

Classical Greek borrowings in contemporary colloquial American English

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to provide a brief analysis of the influence of borrowings from Classical Greek on contemporary American English, not with regard to formal language (including mainly different varieties of professional jargon, or professiolects), but to colloquial and unconventional English, especially slang. The Classical languages, Latin and Greek, are among the languages which have exerted the most influence upon English vocabulary, but is this process continuing in the area of informal parlour? The authors try to answer this question with respect to contemporary American English slang.

Key words

American English, borrowing, Greek borrowings, jargon, slang

Emprunts au grec classique dans le registre familier de l'anglais américain contemporain

Résumé

L'objectif de l'article est de présenter une brève analyse de l'influence des emprunts au grec classique sur l'anglais américain contemporain, non pas dans le cadre formel, comprenant plusieurs variétés des jargons professionnels, mais dans le registre familier, surtout dans l'argot. Les langues classiques, c'est-à-dire le latin et le grec,

sont parmi celles qui ont le plus influencé le lexique anglais. Pourtant, cette influence, est-elle toujours visible dans le registre familier? L'auteur essaie de répondre à cette question en se basant sur l'argot américain contemporain.

Mots-clés

anglais américain, argot, emprunts, emprunts au grec, jargon

Zapożyczenia z klasycznej greki we współczesnym potocznym amerykańskim angielskim

Abstrakt

Celem niniejszego artykułu jest przedstawienie krótkiej analizy wpływu zapożyczeń z klasycznej greki na współczesny amerykański angielski, nie w odniesieniu do języka formalnego, obejmującego głównie różne odmiany profesjolektów, ale w odniesieniu do angielszczyzny potocznej, zwłaszcza slangu. Języki klasyczne, łaciński i grecki, należą do tych, które wywarły największy wpływ na angielskie słownictwo, czy jednak wpływ ten jest nadal zauważalny w języku potocznym? Autor stara się udzielić odpowiedzi na podstawie współczesnego amerykańskiego slangu.

Słowa kluczowe

amerykański angielski, slang, zapożyczenia, zapożyczenia z greki, żargon

1. Introduction

In her book *Lingua Latina: Łacina bez pomocy Orbiliusza* (1975), Lidia Winniczuk states that among the 20000 most commonly used English words at that time scholars found about 10,400 deriving from Latin origin, about 2,200 deriving from Greek, and only about 5,400 of Anglo-Saxon origin. The question arises whether the process of borrowing from classi-

cal languages continues to the same extent. The continuing influence of classical languages on English, meanwhile, has been highlighted by John Algeo, the editor of *Fifty Years among New Words. A Dictionary of Neologisms, 1941-1991*. As he says,

Ever since the Renaissance, English has raided the classical languages for impressive-sounding root words. So extensive has such borrowing been that a large number of Greek and Latin roots are now a part of English, used as any other elements to make compounds and affixed derivatives. However, we still sometimes go back to the classical sources to borrow roots when we need a fancy term, especially in medicine or technology.

(Algeo 1991: 4)

In this article, however, the authors are not concerned with Classical Greek influence on formal American English lexicon (mostly technical, academic or scientific vocabulary, some of which, being professional jargon, is only used by specialists in particular fields), but with very informal, colloquial language, mainly slang. The question which needs to be answered is whether Classical Greek constitutes a significant source of borrowings in contemporary colloquial American English.

2. Jargon vs. slang

Despite being frequently misused and frequently perceived as synonyms by laymen, the terms 'slang' and 'jargon' refer to two distinct varieties of language. Jargon, often associated with certain professions, may display a very high level of formality, like medical, legal, academic or, more recently, IT jargon, for instance. Slang, on the other hand, represents the most informal and, at the same time, the fastest changing variety of language. While scientific vocabulary often remains unchanged for centuries, slang words may have a surprisingly short lifespan, sometimes lasting for only a few years. It may be connected with two important facts. First of all, slang is a variety of language which appears mostly in spoken form, while

jargon may be either spoken or written. Indeed, considering the amount of legal, academic or technical literature, one could claim that the written form prevails. Secondly, slang is often connected with specific subcultures, fashion, trends in music and other phenomena which easily undergo deep and abrupt changes.

