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Slova přejatá ze španělštiny v současné angličtině

Spanish loanwords in contemporary English

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ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis deals with Spanish loanwords in contemporary English, i.e. words borrowed from the Spanish language which are commonly used in contemporary English. The theoretical part explains the terminology connected to this topic as well as provides an overview on different approaches on the classification of loanwords. The main differences between English and Spanish are also mentioned together with the history of both languages and the historical background of the contact between them. The main goal in the practical part is to compose a list of the most frequently used Spanish loanwords, to analyse their etymology, to compare them with their counterparts in Spanish and to classify them according to the degree of assimilation on different linguistic levels.

ANOTACE

Tato práce se zabývá lexikálními výpůjčkami ze španělštiny v současné angličtině, tj. slovy přejatými ze španělského jazyka, která se běžně používají v současné angličtině. Teoretická část nejprve naskytuje pohled na terminologii k dané problematice a na přístupy různých autorů ke klasifikaci výpůjček. Dále pak popisuje základní rozdíly mezi anglickým a španělským jazykem. V neposlední řadě je v této části popsán historický vývoj obou jazyků a kontakt mezi oběma jazyky z hlediska historie. Hlavním cílem práce v praktické části je sestavit seznam nejpoužívanějších z těchto slov, prozkoumat jejich etymologický původ, porovnat jejich užití v angličtině s užitím v původním jazyce a klasifikovat je podle způsobu a míry asimilace v různých jazykových rovinách.

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I. INTRODUCTION

It is known that any language behaves like a living organism undergoing a tremendous number of changes throughout its lifetime. At any given point in time a new word can enter the vocabulary system of a language while another which has been in use for a long time can all of a sudden disappear. All these changes often reflect the situation outside the language system, i.e. the people who are using it, their history, culture and their way of communication with others.

While certain vocabulary may be enough for describing phenomena in certain space and time, there is always a tendency to find new ways of denominating newly-found ones which have not been given their names yet. This is especially true when two different cultures meet, which necessarily causes intersections between the languages they use. And when there is a term for a phenomenon in one language and none in the other, the next logical step is to adopt the term in both languages for easier communication. As a result, these language borrowings provide linguists an excellent source for study and can often shed some light on the relationship between the given cultures be it in the past or the present.

English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. As today's *lingua franca* it is the second most commonly used language after Chinese when counting L2 speakers as well. There is currently an abundance of studies on the influence of the English language on Spanish as well as other foreign languages. And it is not surprising; this influence can be easily observed in any present-day Spanish conversation where words like *sandwich*, *penalty*, *jeans*, *poker*, etc., are used very often. However, not much attention has been paid to the opposite phenomenon, i.e. the influence of Spanish lexis on the English language; a topic which is certainly very

interesting as it serves as a testimony of relations between both nations in the course of centuries.

This thesis is an attempt to study this particular part of English lexicon from a linguistic point of view; to compile, classify and describe the characteristics of this collection of words.

The first part of this work will be introduced by a brief historical overview of the contact between the two languages and the reasons for adopting Spanish words into the English language along with list of examples from different eras. Then it will deal with the general processes leading to loans and borrowing and different types of loanwords will be described.

The main, practical part of the thesis will consist of an analysis of a list of Spanish loanwords which are currently the mostly-used in English. This list of borrowings will be examined and classified from the point of view of their morphological, grammatical and semantic properties.

All excerpts will be accompanied by examples of their usage in contemporary English along with the frequency of their usage according to the *British National Corpus*.

The aim of this paper is to provide an outline of the words originating from Spanish in the contemporary English language which could serve as a starting point for further studies on this topic.

II. THEORETICAL PART

1. Definition of linguistic terms

Since this thesis is dealing with a specific part of the vocabulary of the English language, it is necessary to explain some of the basic linguistic terms used for description of a language's vocabulary.

One of the fundamental terms, as it is explained by Crystal (1994: 454) quite clearly, is the *lexicon* of a language, which is the vocabulary of a language especially in dictionary form. It is also called *lexis*. *Lexicology* is then a study of the history and the present state of a language's vocabulary.

The basic unit of this field of study is called a *lexeme*, which is the smallest contrastive unit in semantic system. It is sometimes denoted as a *lexical item* (Crystal: 454).

1.1. Definition and characteristics of loanwords

As stated by Crystal (1994: 126), when one language takes lexemes from another, the new items are usually called *borrowings* or *loanwords*. He also points out that this term is somewhat imprecise because the receiving language does not give them back. This is also acknowledged by Haugen (1972: 212), who states the word 'stealing' would be more appropriate in this sense although the 'owner' does not lose anything.

In his work, Kvetko defines loanwords as new words that were taken from another language and that were more or less modified in phonemic shape, spelling, grammar or meaning according to the rules of the receiving language. (Kvetko 2005: 96)

Haugen (1972: 230) interprets a borrowing as a process that takes place when bilinguals reproduce a pattern from one language in another. This suggests that borrowings tend to undergo some kind of modification when adopted into the receiving language. He presents two types of modification that can happen in the process of borrowing. It can be either *importation*, when some features of a word from the original language are transferred into the receiving language, or *substitution*, when some features of the word are substituted by those belonging to the receiving language. (Haugen 1972: 212 - 213)

Haugen calls a word from the donor language a *model* and explains that any attempt to analyse the process of borrowing must involve a comparison of the original pattern with its imitation in the receiving language. The loan may be more or less similar to the model. He suggests that the expressions which have not changed that much from the model show more signs of importation while, on the other side of the scale, there are expressions showing more signs of substitution, the kinds of which would not be recognized by the speakers of the original language. (Haugen 1972: 212)

For the use of this study, the terms *loanword* and *borrowing* will be used interchangeably as they, according to all sources, denote the same phenomenon.

1.1. Typology of loanwords

In his study, Haugen states that all loans are semantic because they bring along certain new meanings into the receiving language. (Haugen 1972: 214) Therefore, his classification is based solely on the relationship between morphemic and phonemic substitution:

1. **Loanwords** show morphemic importation without substitution. Any morphemic importation can be further classified **according to the degree of its phonemic substitution: none, partial, or complete.**
 2. **Loanblends** show morphemic substitution as well as importation. A certain degree of analysis is needed by the speaker of the model that he is imitating.
 3. **Loanshifts** show morphemic substitution without importation. In this group, he involves expression usually called ‘loan translations’ and ‘semantic loans’.
- (Haugen 1972: 214 – 215)

Katamba’s (Katamba 2005: 137) division of borrowings shows some similarities with the Haugen’s and includes two main types: *loanwords* and *loanshifts*:

1. **Loanwords** refer to words that used to belong to one language and that were later imported and adopted by another one.
2. **Loanshifts**, sometimes called calques, are vocabulary items the meanings of which were translated directly by the receiving language.

In addition, Katamba (2005:135) distinguishes two types of loanwords according to the way of borrowing:

1. **Direct borrowing** – This type of borrowing happens when the new word is transferred directly from one language to another. (e.g. Fr. *omelette*)
2. **Indirect borrowing** – In this case a word passes indirectly from one language to another, and to another (e.g. *kahveh* – Turkish > *kahva* – Arabic > *koffie* – Dutch > *coffee* – English). Each time the word passes from one language to another, the pronunciation is adjusted to make it fit into the phonological system of the receiving language.

According to Kvetko (Kvetko 2005: 97), we can distinguish foreign borrowings on the basis of their assimilation in the receiving language as *fully assimilated*, *partially assimilated* or *unassimilated*. The changes from the original language can be observed in their orthographical, phonetic and morphological features.

1. **Fully assimilated loans** often came into the lexicon of a receiving language a long time ago and has changed in such a way that the speakers cannot notice their foreign origin, e.g. *wine*, *bishop* (Latin); *husband*, *window* (Scandinavian). Katamba (Katamba 2005: 146) further extends this definition by stating that fully assimilated words can sometimes lose their original grammatical properties such as gender inflections since they are not relevant in English. Also, these loanwords are not marked by italics or any special diacritics anymore in texts.
2. **Partially assimilated loans** are not completely assimilated semantically, grammatically, phonetically or orthographically. Therefore, their pronunciation and spelling can vary significantly. (Katamba 2005: 146)
3. **Unassimilated loans**, known also as **barbarisms**, have not been changed in any way in the receiving language, e.g. *protégé*, *chauffeur*, *haute couture*.

2. Reasons for borrowing

Borrowing is one of the major processes in enriching a language's vocabulary. Without a doubt, this way of enlarging the English lexicon is a result of cultural contact between English-speaking countries and the rest of the world. As stated by Crystal (1994: 114), there is always mutual influence when two languages come in contact with each other.

Furthermore, English has always been welcoming to foreign vocabulary, unlike other languages (e.g. French). This is supported by the fact that English has over the centuries borrowed thousands of new words from the languages with which it has been in contact. Therefore, it is not surprising that from a lexical point of view, English is in fact far more a Romance than a Germanic language. (Crystal 2012: 8)

As Katamba (2005:138-139) mentions, there is actually no purely linguistic reason for borrowing. When the need for a new word arises following contact with another culture a particular new meaning could be associated with any given form. However, it is much easier to adopt an expression which already exists in the foreign language. In addition to one of the reasons being **convenience**, he mentions another reason, which is **identity**. The language we use is not only a mere means of communication, it is also a means of asserting our identity. In connection with borrowing, this phenomenon is evident especially in bilingual speakers who use a particular language to express how they perceive themselves and how they wish to relate with the interlocutor. Sometimes, they can resort to so-called *code-switching* instead of having to choose between the two languages resulting in mixed sentences containing both of them. By this they can express their belonging to a sub-culture. If the foreign words are used habitually, they gradually become a part of the other language. Another reason for code-switching can be **prestige**, when some words are considered by the speaker as more fashionable.

The next obvious reason for borrowing provided by Katamba (2015: 140) is when there is a need for a new word where no suitable English one exists for the new concept. Concentration of words belonging to a certain semantic field often reflects the nature of contact between the two cultures or communities.

3. General observances on the differences between English and Spanish

This part of the thesis will deal with the basic differences between contemporary English and Spanish in relation to loanwords. The focus will be on the differences in the graphical representation of words, the existence or non-existence of certain sounds and grammatical devices in the two languages.

3.1. Typology

As stated by Erdhart (1990: 142), when classifying languages, we can distinguish different language families according to their origin. This so-called genealogical classification relies on similarities or differences between languages in terms of phonetic realisations of morphemes with identical or similar meaning. The basic unit of this classification is a *language family* which covers languages originating from one common ancestor language. A language family can be further divided into several *branches*.

Both English and Spanish belong to the *Indo-European* language family the importance of which is due to its high number of speakers (well over 2 billion) and also due to the political importance and cultural level of development of the ethnic groups using it. (Erdhart 1990: 143)

English belongs to the *Germanic* branch of the Indo-European family and can be divided into three sub-branches: *West-Germanic* (e.g. English, German, Dutch), *North-Germanic* (e.g. Swedish, Norwegian, Danish) and *East-Germanic* (e.g. Gothic – now extinct). The common ancestor of this language group is *Proto-Germanic* which was spoken in Iron Age Northern Europe. As it was already stated, English pertains to the West-Germanic language family with the largest number of speakers from the

languages in this group with approximately 335-410 million native speakers worldwide (cf. Ethnologue, Crystal 2006: 424-426)

On the other hand, Spanish belongs to the *Romance* branch of the Indo-European family consisting of languages which developed from the vulgar form of Latin following the break-up of the Roman Empire. Other languages belonging to this group are, for example *Portuguese, French, Italian*, etc. (Erdhart 1990: 146) Nowadays, Spanish counts with approximately 400 million native speakers making it the second most spoken language in the world. (Ethnologue)

3.2. System of writing

As Erdhart (1990: 169) mentions, system of writing of a language is a set of graphical symbols which serve as a means of transforming spoken language into a written text.

“Writing is a method of representing language in visual or tactile form. Writing systems use sets of symbols to represent the sounds of speech, and may also have symbols for such things as punctuation and numerals.” (www.omniglot.com)

Both English and Spanish use a *phonographic* alphabetic system of writing which means the graphic symbols correspond to particular sounds in the spoken language. In both of these systems a symbol (or a set of symbols) represents a single speech sound. (Čermák 2013:17)

As Čermák (2013: 18) explains, a writing system is conventional which means that its form is a result of a convention among its users and is not determined by the nature of a given language. He continues that the orthography of languages is influenced by three main principles:

1. **The historical principle** preserves the original, historical manner of writing, which does not take in consideration either the relation between the words or the current phonetic form of a language.
2. **The morphologic principle** makes allowances for the relation between the words and words derived from the same base are written similarly.
3. **The phonetic principle** reflects the current phonetic form of a language.

He then notes that all three principles appear in any given language and its orthography is a result of their opposing impact. English is one of the examples where the phonetic principle is very weak which means that large portion of its lexicon is not pronounced as it is written.

On the account of the Spanish writing, Čermák (2013:19) states that it is not purely etymologic, phonetic or phonologic as all these principles have affected it in different measures. However, by observing the relation between the Spanish orthography and its pronunciation, it can be said that the phonetic principle has played a more important role in this area than in English.

3.2.1. Alphabet

The English alphabet contains 26 letters (viz. figure 1) whereas the Spanish alphabet has 27 letters including the symbol ñ (viz. figure 2). Although the letters *k* and *w* are used only in foreign loanwords in Spanish, they are considered a part of the Spanish alphabet by the *Royal Spanish Academy*.

