation of; to be accepted by (a person, his or her judgement, etc.)

A borrowing from French (etymon *satisfier*)

First occurrence in English: around 1425

In contrast, below are examples of words of different origins:

• Germanic: come, go, find, give, reach, make, hold, carve, work

• Latin: participate, discuss, dedicate, provide, explain, select, urge

• Italian: manage

• Scandinavian: raise

Modern English spelling	Middle English forms of spelling	Modern French spelling	Old French or Middle French spelling
accompany	accompaignye, accompayne, accompayneye	accompagner	acompaigner, acompaignier
accomplish	accomplesse, accomplice, accomplysse	accomplir	acomplir, accomplir
advance	auance, auanse, auawnse, auaunsse	avancer	avancer, avancier, avanser, advancer
arrive	ariui, arreue, aryefe, arryue	arriver	ariver, arriver
change	changi, chaunch, chavnge, chong, schaunge	changer	changier, changer
compare	comper	comparer	comperer
continue	continue, contynewe, contynwe	continuer	_
encourage	encorage	encourager	encoragier
entertain	entertien, entretene, entretyn	entretenir	entretenir
escape	eschape, eskepe, eskape	échapper	eschaper, escaper
establish	establissen, astabilishe, establysch	établir	establir
imagine	emagene, jmagine, ymageyn	imaginer	imaginer, ymaginer
maintain	maintiene, maynetene, maynton, meignten	maintenir	maintenir
mention	mencyon, mensin, mension *1500s	mentionner	mentionner, mencionner
oblige	obleche, oblige, obblische, oblish	obliger	obliger, obligier
occupy	hokewepye, ocapie, occapye, ocwpye	occuper	occuper
prefer	prefere, profere, preferr	préférer	preferer
propose	proposent, propose, prepose	proposer	proposer
pursue	pursev, pursieu, pursiewe, pursuwy	poursuivre	porsure, porsuir, poursuire, poursuyr
regret	regrete, regret	regretter	regreter, regretter
satisfy	satesfye, satisfy, sattisfie	satisfaire	satefier, satifier

6 Conclusion

The theoretical part is dedicated to the development of the English language and focuses primarily on the French influence throughout history. It emphasizes the main historical events which have formed English the way it is used today. Interconnected with the theoretical knowledge, the practical part elaborates on the topic. Analysing vocabulary from the field of tourism, it puts emphasis on the etymological background, meaning, and compares ancient and modern forms of spelling. The analysis proved that the majority of the English vocabulary used in tourism has its roots in the French language.

It is not easy to estimate why the majority of the analysed words were borrowed from French. For some words there is clear evidence, for others the reasons are not obvious. I believe that many words from the field of gastronomy were brought into the English language with the arrival of the Normans. As they occupied the highest of positions, they could undoubtedly order the most exclusive dishes on the menu. Some of the French words were then adopted in English and survived to this day. Notably the kinds of meat, such as beef, pork, or veal are known to have been introduced to English by the Normans. As for the words borrowed later, I would suggest that French gastronomy seems to be renowned and simply has a good reputation in the world. In addition, many of the names of the French dishes sound noble and it may attract guests of restaurants to order them. To conclude, most of the analysed verbs are attributed to the Normans as their impact on English was certainly powerful.

In my opinion, words related to art and architecture were embraced by English since there had been no terms denoting the newly emerging inventions and objects. Instead of forming a whole new word, the English language adopted the foreign term. This could be also applied to many of the words from the fields of business and travel.

In contrast with the plentiful French borrowings, words of different origins are also present in the English language. Notably Latin and Germanic words occurred in the analysis. I believe that words of Germanic origin are usually quite short and denote essential actions and objects used daily (go, come, give, boat, ship, bed). Latin words, on the other hand, are usually longer and their meaning is more elaborate (indigenous, expenditure, participate).

During the analysis of the corpus, a few difficulties occurred. As English had been a synthetic language, and inflections had been abundant, there were too many forms to a single word. It was simply impossible to state all of the forms, and some of the records were unclear.

The same applies to etymology in several cases. The origin of some words is unknown (e.g. beach) or obscure and uncertain (e.g. golf).

The aim of the analytical part was to provide insight into the prevailing foreign etymology of words abundantly used in tourism. The thesis aspires to be beneficial for tour guides as well as tourists in terms of better orientation in signs, notices, and text in general which they encounter during their travels. They can profit from the similarity of spelling which enables them to understand the message although they may not speak the language.

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8 Pictures

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