There are also significant differences in the motivations for the use of jargon and slang. One of the most important motivations for the use of jargon (in the sense of a specific profession) is the necessity for maximum precision, along with brevity, in certain fields of knowledge. In the case of slang, such motivation is much less common since it often refers to such areas of life as sex, drugs or crime rather than medicine or technology. On the other hand, group membership – one of the chief motivations for the use of slang – also plays a certain role in the use of jargon. Since both slang and jargon tend to be highly unintelligible to ‘outsiders’, they are used to exclude people who do not belong (for example) to a certain subculture or a professional group, respectively.

Widawski (2003) enumerates several further motivations for the use of slang, such as opposition to authority, reverse morality, expressing emotions, humor, toughness, deliberate imprecision, etc. Neither of them seems to play a significant role with reference to jargon.

One more issue which needs to be considered in discussing the differences between jargon and slang are the typical user groups. In the case of jargon they are usually people of the same profession, sharing the same hobby, interests, etc. With slang the situation is much more complex. According to Widawski (2003), among the most typical slang user groups are soldiers, criminals, prisoners, African Americans, students, teenagers, musicians, sportsmen, drug abusers, etc. In other words, rather than being members of clearly defined professional groups, they tend to belong to certain social groups using their own sociolects. This fact significantly influences the kind of new vocabulary they coin and, in the case of borrowings, the choice of the source language. In New York City

slang, for instance, one can find numerous examples which were borrowed from Italian or Yiddish, a result of the influence of numerous people of Italian or Jewish origin living in that area.

3. The subject of analysis

When it comes to the selection of vocabulary analyzed, the first step to be taken is to define the kind of words which shall be taken into consideration. In his book *Foreign Words and Phrases in English*, Marek Kuźniak proposes a simple typology of lexical borrowings, classifying them (after Haugen, 1953) into loanwords (pure loanwords and loanblends) and loanshifts. Quoting Katamba (2006, cit. in Kuźniak 2007: 132), he explains:

A loanword is a word belonging to one language which is IMPORTED or ADOPTED by another, e.g. *catamaran* was imported into English from Tamil and *shopping* was imported into French *le shopping*. By contrast, a loanshift involves taking on board the meaning represented by a word in a foreign language, but not the word-form. Loanshifts are also called LOAN TRANSLATIONS or CALQUES.

In this article, the focus of attention is on loanwords and loanblends which were formed with the use of morphemes borrowed from Classical Greek. The Authors have chosen 54 common Greek roots and prefixes, which appear in the formation of a huge number of words which can be found in General English dictionaries (in this case, *Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language*), and checked their occurrence in one of the most comprehensive dictionaries of colloquial American English – Tom Dalzell's (2009) *The Routledge Dictionary of Modern American Slang and Unconventional English*. Presented below is a list of chosen Classical Greek morphemes along with their original Greek transcription

and English meaning (transcriptions according to Jurewicz 2000):

- acro-** (Gk. ἄκρος – highest, farthest, deepest; topmost; extreme);
aero- (Gk. ἀήρ – air; of air);
amphi- (Gk. ἀμφί – around; on both sides);
anemo- (Gk. ἄνεμος – wind);
antho- (Gk. ἄνθος – flower);
anthropo- (Gk. ἄνθρωπος – man);
anti- (Gk. ἀντί – opposite; against);
apo- (Gk. ἀπό – from, after; away; apart);
archaeo- (Gk. ἀρχαῖος – primitive; primordial; old; ancient);
auto- (Gk. αὐτός – same; self);
bio- (Gk. βίος – life);
broncho- (Gk. βρόγχος – windpipe; throat);
caco- (Gk. κακός – bad; evil; ugly; vicious);
cata- (Gk. κατά – down from, against, over);
cephalo- (Gk. κεφαλή – head);
chlora- (Gk. χλωρός – light green; emerald; yellowish);
chrono- (Gk. χρόνος – time; age; lifespan);
deca- (Gk. δέκα – ten);
dyna- (Gk. δύναμις – power, strength, force);
dys- (Gk. δυσ-, a prefix expressing negative or pejorative force);
endo- (Gk. ἔνδον – inside; within);
epi- (Gk. ἐπί – on; over; in);
eu- (Gk. εὖ – well; precisely; correctly);
geo- (Gk. γῆ – land; earth; country; countryside);
geno- (Gk. γένος – tribe; origin; descendance; descendant);
grapho- (Gk. γραφή – drawing; writing; letter; picture);
helio- (Gk. ἥλιος – sun; light; day; sunrise);
hemi- (Gk. ἡμι – half);
hetero- (Gk. ἕτερος – different; apart);
hippo- (Gk. ἵππος – horse);
holo- (Gk. ὅλος – whole; entire);
homo- (Gk. ὁμός – same; similar; common);
hydro- (Gk. ὕδωρ – water);
hyper- (Gk. ὑπέρ – beyond; over; farther; higher; exceeding);
idio- (Gk. ἴδιος – private; personal; own);
iso- (Gk. ἴσος – equal; same);
litho- (Gk. λίθος – stone; rock);

