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Trabajo Fin de Grado

The influence of English on the Spanish lexicon: An analysis of the anglicisms in the last three versions of the 23rd edition of the *DLE*

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Abstract and keywords/Resumen y palabras clave

Abstract: This End of Degree Project (henceforth, EDP) is aimed at illustrating the influence of English on the Spanish lexicon through an analysis of the anglicisms included in the last three versions of the *Diccionario de la lengua española* (henceforth, *DLE*). In order to fulfil this purpose, this paper contains an extensive theoretical framework that will first deal with the influence of English on other languages. Then, there will be a section devoted to the *DLE*. Thirdly, for the sake of clarity, the present EDP will discuss a wide range of key terms: “neologisms”, “borrowings”, “loanwords”, “anglicisms”, “loan blends”, and “calques”. After these theoretical sections, an analysis of the anglicisms in the 23.3, 23.4, and 23.5 versions of the *DLE* will be provided. Finally, the conclusions that can be drawn will be included at the end of this academic paper together with the bibliography.

Keywords: anglicisms, English, influence, Spanish, loanwords, borrowings.

Resumen: Este Trabajo de Fin de Grado (a partir de ahora, TFG) tiene por objetivo ilustrar la influencia del inglés en el léxico español mediante un análisis de los anglicismos incluidos en las tres últimas versiones del Diccionario de la lengua española (a partir de ahora, *DLE*). Para conseguir este propósito, este trabajo contiene un extenso marco teórico que empezará con la influencia del inglés en otras lenguas. Después, habrá una sección dedicada al *DLE*. En tercer lugar, en aras de la claridad, en este TFG se discutirán una amplia variedad de términos esenciales: “neologismos”, “préstamos”, “extranjerismos”, “anglicismos”, “combinación de extranjerismos” y “calcos semánticos”. Después de los apartados teóricos, se proporcionará un análisis de los anglicismos en las versiones 23.3, 23.4 y 23.5 del *DLE*. Finalmente, las conclusiones que pueden obtenerse se incluirán al final de este trabajo académico junto con la bibliografía.

Palabras clave: anglicismos, inglés, influencia, español, extranjerismos, préstamos.

1. Introduction

Currently, society is experimenting a process of globalization. One of the main outcomes of this phenomenon is the constant relations between speech communities taking place all over the world and in a high number of ways. Consequently, it drastically affects communication and, therefore, the linguistic field. In order to achieve a more fluent and straightforward interaction, English seems to have stepped up as the global lingua franca. In fact, a new term was coined to refer to this phenomenon: “English as a lingua franca” or “ELF”.

This international status has allowed English to influence a wide range of languages. This impact has permitted English to get access to different languages through borrowing processes. The most frequent and notorious process is semantic borrowing, which lets worldwide lexicons introduce neologisms coming from English (they are known as “anglicisms”). One of the main affected languages of this massive spread is Spanish due to cultural, geographical, political, and social reasons, among others. Accordingly, many English terms have been adopted by Spanish and a certain increase in their use can be perceived, especially within younger generations. Many of these anglicisms have not been officially accepted into Spanish yet. Notwithstanding, the *DLE* carries on updating the new versions (23.3, 23.4, and 23.5) of its latest edition (2022) compiling those anglicisms that, according to their criteria, meet the requirements so as to be eligible to belong to the Spanish lexicon.

1.1. Justification and relevance

The fact that English is the most influential language in the world is widely accepted. In Spanish, the increasing number of anglicisms can be considered as evidence of this as a clear tendency. Furthermore, attention should be paid not only to the impact of English on the Spanish lexicon (which may be due, among other reasons, to ignorance) but also to the possible communicative misunderstandings between members of different generations.

The former refers to the use of English by Spanish speakers who are not aware of this. They may not realize that there are Spanish words that can be used in a given context to convey certain ideas instead of borrowing them from English (for instance, saying or writing “*filin*” as an adaptation of the word “feeling” in spite of the existence of the word “*química*” in sentences such as “*Me temo que no había filin entre ellos*”). In some cases, the adaptation of anglicisms may even result in ignorance concerning their origin since speakers tend to associate them only with the loanwords that remain in their original form.

In addition, the latter deal with the duality between members of different generations. New generations are usually considered as “digital natives” due to the reason that they have been raised within an environment in which both the Internet and technological devices play a key part. However, older generations are often not so familiar with ICT or struggle to become familiar with them. Considering that areas such as ICT and videogames require a large assortment of terms to refer to an increasing number of new concepts, there will be a moment when people from the same speech community may have trouble when communicating among them.

1.2. Objectives

Concerning the objectives of this EDP, they can be divided into a single “general objective” and some “specific objectives”, which derive from the former. This paper is mainly aimed at acknowledging the influence of English lexicon on other languages, focusing mainly on Spanish. With regard to “specific objectives”, the first one is to reflect on the way in which words from a given language may get access to other languages and their relevance in them. Then, bearing in mind that interesting phenomenon, the second aim is to describe a number of concepts which are closely related to each other by defining them and illustrating them by means of crystal-clear examples. Finally, this EDP will analyse the role which anglicisms play in the latest versions of the last edition (*DLE*, 2022), namely 23.3, 23.4, and 23.5.

2. Literature review

2.1. Influence of English on other languages

The rise of the English language has been substantial in the last centuries. It has evolved from a language born from the Germanic tribes that invaded Britain to, according to Lyons (2021)¹, the most widely spoken language with 1.35 billion speakers approximately, combining both native and non-native speakers. Nevertheless, this scholar (2021) stated that within the

¹ In this EDP, the years of publication of the different resources in the case of quotations will not be followed by page numbers when information is retrieved from websites.

ranking of native speakers, English appears in third place with 360 million speakers, behind Chinese and Spanish, respectively. This data demonstrates the unceasing growth and influence English has worldwide on other languages.

In order to briefly introduce the English language, it is relevant to mention its origin and its evolution throughout history. Regarding the periodization of the English language, there are some differences among various scholars. Thus, for example, Jucker (2004, pp. 7-8) identifies four periods, namely Old English (450-1150), Middle English (1150-1500), Early Modern English (1500-1700), and Modern English (1700-present). Nevertheless, some authors, such as Nordquist (2021), suggest the addition of “Present-day English” (1900-present) and renaming “Modern English” as “Late Modern English”, which would now cover from 1700 to 1900.

This division of the English language into different periods is justified depending on the structural developments, historical and social events, and the contexts of use. The addition of Present-day English symbolizes the impact that ICT and media have had on the language, and both can be regarded as responsible for the massive spread of the English language. From its very beginning, English evolved within the British Isles. Nevertheless, in the 16th century, the English language started to reach the outer world due to the colonization of the British Empire.

Owing to the expansion of the Empire, the English travelled around the globe and reached countries such as America, Australia, Canada, The Caribbean, New Zealand, and regions of Asia and Africa. However, the language was not instituted in the same way in the new different territories of the British Empire. The settlements in America, Australia, or Canada were large colonies; consequently, their culture and language were almost eradicated. Yet, the principal aim of the occupied territories in Asia and Africa was trade. Thus, although the English language was used in business, administration, and education, people did not use it out of these issues (Todorova & Todorova, 2018, p. 340).

The main focus of the spread of English was America. One of the main reasons was the flood of immigrants from different areas of England, Ireland, and Scotland. Hence, America soon had a large variety of accents and, as Crystal (2003, p. 33) comments on, it was the beginning of the different regional dialects within the country. Despite this, America was not only occupied by the English language. This linguist (2003, p. 35) adds that other languages such as Dutch, French, German, and Spanish lived together in the territory.

Then, Crystal (2003, p. 35) underlines that America's population and the number of English speakers increased all at once. This scholar (2003, p. 36) mentions that in the 2000 census, America had 215 million people who only spoke English at home. This data reflects the rise of the United States throughout the 20th century. Then, as Todorova & Todorova (2018, p.

340) acknowledge, it can be argued that the expansion of the British Empire through colonization and the emergence of the US as an economic and political power in the 20th century are the main factors of the current standing of English.

Besides, Crystal (2003, p. 86) sustains that English started to consolidate through politics after the First World War in 1919. The League of Nations delegated the German colonies in Africa, the Middle East, the Pacific, and Asia to the victors of the war. Thus, there was a noteworthy growth in the influence of the English language. Since then, English started its international influence growing in different areas and made possible the process of globalization.

Many authors, such as Smokotin *et al.* (2014, pp. 509-510), Todorova & Todorova (2018, p. 333), and Mohammed (2020, p. 6), agree on the bond between the term “globalization” and the English language. Besides, Smokotin *et al.* (2014, p. 509) claim that a globalized world requires a common language to overcome cultural barriers and English is in charge of that. As stated above, English is internationally used in different areas. Crystal (2003, p. 86) and Nieto García (2021, p. 2) refer to them as “growth areas”. For his part, Nieto García (2021, p. 2) divides these into four blocks.

The first block is international relations. Crystal (2003, p. 86) states that the League of Nations was the first international alliance that promoted the English language. Since then, the language has been evolving up to the point of being the official language of international meetings. Nieto García (2021, p. 2) adds the term “Euro English”. This expression refers to the usage of English as the official language in meetings and institutions of the European Union. Nevertheless, within the EU, there are languages with more native speakers, such as German or French. Nieto García (2021, p. 3) also identifies other institutions in which English is the official language, for instance, NATO, UNESCO, and UNICEF.