On the other hand, the digraphs *ch* and *ll*, which were, according to Čermák (2013: 17-18), a part of the Spanish alphabet since 1803, are no longer considered as separate letters, which was decided by the *Association of Spanish Language Academies* in 1994 (www.rae.es). Čermák (2013:18) explains that this was due to the effort of

unifying the Spanish usage with the international practice. A *digraph* is a sequence of two letters corresponding, in application to a given language, to one phoneme, e.g. *sh* in *shin*. (Matthews 2014)

Figure no. 1 – The English Alphabet

A a	B b	C c	D d	E e	F f	G g	H h	I i	J j	K k	L l	M m
a	bee	cee	dee	e	ef	gee	(h)aitch	i	jay	kay	el	em
[eɪ]	[bi:]	[si:]	[di:]	[i:]	[ɛf]	[dʒi:]	[(h)entʃ]	[aɪ]	[dʒeɪ]	[keɪ]	[ɛl]	[ɛm]
N n	O o	P p	Q q	R r	S s	T t	U u	V v	W w	X x	Y y	Z z
en	o	pee	cue	ar	ess	tee	u	vee	double-u	ex	wy(e)	zed/zee
[ɛn]	[ou]	[pi:]	[kju:]	[ɑ:/ɑr]	[ɛs]	[ti:]	[ju:]	[vi:]	['dʌbəlju:]	[ɛks]	[waɪ]	[zɛd/zi:]

Figure no. 2 – The Spanish Alphabet

Spanish Alphabet					
Aa a	Bb be	Cc ce	Dd de	Ee e	Ff efe
Gg ge	Hh hache	Ii i	Jj jota	Kk ka	Ll ele
Mm eme	Nn ene	Ññ eñe	Oo o	Pp pe	Qq cu
Rr ere	Ss ese	Tt te	Uu u	Vv ve	Ww uve doble
Xx equis	Yy i griega	Zz zeta			

Therefore, the comparison of the alphabets in both languages leaves us with only one difference, i.e. the presence of the symbol for *ñ* in the Spanish alphabet, the sound of which approximates the one found in the English word *onion*.

3.2.2. Special diacritical symbols

Sometimes the graphical representations of the symbols in an alphabet are not sufficient for expressing the spoken language. In Spanish orthography we can distinguish two special diacritic symbols which are used together with the letter of the alphabet:

1. “The **acute accent** marks are used as an aid in pronunciation and also to distinguish some sets of words that are otherwise spelled alike and pronounced alike but have different meanings or different grammatical usages.
2. The **diaeresis**, also known as the *umlaut*, which is placed over the *u* when it pronounced after a *g* in the combinations *güe* and *güi*. Umlauts are rarer than the other types of diacritical marks.
3. The **tilde** is used to distinguish *n* from *ñ*. In a technical sense, this might not be considered a diacritical mark, since *n* and *ñ* are separate letters of the alphabet.” (www.importanceoflanguages.com)

Figure no.3 – The Spanish Accent Marks

Spanish Accent Marks					
acute accent	á.é.í.ó.ú	diaeresis	ü	tilde accent	ñ

The symbols for the acute accent and the diaeresis can also be found in English, usually in foreign loanwords, especially from French, e.g. *café*, *fiancée*, *naïve*, etc. However, these symbols are not a part of the English orthographical system, i.e. they cannot be seen in the words belonging to the native vocabulary and it is unlikely that they would be used in any word-formation process.

3.3. Phonetics and Phonology

In spite of English and Spanish sharing a similar alphabet, when studying the phonological properties of both languages, many differences can be discovered. As Čermák (2013: 19) explains there is an asymmetry between the written form and pronunciation of a language; i.e. one sound can be represented by different graphical symbols and vice versa. To counteract this problem, **phonetic transcription** was devised in the field of phonetics, where every given sound of speech is described by a single unique graphical symbol. The most widely used alphabets of phonetic transcription is the *International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)*. (Čermák 2013: 20) The IPA will be used in this thesis.

3.3.1. Vowels

Table no. 1 – Vowels

Spanish transcription	realisation	English transcription	realisation
[a]	pad <u>r</u> e	[a:]	pa <u>s</u> t
[e]	pe <u>r</u> ro	[ʌ]	nu <u>t</u>
[i]	pi <u>d</u> e	[æ]	ra <u>t</u>
[o]	am <u>o</u> r	[e]	le <u>t</u>
[u]	pu <u>r</u> o	[i:]	bea <u>t</u>
		[ɪ]	bi <u>t</u>
		[ɒ]	co <u>t</u>
		[ɔ:]	co <u>ur</u> t
		[ʊ]	to <u>o</u> k
		[u:]	co <u>o</u> l
		[ə]	ab <u>o</u> ve
		[ɜ:]	bi <u>r</u> d

As it can be seen from the table above, the main difference between the vowels systems is the presence of long vowels ([a:], [i:], [ɔ:], [u:]) in English, where almost every short vowel has its long counterpart. In addition, some of the vowels present in English cannot be found in Spanish at all: [æ], [ə], [ɜ:].

If we were to find the equivalents of Spanish vowels with more or less the same quantity and quality in English, it would be as following:

[a] ≈ [ʌ]

[e] ≈ [e]

[i] ≈ [ɪ]

[o] ≈ [ɒ]

[u] ≈ [ʊ]

3.3.2. Diphthongs

Traditionally, Spanish diphthongs are divided into 2 groups: *rising* and *falling*. (Čermák 2013: 71) The former group consists of glides/semi-vocals (*w* or *j*) and a vowel, e.g. [ja], [wa], [wu]. Since these combinations of phonemes are treated differently in English (cf. Skaličková 1982: 97-98), only the latter group will be taken into consideration in the comparison below.

Table no. 2 – Diphthongs

Spanish transcription	realisation	English transcription	realisation
[ai]	<u>a</u> ire	[aɪ]	cr <u>y</u>
[ei]	re <u>y</u>	[eɪ]	da <u>y</u>
[oi]	do <u>y</u>	[oɪ]	bo <u>y</u>
[au]	ca <u>u</u> sa	[aʊ]	o <u>u</u> t
[eu]	de <u>u</u> da	[əʊ]	mo <u>w</u>
[ou]	lo <u>u</u> nió	[ʊə]	je <u>w</u> el
		[ɪə]	ea <u>r</u>
		[eə]	ai <u>r</u>

Looking at the table above, it is obvious that there are diphthongs with similar quality in both languages:

[ai] ≈ [aɪ], [ei] ≈ [eɪ], [oi] ≈ [oɪ], [au] ≈ [aʊ]

However, both languages have their own, unique set of diphthongs:

English: [əʊ], [ʊə], [ɪə] and [eə]

Spanish: [eu] and [ou]

3.3.3. Consonants

The following table shows the distribution of consonantal phonemes within the phonetic systems of both languages according to their manner of articulation and whether they are voiced or not.

Table no. 3 – Consonants

	Spanish		English	
	Voiceless	Voiced	Voiceless	Voiced
Stops	[p],[t],[k]	[b],[d],[g]	[p],[t],[k]	[b],[d],[g]
Nasals		[m],[n],[ɲ]		[m],[n],[ŋ],[ɹ̃]
Fricatives	[s],[f],[θ],[x]	[β],[ð],[ɣ]	[s],[f],[θ],[ʃ]	[z],[v],[ð],[ʒ]
Affricates	[tʃ]		[tʃ]	[dʒ]
Liquids		[l]		[λ],[l],[r] ²
Tap/Trill		[ɾ],[r] ¹		
Glides		[w],[j]		[w],[j]
Glottal			[h]	

Spanish and English share several consonantal phonemes including the stop sounds [p],[t],[k],[b],[d] and [g], the nasals [m],[n] and [ɲ], the fricatives [s],[f],[θ], the affricate [tʃ], the liquid [l], and the glides [w],[j]. However, as Gorman (8) states:

“Despite these common phonetic symbols, it is important to note that there are differences in voicing, aspiration, and precise place of articulation for many of these sounds that result in acoustic differences.”

Consonant sounds occurring in Spanish only:

[ɹ̃] – a voiced palatal stop, usually written as ñ (Čermák 2013: 95)

[x] – a voiceless velar (uvular) fricative similar to the sound in Scottish *loch*

[β],[ð],[ɣ] – these are the fricative variants of the voiced stops [b],[d],[g], usually pronounced within an utterance (Čermák 2013: 79)

[r] – a voiced tapped alveolar vibrant which is tapped only once and therefore is sometimes considered as a stop. It can occur at any position with the exception of initial position. (Čermák 2013: 89)

[r]¹ – a voiced trilled alveolar vibrant. Every word beginning in *r* is pronounced with this phoneme. If positioned between vowels, it is represented by *rr*. (Čermák 2013: 91)

[λ] – a voiced palatal liquid, usually written as *ll* (Čermák 2013: 95)

Consonant sounds occurring in English only:

[z] – a voiced alveolar fricative

[v] – a voiced labiodental fricative

[ʒ] – a voiced postalveolar fricative

[ð] – a voiced addental/interdental fricative

[dʒ] – a voiced postalveolar affricate

[r]² – a voiced postalveolar liquid

[h] – a voiceless glottal fricative (Skaličková 1982: 138 – 163)

3.3.4. Word stress

Čermák (2013: 125) mentions the word stress in **Spanish** is **dynamic**, which means that a stressed syllable is pronounced with more force than an unstressed syllable. It is also **variable** meaning that it not placed in a fixed position within a word,

which also means that it has a distinctive phonological function (cf. *célebre*, *celebre*, *celebré*).

There are, however, some observable patterns of word stress in Spanish:

1. It is placed on the penultimate syllable if the word ends in a vowel or in *n* or *s*.
(e.g. *telegram* [tele'ɣrama], *orden* ['orðen])
2. It is placed on the ultimate syllable in words ending in a consonant except *n* and *s*.
(e.g. *doctor* [doc'tor], *actitud* [akti'tuð]) (Hamplová 1998: 22)

In these two cases, it is not necessary to mark the stress with any special diacritic symbol. However, if the word stress does not abide to one of these rules, the stress needs to be marked by the acute accent mark (see 3.2.2.). (Hamplová 1998:23)

According to Skaličková (1982: 46), the word stress in **English** is also **variable**. Quirk (1985: 1589) also mentions the **dynamic** character of English word stress which “*is closely associated with loudness or amplitude on the one hand and articulatory force on the other*”. He then continues that the position of the stress is, with some exceptions, **highly unpredictable** and thus the stress pattern of each polysyllabic word has to be learned separately.

3.4. Grammar

With English and Spanish belonging to the same language family, it is to be expected that some major principles in their grammar are similar. However, there are a few grammatical principles which differ significantly. Although certain differences can be found in the syntax of both languages, they will not be mentioned for purposes of this study, which deals with phenomena within the boundary of lexical units only.

Gender in nouns and adjectives

In Spanish the gender of nouns, adjectives and other noun modifiers is grammatical, i.e. it does not reflect the object's gender in extra-linguistic reality. There are two distinguishable genders in Spanish. (Gómez Torrego 1998: 38)

e.g. *la pared* – the wall (feminine)

el ordenador – the computer (masculine)

On the other hand, as stated by Greenbaum, gender in English is not a feature of nouns themselves and it relates directly to the meanings of nouns and refers to the biological sex. (Greenbaum 1990: 99)

Person and number in finite verbs

Gómez Torrego (1998: 134-135) states that the grammatical category of person and number in Spanish finite verbs is expressed by six unique endings (1st, 2nd and 3rd person singular; 1st, 2nd and 3rd person plural). These endings appear in conjugations of verbs in all the Spanish tenses. On the other hand, in English the concord in person and number with most verbs is restricted to a contrast between the 3rd person singular present. (Greenbaum 1990: 41)

Number in adjectives

Greenbaum (1990: 132) mentions that unlike nouns, adjectives do not reflect the contrast in number in English (e.g. *a happy student, happy students*). Although Spanish adjectives do not possess their own gender or number, they reflect these grammatical categories of a noun which they modify: (Gómez Torrego 1998: 50)

casa bonita (feminine singular) *vestido bonito* (masculine singular)

casas bonitas (feminine plural) *vestidos bonitos* (masculine plural)

4. Historical background

4.1. The history of the English language

During the invasion of the British Isles by the Romans, Latin became the official language and influenced Old English vocabulary to some extent. One of the better known surviving words is *castra*, meaning a *military camp*. This word can be found in many familiar place names (e.g. *Worcester*). As Crystal (1995: 126) states, there are only a few Celtic loans from this period. Most of the words of Celtic origin can be found in place names (e.g. *Kent*) and in words connected with Celtic Christianity (e.g. *ancor* – hermit). Baugh (1978: 62) further explains that by looking at the number of the words of Latin origin which are found in the vocabulary of the settlers, it can be said that the Teutonic tribes had come in contact with the Roman Empire long before they invaded Britain. The nature of the words also shows what the nature of their contact was. The semantic fields where most of the words of Latin origin can be found are: agriculture (e.g. *must* – new wine), war (e.g. *camp* – battle), and trade (e.g. *mangere* – monger). But there are also a number of new loanwords related to domestic life (e.g. *pyle* – pillow). The second stage of Latin influence on Old English vocabulary continued in 597 and is connected with the introduction of Christianity by St. Augustine. A great number of new expressions entered Old English in this era usually connected with religion. Crystal (1995: 126) gives examples such *bishop*, *candle*, *priest*, *temple* etc. Baugh (1978: 76) adds other areas of Old English lexicon which enriched by Latin words during this period such as: foods (e.g. *radish*), names of plants (e.g. *ginger*), or expressions denoting animals (e.g. *tiger*).