- logo-** (Gk. λόγος – word; speech; order; reason);
macro- (Gk. μακρός – long; high; huge; big);
mega- (Gk. μέγας – large; broad; high; tall);
megalo- (Gk. μεγάλη – large);
meta- (Gk. μετά – between; among; together; [often expressing change]);
micro- (Gk. μικρός – tiny; a little);
mono- (Gk. μόνος – alone; single; only);
morpho- (Gk. μορφή – form; image);
neo- (Gk. νέος – new; young; fresh);
neuro- (Gr. νεῦρον – nerve; force);
pan- (Gk. πᾶς, πᾶσα, πᾶν – all; entire; whole);
para- (Gk. παρά – from; against; along; aside);
peri- (Gk. περί – around);
philo- (Gk. φίλος – dear; loved; desired);
phisio- (Gk. φύσις – nature; origin; look; appearance; growth);
poly- (Gk. πολὺς – numerous, common, long, large; much, many);
theo- (Gk. θεός – god, goddess, deity).

The list above may be judged as selective, yet should be representative enough so as to give an overall picture of the impact of Classical Greek on the formation of the new lexicon of colloquial American English. Additionally, morphemes were chosen so as to allow for the consideration of both pure loanwords and loanblends in the analysis.

4. Prestige as one of the primary factors motivating borrowings from Classical Greek into English

In such a short article there is not enough space for a thorough analysis of the most important reasons for borrowing. At this point, however, it is worth quoting Mirosława Podhajecka, who wrote:

As language is primarily a social phenomenon, linguists have claimed that two extralinguistic factors have been responsible for the transfer phenomenon: the prestige motive and the need filling motive. If speakers of a language take over new cultural

items, such as new technologies or religious or social concepts, there is an obvious need for the vocabulary naming the concept.

(Podhajecka 2013: 27)

Obviously, these two factors play a key role in borrowing from classical languages to all varieties of professolects. Both the prestige motive (which has been present throughout the entire history of the English language, as shall be demonstrated) and the need filling motive (new inventions, drugs, and ideas need to be named, and borrowing is a much easier process than coining entirely new words) are present in the case of jargon. The question remains, however, whether these two extralinguistic motives would also make Classical Greek the source of borrowings for contemporary American English slang.

In terms of the possible attitude language users may feel towards the language the borrowings come from (and to the culture it represents), another quotation from Podhajecka is insightful:

the view that borrowings always show a superiority of the nation or culture from whose language they are taken, as argued by Jespersen (1964: 2009), seems far too exaggerated, particularly when relations between the languages involved are those of 'adstratum', i.e. equal prestige. Many countries experienced periods of strong resistance to the borrowing of foreign words and expressions, presumably a dangerous phenomenon both for the identity of the nation and its language.

(Podhajecka 2013: 26)

There is no doubt that for centuries the educated elites of European countries treated the Greco-Roman civilization as a point of reference, and consequently treated Latin and Classical Greek accordingly, so that the relation between these two languages and the local ones were hardly of 'equal prestige'. Moreover, English, unlike some other European languages, seldom offered 'strong resistance to the borrowing of foreign words and expressions'. In the case of colloquial parlance, however, the question of prestige and any alleged superiority clear-

ly differs from the point of view followed by scholars. In the case of contemporary colloquial Polish, for instance, most of the newest borrowings come from English, which (in this particular case) seems to be connected rather with the omnipresence of English on the Internet and the popularity of British and American pop-culture rather than with aspirations to elite-born 'high culture'. In the case of American English coiners and users of slang, their perception of the Greco-Roman civilization as a desired model remains arguable. The importance of prestige as a factor motivating the process of borrowing, however, has had an important influence on some tendencies in the history of borrowings from classical languages into English.