The second block concerns communication and the media. Within this section, Nieto García (2021, p. 3) highlights the importance of English in six different sub-areas. The first one is the press. Crystal (2003, p. 93) claims that, at that time, the top five journals worldwide, *The New York Times*, *The Sunday Times*, *The Times*, *The Wall Street Journal*, and *The Washington Post*, were all written in English. In order to perceive the magnitude of English within the press, Nieto García (2021, p. 3) illustrates the relevance of English within this field with an example. He narrates the existence of the English journal *Sur in English* in the south of Spain. This journal was aimed at the English-speaking population of the area. Currently, due to digitalization, it has become a digital journal.

The second area within the communication and the media block is cinema. Both Crystal (2003, p. 99) and Nieto García (2021, p. 3) point out that the most prominent films are in English, such as *Star Wars*, *The Lord of The Rings*, and *Titanic*. Furthermore, Nieto García (2021, p. 3) holds the view that these films would have less success if they had been filmed in another language. Besides, Crystal (2003, p. 99) emphasizes the Academy Awards (popularly known as the Oscars), which are mainly English-oriented. To conclude with this point, Crystal (2003, p. 100) references a quote from Wim Wenders,² in which he states that “people believe, buy, eat, wear, use what they see in the films”; therefore, movies being filmed in English will have a significant long-term impact.

The third area is TV and advertising. It is becoming more frequent to see ads broadcast in their original language rather than dubbed into another language. Crystal (2003, p. 94) argues that, although English ads are not numerous enough outside English-speaking countries, they are the most pronounced. Moreover, English slogans have had a tremendous impact on society. We tend to consume several brands every day and, without being aware, we are in constant touch with English. For instance, “I’m lovin’ it” from McDonald’s, “Just do it” from Nike, or “Think different” from Apple.

The following area concerns music. By only observing the trendiest artists in the international panorama, we can deduce the significance of English within this industry. According to Spotify, seven of the top ten listened to songs internationally right now are sung in English. This success of English in music is not recent; Crystal (2003, p. 103) mentions that in 1990, *The Penguin Encyclopedia of Popular Music* stated that in the decade of the 1990s, 547 out of 557 pop music groups worked in English.

Furthermore, this ongoing evolution and value of English within this area is reflected in the Eurovision contest. According to Crystal (2003, p. 103), 17 out of 24 songs were in English in 2002, whereas, according to Nieto García (2021, p. 3), in 2016, only three of the 36 contributions were not in English. Therefore, in 13 years, there has been a growth from 70.8% of English songs to 91.6%. Besides, it is becoming more and more popular to see collaborations of artists from different languages, which facilitates the approach of English to more closed communities. Such is the case of the song “TKN”, by Rosalía and Travis Scott. This song combines Rosalía’s Spanish flamenco and Travis Scott’s English rap. Therefore, the flamenco community in Spain, which focuses on Spanish lyric songs, gets closer to the English language.

² Wim Wenders is a German director, actor, and producer.

The last area within this extensive second block is tourism. Nowadays, every service is offered in English. For instance, in restaurants, more often than not, there is a translation of the menu into English and even into other languages. Furthermore, as Nieto García (2021, p. 4) underscores, there is a tendency to shelter in the English language when traveling abroad.

The third growth area is education. Within this block, it is detectable how English has been introduced little by little. Since its inclusion in the curriculum, this language has made its way through education. Additionally, there is the opportunity of studying other degrees, such as teaching or law, in English (or at least some of the courses are taught in this language). The rise of English within education is noticeable even walking through the streets. The number of English academies is greater and greater. Besides, Crystal (2003, p. 112) indicates that the increase in interest in English Language Teaching has been feasible due to the effective promotion of the British Council.

Nieto García (2021, p. 4) decides to give credit to two issues as the principal boosters of English. The first one is the bilingual programs in primary and secondary schools. The majority of them are implemented in English. Here, Nieto García (2021, p. 4) introduced the term “Content and Language Integrated Learning” (henceforth, CLIL), which is an approach that allows students to learn a second language and a subject all at once.

The second is the Erasmus program in Europe (now renamed as Erasmus +). Nieto García (2021, p. 4) stresses the importance of the Erasmus experience for the change of the mentality toward foreign languages, especially English. This spirit has evolved from shyness to an open-minded attitude. Nieto García (2021, p. 5) adds that the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* stated that in the future European citizens should be able to communicate fluently in two European languages besides their native language. Consequently, these programs have contributed to the expansion of the university's academic offer, which includes several courses available in English and in other foreign languages. Furthermore, the participants of Erasmus programs have to meet a number of language requirements since universities can ask students for a specific level of English according to the *CEFR*.

The last block suggested by Nieto García is information and communication technologies (ICT). With the aid of ICT, people from different zones of the globe can be in contact. Nevertheless, they need a common language to be able to communicate with each other. In these cases, English is used since people rely on it when communicating internationally (Nieto García, 2021, p. 5). In addition, Crystal (2003, p. 115) observes that in 2003, 80% of the world's electronic information was in English.

The impact of English within these areas has turned it into the most influential language worldwide and it is considered the 'hypercentral' language by De Swaan (2010, p. 56). In order to understand this term, it is essential to make reference to De Swaan's language system. Within it, this scholar divides global languages into four groups according to their linguistic dimension.

The first level includes peripheral languages. These languages constitute 98% of the total languages. De Swaan (2010, p. 56) states that, although there are thousands of them, they are only spoken by less than 10% of mankind. Furthermore, this scholar remarks that they operate nearly completely without the media or texts. That would be the case, among others, of, Frisian, Limburgish, Papiamentu, and Sranan Tongo.

The second group is central or national languages and, according to De Swaan (2010, p. 57), there are around 150. These languages are used in schools, media, newspapers, fiction, or the internet. They are central to a set of peripheral languages and are the second languages that speakers of those peripheral languages tend to learn. De Swaan (2010, p. 57) explains the example of Frisian, Limburgish, Papiamentu, and Sranan Tongo, whose speakers do not learn each other languages; they speak a second language that is central to them, Dutch.

Then, De Swaan (2010, p. 57) points out that speakers of a central language need to speak a language with a higher standing. Thus, they learn a second language with an international status. This linguist (2010, p. 57) calls them “supercentral” languages, and they are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Hindi, Japanese, Malay, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and Swahili.

Finally, imagine the situation of a speaker of each “supercentral” language in a meeting. They will need to communicate by any means possible. Due to its influence, relevance, and spread, English is the language chosen to connect the “supercentral” languages and consolidates itself as the most pertinent language in the world. Consequently, De Swaan (2010, p. 57) names English as the “hypercentral” language.

The path of becoming the “hypercentral” language has been lengthy. English has suffered modifications and has added different elements from the languages that have made a stopover on the island. Nevertheless, the situation has been reversed since the current influence of English on other languages is immense. The area in which English has more influence is vocabulary. In its beginnings, English added a considerable number of words by acquiring them from different languages, such as French or Latin. Nowadays, in contrast, it is the principal exporter of words.

Within vocabulary, English exportation encompasses multiple and diverse areas, such as cinema and TV, chemistry, ICT, medicine, and sports. Then, it is frequent that these words

start being part of the lexicon of a given speech community. For instance, the *Diccionario de la lengua española* (Real Academia Española, 2022²³) compiles in each update the new additions in it. Within the list, there are numerous words from different languages and English is the predominant source language.

Besides the appearance in technical and formal areas, the usage of English words for daily use is rising. For instance, in Spain, in spite of not being officially adopted by the language, people use the term “*try hard*” to refer to someone who puts too much effort into winning. Furthermore, there is a verb following the Spanish verb rules, “*tryhardear*”, which indicates the action performed by a *try hard*. With this example, two conclusions can be drawn. The first one is that different speakers of a given language (Spanish in the previous case) may more or less often use a number of English words that may have not been widely accepted yet and/or have not even been described in Spanish dictionaries yet. The second is that each language can create additional words belonging to different lexical categories, following their own grammatical rules, on the basis of the word that has been adopted.

Nevertheless, the influence of English on other languages goes beyond vocabulary. For instance, Mikanowski (2018) mentions various examples of languages that have mimicked English at different linguistic levels. This author describes the influence of English on syntax. For instance, he points out that Italian syntax copies diverse structures and patterns, such as the frequency of adjectives placed before nouns. Similarly, Ganić (2015, p. 10) identifies borrowings of German syntax from English including, for example, the placement of the genitive at the beginning of the phrase, such as *Hamburgs Bürgermeister* (Hamburg's mayor).³

Then, within the morphological level, German also borrows some aspects from English. For instance, Ganić (2015, p. 7) assumes that the German genitive is normally marked with an “-s” at the end of the word. For instance, “*Freund*” is friend, and its plural is “*Freunde*”, and the genitive would be “*Freundes*”, therefore, the “-s” is a sign of genitive. Furthermore, the plural form in German is under English influence since the plural of most loan nouns is formed by adding “-s” or without any change, and it is common to add “-s” to nouns ending in vowels for the plural form (Ganić, 2015, pp. 6-7). Some examples illustrating this phenomenon are “*das Team*”, “*der Teenager*”, “*die Teams*”, “*die Teenager*” and “*Uhu+s*”.⁴

³ This example is taken from Ganić (2015: 10).