Another interesting chapter in the history of the English language is the era of Viking invasions which, as Crystal (1995: 126) states, resulted in about 2,000 Scandinavian words coming into English (e.g. *dirt, egg, kid, leg, skin, sky, window*) in the ninth century. Baugh (1978: 84) adds that the evidence of this influence can also be seen in place names (e.g. *Whitby*). Given the fact the Danish invaders were a sea-faring nation, their language also enriched the English vocabulary in this area (e.g. *barda* – beaked ship), together with the semantic fields of law (e.g. *outlaw*), and everyday life (e.g. *birth*). As far as the Old English vocabulary is concerned, Baugh (1978: 117) explains, many of these words have not survived up and the ones that have are mainly the basic elements of the vocabulary and words expressing fundamental concepts.

Perhaps the most important period in the history of the English language was The Middle English period which began after the Norman Conquest in 1066. According to Crystal (1995: 126), the influx of new words from continental Europe, especially French, doubled the size of the lexicon to over 100,000 items. Baugh presents examples of such French loanwords which often dealt with government and public affairs (e.g. *parliament*), the church (e.g. *religion, vicar*), law (e.g. *judge*), army (e.g. *battle*), and navy (e.g. *captain*). French influence can also be found in the vocabulary describing the every-day life (e.g. *satin*), art (e.g. *sculpture*), education (e.g. *grammar*), and medicine (e.g. *remedy*). The influence of Latin could still be seen in the fields of law (e.g. *legal*), medicine (e.g. *immune*), theology (e.g. *pulpit*), science (e.g. *genius*), and literature (e.g. *popular*) (Baugh 1978: 200-223).

The Early Modern English period began with the Renaissance era. The main characteristic of this period is the search for a standardized form of English. The English used especially in London was proposed as a model of the standardized language. Of course, this period was also an era of sea voyages and thus meeting new

cultures along with the new vocabulary used in their languages: Indians (e.g. *totem*), Spanish (e.g. *tomato*), and Portuguese (e.g. *jaguar*) in the west, Hindi (e.g. *jungle*) in the east, and languages in Africa (e.g. *banana*) in the south (Baugh 1978: 231-351). Crystal (1995: 126) adds that by the end of the Renaissance the new words originating from Latin doubled the size of the lexicon again.

He then continues that in the 20th century English became a world language and came in contact an unprecedented number of languages culture which lead to acquisition of such a large portion of new vocabulary that eventually may exceed the totals from the Middle English period. As a source for new lexemes, he states such fields as: new fauna and flora, political groups and institutions, landscape features, industrial products, foodstuffs, inventions, leisure activities, etc. (Crystal 1995:126)

4.2. The history of the Spanish language

The Spanish language was derived from a dialect of spoken Latin, sometimes called Vulgar Latin (see 3.1.). This dialect evolved in the northern and central part of the Iberian Peninsula after the fall of the Roman Empire in the fifth century. A written standard was developed in the city of Toledo around the 13th century. (Penny 2002: 20-21)

This regional variant, also called Castilian Spanish after the region where it was used, eventually became the basis for the written standard. In the era of Reconquista, when the Christian kingdoms of the Iberian Peninsula fought against the Moors invaded their lands in 711, it spread to the south and replaced or absorbed other Roman dialects almost completely. At the same time, many borrowings (almost 4000) came into the language from Moorish Arabic and it was also influenced by Mozarabic (a Romance

dialect used by Christians living in the Moorish territory in the south of Iberian Peninsula) (Penny 2002: 11-15)

Traditionally, the first written evidence of Spanish is contributed to the *Glosas Emilianenses* (the late 10th to the early 11th century). The glosses found between the lines of a manuscript were written in the early form of the language called Hispanic Romance. Nowadays, however, the language discovered in the *Glosas Emilianenses* is considered to be closer to the Navarro-Aragonese language, another dialect of Romance origin. (Lapesa 1981: 162)

The first attempt of standardizing the written Castilian language was made by King Alfonso X of Castile in the 13th century. He invited scribes from various parts of the peninsula to his court and supervised their writing of extensive works in many different fields of study (history, astronomy, law, etc.) The language used in their writing was Castilian Spanish. (Penny 2002: 15-16)

The first grammar of the Spanish language called *Gramática de la lengua castellana* was written by Antonio de Nebrija in 1492. He then presented his work to Queen Isabella which would later find the language as a very useful tool when colonizing the Americas. (Lapesa 1981: 288-290)

Starting in the 16th century, Spanish colonization brought the language to the Americas, where many regional variants have developed. In efforts of standardizing the language the Spanish Royal Academy was founded in 1713. As Lapesa (1981: 419-420) mentions, it published its first dictionary in six volumes over the period 1726–1739, and its first grammar in 1771, and it has been producing new editions until today.

4.3. The contact between English and Spanish throughout the history

4.3.1. The historical overview

According to Crystal (1995: 126) the process of borrowing into the English language started as soon as the Anglo-Saxons arrived to the British Isles. It is well-known that the English vocabulary, in spite of being a language of Germanic origin contains a large number of Romance expressions, a majority of which are words with their origin in Old French. These expressions were assimilated into the English language after the conquest of England by William the Conqueror in 1066; very much like Latin loanwords were incorporated into the language during the era of christianization of the country in the 6th and 7th centuries or during the period immediately after the Norman Conquest when Latin served the nobility and clergy as the *lingua franca* in both countries, and also notably during the era of Renaissance with its intense admiration of classical period. As Shaw Fairman states, to this base of Romance lexis, it is necessary to add more than 420 Italian, 42 Portuguese and 190 Spanish loanwords. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 306)

She then continues:

“Out of these 190 Spanish expressions only ten have ceased to be used. In most cases because the object they designated also fell into disuse. This is the case, for example, of the word bilbo, which was commonly used in the 16th and 17th century. Bilbo was a sword made in the town of Bilbao in the north of Spain. With the disappearance of swords from the every-day life in general; this expression denoting a specific type of swords also disappeared.”

(Shaw Fairman 1998: 306)

This is a perfect example of how a loanword can cease to be used depending on the extra-linguistic connection with the phenomena it describes.

On the contrary, however, a large number of Spanish loanwords continue to be frequently used today. There is nothing artificial about a paragraph such as the following one provided by Shaw Fairman despite of it containing ten Spanish loanwords:

„The two boys entered a cafeteria, and after having some anchovy toast and a plate of meat and potatoes, followed by a vanilla ice-cream, and a cup of cocoa, the elder with an air of bravado offered his comrade a cigarette, calling him a booby when refused it saying that tobacco was bad for him“.

(Shaw Fairman 1998: 306)

The lexical elements can often cast light on the history of a country and therefore a study dedicated to Spanish loanwords in English can reflect quite precisely the type of contact between the two nations. As Shaw Fairman suggests, the 15th century is the era to which we can trace back the first use of Spanish words in an English text. It is important to note that these two expressions, which are found in an encyclopaedia for children called *Promptium Parvolorum* (ca. 1440), and which are *cordwain* and *cork*, correspond precisely **to the area which most Spanish loanwords will belong to and that is trade and commerce**. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 307)

Because this period (16th to 19th century) was an era of sea voyages, the predominant means of commercial transport was shipping. The expressions do not limit themselves just to the goods which were imported and exported but also include words which refer to the life on the sea: types of boats, common disease of mariners, punishments which they could receive, meals which were eaten on the boat, etc.

Within this set of Spanish loanwords related to sea commerce, Shaw Fairman distinguishes a special group composed of those expressions which denote aboriginal products of the New World and which were introduced to the Old one by Spanish galleons, products which sometimes had Spanish names while others had names which were Spanish adaptations of indigenous names, which then passed to English. (Shaw Fairman: 306)

“There is another group of loanwords related to the Spanish expansion in the New World, expressions which describe typical features of the nature and customs the indigenous inhabitants.” (Shaw Fairman: 307)

All these commercial activities imply commercial rivalry which can easily turn into aggression or even open hostility, which was the case in the late 16th century when Spain fought with England over the riches of the Americas and the Antilles, a war which started with the coming of the Invincible Armada to the English coasts in 1588. And thus a small group of Spanish expressions connected with war activities also entered into English.

This war was put to an end in 1604 by diplomats of both nations and thus, as Shaw Fairman (308) mentions, the diplomatic relations were another source of Spanish loanwords, or in this case more likely authentic *hispanisms* than borrowings, referring to the life and culture in Spain. Shaw Fairman (309) adds that, these were often accompanied by the adjective *Spanish*, or by a similar expression *in Spain*.

The wartime encounters brought such expressions as, for example, *armada* which according to the *Online Etymology Dictionary* (www.etymonline.com) was registered as far back as in 1533 but gained a special topicality after 1588 when the English called the Spanish *Armada Invencible* simply *the armada* by means of

antonomasia. It is not a coincidence that Shakespeare in his *Love's Labour's Lost* (1595) decides to call the character of „fantastical Spaniard“, Don Adriano de Armado.

Other special group, as was mentioned above, is formed by those expressions that denote activities or persons which cannot be easily separated from the Spanish context and, as Shaw Fairman (1998: 325) explains, it is better to call them **hispanisms**. These expressions were introduced to English through the reports, letters and conversations of English diplomats residing in Spain, through travel books in Spain, and also through translations of Spanish works into English. In the 17th century, there were so many adaptations of Spanish theatre works in English, that a term „*a Spanish plot*“ was established for referencing to certain comedies of Spanish influence. From this semantic fields came into English language expressions like *infanta, grandee, don, donna, hidalgo, toreador, matador, picador* and *duenna*. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 325-326)

Other expressions of this type are *sierra* or *cordillera* used for Spanish or Latin American mountains, *mantilla, siesta, bolero, fandango, saraband, quadrille, guitar* and *castanets*. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 326)

In the field of the cultural phenomena, we can find adjectives *plateresque* and *picaresque* referring to the specific Spanish artistic styles, whereas in the cosmopolitan world of commerce and travelling names for Spanish currencies - *reales, pesos* and *doubloons* are commonly found. Ultimately, the expression *cedilla* was adapted for denoting the graphical sign used in Old Spanish for distinguishing the voiceless interdental c from the voiced one, which is still used in present-day English to indicate the same graphical sign used for the voiceless French c: *leçon*. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 326)

And finally, an interesting and modern loanword, which is used very frequently, is the expression *cafeteria* derived from *cafeteria*, which is used to denote a self-service bar or restaurant. The origin of this word dates back to the post-WW1 period in South America from where it passed on to the USA and then arrived to Britain. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 327)

4.3.2. Changes in Spanish loanwords

According to Shaw Fairman (1998: 306), most of the Spanish loanwords are substantives but given the fact that verbs are created from nouns very easily in English by means of conversion, there is a number of verbs derived from nouns with Spanish origin: e.g. *to stevedore* - *stevedore* (*estivador/estivar*). They are substantives which mostly designate concrete objects, although there are some describing an action or physical and mental state.

She then continues that it is important to note that in some cases a Spanish loanword came into English through French which may have influenced its phonological composition: *caramel* - Fr. *caramel* - Sp. *caramelo*, or *cigarette* which is basically a French diminutive of the Spanish *cigarro*. (Shaw Fairman 1998: 307)

Shaw Fairman (1998: 307) also mentions that because in the English language the distinction for the grammatical gender was lost centuries ago (see 3.4.), English speakers tend to convert the final -a in -o in many Spanish loanwords: for example, *junta* - *junto*, *armada* - *armado*, *bravada* - *bravado*.

4.3.3. List of loanwords according to Shaw Fairman

Patricia Shaw Fairman in her work *La huella Española en la lengua inglesa: comercio, colonización y cultura* provides us with a number of Spanish loanwords that she mentions in historical context. Here is a list of them sorted into semantical groups for an easier navigation with the English expressions on the left and their Spanish counterparts, which they originated from, on the right:

Words connected with wartimes:

cask ← *casco*

flotilla ← *flota*

galleon ← *galeón*

corvette ← *corbeta*

picaroon ← *picarón*

guerilla ← *guerilla*

grenade ← *granada*

escalade ← *escalada*

esplanade ← *esplanada*

comrade ← *camarada*

calenture ← *calentura*

Expressions connected with atmospheric phenomena:

tornado ← tornada and tornar

corposant ← corpo santo

Expressions connected with loading and unloading goods:

cargo ← cargo

cargason ← cargazón

stevedore ← estivador /estivar

embargo ← embargo

rusk ← rosca / enroscar

Names for goods produced in Spain:

cordwain ← cordobán

cork ← corcho

spartograss ← esparto

camisole ← camisola

jade ← ijada

anchovy ← anchoa

sherry ← Jeréz

Expressions referring to Spanish customs:

bastinado ← bastonada

garrot ← garrote/garrotear

salver ← salva

to marinade ← marinar

Expressions denoting human behaviour:

bravado ← bravada

desperado ← desesperada

escapade ← escapada / escapar

renegade ← renegada

pecadillo ← pecadillo

booby ← bobo

Expressions connected with the New World:

stampede ← estampida

lasso ← lazo

ranch ← rancho

lariat ← la reata / reatar

rodeo ← rodear

cinch ← cincha

barbecue ← barbacoa

tobacco ← tabaco

cigar, cigarette ← cigaro

Names for animals from the New World:

armadillo, iguana, llama, alligator ← el lagarto

cock-roach ← cucaracha, chinchilla ← chinche

Expression describing people from the New World:

mulatto ← mulato

negro/nigger ← negro

pickaninny ← pequeño

cannibal ← caníbal

maroon ← cimarrón

Names for products from the New World:

avocado ← aguacate

banana ← banana

cocoa ← cacao

cochineal ← cochinilla

pimiento ← pimienta

potato ← patata

sarsaparilla ← zarzaparilla

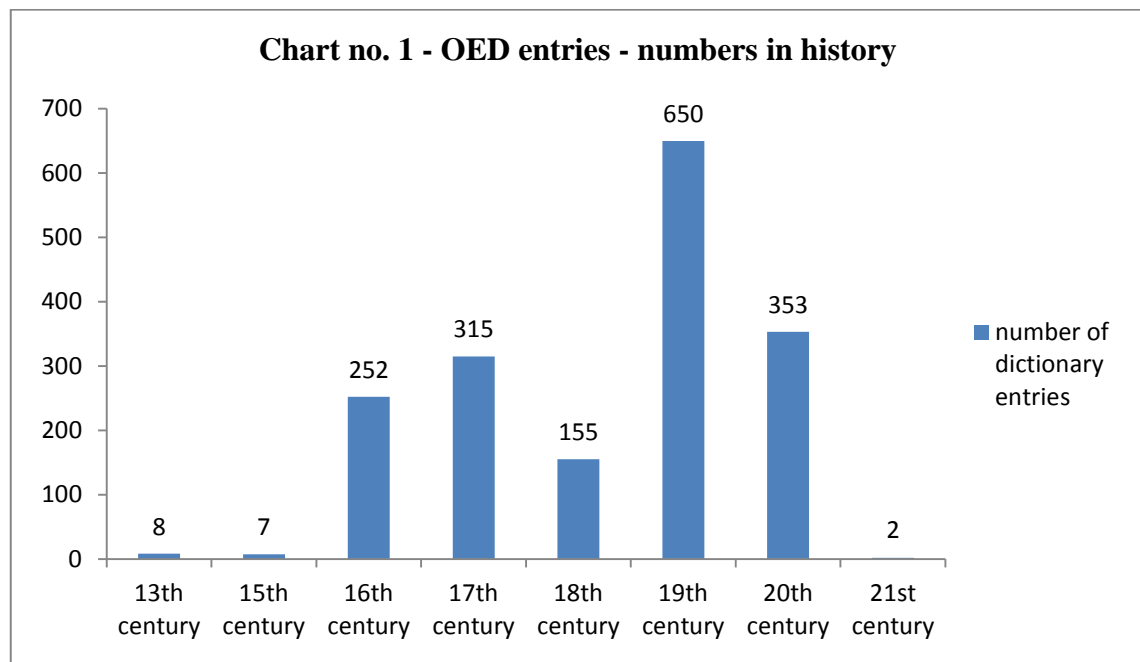
vanilla ← *vainilla*

Just by looking at the list of loanwords above, it becomes clear that some of these are no longer in use, which is the same as the case of the word *Bilbo* mentioned earlier. This again confirms the necessity of existence of an extra-linguistic phenomenon being described by the expression, so that the expression can be used actively in a given vocabulary.

II. PRACTICAL PART

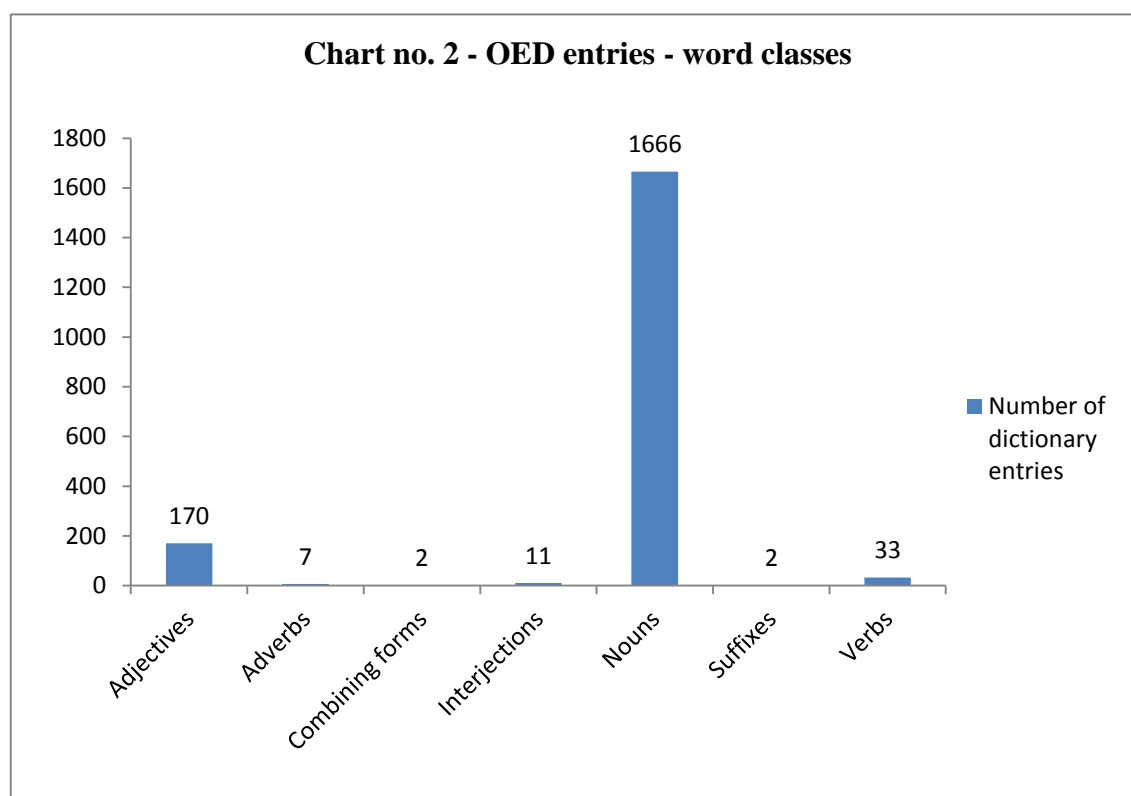
1. Introduction

The practical part of this study focuses on the analysis of loanwords from Spanish in the English language. As a starting point for finding a complete list of the loanwords, it is useful to consult the *Oxford English Dictionary* available online at <http://www.oed.com/>. The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) serves as a guide to the meaning, history, and pronunciation of over 600,000 words from across the English-speaking world. It allows its users to include the origin of words in their search queries. When looking for the portion of the English lexicon comprised solely of expressions originating from Spanish, the OED shows surprising results. **There are 1746 lexical items with their origin in Spanish.** The OED also allows us to take a look at when a word of Spanish origin was first used in a text written in English.



As it can be seen from the chart above, the English language apparently saw the largest influx of Spanish words in the 19th century with 650 appearing in that era.

The set of expression with Spanish origin can be also examined from the perspective of word classes:



It is obvious from the chart above that the nouns are vastly predominant with 1666 entries, followed by the adjectives

However, this number does not only represent the loanwords which are currently in use, but also lexical items which already ceased to be used or which were used only once, perhaps as a nonce word, i.e. an accidental linguistic form used once only.

(Crystal 1994:455) One example can be the word *achaque* (meaning an ailment or an attack of illness) which has been registered only once in a text dating back to 1647.

For the purposes of this study which attempts to look at the current usage of Spanish loanwords, it is necessary to separate the expressions which are used most frequently from those that are not used anymore. By using the *British National Corpus*, the most frequent lexical items can be chosen among the ones provided by the OED. In

this study the first one hundred most used Spanish loanwords (see Appendix 1) will be examined in more detail and used to demonstrate how they are assimilated into the English language. Any places names have been excluded from this list as they do not allow semantic comparison between the expressions in both languages.

2. The list of the most frequent Spanish loanwords in alphabetical order

The following list is comprised of the most frequently used Spanish loanwords according to the *British National Corpus*, their Spanish counterparts along with pronunciation in both languages using the IPA alphabet. Also, the year of their entrance into the English lexicon is mentioned with each loanword along with notes on their etymology with some of them where necessary. The *Online Etymology Dictionary* available at www.etymonline.com serves as the source for the comments on etymology.

The meanings of the loanwords found in the *Cambridge Online Dictionary* available at dictionary.cambridge.org are provided with each one of them. Then they are compared with the meanings of the Spanish expressions found in the dictionary of the *Royal Spanish Academy* available at www.rae.es. Comments are made on the difference in the semantic scope of both counterparts.

1 adobe

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	adobe (noun)	[ə'dəʊbi]
Spanish	adobe (noun)	[a'ðoβe]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1739

Meaning: "a mixture of earth and straw made into bricks and dried in the sun, used to build houses in some parts of the world"

Semantic change: none

2 aficionado

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	aficionado (noun)	[ə'fɪʃiə'nɑ:dəʊ]
Spanish	aficionado (adjective)	[afiθjo'naðo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1845

Meaning: *“someone who is very interested in and enthusiastic about a particular subject”*

Semantic scope: no difference

3 albatross

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	albatross (noun)	[ˈælbətɹɒs]
Spanish	albatros (noun)	[alˈβatros]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1670

Meaning:

1. *“a large white bird with long, strong wings that lives near the sea, found especially in the areas of the Pacific and South Atlantic oceans”*

2. *“something or someone you want to be free from because that thing or person is causing you problems”*

Semantic scope: no difference

4 albino

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	albino (noun)	[æɪˈbiːnəʊ]
Spanish	albino (adjective)	[alˈβino]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1777

Meaning: *“a person or animal with white skin and hair and pink eyes”*

Semantic scope: no difference

5 alcove

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	alcove (noun)	[ˈælkəʊv]
Spanish	alcoba (noun)	[alˈkoβa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1670s

Meaning: *“a small space in a room, formed by one part of a wall being further back than the parts on each side”*

Semantic scope: different meanings

In Spanish, the word has retained its original meaning from the 17th century: *a bedroom or sleeping compartment.*

6 alligator

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	alligator (noun)	[ˈælɪɡeɪtə]
Spanish	el lagarto (noun)	[el laˈɣarto]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1560s

Meaning: *“a large reptile with a hard skin that lives in and near rivers and lakes in the hot, wet parts of America and China. It has a long nose that is slightly wider and shorter than that of a crocodile”*

Semantic scope: no difference

7 alpaca

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	alpaca (noun)	[æɪˈpækə]
Spanish	alpaca (noun)	[alˈpaka]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1837

Meaning:

1. *“a South American animal with a long neck and long hair that looks like a llama”*
2. *“a type of wool made from the hair of the alpaca, used for making expensive clothes”*

Semantic scope: no difference

8 amigo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	amigo (noun)	[æ'mi:gəʊ]
Spanish	amigo (noun)	[a'miγo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1739

Meaning: “a friend, comrade”

Semantic scope: no difference

9 anchovy

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	anchovy (noun)	[ˈæntʃəvi]
Spanish	anchoa (noun)	[an'tjoa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning: “a small fish with a strong, salty taste”

Semantic scope: no difference

10 armada

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	armada (noun)	[ɑ:'mɑ:də]
Spanish	armada (noun, adjective)	[ar'maða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1530s

Meaning: “a large group of armed ships that fight wars at sea”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also functions as an adjective *armed*.

11 armadillo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	armadillo (noun)	[,ɑ:mə'dɪləʊ]
Spanish	armadillo (noun)	[arma'ðiʎo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1570s

Meaning: “a small animal whose body is covered in hard strips that allow it to roll into a ball when attacked”

Semantic scope: no difference

12 avocado

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	avocado (noun)	[,ævə'kɑ:dəʊ]
Spanish	aguacate (noun)	[aɣwa'kate]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1763

Meaning: “a tropical fruit with thick, green, or purple skin, a large, round seed, and green flesh that can be eaten”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is also used to denote the *avocado tree*.

13 banana

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	banana (noun)	[bə'nɑ:nə]
Spanish	banana (noun)	[ba'nana]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning: “a long, curved fruit with a yellow skin and soft, sweet, white flesh inside”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is also used to denote the *banana tree*.

14 barbecue

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	barbecue (noun)	['bɑ:bɪkjʊ:]
Spanish	barbacoa (noun)	[barβa'koa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1650s

Meaning:

1. *“a metal frame on which meat, fish, or vegetables are cooked outdoors over a fire”*
2. *“a meal that is prepared and eaten outdoors using such a frame, often during a party”*
3. *“a party held outdoors, during which food is cooked on a barbecue”*

Semantic scope: no difference

15 barracuda

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	barracuda (noun)	[ˌbærəˈkuːdə]
Spanish	baracuda (noun)	[ˈbarraˈkuða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1670s

Meaning:

1. *“a large tropical sea fish with sharp teeth, that eats other fish and can attack people”*
2. *“a person who does business in a way that shows they only think about their own advantage, even if this harms others”*

Semantic scope: wider in English

Spanish lacks English meaning no.2.

16 barrio

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	barrio (noun)	[ˈbæriəʊ]
Spanish	barrio (noun)	[ˈbarjo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1739

Meaning:

1. *“in the US, a part of a city where poor, mainly Spanish-speaking people live”*

2. “in Spain and other Spanish-speaking countries, one of the areas into which a city is divided”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, the term is used to describe any type of *suburb, district* or *neighbourhood*.

17 bonanza

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	bonanza (noun)	[bə' næn.zə]
Spanish	bonanza (noun)	[bo'nanθa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1844

Meaning:

1. “a situation from which large profits are made”
2. “a large amount of something good”

Semantic change: narrower in English

In Spanish, the expression has an additional, more specific meaning of “*fair weather at sea*”, in addition to the meaning of *prosperity*.

18 booby

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	booby (noun)	['bu:bi]
Spanish	bobo (adjective)	['boβo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning: “a stupid person”

Semantic scope: no difference

19 breeze

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	breeze (noun, verb)	[bri:z]

Spanish	brisa (noun)	['brisa]
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Came into the English lexicon in: 1560s

Meaning (noun):

1. *a light and pleasant wind*
2. *something that is easy to achieve, often unexpectedly*

Meaning (verb):

1. *to walk somewhere quickly and confidently, without worry or embarrassment*
2. *to easily complete or win something*

Semantic scope: wider in English

Spanish lacks the notion of *achieving something* or *moving without difficulty*.