5. Tendencies in the history of borrowings from classical languages into English

Before we take a look at the current influence of Classical Greek on English lexicon, it is worth taking a short look at some stages of the history of the mentioned process, which may cast some light on the present day situation. When talking about Greek borrowings in English one cannot avoid mentioning the role of Latin, since it was often through Latin that many loans entered the English lexicon in a process of indirect borrowing.

In a chapter devoted to English vocabulary in the book *A History of the English Language*, Dieter Kastovsky stresses that

if the vocabulary of a language reflects the perception of the world by a speech community, it will have to be constantly adapted to its changing needs. (...) The history of the vocabulary of a speech community is a reflection of its general history, since both innovations and losses document changes in the social needs of this community, arising from the pressure to adapt to changing external circumstances. The vocabulary of a language thus is also a link to the material and spiritual culture of its speakers.

(Kastovsky 2006: 201f.)

He notices too that many changes in English vocabulary are the result of numerous borrowings from languages with which English came into contact in the course of its history. As he states,

a massive amount of borrowings has occurred since the tenth and eleventh centuries – first from Latin, then from Scandinavian, then from French, then again from Latin and Greek, and finally from almost every language English came into contact with [...] About 70 per cent of present-day English vocabulary consists of loans, with loans from French and/or Latin (including Greek and Neo-Latin) taking up the lion's share.

(Kastovsky 2006: 202)

If we consider Old English, Latin was the dominant source of influence, along with words of Greek origin which had been incorporated into Latin much earlier. Kastovsky (2006: 202f.) distinguishes the following groups of borrowings:

- (1) continental borrowings (about 170 lexemes, mainly from Vulgar Latin);
- (2) borrowing during the settlement period (many coming from Vulgar Latin, possibly through Celtic transmission);
- (3) borrowings in connection with the Christianisation of the Anglo-Saxons and the development of Anglo-Saxon civilisation and learning (there are more loans from Classical Latin, as a result of the Church being the main agent of their introduction).

Another important issue that Kastovsky (2006: 202) mentions is that

loans coming in during the late tenth and the eleventh centuries in connection with the Benedictine Reform probably never entered the spoken register at all and remained confined to the written language.

The fact that even at this stage most of the borrowings from classical languages belonged to some sort of professional,

‘scholar’ jargon is worth noticing, as it seems that this trend has remained unchanged until now.

Kastovsky also emphasises the role of the introduction of the Benedictine Reform at the end of the tenth century, which according to him was a crucial dividing line as to the type of loans that would be most acceptable, since that was the beginning of a preference for borrowing rather than loan translation. Moreover, as he clearly states, “loans of this period mainly fill gaps relevant to the concerns of the educated people dealing with religion and other scholarly concerns” (Kastovsky 2006: 202). He also notices that the overwhelming majority of the loans are nouns; adjectives and verbs are relatively scarce. Kastovsky summarizes his findings in the following way:

Considering the impact that Roman culture and Christianisation had on the way of thinking and on the material culture of the Anglo-Saxons, the number of loans is remarkably small, especially in comparison to the number of loans that happened later in the Middle English and Modern English periods.

(Kastovsky 2006: 220)

As far as the Middle English period is concerned, at that time English had been subject to significant foreign influence, mainly from French (the importance of the Royal Court and the aristocracy was the key factor in this process) but also to a certain extent from Latin. Apart from increasing substantially the amount of vocabulary, the influence of Latin also had repercussions for the phonological and morphological systems of the language. “Unlike French, Latin, being the language of the Church, scholarship, and to a certain extent of the law, was more frequently used in writing than in speaking” (Kastovsky 2006: 202). In his opinion, Latin (including a significant number of lexemes that had been formerly incorporated into Latin from Greek) was the dominant source of loans in early Modern English.

Again, there is no place here or need to analyse all the stages in the history of the English language; the important issue

is that borrowings from Greek and Latin have been very significant since the beginning of its history. Equally important is the fact that the process of borrowing from classical languages into English from the very beginning showed two important and consistent tendencies: the loans were mainly confined to the language of highly educated people, seldom becoming part of everyday speech, and they were often used in writing rather than in spoken language. These tendencies would make such borrowings very unlikely to occur in such a colloquial variety of language as slang, which is seldom used in writing and is not usually associated with the parlor of educated people.