⁴ These examples are taken from Ganić (2015: 6-7).

The list of the influence of English on other languages is endless. Nevertheless, in order to include more examples, Lindström (2004) analyses the impact of English on Swedish word formation and segmentals, which are phonemes that are made up of sound segments (vowels, consonants, and semivowels), and Ngwa Atechi (2006) investigates how English phonology has affected Awiing, a language spoken in Cameroon.

All the above-mentioned ideas may lead us to the concept of “English as a lingua franca” (henceforth, ELF) and, more specifically, to considering it as the global lingua franca. Multiple authors have speculated about it and scheduled a close date for this being a reality if it is not a current fact. Lacey (2015, p. 366) describes this phenomenon as inevitable, and other authors, such as Alfarhan (2016, pp. 4-5) and Smokotin *et al.* (2014, pp. 510-511), indicate diverse positive aspects of English becoming the global lingua franca. Thus, Alfarhan (2016, p. 4) states that English would eradicate cultural barriers and function as a glue between nations. Consequently, the outcome would be a community sharing cultures and ideas. Moreover, Smokotin *et al.* (2014, p. 511) add that communication would connect speakers around the globe. Therefore, a global language would increase the understanding between countries, politics and economy would benefit from this, and conflicts could be avoided. In addition, there will be more opportunities since people can try their luck in other countries and find job opportunities abroad.

Nevertheless, Alfarhan (2016, p. 5) and Smokotin *et al.* (2014, p. 512) also reveal negative consequences. Both publications agree on the loss of cultural and ethnic identities. In fact, Alfarhan (2016, p. 5) stresses that language loss will lead to losing the cultural identity. This loss will entail rejecting history and art, the uniqueness of languages, and the different dialects within a nation. Besides, one of the main characteristics of the world, diversity, will be drastically reduced.

However, some impediments can prevent English from achieving the title of global lingua franca. Lacey (2015, pp. 367-368) mentions that part of the population is not educated enough and that the developing countries lack multilingual interaction. This author relates sociological obstacles, such as the lack of time to improve the language skills or the cost that learning a foreign language implies.

2.2. *Diccionario de la lengua española* (2022)

In order to achieve a better understanding of this EDP, it is essential to devote a specific section to the *DLE*. The *DLE* is a publication by the association of the different academies of

the Spanish language, such as *Academia Hondureña de la Lengua*, *Academia Argentina de Letras*, and *Real Academia Española*, among others. Its main aim is to compile the lexicon of the Spanish spoken in Spain and in all the Spanish-speaking countries. Therefore, it is mainly oriented toward native Spanish speakers.

Before the first version of the *DLE* (1780), it existed the *Diccionario de Autoridades* (1726-1739). The first edition of the *DLE* was published in 1780 under the name *Diccionario de la lengua castellana reducido á un tomo para su mas fácil uso*. Since then, it has been changing to its current form. In 1783, it changed its name to *Diccionario de la Lengua Castellana* and the different editions shared the same title until 1925 when it changed to the present name. Furthermore, it has had 23 printed versions, the last one being published in 2014. Nevertheless, there have been diverse online updates of the 23rd version. There are five updates to the 23rd version, which are subsequently named 23.1, 23.2, 23.3, 23.4, and 23.5. The last one was published on December 16th, 2021. It should be pointed out that the access to the *DLE* is free.

The different updates compile the alterations that have been accepted by all the academies. The updates collect the addition of new words, new meanings for already existing words, and modifications of terms. It has been decided that the publication of these new versions is annual. The alterations can be made in diverse lexical fields, such as ICT, cinema, chemistry, or sports. Besides, it is frequent to find words coming from different languages, especially English.

For instance, in the 23.1 version, the word “*biocida*” is an example of the addition of a new word, and, on this occasion, it comes from the English term “biocide”. Within the same version, within the entry for the word “*deportividad*”, apart from the previous one (“*Proceder deportivo (¶ ajustado a normas de corrección y respeto propias del deporte)*”), another definition was added (“*Actitud de quien acepta de buen grado una situación adversa. Aceptó con deportividad que eligieran a otro*”). In addition, it should be underlined that the latter is labelled as a specific use of the word only found in Spain (that is why the tag “Esp” [standing for “Spain”] precedes this new definition). The word “*antropocentrismo*” could also be used to illustrate a similar phenomenon, its meanings being “*Atribución al hombre de cualidades que pueden ser comunes a otras especies*” and “*Teoría que afirma que el hombre es el centro del universo*” (the latter is labelled as a philosophical term). A final example can be “fair play”, which has been added without any change from the English language, is labelled as “*locución inglesa*”, and defined as “*juego limpio*”.

2.3. Definition of key terms

For the sake of clarity, it is crucial to discuss a number of terms that are somehow connected to each other and that may be confusing: “neologisms”, “borrowing”, “anglicisms”, “loan blends”, and “calques”. Besides, a point will be dedicated to analysing the distinction between foreign words, borrowings, and calques.

2.3.1. Neologisms

Neologisms are a reflection of how language evolves and how it adapts to the environment that surrounds it. Furthermore, they show the relations between languages and how they influence each other.

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth, *OED*, 2022), the term “neologism” has its origin in the French word “*néologisme*”. It is also stated in the *OED* that it was first defined in 1731 as, verbatim, “Denoting the coining or use of new words or phrases”. Then, in 1787, this term acquired another definition, verbatim, “Denoting a new word or phrase”. Currently, the definition provided by the *OED* is “A word or phrase which is new to the language; one which is newly coined”.

Nevertheless, although “neologism” has often been related to using a new term, it may express additional meanings. Ahmad (2000, p. 712) comments on the senses of the word “neologist” back in the early 19th century. The first meaning of this word was “the person who created new words”. The second one was “the person who was inclined to rationalization in theology or religious topics”. Ahmad (2000, p. 712) states that, whereas the first sense is in current use, the second one was eclipsed by scientists and technologists. The influence these new rationalists had is reflected on the renewed terminology within the areas of science and technology, which are two of the main fields where neologisms can be found.

Neologisms are associated with new and, as Rodríguez Guerra (2016, p. 530) states, “neologism” is a vague term and can present difficulties when it comes to defining it. For instance, Crystal (2008, p. 329) and Ahmad (2000, p. 711) agree on defining “neologism” as a nonce word. Crystal (2008, p. 329) defines “nonce” as a “linguistic form which a speaker consciously invents or accidentally uses on a single occasion”. Then, this scholar adds that if the nonce word ends up being adopted by the community, it becomes a neologism.

Rodríguez Guerra (2016, p. 530) proposes several definitions of “neologism” in the different modern dictionaries of neologisms, although the most accurate and complete is from

Novas palabras galegas. In this monograph, López Fernández *et al.* (2005, p. 8) define “neologism” as a new word that appears in a language through the different word-formation processes, such as derivation, compounding, borrowing, or calques.

Nevertheless, the list of sources of neologisms is extensive. Ahmad (2000, p. 713) proposes a classification concerning how they can be formed. The first source is by adding or combining elements using “acronymization”, “blending”, “compounding”, and “affixation”. “Acronymization” is understood as the creation of a new lexeme through the initials of several existing words such as “URL” meaning “Uniform Resource Locator” and “NASA” which stands for “National Aeronautics and Space Administration”. The following process, “blending”, consists of fusing parts of two already existing lexemes (usually the beginning of the first and the end of the second) to create a new one. To illustrate this phenomenon, “brunch” (blending “breakfast” and “lunch”) and “biopic” (blending “biographical” and “picture”). Then, concerning “compounding”, it consists in creating a new lexeme by combining two or more free morphemes, as can be seen in “blackboard” (“black”+“board”) and “football” (“foot”+“ball”). Finally, the term “derivation” can be defined as the word-formation process whereby new lexemes are created by adding affixes to the base, as illustrated by “unsafe” (via prefixation)⁵ and “endless” (via suffixation).⁶

The second one is by means of reduction processes employing “abbreviation”, “backformation”, and “shortenings”. “Abbreviation” deals with reducing a word or phrase by shortening it, as in “Dr.” (doctor) and “min.” (minute). The second process, “backformation”, creates a new lexeme by taking away a derivational affix. The verbs “to babysit” (from “babysitter”) and “to televise” (from television) can be used to exemplify this phenomenon. As for “shortenings”⁷, it is a word-formation process that removes a part of an already existing lexeme to create a new one, as observed in “ad” (from “advertisement”) and “exam” (from “examination”). Apart from clipping the end of words, it may also be possible to omit the beginning of a lexeme (“phone” from “telephone”) and both the beginning and the end (e.g., “flu” from “influenza”).

The third and last one is a neutral, neither reduction nor addition, phenomenon utilizing “coinage”, “conversion”, “loans”, and “semantic change”. “Coinage” is defined by Faradisa *et*

⁵ When an affix is added at the beginning of the base.

⁶ When an affix is added at the end of the base.