20 cafeteria

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cafeteria (noun)	[,kæfə'tɪəriə]
Spanish	cafetería (noun)	[kafete'ria]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1839

Meaning: *“a restaurant (often in a factory, a college, or an office building) where people collect food and drink from a serving area and take it to a table themselves after paying for it”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, there is an additional meaning of a *coffee shop* or *café*.

21 canary

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	canary (noun)	[kə'neəri]
Spanish	canario (noun, adjective)	[ka'naɾjo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1650s

Meaning: “a small, yellow bird that is well known for its singing, sometimes kept as a pet”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also serves as an adjective denoting of *Canary Islands*.

22 cannibal

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cannibal (noun)	[ˈkænɪbəl]
Spanish	caníbal (noun)	[kaˈniβal]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “a person who eats human flesh, or an animal that eats the flesh of animals of its own type”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is also used to denote a *cruel and ferocious person*.

23 canoe

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	canoe (noun, verb)	[kəˈnuː]
Spanish	canoa (noun)	[kaˈnoa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning (noun):

“a small light narrow boat, pointed at both ends and moved using a paddle”

Meaning (verb):

to travel in a canoe

Semantic scope: wider in English

It is also used as a verb.

24 canyon

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	canyon (noun)	[ˈkænjən]
Spanish	cañón (noun)	[kaˈɲon]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1834

Meaning: “a large valley with very steep sides and usually a river flowing along the bottom”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also denotes *cannon, gun barrel, tube or pipe, and spotlight.*

25 cargo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cargo (noun)	[ˈkɑːgəʊ]
Spanish	carga (noun)	[ˈkarya]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1650s

Meaning: “the goods carried by a ship, aircraft, or other large vehicle”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it also denotes *charge* (e.g. electrical), *burden* or *responsibility*

26 cassava

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cassava (noun)	[kəˈsɑːvə]
Spanish	cazabe (noun)	[kaˈθaβe]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1560s

Meaning: “a South American plant with large roots, or a type of flour made from these roots”

Semantic scope: different meaning

The Spanish word denotes a type of cake made from flour of the plant. The original word is not used anymore to denote the plant in Spanish. The expression *mandioca* is used instead.

27 castanets

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	castanets (noun)	[ˌkæstəˈnets]
Spanish	castañetas (noun)	[kastaˈɲetas]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1640s

Meaning: “a musical instrument consisting of two small pieces of wood tied together by string and knocked against each other in the hand to make a noise”

Semantic scope: no difference

28 cigar

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cigar (noun)	[sɪˈɡɑː]
Spanish	cigarro (noun)	[θiˈɣaro]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1730

Meaning: “a tube made from dried and rolled tobacco leaves that people smoke”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The expression denotes *cigarette* as well in Spanish.

29 cigarette

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cigarette* (noun)	[ˌsɪɡəˈret]
Spanish	cigarillo (noun)	[θiɣaˈriʎo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1835

Meaning: “a small paper tube filled with cut pieces of tobacco that people smoke”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: The development of the word was influenced by both French (*cigarette* –diminutive of Sp. *cigarro*) and Spanish (*cigarito*). (www.etymonline.com)

30 coca

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	coca (noun)	[ˈkəʊkə]
Spanish	coca (noun)	[ˈkoka]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1570s

Meaning: “*cocaine plant*”

Semantic scope: no difference

31 cocaine

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cocaine (noun)	[kəʊˈkeɪn]
Spanish	cocaína (noun)	[kokaˈina]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1874

Meaning: “*a drug used in medicine to prevent pain and also used illegally, often in the form of a white powder that is breathed in through the nose*”

Semantic scope: no difference

32 cockroach

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	cockroach* (noun)	[ˈkɒkrəʊtʃ]
Spanish	cucaracha (noun)	[kukaˈraʧa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1620s

Meaning: “*a flat brown or black insect sometimes found in the home*”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: Formed by means of folk etymology - as if from *cock* + *roach*). (www.etymonline.com)

33 cacao

	Expression	Pronunciation
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English	cacao (noun)	[kə'kaʊ]
Spanish	cacao (noun)	[ka'kao]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning:

1. *“the seeds of a tropical tree, from which chocolate and cocoa are made”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The Spanish expression is also used to denote *cacao tree, cocoa powder* and *cocoa drink*.

34 comrade

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	comrade (noun)	[ˈkɒmreɪd]
Spanish	camarada (noun)	[kama'raða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning:

1. *“a friend, especially one who you have been involved in difficult or dangerous, usually military, activities with”*
2. *“a member of the same political group, especially a communist or socialist group or a trade union”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The Spanish expression is also used to denote *friend, mate, buddy, flatmate*.

35 coyote

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	coyote (noun)	[kaɪ'əʊti]
Spanish	coyote (noun)	[ko'jote]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1759

Meaning: *“a small wild animal like a dog that lives in North America”*

Semantic scope: no difference

36 creole

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	creole (noun, adjective)	[kri'əʊl]
Spanish	criollo (noun, adjective)	[kri'olo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1600

Meaning (noun): “a language that has developed from a mixture of languages”

Meaning (adjective): “used to describe a person of mixed black and European, esp. French or Spanish, ancestry who speaks a creolized form of French or Spanish”
(www.dictionary.com)

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also denotes *a person or object native to a locality, especially to a country in Latin America with origins in Europe.*

37 crimson

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	crimson* (adjective)	['krɪmzən]
Spanish	carmesí (adjective)	[karme'si]

Came into the English lexicon in: early 15th century

Meaning: “having a dark, deep red colour”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: from Old Spanish *cremesin* (www.etymonline.com)

38 crusade

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	crusade (noun)	[kru:'seɪd]
Spanish	cruzada (noun)	[kru'θaða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1706

Meaning:

1. *“a long and determined attempt to achieve something that you believe in strongly”*
2. *one of the religious wars (= crusades) fought by Christians, mostly against Muslims in Palestine, in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 17th centuries*

Semantic scope: no difference

39 embargo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	embargo (noun, verb)	[ɪmˈbɑːɡəʊ]
Spanish	embargo (noun)	[emˈbaryo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning (noun): *“an order to temporarily stop something, especially trading or giving information”*

Meaning (verb): *to officially stop trading with another country*

Semantic scope: wider in English

In English, the word functions as a verb as well.

40 fiesta

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	fiesta (noun)	[fiˈestə]
Spanish	fiesta (noun)	[ˈfjesta]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1844

Meaning: *“a public celebration in Spain or Latin America, especially one on a religious holiday, with different types of entertainment and activities”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The expression is also used to denote *party* in Spanish.

41 flan

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	flan (noun)	[flæn]
Spanish	flan (noun)	[flan]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1846

Meaning: “a sweet, soft food made from milk, eggs, and sugar”

Semantic scope: no difference

42 flotilla

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	flotilla	[flə'tilə]
Spanish	flotilla	[flo'tiʎa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1711

Meaning: “a large group of boats or small ships”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it can describe any kind of *fleet of vehicles*.

43 galleon

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	galleon (noun)	[ˈgæliən]
Spanish	galeón (noun)	[gale'ɔn]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1520s

Meaning: “a large sailing ship with three or four masts, used both in trade and war from the 15th to the 18th centuries”

Semantic scope: no difference

44 guerrilla

	Expression	Pronunciation
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English	guerrilla (noun)	[gə'ri:lə]
Spanish	guerrilla (noun)	[ge'ri:la]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1809

Meaning: “a member of an unofficial military group that is trying to change the government by making sudden, unexpected attacks on the official army forces:”

Semantic scope: no difference

45 guitar

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	guitar (noun)	[gi'tɑ:]
Spanish	guitarra (noun)	[gi'tara]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1620s

Meaning: “a musical instrument with usually six strings and a flat back that is held on the knee or by a strap worn over the shoulder and played by moving the fingers or a small piece of plastic across the strings”

Semantic scope: no difference

46 hacienda

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	hacienda (noun)	[,hæsi'endə]
Spanish	hacienda (noun)	[a'θjenda]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1760

Meaning: “a large estate in Latin America”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

It is used in Spanish to describe *farm* or *estate* of any kind. It can also mean *property*, and written with a capital letter also *tax office* or *tax collector*.

47 hammock

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	hammock (noun)	[ˈhæmək]
Spanish	hamaca (noun)	[aˈmaka]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1650s

Meaning: *“a type of bed used especially outside, consisting of a net or long piece of strong cloth that you tie between two trees or poles so that it swings”*

Semantic scope: no difference

48 hurricane

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	hurricane (noun)	[ˈhʌrɪkən], [ˈhʌrɪkəm]
Spanish	huracán (noun)	[uɾaˈkan]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: *“a violent wind that has a circular movement, especially in the West Atlantic Ocean”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it is also used figuratively to describe a *hasty person*.

49 chilli

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	chilli (noun)	[ˈtʃɪli]
Spanish	chile (noun)	[ˈtʃile]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1660s

Meaning: *“the small, red or green seed case from particular types of pepper plant that is used to make some foods very hot and spicy”*

Semantic scope: no difference

50 chocolate

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	chocolate (noun, adjective)	[ˈtʃɒklət]
Spanish	chocolate (noun, adjective)	[tʃokoˈlate]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1600

Meaning (noun):

1. *a sweet, usually brown, food made from cacao seeds, that is usually sold in a block, or a small sweet made from this*
2. *a dark brown colour*

Meaning (adjective): *of a dark brown colour*

Semantic scope: no difference

51 **incomunicado**

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	incomunicado (adjective)	[,ɪŋkə,mju:nɪ'kɑ:dəʊ]
Spanish	incomunicado (adjective)	[ɪŋkomuni'kaðo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1844

Meaning: *“not communicating with anyone else because you do not want to or are not allowed to”*

Semantic scope: no difference

52 **jade**

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	jade (noun)	[dʒeɪd]
Spanish	jade* (noun)	[ˈxaðe]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1721

Meaning: *“a precious green stone from which jewellery and small decorative items are made, especially in China and Japan”*

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: originally from Spanish *piedra de (la) ijada* (1560s), "stone of colic, pain in the side" (jade was thought to cure this) (www.etymonline.com)

53 jaguar

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	jaguar (noun)	[ˈdʒæɡjʊə]
Spanish	jaguar (noun)	[xaˈɣwar]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1600

Meaning: "a large wild animal of the cat family that lives in Central and South America"

Semantic scope: no difference

54 jerky

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	jerky (noun, adjective)	[ˈdʒɜːki]
Spanish	charqui (noun)	[ˈʧarki]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1850

Meaning (noun): *meat that has been cut into long, thin strips and dried*

Meaning (adjective):

1. *quick and sudden*
2. *not smooth and pleasant*

Semantic scope: wider in English

It is used as an adjective in English as well.

55 junta

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	junta (noun)	[ˈdʒʌntə], [ˈhʊntə]
Spanish	junta (noun)	[ˈxunta]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1620s

Meaning: “a government, especially a military one, that has taken power in a country by force and not by election”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is also used to denote *meeting, committee, or junction*.

56 llama

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	llama (noun)	[ˈlɑ:mə]
Spanish	llama (noun)	[ˈλama]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1535

Meaning: “a large South American animal with a long neck and long hair, often kept for its meat, milk, or fur and to carry heavy loads”

Semantic scope: no difference

57 Lolita

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	Lolita* (noun)	[lɒˈli:tə]
Spanish	Lolita* (noun)	[loˈlita]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1958

Meaning: “a young girl who has a very sexual appearance or behaves in a very sexual way”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: proper name, diminutive of Spanish *Dolores*.

58 machete

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	machete (noun)	[məˈʃeti]
Spanish	machete (noun)	[maˈʃete]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1590s

Meaning: *“a large knife with a wide blade, used for cutting trees and plants or as a weapon”*

Semantic scope: no difference

59 machismo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	machismo (noun)	[mə'tʃɪzməʊ]
Spanish	machismo (noun)	[ma'ʧismo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1940

Meaning: *“male behaviour that is strong and forceful, and shows very traditional ideas about how men and women should behave”*

Semantic scope: no difference

60 macho

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	macho (noun, adjective)	[ˈmætʃ.əʊ]
Spanish	macho (noun, adjective)	[ˈmaʧo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1928

Meaning: *“behaving forcefully or showing no emotion in a way traditionally thought to be typical of a man:”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, the expression also functions as an adjective meaning *male*.

61 maize

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	maize (noun)	[meɪz]
Spanish	maíz (noun)	[ma'íθ]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “a tall plant grown in many parts of the world for its yellow seeds, which are eaten as food, made into flour, or fed to animals”

Semantic scope: no difference

62 marijuana

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	marijuana* (noun)	[,mæɹə'wɑ:nə]
Spanish	marihuana (noun)	[mari'wana]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1918

Meaning: “a usually illegal drug made from the dried leaves and flowers of the hemp plant, which produces a pleasant feeling of being relaxed if smoked or eaten”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: altered by influence of Spanish proper name *Maria Juana* (www.etymonline.com)

63 matador

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	matador (noun)	[ˈmætədɔː]
Spanish	matador (noun, adjective)	[mata'ðor]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1670s

Meaning: “a man who fights and kills bulls at a bullfight”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is used to denote *anyone who kills*.

64 mestizo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	mestizo (noun)	[mes'ti:zəʊ]
Spanish	mestizo (noun, adjective)	[mes'tiθo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1580s

Meaning: “a person from Latin America who is part European, especially Spanish, and part American Indian”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

It is also used to denote *mongrel* and as an adjective it means *half-breed, racially mixed*.

65 mosquito

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	mosquito (noun)	[mə'ski:təʊ]
Spanish	mosquito (noun)	[mos'kito]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1580s

Meaning: “a small flying insect that bites people and animals and sucks their blood:”

Semantic scope: no difference

66 negro

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	negro (noun)	['ni:grəʊ]
Spanish	negro (noun, adjective)	['neɣro]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “a black man”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also functions as an adjective which means *of black colour, dark*; when used figuratively also *illegal*.