6. Loans from Classical Greek in contemporary American English slang

As has already been stated, the authors' analysis is based on the occurrence of words derived from some of the most common Classical Greek roots and coined with the use of the most typical Greek prefixes. *The Routledge Dictionary of Modern American Slang and Unconventional English* provides the following examples of modern American slang created in such a way:

acro- : none;

aero- : none;

amphi- : none;

anemo- : none;

antho- : none;

anthropo- : none;

anti- : *anti-frantic* (adj.) (= calm, collected, 1983);

apo- : none;

archaeo- : none;

auto- : *automagically* (adv.) (= in computing, in an automatic but explanation-defying fashion, 1981);

automaton (n.) (= in poker, a player who bets and plays in an extremely predictable manner, 1996);

bio- : none;

broncho- : none;

caco- : none;

cata- : *catalog man* (n.) (= a gambling cheat whose superficial knowledge of cheating is acquired by studying catalogues of cheating devices, 1945);

catatonia (n.) (= in computing, the condition that exists when a computer is in suspended operation, unable to proceed, 1981);

catatonic (adj.) (= of a computer: caught in an inextricable operation and thus suspended beyond reach or response, 1991);

cephalo- : none;

chloro- : none;

chron- : *chronic* (n.) (= potent marijuana, 1993; = marijuana mixed with crack cocaine, 1998);

chronic bubonic (n.) (= marijuana that is more potent than simple 'chronic' or simple 'bubonic', 2001);

deca- : none;

dyna- : *dynamite* (n.) (= powerful alcohol or drugs, 1919; = nitroglycerine tablets prescribed to cardiac patients, 1975; = any amphetamine, methamphetamine or other central nervous system stimulant, 1975; = cocaine, 1959; = a blend of heroin and cocaine, 1937; = something that is very good, 1902; = in an illegal betting operation, money that one bookmaker bets with another bookmaker to cover bets that he does not want to hold, 1951);

dynamite (adj.) (= excitingly excellent, 1922);

dyn-no-mite ! (used to express strong approval, 1978);

dyno (n.) (= a derelict, 1918; alcohol, 1962);

dyno (adj.) (= excellent, 1962);

dys- : none;

endo- : none;

epi- : *epic* (adj.) (= excellent, outstanding, 1957);

epidottle (n.) (= epidural anesthesia, 1994);

eppis (n.) (= nothing, 1966);

epsilon (n.) (= a very small amount, 1983);

eu- : *euphoria* (n.) (= the illegal drug 4-methylaminorex, a relatively uncommon central system stimulant, 2005);

Eurotrash (n.) (= rich foreigners living in the US, 1980);

geno- : none;

geo- : *geologist* (n.) (= a physician who considers his patients to be as intelligent as a rock, 1978);

grapho- : none;

helio- : *helium head* (n.) (= an aviator in a lighter-than-air airship, 1952);

hemi- : none;

hetero- : *hetero* (n.) (= a heterosexual, 1933);

hetgirl (n.) (= a heterosexual female, 1995);

hippo- : none;

holo- : none;

homo- : *homo* (n.) (= 1. a homosexual, especially a male homosexual, 1922; 2. Used as an insulting term of address to someone who is not homosexual, 1993);

homo heaven (n.) (= a public area where homosexuals congregate in hopes of quick sex, 1965; = the upper balcony in a theatre patronized by homosexual men, 1966);

homosexual adapter (n.) (= a computer cable with either two male or two female connectors, 1991);

hydro- : *hydro* (n.) (= marijuana which is grown hydroponically, 1996);

hyper- : none;

idio- : *idiot blocks* (n.) (= options placed at the end of a staffing paper designed to allow the reader simply to tick the option which describes his decision, 1986);

idiot board (n.) (= a teleprompter, 1952);

idiot box (n.) (= the television, 1955);

idiot card (n.) (= in the television and movie industries, a poster board with the dialogue written in large letters for actors to read, 1957);

idiot juice (n.) (= any alcoholic beverage brewed in prison, especially a nutmeg/water mixture, 1974);

idiot loop (n.) (= an aerial maneuver used to avoid disruption after dropping a load of bombs, 1961);

idiot pill (n.) (= a barbiturate or central nervous system depressant, 1953);

idiot's delight (n.) (= in dominoes, the 5-0 piece, 1959);

idiot's sheet (n.) (= any published summary used for quick overview, 1956);

idiot stick (n.) (= a rifle, 1962);

idiot tube (n.) (= a television, television, 1968);

iso- : none;

litho- : none;

logo- : none;

macro- : none;