⁷ The author would probably be referring to the word-formation process “clipping”.

al. (2019, p. 55) as “the process of forming a word which is from a brand name or product”. A couple of examples to illustrate this process are “Google” and “Kleenex”. Then, “conversion” is the process whereby an already existing lexeme changes its word class and, therefore, a new lexeme is created. Such as is the case of the verb “love”, which later became a noun, and, “open”, which converted from adjective to verb. “Loans” refer to new lexemes that are taken from other languages such as “kindergarten” from German and “pizza” coming from Italian. Ultimately, “semantic change” is the process in which a word’s meaning has changed from its original. For instance, “mouse”, originally referring to an animal, has acquired the meaning of a small object to move the elements of the computer screen.

This classification suggests that there is a wide range of alternatives in order to create new terms, either modifying already existing words, forming new ones, or even borrowing them from other languages. It also symbolizes the richness and creativity of languages, both making this field so broad and interesting.

In spite of the fact that neologisms portray innovation, evolution, and, in a certain way, bonds between languages, this phenomenon has had detractors throughout history. This is the case of the scholar Segovia e Izquierdo (1914), who made clear his stance about neologisms coming from other languages in the Spanish lexicon.

In fact, Segovia e Izquierdo (1914, p. 291) attacked neologisms stating that every term whose structure challenges the nature of Spanish must be omitted. This intellectual (1914, p. 291) illustrated his rejection with the example of the French word “*Début*” since he (1914, p. 291) considered that there is a way for referring to someone's first public appearance without the necessity of resorting to French and say, “someone has made her/his debut”.

In addition, Segovia e Izquierdo (1914, p. 292) rejected the commodity and refinement these new words can convey, mentioning that they have never had the necessity to borrow terms from any language, either English or French. This scholar (1914, p. 292) added that for the word “*soirée*”, Spanish has “*velada*”, and, for “clown”, there is the word “*payaso*”. Notwithstanding, Segovia e Izquierdo (1914, p. 292) proposed that if a new term comes from another language, it should be renamed, as in “*Ferrocarril*” from “railway”, or, otherwise, translated as “*estación*” from Latin “*statio*”.

Furthermore, Segovia e Izquierdo (1914, p. 292) concluded by remarking that when there is no alternative, the new term should be added to the dictionary labelled as “new” and a way in which it can be replaced should be included, such as the words “club”, which does not have an alternative, and “*Ecarté*”, which can be replaced as “*descartado*”.

Nowadays, it is almost impossible to find a contemporary scholar that would go against neologisms, considering that they are inevitable and necessary in modern society due to the progress in different fields, such as medicine or technology. Nevertheless, the criticism of this “vice” by Segovia e Izquierdo (1914) can be understood by taking into account the date when this report was published. Back in the early 20th century, there was a sentiment of patriotism owing to the diverse conflicts among nations. Although nowadays, these confrontations still exist, they do not seem to affect the linguistic field. Furthermore, the feeling of patriotism has decreased recently, due to globalization, which has implemented an open-minded mentality that did not exist too many years ago. Unfortunately, the latest rise of nationalist political parties in different countries all over Europe may change this.

2.3.2. Borrowings

The next concept to be dealt with is “borrowing”. It is not easy to describe this phenomenon since many authors treat this term differently. Such is the case of Gómez Capuz (1997) and Zhou (2016). While the former (1997, p. 81) addresses this term as an exchange of linguistic elements between two languages, the latter (2016, p. 209) mentions that “borrowing” is a synonym of “loan word”. Other scholars have discussed the ambiguity of this term. Such as Giménez Folqués (2014, p. 2), who stands up for “borrowing” as a more general process, as Gómez Capuz (1997).

Having commented on the vagueness of this word, within this EDP, the term “borrowing” will be defined as a general procedure in agreement with Giménez Folqués (2014) and Gómez Capuz (1997).

Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 83) classifies “borrowing” into different groups according to the linguistic level it affects. There are eight levels, namely: formal borrowing, morphological borrowing, semantic borrowing, lexical borrowing, syntactic borrowing, phraseological borrowing, and pragmatic borrowing. Nevertheless, within this section, the only level that is going to be approached is “lexical borrowing”, considering that the rest may not be so relevant in this EDP.

According to Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 87), the level of “lexical borrowing” has traditionally been associated with the term “borrowing”, which is why it is such a complicated term to define. Within this group, there are three subcategories based on Gómez Capuz's (1997, p. 87) division.

The first subsection is “importation”, which Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 87) defines, verbatim, as “the direct transference of a lexeme, that is, both meaning and form.” Within this point, this scholar (1997, p. 87) makes a distinction between “foreign words” and “loanwords”. This author suggests that “foreign words” are those terms that remain in their form of the source language (“sandwich” and “airbag”), whereas “loanwords” refer to the terms that have been adapted to the recipient language rules (“*fútbol*” from “football” and “*cóctel*” from “cocktail”). Nevertheless, Giménez Folqués (2014, p. 2) refuses the term “foreign word” and proposes the division of loanwords into the ones that maintain their native form and the ones that have been adapted to the target language characteristics; nevertheless, this author (2014, p. 2) does not use a specific term to refer to them.

The second subsection is “loan blends”. According to Imm (2009, p. 457), “loan blends” or “loanblends” can be defined as “a combination of recipient language and source language morphemes”.

The third and last subcategory is “loan translations” or “calques”. This process is described as a literal translation word for word from the source language into the recipient language.

2.3.2.1. Loanwords

As with the term “borrowing”, “loanwords” have been defined in a number of ways by different scholars. Giménez Folqués (2014, p. 2) states that Alvar Ezquerro (1994) categorized “loanwords” as a type of neologism since they refer to new terms that have not been used in a given language previously. Lázaro Carreter (1997, p. 285) opts for a more general definition that can be associated with the previously discussed term “borrowing”. This scholar (1997, p. 285) defines “loanword” as a linguistic element that one language has borrowed from another language. Other authors, such as Giménez Folqués (2014, p. 2), describe “loanwords” as more specific, defining them as words that arrives in a recipient language, either in its native form or adapted to the target language rules.

Loanwords play a crucial role in languages. The principal exporters of words and the most influential languages worldwide have taken words for plenty of different languages throughout history. As an example, Cano Aguilar (1999, p. 53) states that 8% of the total Spanish vocabulary comes directly from Arabic. Besides, according to Zhou (2016, p. 209), out of all the terms that English has borrowed, 29% come from French, such as “collage” and “parkour”, 29% from Latin, including “millennium” and “realia”, 26% from German, for

example “kaput” and “rucksack”, 6% from Greek, for instance “gyro” and “olive”, and the rest from diverse languages such as Italian (e.g., “casino” and “pizza”), Russian (“politburo” and “samovar”), Spanish (“burrito” and “tortilla”), Japanese (“otaku” and “wakame”), Chinese (“tai chi” and “taikonaut”), and Arabic (“kebab” and “sofa”).

Loanwords can be classified regarding different criteria. Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 73), based on Muhvić-Dimanovski (2005), propose the division of loanwords into “connotative” and “denotative” loanwords. The former refers to those loanwords adopted due to the status of the source language or country. Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 73) refer to them as “luxury loanwords” or “snobbisms”. “Baby-sitter” can be used to illustrate a connotative loanword (in this case in Spanish). The latter is used for new concepts or products, for instance, “piercing” (again within the Spanish language).

Another division that Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 74) propose is according to the source language. Although English is the most common source language nowadays, there are plenty of languages that provide words to the rest. For example, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin, or Spanish. These words coming from different languages may be labelled according to their origin. Therefore, a “loanword” can be a “Gallicism”, “Germanism”, “Italianism”, “Japanism”, “Latinism”, or “Hispanism”.

Finally, Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 74) suggest the classification of loanwords according to their degree of integration in a language. These scholars (2011, p. 74), similarly to Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 87), divide loanwords into “foreign words” and “loanwords”. On the one hand, Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 74) describe “foreign word” as a term coming from a source language that remains in its original form, as in the case of “baguette” and “punk”. On the other hand, these scholars (2011, p. 73) define “loanword” as “a term coming from a language that is integrated to a certain degree into a target language”. In Spanish, “estrés” (from “stress”) and “mitin” (from “meeting”) can illustrate this linguistic phenomenon.

2.3.2.2. Anglicisms

According to the key terms that have been described in the above sections, “anglicism” can be defined as a loanword coming from the English language. Giménez Folqués (2010, p. 15) acknowledges the Industrial Revolution in the 18th and 19th centuries as the beginning of a wave of anglicisms. Notwithstanding, this scholar (2010, p. 15) mentions the avalanche of anglicisms in the 20th century due to the rise of the United States. This new trend of anglicisms was even more evident in different lexical fields such as cinema, economy, ICT, medicine, and

sports. Giménez Folqués (2010, p. 15) adds that anglicisms made such an impact on the Spanish from America due to geographical reasons.

Although the definition of the term “anglicism” seems to be crystal clear, there may be difficulties when identifying anglicisms. De la Cruz Cabanillas Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) propose different criteria that a given word should meet in order to be classified as an “anglicism”. Therefore, the lexical items that can be labelled as “anglicisms” may be divided into four groups.

Firstly, anglicisms may be words that come directly from English and the English-speaking community accept them as belonging to their language. To illustrate this criterion, De la Cruz Cabanillas Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) use “hippy” and “ranking” as anglicisms in Spanish.