67 oregano

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	oregano (noun)	[,ɒrɪ'gɑ:nəʊ]
Spanish	oregano (noun)	[ore'ɣano]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1771

Meaning: *“a herb whose dried leaves are used in cooking to add flavour, especially in Italian cooking”*

Semantic scope: no difference

68 paella

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	paella (noun)	[paɪ'elə]
Spanish	paella (noun)	[pa'eʎa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1892

Meaning: *“a Spanish dish consisting of rice cooked with vegetables, fish, and chicken”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it is also used to denote the pan for preparing the dish.

69 patio

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	patio (noun)	['pætiəʊ]
Spanish	patio (noun)	['patjo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1818

Meaning: *“an area outside a house with a solid floor but no roof, used in good weather for relaxing, eating, etc.”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The Spanish expression can also be used in connection with theatre meaning *orchestra section*.

70 peso

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	peso (noun)	['peɪsəʊ]

Spanish	peso (noun)	['peso]
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Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “the standard unit of money used in Argentina, Mexico, and some other countries”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish the meaning is wider; it also denotes *weight* or *burden*.

71 picaresque

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	picaresque (adjective)	[ˌpɪkəˈresk]
Spanish	picaresco (adjective)	[pikaˈresko]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1810

Meaning: “relating to 16th-century Spanish novel (*novela picaresca*)”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

It is also used to describe someone *cheeky* or *roguish* in Spanish.

72 platinum

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	platinum (noun)	[ˈplætɪnəm]
Spanish	platino (noun)	[plaˈtino]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1812

Meaning: “a chemical element that is an extremely valuable silver-coloured metal, used in jewellery and in industry”

Semantic scope: no difference

73 plaza

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	plaza (noun)	[ˈplɑːzə]

Spanish	plaza (noun)	[ˈplaθa]
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Came into the English lexicon in: 1739

Meaning:

1. *an open area or square in a town, especially in Spanish-speaking countries*
2. *a group of buildings including shops designed as a single development within a town*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also has the following meanings: *space, place, or position in workforce.*

74 poncho

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	poncho (noun)	[ˈpɒntʃəʊ]
Spanish	poncho (noun)	[ˈpɒntʃo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1717

Meaning: *“a piece of clothing made of a single piece of material, with a hole in the middle through which you put your head”*

Semantic scope: no difference

75 potato

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	potato (noun)	[pəˈteɪtəʊ]
Spanish	patata (noun)	[paˈtata]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1560s

Meaning: *“a round vegetable which grows underground and has white flesh with light brown, red, or pink skin, or the plant on which these grow”*

Semantic scope: no difference

76 pueblo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	pueblo (noun)	[ˈpweɪbləʊ]
Spanish	pueblo (noun)	[ˈpweβlo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1808

Meaning: “a group of flat-roofed, connected buildings made of pressed, dried earth or stone, built by Native Americans in the southwestern US”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The Spanish expression can be used to describe any *town* or *village*. Another meaning in Spanish is also *people* or *nation*.

77 ranch

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	ranch (noun)	[rɑːntʃ]
Spanish	ranch (noun)	[ˈranʃo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1808

Meaning: “a very large farm on which animals are kept, especially in North and South America”

Semantic scope: narrower in English.

In Spanish it also denotes *communal meal for more people*.

78 renegade

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	renegade (noun/adjective)	[ˈrenɪgeɪd]
Spanish	renegado (adjective)	[reneˈɣaðo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1580s

Meaning: “a person who has changed their feelings of support and duty from one political, religious, national, etc. group to a new one”

Semantic scope: wider in English

In Spanish, the meaning is restricted only to the semantic field of religion.

79 rodeo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	rodeo (noun)	[rəʊ'deɪəʊ]
Spanish	rodeo (noun)	[ro'deɔ]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1914

Meaning: “in North America, a sport and public entertainment in which cowboys show different skills by riding wild horses and catching cows with ropes”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also means *detour* or *a different, indirect way of doing things*.

80 savannah

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	savannah (noun)	[sə'vænə]
Spanish	sabana (noun)	[sa'βana]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “a large, flat area of land covered with grass, usually with few trees, that is found in hot countries, especially in Africa”

Semantic scope: no difference

81 savvy

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	savvy (verb, noun, adjective)	['sævi]
Spanish	sabe* (verb)	['saβe]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1785

Meaning (verb): “to know or understand”

Meaning (noun): “*practical knowledge and ability*”

Meaning (adjective): “*having practical knowledge and ability*”

Semantic scope: wider in English

In Spanish it only means *you know* (formal).

*Note: 3rd person singular of the Spanish verb *saber* = to know

82 shack

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	shack (noun)	[ʃæk]
Spanish	jacal (noun)	[xa'kal]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1878

Meaning: “*a very simple and small building made from pieces of wood, metal, or other materials*”

Semantic scope: no difference

83 sherry

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	sherry (noun)	[ˈʃeri]
Spanish	jerez* (noun)	[xe'reθ]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1600

Meaning: “*a type of strong wine from southern Spain that is a pale yellow or brown colour, sometimes drunk before a meal:*”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: also the name of a town in the south of Spain; originally *vino de Jerez* (www.etymonline.com)

84 siesta

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	siesta (noun)	[si'estə]
Spanish	siesta (noun)	[ˈsjesta]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1650s

Meaning: *“a rest or sleep taken after lunch, especially in hot countries”*

Semantic scope: no difference

85 silo

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	silo (noun)	[ˈsaɪləʊ]
Spanish	silo (noun)	[ˈsilo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1835

Meaning:

1. *a large, round tower on a farm for storing grain or winter food for cattle*
2. *a large underground place for storing and firing missiles*

Semantic scope: no difference

86 sombrero

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	sombrero (noun)	[səmˈbreərəʊ]
Spanish	sombrero (noun)	[somˈbrero]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1770

Meaning: *“a hat with a wide brim, worn especially by men in Mexico”*

Semantic scope: no difference

87 stampede

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	stampede (noun, verb)	[stæmˈpiːd]
Spanish	estampida (noun)	[estamˈpiða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1823

Meaning (noun): “an occasion when many large animals or many people suddenly all move quickly and in an uncontrolled way, usually in the same direction at the same time, especially because of fear”

Meaning (verb): When animals or people stampede, they all move quickly in the same direction, often because they are frightened.

Semantic scope: no difference

88 stevedore

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	stevedore (noun)	[ˈsti:vədə:]
Spanish	estibador (noun)	[estiβaˈðoɾ]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1788

Meaning: “a docker, i.e. a person who works at a port, putting goods onto and taking them off ships”

Semantic scope: no difference

89 stockade

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	stockade (noun)	[stɒˈkeɪd]
Spanish	estacada (noun)	[estaˈkaða]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1610s

Meaning: “a strong wooden fence built around an area to defend it against attack”

Semantic scope: no difference

90 taco

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	taco (noun)	[ˈtækəʊ]
Spanish	taco (noun)	[ˈtako]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1949

Meaning: *“a hard, folded tortilla filled with meat, cheese, etc. and hot, spicy sauce”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it also denotes (wooden) *peg, dowel, or stack* (of paper).

91 tango

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tango (noun)	[ˈtæŋɡəʊ]
Spanish	tango (noun)	[ˈtango]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1913

Meaning: *“an energetic dance from South America for two people, or the music for this dance”*

Semantic scope: narrower in English

The Spanish expression also denotes the music played with the dance and also describes the occasion when this dance is performed.

92 tequila

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tequila (noun)	[təˈki:lə]
Spanish	tequila* (noun)	[teˈkila]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1849

Meaning: *“a strong alcoholic drink originally from Mexico”*

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: from Tequila, name of a district in central Mexico noted for the fine quality of its tequila
(www.etymonline.com)

93 tobacco

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tobacco (noun)	[təˈbækəʊ]
Spanish	tabaco (noun)	[taˈβako]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1580s

Meaning: “a substance smoked in cigarettes, pipes, etc. that is prepared from the dried leaves of a particular plant”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish, it also denotes the *tobacco plant* and *its leaves*, and *light-brown color*.

94 tomato

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tomato (noun)	[tə' mɑ:təʊ]
Spanish	tomate (noun)	[to' mate]

Came into the English lexicon in: around 1600

Meaning: “a round, red, sharp-tasting fruit with a lot of seeds, eaten cooked or uncooked as a vegetable, for example in salads or sauces”

Semantic scope: no difference

95 tornado

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tornado (noun)	[tə:' neɪdəʊ]
Spanish	tornado* (noun)	[tor' naðo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1550s

Meaning: “a strong, dangerous wind that forms itself into an upside-down spinning cone and is able to destroy buildings as it moves across the ground”

Semantic scope: no difference

*Note: The Spanish expression was adopted from English *tornado*, which was derived from Spanish *tronada* = thunderstorm (www.etymonline.com)

96 tortilla

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tortilla (noun)	[tɔ:' rti:jə]
Spanish	tortilla (noun)	[tor' tiʎa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1690s

Meaning:

1. *a type of thin, round Mexican bread made from maize flour*
2. *a thick Spanish omelette with potato and sometimes onion in it*

Semantic scope: no difference

97 tuna

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	tuna (noun)	[ˈtju:nə]
Spanish	atún (noun)	[aˈtun]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1881

Meaning:

1. *a large fish that lives in warm seas*
2. *the flesh of this fish eaten as food*

Semantic scope: no difference

98 vanilla

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	vanilla (noun, adjective)	[vəˈnɪlə]
Spanish	vainilla (noun)	[baiˈniʎa]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1660s

Meaning (noun): *“a substance made from the seeds of a tropical plant, used to give flavour to sweet foods”*

Meaning (adjective): *“used to describe a product or service that is basic and has no special features”*

Semantic scope: wider in English

Spanish lacks the English adjectival meaning.

99 vaquero

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	vaquero (noun)	[və'keərəʊ]
Spanish	vaquero (noun, adjective)	[ba'keɾo]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1826

Meaning: “a cowboy”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

In Spanish it also functions as an adjective denoting *belonging to a vaquero* or a *special type of denim worn by vaqueros*.

100 vigilante

	Expression	Pronunciation
English	vigilante (noun)	[,vɪdʒɪ'læntɪ]
Spanish	vigilante (noun, adjective)	[bixi'lante]

Came into the English lexicon in: 1856

Meaning: “a person who tries in an unofficial way to prevent crime, or to catch and punish someone who has committed a crime, especially because they do not think that official organizations, such as the police, are controlling crime effectively. Vigilantes usually join together to form groups.”

Semantic scope: narrower in English

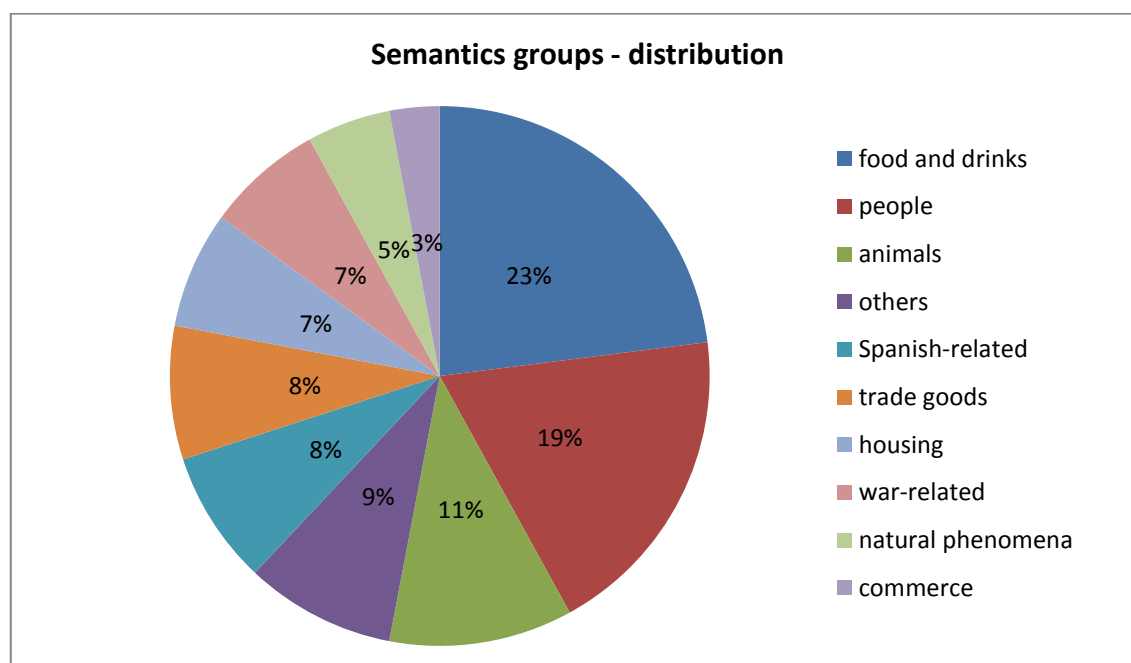
In Spanish it denotes any kind of *guard* or *watchman* and also functions as an adjective as in *guard dog*.

3. Semantic classification of Spanish loanwords

When analysing the meanings of the Spanish loanwords, we can distinguish several semantic fields, which these belong to. The most prominent group consists of expressions describing *food and drinks* (e.g. *avocado, tequila, tortilla*). The second largest group is occupied by the loanwords expressing or describing qualities of *people* (e.g. *aficionado, incommunicado, macho*). And the third most prominent group of loanwords consists of names for *animals* (e.g. *mosquito, alligator, llama*).