- mega-** : a prefix used for intensifying (*megaboredom*, *megababe*, etc.);
megablast (n.) (= a dose of crack cocaine, 1993);
megabuck (adj.) (= very expensive, 1992);
megabucks (n.) (= one million dollars; any large amount of money, 1946);
mega dirtball (n.) (= a hospital patient with an appalling lack of hygiene, 1988-1989);
megalicious (adj.) (= very good, 1992);
megapenny (n.) (= ten thousand dollars – one cent times ten to the sixth power, 1991);
megillah (n.) (= all of something, 1954);
- megalo-** : none;
- meta-** : none;
- micro-** : none;
- mono-** : *mono* (n.) (= *mononucleosis*, *glandular fever*, 1960);
monolithic (adj.) (= *extremely drug intoxicated*, 1971);
mono-rump (n.) (= *the buttocks formed into a single mass by garment*; 1974);
- morph(o)-** : *morph* (v.) (= to create an electronic message in a manner that gives the appearance of having been sent by someone else, 1997);
morphodite (n.) (= a homosexual, 1796);
- neo-** : none;
- neuro-** : *neuron* (n.) (= a neurologist, 1994);
- pan-** : none;
- para-** : none;
- peri-** : none;
- philo-** : none;
- phisio-** : none;
- poly-** : none;
- theo-** : none.

As can be seen, borrowings from Greek in American slang are surprisingly scarce; indeed, most of the quoted words can be classified simply as a meaning extension of vocabulary already existing in General English. The overwhelming majority of the mentioned loans are nouns (note that such a tendency for nouns to dominate among loans from Classical Languages has

existed since the beginning of the process of borrowing from Latin and Greek into English).

When talking about the insignificant number of Classical Greek borrowings in American slang, it should be mentioned that in the book *Fifty Years Among New Words. A Dictionary of Neologisms, 1941-1991* one can find a list of traditional prefixes which are still commonly used in the creation of new words. In the most representative list of 50 prefixes there are 7 analyzed previously in the article: *anti*, *hydro*, *hyper*, *mega*, *micro*, *mono*, *neo* (after Algeo 1991: 5). Their significant impact on General English, however, has no equivalent in American slang. Algeo (1991: 5) notices that

new prefixes or new senses of old prefixes often develop to augment the list of traditional ones. For example, *aer(o)-* is a form meaning 'air' that combines with other word parts, as in *aerate* and *aerobic*.

The same prefix, being associated with such words as *aeronautics* or *aeroplane*, acquired the sense 'aviation' in words like *aeropause* or *aeropolitics*. Nevertheless, regardless of the fact how productive such processes may be and how many Greek prefixes are still used in forming new English vocabulary, their influence on coining new American slang has been insignificant.

6. Conclusion

In his classic work on language contact, Uriel Weinreich (1970: 56-61) distinguishes the following factors which are independently or mutually responsible for introducing foreign elements into a language:

- (1) low frequency or rare words, which makes them susceptible to oblivion and replacement;
- (2) homonymy (sometimes words are taken from another language to resolve the clash of homonyms);
- (3) tendency of affective words to lose their force of expression;

- (4) constant need for synonyms (lexical expansion tends to be inherent in most languages, especially in the case of their more informal varieties);
- (5) insufficiently differentiated semantic fields;
- (6) symbolic associations with the donor language, which can be either positive or negative.

All these factors have contributed to the amount of Greek borrowings in formal English language. The same factors, however, seem to have little or no influence in making Classical Greek a source of any significant borrowings in contemporary colloquial American English, especially slang. In the opinion of the authors, the key factor may be connected with symbolic associations with the donor language. Among the users of slang such associations seem to be very feeble, neither positive nor negative, but possibly non-existent. As a result, the prestige factor does not play an important role in motivating the process of borrowing from Classical Greek to English. Another important factor, of course, is that since there are no native speakers of any of the classical languages, no significant group of users tends to include Greek vocabulary into colloquial American speech.

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