Secondly, they may be words whose origin is not English, but it has been the language of transmission. De la Cruz Cabanillas Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) point out that there are languages that do not have the status to reach the world. Therefore, English is the intermediary that gets these terms to enter the international panorama. For instance, “safari” actually comes from Arabic and “iceberg” from Dutch.⁸

Thirdly, the so-called “hybrids” should be mentioned. According to De la Cruz Cabanillas Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) they are words that derive from an English root. As an example, in Spanish, “golf” is an anglicism; therefore, “*golfista*” is an anglicism since it is created from the English root “golf” and the Spanish suffix “-ista”.⁹

The last criterion suggested by De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) is about “pseudoanglicisms”. These academics (2019, p. 69) define them as “lexical units that do not exist as such in the English language”. For the sake of clarity, De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) provide the example of “*puenting*”. This word is an example of mixing the Spanish root “*puente*” and the English suffix “-ing”. This combination in Spanish means “the action of jumping from a bridge” and, according to Real Academia Española (2022²³), this word is created by analogy with other sports such as “jogging” and “rafting”. Nevertheless, the translation of this word into English is “bungee jumping”. Therefore, pseudoanglicisms can trick speakers, which is why De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) also refer to them as “false borrowings”.

⁸ These examples are taken from De la Cruz Cabanillas Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019: 69).

⁹ The Spanish suffix “-ista” is used to create nouns that name someone who has occupation or profession.

Furthermore, anglicisms can also be classified regarding their degree of adaptation into the recipient language. There are two categories, namely “non-adapted anglicisms” and “adapted anglicisms”. The former can be illustrated by means of examples in Spanish such as “chat” or “internet”. Then, the latter consist of those anglicisms that have been adapted to Spanish according to Spanish spelling rules. Such is the case of “*friqui*” (from “freaky”) or “*máster*” (from “master”) with the use of the so-called “tilde” to highlight the fact that the stress is on the first syllable.

Even though anglicisms can go hand in hand with concepts such as innovation, language contact, or update, different scholars, such as Segura (2003), have sometimes classified them as unnecessary. This scholar (2003, p. 56) stresses the uselessness of many anglicisms that are officially accepted in the Spanish language in spite of the fact that there are already words in the Spanish lexicon to convey the same meaning. A couple of examples will be provided to illustrate this idea, “bullying” expresses the same meaning as “*acoso*” and the same happens with “hobby” and “*afición*”. Thus, “unnecessary anglicisms” may be defined as those terms coming from English and expressing the same meaning as other words already available in the lexicon of the recipient language.

In addition, Segura (2003, p. 56) comments on the influence of English on new meanings of Spanish terms, which can be confusing and ambivalent. To illustrate this situation, diverse examples are provided (2003, p. 56); for instance, the meanings of “*apartar*”, “*obviar*”, or “*quitar*” have been added to one of the entries of the verb “*remover*” in the *DLE* due to the influence of the English verb “to remove”. Another example proposed by Segura (2003, p. 56) is the verb “*anticipar*”. Thus, to its original meaning, according to *Real Academia Española* (2022²³), of “*Hacer que algo tenga lugar antes del tiempo señalado o previsible, o antes que otra cosa.*”, has been added “*Anticipar*” about catastrophes. Finally, Segura (2003, p. 56) makes some suggestions for treating unnecessary anglicisms, such as explaining in italics that a given word is an unnecessary neologism and inserting the Spanish equivalent.

2.3.2.3. Loan blends

The following point concerns “loan blends”. This word can be written as “loanblends”, as Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) does, as “loan-blends”, like Hoffer (2005, p. 54), or as “loan blends”, as Gandin (2014, p. 2). Furthermore, they have been mentioned as “hybrids” by some scholars, such as Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) and Winford (2003, p. 46).

This phenomenon has been defined differently by diverse scholars. As an example, “Loan blend” is a term made up of a loanword element and a recipient language element (Hoffer, 2005, p. 54). Also, Imm (2009, p. 457) suggests the definition of “loan blend” as “a combination of recipient language and source language morphemes”. For instance, “monolingual”, from Latin, consists of the prefix “mono-” from Greek and the root “lingual” from Latin.

“Loan blends” can be divided into two categories. The first one is “derivational blends”, which, according to Imm (2009, p. 457), are divided, as well, into two subgroups. The first subgroup is “source language stem + recipient language affix”. For instance, Imm (2009, p. 457) provides the example of the Pennsylvania German word “*bassig*”, which consists of the English stem “boss” and the German suffix “-ig”. The second subgroup is the other way around, “recipient language stem + source language affix”. Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) considers the German word “*Futterage*” as an example, considering that “*Futter-*” is from the recipient language, German, and “-age” is an affix from French.

The second category is “compound blends”. Imm (2009, p. 457) defines “compound blend” as a term consisting of a source language stem and a recipient language stem. To illustrate this phenomenon, Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) provide the example of the French word “*porte-container*”, which combines the stem “*porte*” from French and the English stem “container”.

2.3.2.4. Calques

The last point of the literature review concerns “calques” or “loan translations”. Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) defines this term as the morphemic substitution process of lexical units of the source language. Furthermore, this scholar (1997, p. 88) provides several ideas in order to clarify this term.

The first idea is that the reproduction of the lexical element is completed by means of native material. Therefore, as Adam *et al.* (2018, p. 179) suggest, as the translation process involves the recipient language rules, calques may go unnoticed among the recipient language speakers. Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) adds that the reproduction is normally loyal to the original element, consequently, it is considered a borrowing through translation. Besides, Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88) mentions that the “calque” is always a polymorphemic element. In contrast to “monomorphemic units”, a “polymorphemic word” consists of two or more morphemes.

To the ideas explained by Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 88), Lantto *et al.* (2016, p. 106) add that the target language adopts the semantic content, not the phonological form. Additionally, these scholars (2016, pp. 106-107) emphasize that the translation process goes beyond compound nouns, as idioms and proverbs can be involved.

Having clarified the term “calque” or “loan translation”, Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 89) proposes the distinction between “loan translation proper” and “loan rendition”. The former is associated with a direct copy of the meaning and structure of the source language element. Other scholars suggest the name “literal loan translation” (Adam *et al.*, 2018, pp. 179-180). To name some examples, in Spanish, “*auto-defensa*” (from “self-defense”) or “*guardacostas*” (from “coastguard”). The latter is an approximate loan translation, as Adam *et al.* (2018, pp. 179-180) refer to this type. Within this second group, Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 89) identifies three different subcategories.

The first one is the “asymmetric loan translations”. This type of “calque” is half translated literally and the second half is translated freely. For instance, in Spanish, “*cuenta atrás*” comes from “countdown”, whereas there is a literal translation in “*cuenta*” (“count”), “*atrás*” adopt a different translation, which is “down” instead of the traditional translation “back”. Another example is “*fiebre del oro*” (“gold rush”), in which “*fiebre*” does not adopt the literal translation of “rush”, which would be “*correr*” or “*prisa*”.

The second subcategory is “contracted loan translations”. Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 89) defines this group of calques as translations to replace difficult foreign words. This scholar (1997, p. 89) provides the Spanish examples of “*portero*” replacing “goal-keeper” and “*azafata*” for “air-hostess”.

The last group of calques is “expanded loan translations”. Gómez Capuz (1997, p. 89) states that these calques are used to replace monomorphemic words with polymorphemic ones. Therefore, the translation is “expanded”, as in the examples of “*quiebra comercial*” from “crack” and “*auge súbito*” from “boom” (Gómez Capuz, 1997, p. 89).

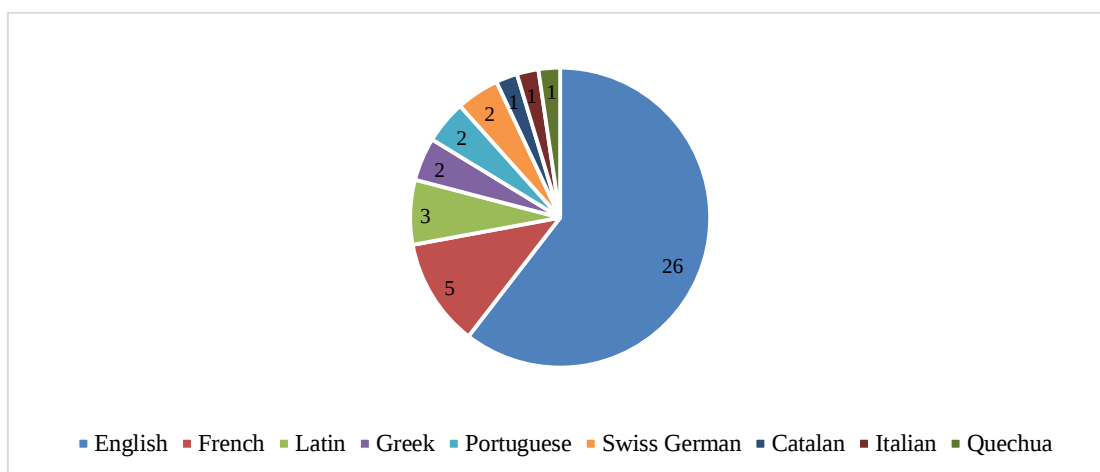
3. Analysis of the anglicisms of the last three versions of the 23rd edition of the DLE

The last part of this academic paper concerns an analysis of the anglicisms of the last three versions of the 23rd edition of the *DLE*. Each version will be analysed independently and then, there will be a common analysis. For clarity purposes, it is crucial to know that the only elements analysed have been the addition of new words. This analysis is divided into five parts. The first one, source languages of loanwords; secondly, semantic fields of the anglicisms;

thirdly, adaptation of the anglicisms into the target language, Spanish; fourthly, the "necessity" of the anglicisms, finally, the classification of the anglicisms according to the division suggested by De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69).