Apart from the above-mentioned three largest semantic groups, there are other groups, for example those denoting *trade goods* (e.g. *jade*), *war-related phenomena* (e.g. *flotilla*), *housing* (e.g. *patio*), *natural phenomena* (e.g. *tornado*), *phenomena related to Spanish-speaking countries* (e.g. *junta*), *commerce* (e.g. *cargo*), and *others*. The following graph represents the distribution of the semantic groups within the examined set of loanwords:

Chart no. 3 – Distribution of semantic groups



As it can be seen from the chart above, a large part of the loanwords describe foods, animals, and trade goods found in the Americas. This can be attributed to the fact that most of these expressions denote phenomena discovered by Spanish conquistadors when exploring the Americas. Most of these loanwords were adopted from the languages of the native Indian peoples living in the area as borrowing a term from another language is much easier than coining a completely new one (cf. Katamba 2005: 138-139)

One of the examples is the word *chocolate*, which first came into Spanish from the native *Nahuatl* language's *xocolatl*. It was brought to Spain in the 1520s and then spread to the rest of Europe. (www.etymonline.com)

4. Assimilation of Spanish loanwords into the English language

4.1 Phonetic assimilation

Given all the differences in the phonetic systems of both languages, which were described in the theoretical part, it is not surprising that all the excerpted loanwords have undergone some phonetic changes in the process of their adaptation. When comparing the pronunciation of the loanwords in English with their Spanish counterparts, the main differences appear when there is a sound which is present in the Spanish phonetic system but does not exist in the English phonetic system. How English copes with these differences when adopting loanwords from Spanish is described in the following part of this study.

Changes in vowel sounds

Before looking at each individual vowel sound in Spanish and how they are transferred into English in the loanwords, it is important to take into account some general rules concerning pronunciation of vowels in English as presented by Skaličková (1982:17). According to her, the pronunciation of vowels depends on these 2 factors:

1. Whether the syllable containing the vowel is **stressed** or **unstressed**. In unstressed syllables the pronunciation of vowels is usually reduced to [ə] or [ɪ].
2. The pronunciation in stressed syllables then depends on whether it is graphically **closed** (i.e. ends in a consonant) or **open** (i.e. ends in a vowel).

Spanish vowel sound [a]

In closed stressed syllables it becomes [æ] (cf. *bonanza*).

In open stressed syllables it becomes [ɑ:] (cf. *aficionado* and *llama*) or [eɪ] (cf. *crusade*) or [æ] (cf. *matador*).

If it is followed *r*, it becomes [ɑ:] (cf. *embargo*).

In unstressed syllables the pronunciation varies and sometimes follows the patterns of stressed syllables (cf. *comrade*). If it appears in the ultimate unstressed syllable, it is always reduced to [ə] (cf. *marihuana, plaza, tortilla*).

Spanish vowel sound [e]

In closed stressed syllables, it becomes [i:] (cf. *negro*) or it stays the same (cf. *sherry*)

In open stressed syllables, it can become [eə] when followed by *r* (cf. *sombrero, vaquero) or [eɪ] (cf. *peso) or it stays the same (cf. machete)**

In final position it either becomes silent making the preceding syllable closed (cf. *chocolate*) or it becomes [ɪ] or [i] (cf. *adobe, machete*)

Spanish vowel sound [i]

In open stressed syllables it becomes [i:] (cf. *tequila, mosquito) or [aɪ] (cf. *silo*).*

In closed stressed syllables it stays the same (cf. *machismo, flotilla).*

When in an unstressed syllable it usually retains its pronunciation (cf. *picaresque) or is reduced to [ə] (cf. *marijuana*)*

Spanish vowel sound [o]

In closed stressed syllables it stays the same (cf. *poncho*)

In open stressed syllables it becomes [əʊ] (cf. *coca*)

In unstressed syllables it becomes [əʊ], especially in the final position (cf. *macho, peso, poncho) or it is reduced to [ə] (cf. *tomato). When followed by *r*, it becomes [ɔ:] (cf. *matador, tornado*).**

Spanish vowel sound [u]

It becomes [ʌ] in closed stressed syllables (cf. *hurricane) and [ju:] in open stressed syllables (cf. *tuna*) as well as [u:] (cf. *barracuda*).*

In unstressed syllables it can become [u:] (cf. *crusade*).

Changes in consonant sounds

The consonant sounds which appear in both languages are transferred quite easily with no changes. However, there are a number of consonant sounds in Spanish which do not occur in English at all. If possible, English usually substitutes these sound by those with similar place and manner of articulation.

Spanish consonant sound [ɲ] - written as “ñ”

It is usually substituted by the combination of sounds [n] and [j] as in *canyon* ['kænjən]. Or it is substituted only by [n] as in *castanets* [ˌkæstə'nets].

Spanish consonant sound [x] - written as “j” or “g”

It is most commonly substituted by the consonant sound [dʒ] as in *jade* [dʒeɪd], *jaguar* ['dʒæɡjʊə], or *vigilante* [ˌvɪdʒɪ'lænti]. Less commonly, it can be substituted by [h] as in *junta* ['hʊntə] or by [ʃ] as in *sherry* ['ʃeri].

Spanish consonant sound [β] - written as “b” or “v”

Where it graphically corresponds to the letter “b”, it is substituted by [b] as in *adobe* [ə'dəʊbɪ]. Interestingly, the written forms of some loanwords in English reflect the resemblance with the English sound [v] and have been changed accordingly (cf. Sp. *alcoba* x E. *alcove*).

Spanish consonant sound [b] - written as “b” or “v”

Where it graphically corresponds to “v”, the English has substituted it with [v] (cf. Sp. *vainilla* [bai'niʎa] and E. *vanilla* [və'nɪlə]).

Spanish consonant sounds [ð] and [ɣ] - written as “d” and “g”

In English, these sounds are substituted by their stop variants [b] and [g] (cf. *incomunicado* and *oregano*).

Spanish consonant sounds [r] written as “r” and [r̄] - written as “r” or “rr”

Both sounds are not distinguished in English and are replaced by the English rhotic [r] as in *renegade* and *picaresque*. When they close a syllable, they become silent, prolonging the preceding vowel as in *embargo* or *matador*.

Spanish consonant sound [λ] - written as “ll”

It is either replaced by [l] following the graphical form, as in *armadillo* [ˌɑ:mə'diləʊ] or *llama* ['lɑ:mə], or it is substituted by [j], which is closer to the place and manner of pronunciation of the original sound, as in *tortilla* [tɔ:'ti:jə].

Classification according to phonetic assimilation

When deciding how much a loanword has been assimilated phonetically we must look at the similarities in pronunciation with the original word, not in their written form. For a loanword to be phonetically non-assimilated, there should not be any difference between the loanword and the original word in pronunciation. In the set of the studied Spanish loanwords, there **were not any phonetically non-assimilated loanwords**.

However, in some cases the pronunciation of a loanword showed a certain deviation from traditional pronunciation patterns in English. These loanwords can be described as **partially assimilated**. The examples of such loanwords can be *tortilla* and

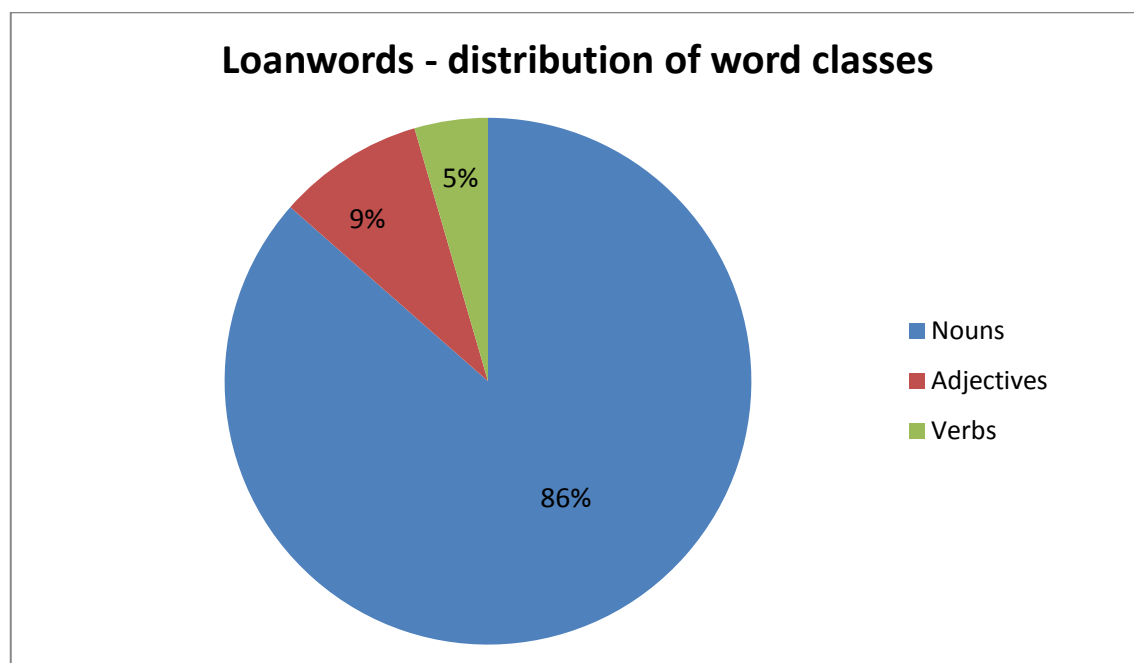
siesta. These words have almost retained their original phonetic structure only with some slight changes to some of the phonemes.

When the pronunciation of a loanword differs significantly from the original lexical unit to a point when it can be hardly distinguished as a borrowing, it can be described as **fully assimilated**. This distinction often comes in hand with morphologic assimilation. Some examples from the studied set of loanwords are: *guitar*, *alligator*, *barbecue*, *breeze*, *cockroach*, *crimson*.

4.2. Grammatical assimilation

In the group of most used loanwords from Spanish, there are words functioning as one, two or all of these three word classes: nouns, adjectives, and verbs. The distribution of the word classes can be seen in the following chart:

Chart no. 4 - Distribution of word classes



As it has been already mention, the majority of loanwords from Spanish are nouns. Together with adjectives and verbs, they belong to the *open* classes of words

which according to Greenbaum (1990:16) “*are constantly changing their membership as old words drop out of the language and new ones are coined or adopted to reflect cultural changes in society.*”

The degree of grammatical assimilation of the loanwords belonging to these classes can be ascertained by examining of how well they work within the rules governing these word classes.

Assimilation of verbs

There are a few loanwords functioning as verbs in the examined list of borrowing. They are: *breeze*, *canoe*, *embargo*, *savvy*, and *stampede*. Whether a verb is or is not fully assimilated can be established by regularities or irregularities in formation of its verb forms by adding suffixes. Apart from the base form without a suffix, most verbs can have other three forms: *-s* form, *-ing* participle form, and *-ed* form. (Quirk 1990:25) All the verbs abide to the rules governing the creation of these verb forms, as it can be seen in the table below:

Table no. 4 - Verb forms of the borrowed verbs

base form	-s form	-ing participle	-ed form
breeze	breezes	breezing	breezed
canoe	canoes	canoeing	canoed
embargo	embargoes	embargoing	embargoed
savvy	savvies	savvying	savvied
stampede	stampedes	stampeding	stampeded

Assimilation of nouns

With nouns one of the clues for determining whether they are grammatically assimilated is the way they form their plural forms. All the Spanish (countable)

loanwords examined in this study showed ability to form plural forms in accordance to rules in the English language (Quirk 1990:95):

1. With most nouns by adding *-s*: e.g. *alligators, bananas, tequilas*
2. Nouns ending with a sibilant: e.g. *cockroaches, ranches*
3. Nouns ending with *-y*: e.g. *anchovies, canaries, sherries*
4. Nouns ending with *-o*: *embargoes, machos, cargo(e)s*

Assimilation of adjectives

According to Quirk (1990:129), four features are commonly considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

1. They can freely occur in attributive function.
2. They can freely occur in predicative function.
3. They can be premodified by the intensifier *very* (only gradable adjectives).
4. They can take comparative and superlative forms (only gradable adjectives).

All the loanwords functioning as adjectives have at least two of these characteristics.

There is one exception however. The expression *incomunicado* cannot occur in attributive function. However, it can appear in predicative function:

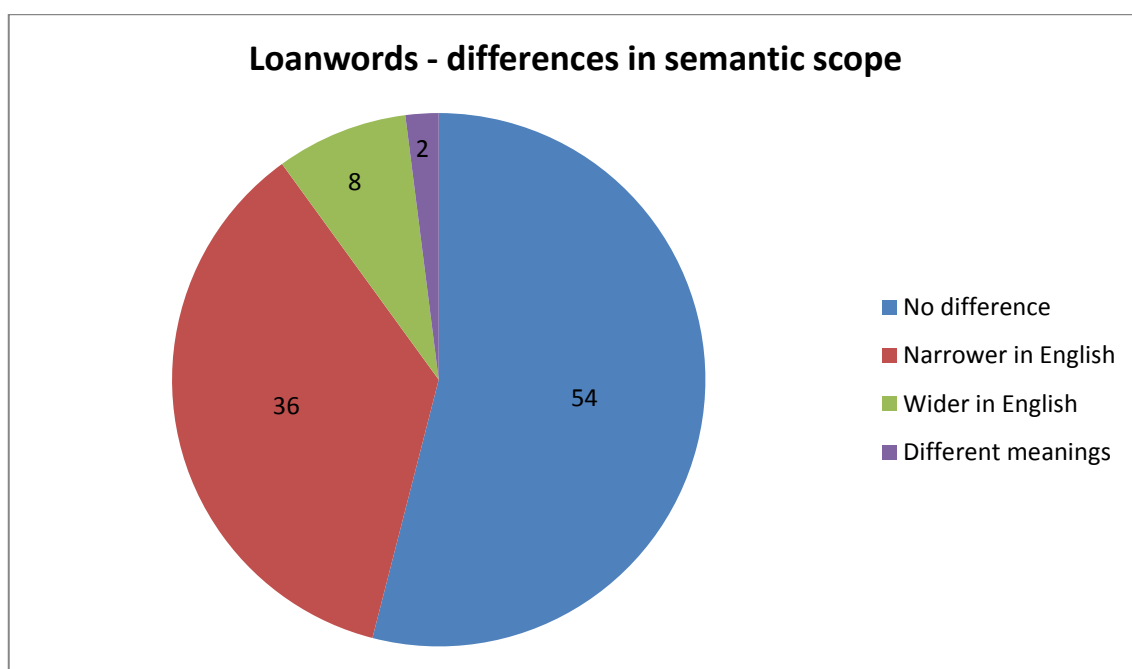
e.g. “*The prisoners have been held incomunicado for eighteen years.*”

It is also not gradable and therefore can be considered as not fully grammatically assimilated.