Figure 1

Source language of loanwords (23.3)



Firstly, the 23.3 version has 43 loanwords. Then, out of the 43 loanwords, 26 are anglicisms. Figure 1 classifies the loanwords depending on their source language, which the most common is English, which provides 60.4% of the loanwords, as in “amish” or “router”. Then, the rest of the loanwords are divided into Catalanisms (“*casteller*”), Gallicisms (“*berceuse*” and “*brioche*”), from Greek (“*cinología*” and “*cinológico*”), Italianisms (“*belvedere*”), Latinisms (“*amical*” and “*aniridia*”), Portuguesisms (“*bubango*” and “*chero*”), from Quechua (“*locote*”), and Swiss Germanisms (“*muesli*” and “*musli*”).¹⁰

¹⁰ Within this EDP, when a loanword that have not been adapted, the word from which they come is not going to be mentioned in order to avoid redundancy.

Figure 2

Semantic fields of anglicisms (23.3)

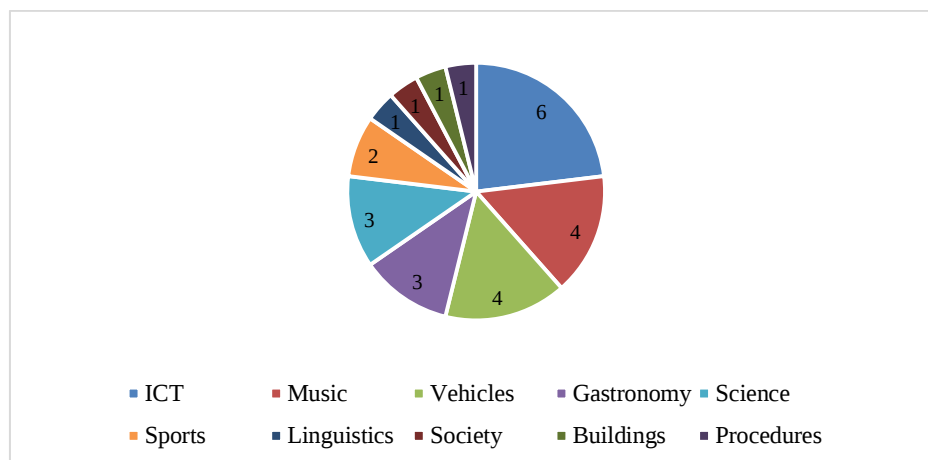


Figure 2 illustrates the different semantic fields in which the anglicisms of the 23.3 version could be classified. The principal field is “ICT” with six anglicisms. Such is the case of “*enrutamiento*” (from “to route”) and “*textear*” (from “text”). The remaining semantic fields can be named as: “buildings” (“penthouse”), “gastronomy” (“*dona*” (from “donut” or “doughnut”) and “*ponqué*” (from “pound cake”)), “linguistics” (“*fático, ca*” (from “phatic”)), “music” (“Beatlemania” and “bebop”), “procedures” (“*registración*” (from “registration”)), “science” (“*kinesia*” (from “kinesics”) and “*kinésico, ca*” (from “kinesic”)), “society” (“amish”), and “vehicles” (“*cabús*” (from “caboose”) and “*troca*” (from “truck”)).

Figure 3

Adaptation of anglicisms (23.3)

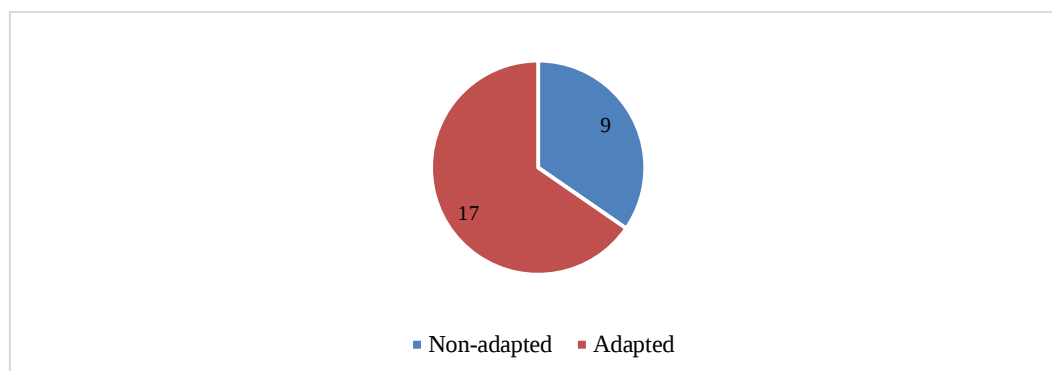


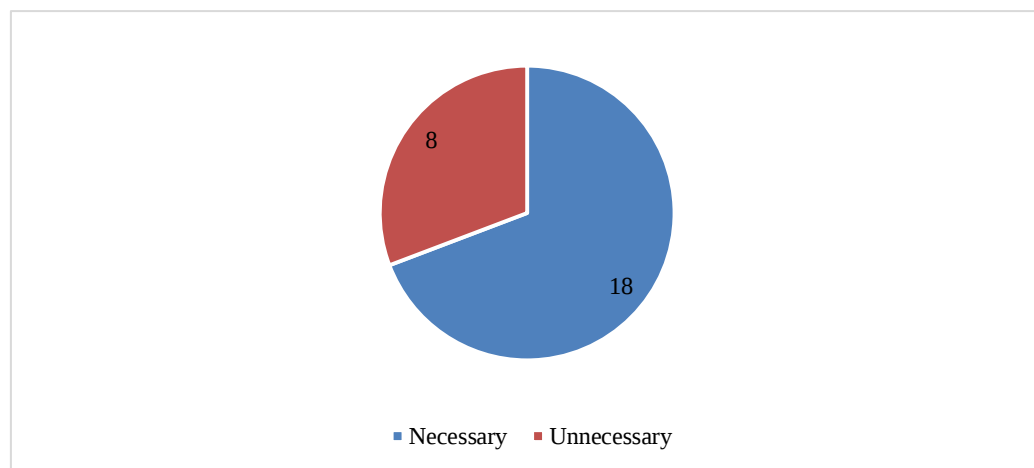
Figure concerns the grade of adaptation that the anglicisms have suffered when entering the Spanish lexicon. As the above figure shows, most of the anglicisms have gone through different processes of adaptation. There can be found anglicisms whose spelling has been modified to the way the word is phonologically transcribed and then adapted to the Spanish spelling rules. Such is the case of “*cabús*” (/kə'bu:s/) or “*rúter*” (/ˈru:tə(r)/) (from “to route”).

Also, there are anglicisms which has been created by adding a Spanish affix(es), as in the case of “*textear*” (from “to text”) or adding affix(es) to the Spanish adaptation, such as “*enrutar*” (from “to route”). Besides, there are anglicisms that only have adopted the so-called Spanish “tilde”, as is the case of “*cróquet*”. Nevertheless, there are some anglicisms whose form has not changed from its original. Such is the case of, “brunch” and “penthouse”.

The next point of the analysis concerns the “necessity” of the anglicisms. The anglicisms can be divided into “necessary” and “unnecessary”. If an anglicism is “necessary”, means that it has not an equivalent in Spanish, whereas if an anglicism is “unnecessary”, means that there is a word in the Spanish lexicon that can be used instead of this neologism.

Figure 4

“Necessity” of anglicisms (23.3)



Having cleared up the distinction between “necessary” and “unnecessary” anglicisms. Looking at Figure , the amount of “necessary” anglicisms is higher than “unnecessary” anglicisms. Examples of “necessary” anglicisms are “beatlemania”, “bebop”, and “*cróquet*”. To illustrate the “unnecessary” anglicisms, “*dona*” considering that the already existing Spanish words “*dónut*” or “*rosquilla*” can be used for the same purpose and, “*registración*” since in Spanish, it can be said “*matriculación*” or “*inscripción*”.

Within the anglicisms of the 23.3 online version, there are, as De la Cruz Cabanillas and Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69) name, “words directly from English”, “words transmitted by English” and “hybrids”. From the first group, “penthouse” and “router” can be used as examples, among others; from the second, “*fático, ca*”, which actually comes from Greek word “*phatikós*”, but English has been the promoter of this word, and finally, “*textear*” is an example of an “hybrid” since it combines the English root “text” and the Spanish suffix “-ear”.

Moving on the 23.4 version, the number of loanwords has raised from 43 to 54. This increase has been due to the appearance of COVID-19 and the pandemic. As it is going to be treated below, most of the anglicisms added have a “coronavirus load” base.

Figure 5

Source language of loanwords (23.4)

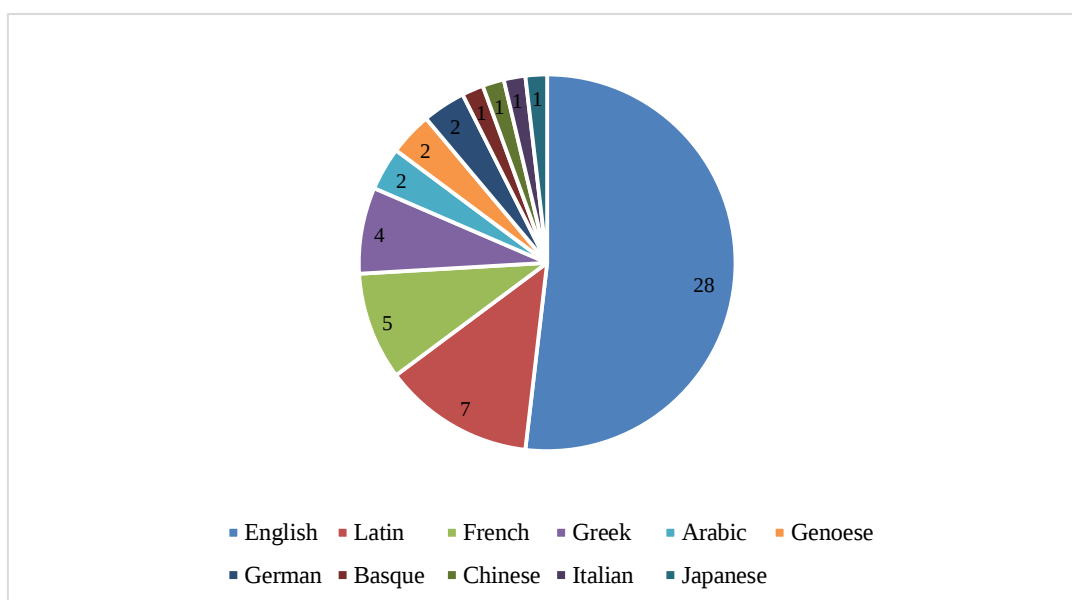


Figure displays, again, the English supremacy within loanwords with an addition of 28 anglicisms. To mention a couple examples of anglicisms, “*cloranfenicol*” (from “chloramphenicol”) or “COVID”. Besides anglicisms, within the 23.4 online version, although to a lesser extent, there are Latinisms (“*24sofla*” or “*orofaringe*”), Gallicisms (“*probiotico, ca*” or “*tirolina*”), from Greek (“*pita*” or “*musaka*”), Arabisms (“*falafel*” or “*intifada*”), from Genoese (“*bacha*” or “*mostachel*”), Germanisms (“*24sofl*” or “*triptófano*”), from Basque (“*marmitako*”), from Chinese (“*wantán*”), Italianisms (“*aliscafo*”), or Japanisms (“*emoji*”).

Figure 6

Semantic fields of anglicisms (23.4)

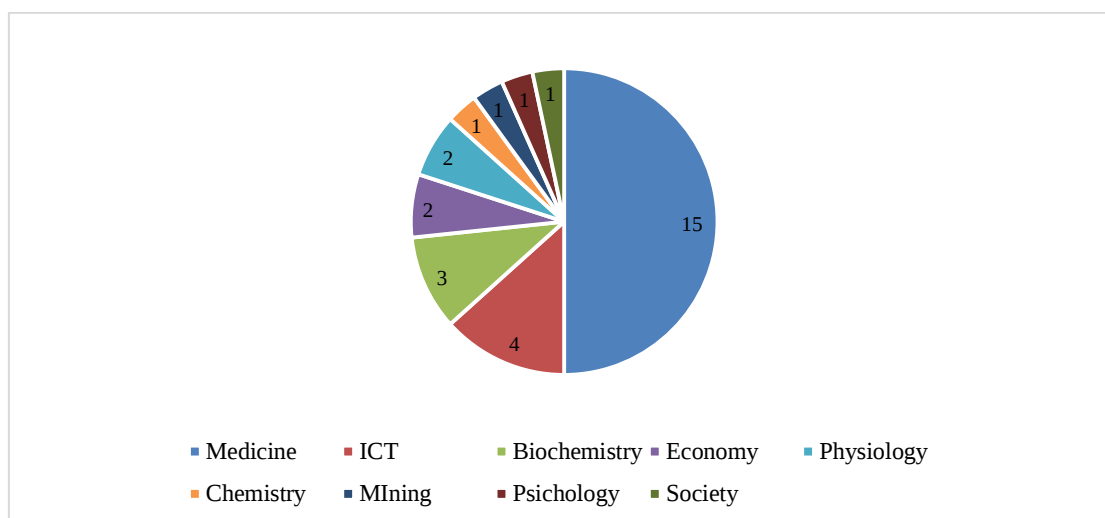


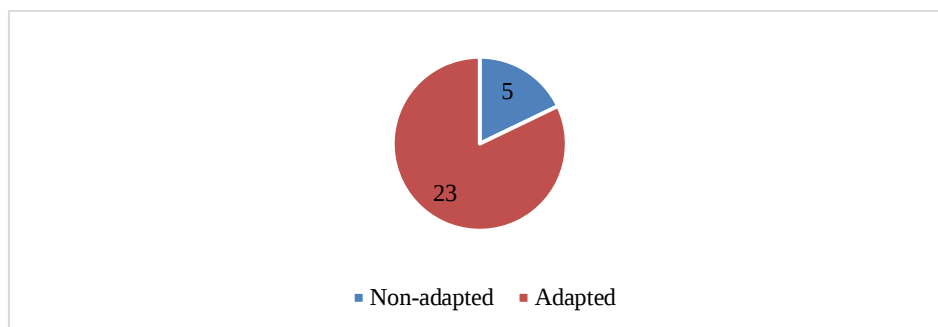
Figure reflects on the dominance of medicine within the 23.4 version. The number of anglicisms of this figure is 29 due to “*internalizar*” that has different meanings. Thus, it can be included into two semantic fields. It should not be a surprise considering that this version was released at the end of 2020. The global pandemic due to COVID-19 also affected the linguistic field since a wide range of terms were added when investigating the coronavirus. Within this semantic field, can be named, “*penicilina*” (from “penicillin”) or “*tetraciclina*” (from “tetracycline”). Then, within ICT, it can be argued that the anglicisms were also added due to the COVID isolation since Spaniards had to stay in lockdown for more than two months. Hence, the use of Internet highly increased. To illustrate anglicisms of this semantic field, “*troll*” (from “troll”) or “*videochat*” (from “video chat”).

Besides, these fields, there are anglicisms classified within biochemistry, as “*25soflavone*” (from “nandrolone”) and “*serotonina*” (from “serotonin”); economy, such as “*eonia*” and “*internalizar*” (from “to internalize”); physiology, for example, “*melatonina*” (from “melatonin”) and “*prolactina*” (from “prolactin”); chemistry, as “*triglicérido*” (from “triglyceride”); mining “*coltán*” (from “coltan”); psychology, as “*internalizar*”, which is a polysemic word;¹¹and society, with the example of “*tex-mex*” (from “Tex-Mex”).

¹¹ A word that has different meanings.

Figure 7

Adaptation of anglicisms (23.4)



The above figure illustrates how the majority of the anglicisms have been adapted into Spanish. This tendency of adaptation can be understood due to the difficulty the terms present. To name some examples, “*internalizar*” has been adapted by adding the suffix “-ar” in order to create a verb. Then, there are examples that have suffered a slightly modification in vowels, as in “*melatonina*” or “*peniciline*”. Also, there are examples of an addition of the Spanish tilde, “*coltán*” or “*ébola*” (from “*ebola*”). Furthermore, “*troll*” is an example of an adaptation by erasing an element, in this case, the last “l” of “*troll*”. Nevertheless, as Figure shows, there are anglicisms that remain in their original form. As examples, “*ayurveda*” and “*coronavirus*”.

Besides, there is a curious case with the anglicism “*tex-mex*”. It has only changed in the use of capital letters since the original form is “*Tex-Mex*”. The explanation to this adaptation is that in English, the nationalities start with capital letter, whereas in Spanish do not. Therefore, “*Tex-Mex*”, which comes from the blending of “*Texan*” and “*Mexican*”, has the “T” and “M” in capital letters. In Spanish, the translation of “*Texan*” and “*Mexican*” is “*26sofla*” and “*mexicano*”, which is the reason the capital letters have been removed.

Figure 8

“Necessity” of anglicisms (23.4)

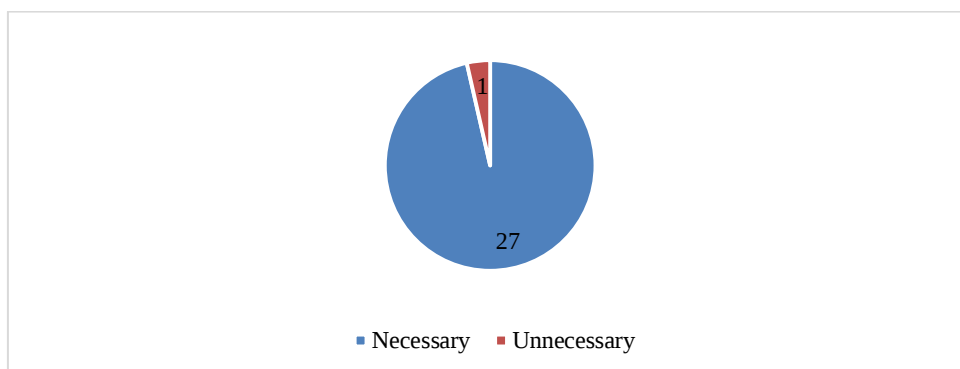


Figure 8 shows that regarding the “necessity” of the anglicisms of this version, it is obvious that all the new words, but one, are labelled as “necessary” since almost all of them are complex terms dealing with aspects concerning COVID. Examples of “necessary” anglicisms are “*cefalosporina*” and “*isoflavona*”. The only “unnecessary” anglicism is the psychological sense of “*internalizar*”, which can be replaced for the Spanish word “*interiorizar*”.