4.3. Semantic assimilation

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language. This can be seen when comparing the loanwords with their Spanish counterparts in terms of semantic scope:

Chart no. 5 - Differences in semantic scope



Most loanwords from Spanish show no difference in their semantic scope or are even narrower. There are a number of loanwords with wider semantic scope than their Spanish counterparts. However, this is due to the fact that expressions belonging to one word class can be transformed into another word class very easily in English by means of conversion and they keep their original forms. One of the examples can be the word *savvy*, which originated from a verb but can be now also used as a noun and an adjective in English.

Borrowings which can be considered as not fully semantically assimilated denote phenomena typical of the country of their origin and there is no other expression to convey the meaning of the loanword. The following borrowings from Spanish can be considered as not fully semantically assimilated: *peso, paella, tortilla, taco, hacienda, adobe, plaza, mestizo, vaquero, matador, junta, siesta, picaresque, pueblo, castanets, barrio, sombrero, fiesta, and guerrilla.*

IV. CONCLUSION

The number of all the borrowings from the Spanish language is considerably large when some of the rare occurrences of Spanish loanwords are taken into account. The English language has been adopting expressions from Spanish since the 13th century with the largest influx beginning in the 16th century, which can be attributed to the closer contact between the nations speaking the languages.

If we have a look at some of the most frequently used borrowings from Spanish from the perspective of word classes, we can see that the predominant group consists of nouns. This is due to the fact that nouns belong to the open word classes, which can easily accept new expressions from the language periphery and therefore it is more likely that new loanwords adopted into the language will belong to these classes.

The distribution of word classes among the loanwords is also connected with their semantic properties and belonging to particular semantic fields. A large part of the borrowings denote objects and phenomena which can only be found in Spanish-speaking countries or which were newly-found by Spanish explorers when discovering the Americas with the most numerous group belonging to the semantic field of *food and drinks*. The semantic fields of the loanwords also reflect very well the nature of contact between the English and Spanish speakers throughout the time and in the present.

When loanwords from Spanish enter the lexis of the English language, they necessarily undergo some changes on different linguistic levels. Given the differences in pronunciation of words between both languages, the changes can be observed mainly on the level of phonetics and phonology. Among the analysed loanwords there are not any which have retained their exact phonetic properties from Spanish and the pronunciation of all of them has changed to some extent. This can be attributed to the

fact that the English phonetic system lacks certain sounds which are commonly found in Spanish. The receiving language then copes with this absence of foreign sounds by replacing them with the sounds from its own register with the closest place and manner of articulation. The resulting degree of these changes varies, and thus we can find Spanish loanwords indistinguishable from native English vocabulary, for example the word *guitar*, and on the other hand, some borrowings from Spanish show resemblance with the original word and are not fully phonetically assimilated, for example the word *tortilla*.

As far as the grammatical functionality of the Spanish loanwords is concerned, the majority of them do not show any anomalies within their word classes and follow all the grammatical rules.

From the perspective of semantic assimilation, we can find Spanish loanwords which have been fully assimilated, e.g. *chocolate*, *tomato*, *tobacco*, and those which have not been fully assimilated semantically, e.g. *amigo*, *pueblo* or *sombrero*. Among the fully assimilated borrowings usually belong the most frequently and most widely used expressions. The latter group consists of expressions denoting phenomena which can be only found in Spanish-speaking countries or in a setting connected to their culture and traditions. It is also interesting to compare the semantic scope of the loanwords in English with the equivalent term with the same origin in Spanish. Most of the analysed borrowings have the same or narrower semantic scope than their Spanish counterparts which indicates their semantically limited usage in English.

In conclusion, borrowings from Spanish represent an interesting chapter in the rich history of the English language and in its vocabulary. It would be hard to imagine our lives without some of them as they play a noticeable role in today's society. They

can also provide us with a look into the past as they show the way of connection and communication between the two seemingly different worlds: English-speaking and Spanish-speaking.

V. SUMMARY

Předkládaná diplomová práce se zabývá lexikálními výpůjčkami ze španělštiny v současné angličtině, tj. slovy přejatými ze španělského jazyka, která se běžně používají v současné angličtině. Hlavním cílem této práce je sestavit a analyzovat seznam nejpoužívanějších z těchto výpůjček a zjistit jakým způsobem se asimilují do anglického jazyka.

Práce je rozdělena do dvou částí - teoretické a praktické. V teoretické části je nejprve vysvětlena základní terminologie týkající se této problematiky. Dále jsou uvedeny pohledy několika lingvistů na klasifikaci výpůjček a na důvody přejímání slov z cizího jazyka. Dále jsou v teoretické části popsány rozdíly mezi anglickým a španělským jazykem v různých jazykových rovinách. V neposlední řadě je v této části popsán historický vývoj obou jazyků a kontakt mezi oběma jazyky z hlediska historie.

Praktická část se sestává z analýzy seznamu 100 nejpoužívanějších výpůjček ze španělštiny. Vzorky jsou analyzovány z hlediska jejich asimilace v angličtině v těchto jazykových rovinách: fonetické, gramatické a sémantické. Dále jsou klasifikovány podle slovních druhů a podle příslušnosti do určitého sémantického pole.

V kapitole 1 je definován termín *výpůjčka*. Na základě definicí různých autorů je tímto pojmem myšleno slovo přejaté z jiného jazyka, které v tomto procesu přejímání více či méně pozměněno v jeho grafické podobě, výslovnosti, gramatických vlastnostech nebo významu podle pravidel jazyka, do kterého je přejímáno. Dále jsou v této kapitole uvedeny pohledy různých autorů na klasifikaci výpůjček, z nichž nejzásadnější pro tuto práci je klasifikace na výpůjčky *zcela asimilované*, *částečně asimilované* a *neasimilované*.

Kapitola 2 pojednává o důvodech pro přejímání cizích slov do jazyka. Přejímání cizích slov je jedním ze způsobů obohacování slovní zásoby daného jazyka a je výsledkem kulturního kontaktu mezi dvěma národy. Nejzásadnějším důvodem pro přejímání se jeví příhodnost v určité situaci, kdy je nejsnazší přivlastnit si již existující slovo z jiného jazyka než vymýšlet zcela nový termín v jazyce vlastním pro nově popisovanou věc.

V kapitole 3 jsou uvedeny základní rozdíly mezi anglickým a španělským jazykem. Angličtina je jazykem germánským, zatímco španělština jazykem románským. Oba jazyky používají jako písmo latinku, španělská abeceda ovšem obsahuje navíc znak pro písmeno ñ a využívá diakritických znamének pro vyjádření přízvuku. Dále je v této kapitole popsán rozdíl ve fonetické výbavě obou jazyků. Zatímco angličtina má 12 různých fonémů pro samohlásky, španělština jich má pouze 5. V obou jazycích se také vyskytují různé diftongy neboli dvojhlásky. Co se týče souhlásek, oba jazyky disponují fonémy, které se nevyskytují v tom druhém. Pro účel praktické části jsou zásadní ty, které se vyskytují ve španělštině, ale ne v angličtině: [ɲ], [x], [β], [ð], [ɣ], [r̄], [r̄] a [λ]. Dále jsou uvedeny rozdíly ve vyjádření rodu - v angličtině je rod přirozený kdežto ve španělštině je gramatický. Španělská slovesa a přídavná jména také na rozdíl od angličtiny rozlišují číslo.

Čtvrtá část je věnovaná historickému vývoji obou jazyků a kontaktu mezi národy mluvícími těmito jazyky na pozadí historie. Ukazuje se, že většina historických výpůjček souvisí s obchodováním a válečnými konflikty.

Praktická část se soustředí na analýzu a klasifikaci 100 nejpoužívanějších slov přejatých ze španělštiny v současné angličtině. Zdrojem pro tato slova byl slovník

Oxford English Dictionary a frekvence jejich užití byla stanovena na základě Britského národního korpusu (*British National Corpus*).

Analýza vzorků v praktické části ukázala, že z hlediska slovních druhů mají největší zastoupení podstatná jména. Což je nejspíše způsobeno tím, že se substantiva řadí mezi tzv. otevřené slovní druhy, tedy snadno mezi ně vstupují nová slova. Tomuto přispívá i to, že velká část zkoumaných výpůjček označuje předměty a osoby, přičemž největší sémantické pole tvoří výrazy označující jídlo a pití.

Analýza také ukázala, že slova přejímaná ze španělštiny do angličtiny procházejí během tohoto procesu změnami v různých jazykových rovinách. Změny jsou nejvíce patrné ve výslovnosti, tedy rovině fonetické. Ve zkoumaném vzorku se nenacházel jediný výraz beze změny ve výslovnosti. Výpůjčky můžeme z fonetického hlediska rozdělit na zcela asimilované, např. *guitar*, nebo částečně asimilované, např. *tortilla*. Co se týče funkčnosti výpůjček v rámci gramatických pravidel angličtiny, drtivá většina z nich žádným způsobem nevybočuje.

Z hlediska sémantické asimilace můžeme výpůjčky rozdělit na zcela asimilované (např. *chocolate, tomato, tobacco*) a na neasimilované (např. *amigo, pueblo, sombrero*). Mezi zcela asimilované výpůjčky patří výrazy užívané velmi frekventovaně s širokým rozsahem užití, zatímco mezi částečně neasimilované můžeme zařadit slova označující úkazy typické pro španělsky mluvící země, jejich kulturu a zvyky.

Závěrem lze říci, že slova přejatá ze španělštiny v angličtině tvoří velmi zajímavou kapitolu slovní zásoby anglického jazyka a mohou velmi dobře posloužit jako zrcadlo odrážející vztahy a kontakty mezi lidmi, kteří těmito jazyky mluvili a mluví.

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APPENDIX

	Expression	number of hits	frequency (per million)
1	guitar	2561	26,05
2	cigarette	1998	20,32
3	chocolate	1799	18,3
4	tobacco	1254	12,76
5	banana	967	9,84
6	breeze	861	8,76
7	cargo	771	7,84
8	potato	741	7,54
9	tomato	652	6,63
10	cocaine	604	6,14
11	guerrilla	495	5,03
12	sherry	484	4,92
13	cocoa or cacao	428	4,35
14	cigar	424	4,31
15	patio	403	4,1
16	embargo	380	3,87
17	barbecue	348	3,54
18	crusade	338	3,39
19	crimson	335	3,41
20	canoe	324	3,3
21	tuna	311	3,16
22	maize	298	3,03
23	jade	283	2,88
24	hurricane	232	2,36
25	macho	231	2,35
26	platinum	227	2,31
27	chilli	155	1,58
28	mosquito	154	1,57
29	vanilla	145	1,47
30	alcove	141	1,43
31	junta	137	1,39
32	cafeteria	133	1,35
33	marijuana	128	1,3
34	bonanza	125	1,27
35	comrade	124	1,26
36	armada	115	1,17
37	flotilla	113	1,15
38	ranch	98	1
39	avocado	95	0,97
40	coca	89	0,91
41	jerky	89	0,91
42	renegade	81	0,82

43	shack	81	0,82
44	canyon	79	0,8
45	alligator	78	0,79
46	siesta	74	0,75
47	albatross	72	0,73
48	stockade	70	0,71
49	vigilante	63	0,64
50	peso	60	0,61
51	tornado	60	0,61
52	machismo	59	0,6
53	albino	59	0,6
54	hacienda	55	0,56
55	stampede	55	0,56
56	negro	54	0,55
57	canary	54	0,55
58	hammock	53	0,54
59	cockroach	50	0,51
60	flan	47	0,48
61	machete	45	0,46
62	anchovy	41	0,42
63	cassava	39	0,4
64	galleon	38	0,39
65	incomunicado	38	0,39
66	mestizo	38	0,39
67	savanna	37	0,38
68	booby	37	0,38
69	oregano	36	0,37
70	tango	36	0,37
71	rodeo	34	0,35
72	adobe	33	0,34
73	tequila	33	0,34
74	barracuda	32	0,33
75	cannibal	31	0,32
76	Lolita	30	0,31
77	savvy	30	0,31
78	jaguar	29	0,29
79	llama	28	0,28
80	silo	28	0,28
81	creole	27	0,27
82	paella	26	0,26
83	plaza	26	0,26
84	alpaca	25	0,25
85	tortilla	25	0,25
86	taco	24	0,24
87	aficionado	23	0,23

88	poncho	23	0,23
89	stevedore	23	0,23
90	armadillo	22	0,22
91	fiesta	22	0,22
92	matador	22	0,22
93	picaresque	22	0,22
94	pueblo	22	0,22
95	castanets	22	0,22
96	barrio	21	0,21
97	coyote	21	0,21
98	sombrero	20	0,2
99	amigo	19	0,19
100	vaquero	18	0,18