According to De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69), within this version, there are anglicisms following the criterion of “words taken directly from English”. Such is the case of “*cloránfenicol*” (from “chloramphenicol”) or “*nadrolona*” (from “nadrolone”). Besides, there is a wide range of anglicisms within the “words transmitted by English” category. Examples of this type are “*cefalosporina*” and “*penicilina*”, which both come from the Latin words “*cephalosporium*” and “*penicillium*”, respectively. Also, the so-called “hybrids” can be found within this version. The words “*internalizar*”, created with the suffix “-ar”, and “*trolear*”, which is created with the suffix “-ear”, are examples of this phenomenon.

Finally, in the 23.5 version, 127 words have been added, from which 49 are loanwords. Again, as it is going to be mentioned after, anglicisms lead the classification of loanwords.

Figure 9

Source language loanwords (23.5)

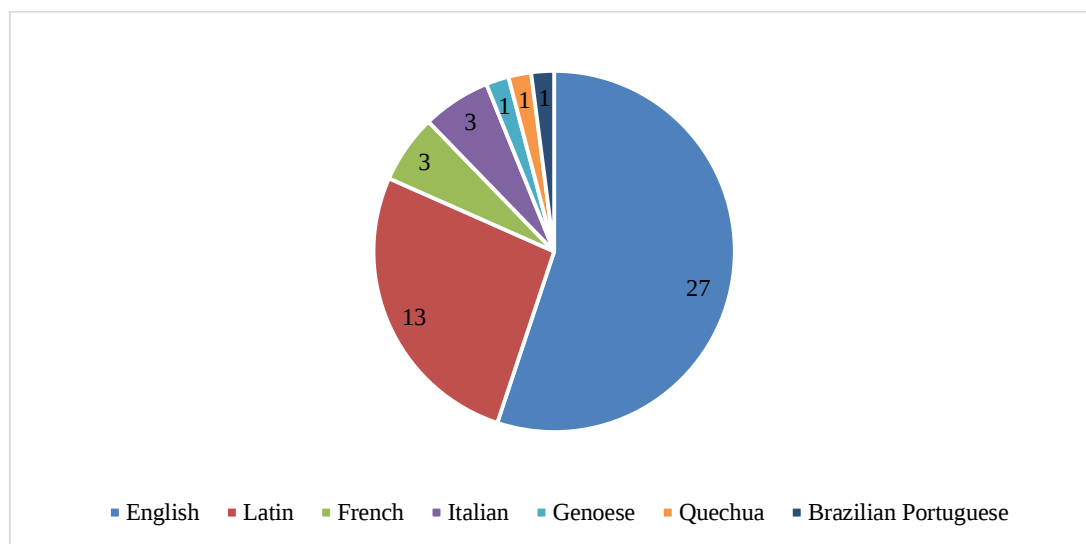
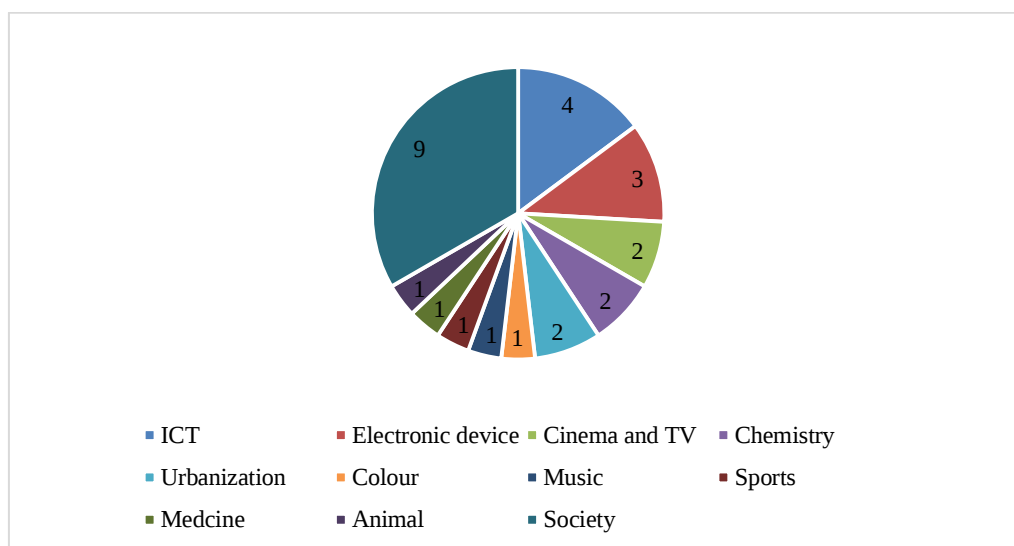


Figure 9 shows that anglicisms are more than the half of the loanwords added, 27 out of 49. Hence, this figure also confirms the English supremacy concerning the source language of loanwords, with the addition, among others, of words such as “bambara” and “*croma*” (from

“chroma”). Besides anglicisms, Gallicisms (“*crudité*” and “*luge*”), Italianisms (“*tifo*” and “*trincheta*”), Latinisms (“*darmstatio*” and “*fleronio*”), from Genoese (“*fainá*”), Brazilian Portuguese (“*sambar*”) and Quechua (“*quinoa*”).

Figure 10

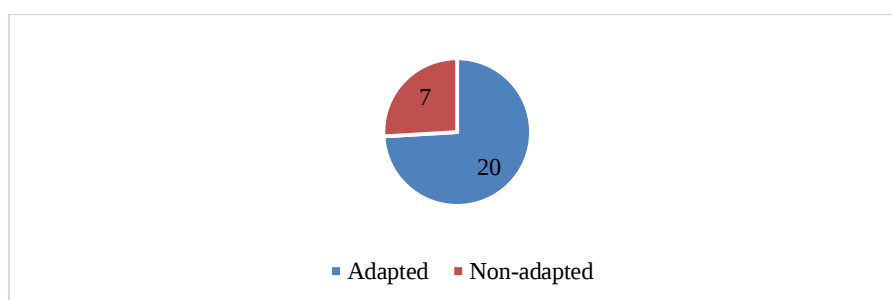
Semantic fields of anglicisms (23.5)



As Figure 10 illustrates, the most repeated semantic field is “society”, contributing with words such as “pansexual” or “mudra”. This field is followed by “ICT” (“bot” and “*netiqueta*” (from “netiquette”)), “electronic devices” (“*vapeador*” and “*vapear*” (both from “to vape”)), “chemistry” (“*copernicio*” (from “copernicium”) and “*livermorio*” (from “livermorium”), “cinematography and TV” (“biopic” and “*croma*”), “urbanization” (“*gentrificación*” (from “gentrification”) and “*gentrificar*” (from “to gentrify”)), “animals” (“panga”), “color” (“*cámel*” (from “camel”)), “medicine” (“*ortesis*” (from “orthesis”)), “music” (“dobro”), and “sports” (“*dribleador*” (from “to dribble”)).

Figure 11

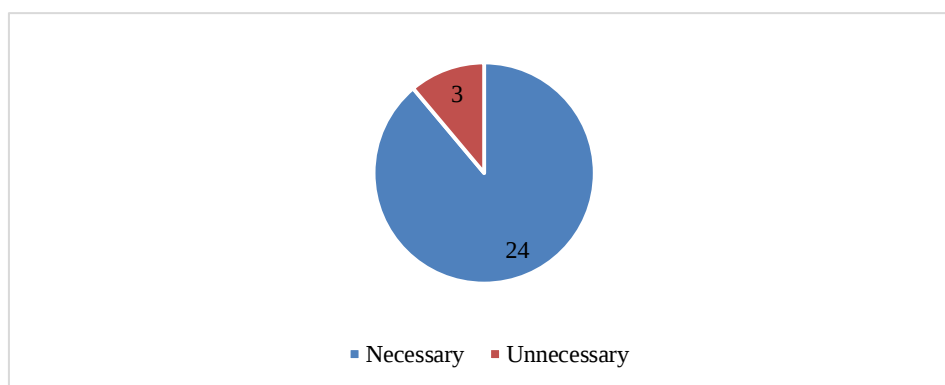
Adaptation of anglicisms (23.5)



Moving on the adaptation of anglicisms of the 23,5 version, Figure 11 demonstrates that Spanish adapts almost all the loanwords, likewise in the other versions. Within this version, examples of “non-adapted” anglicisms are “bot” and “pansexual”. Concerning “adapted” anglicisms, “*bío*” (from “bio”) and “*camel*” can be used as examples of the addition of the so-called Spanish “tilde”. Besides, there are examples of adaptation to the Spanish spelling rules, such as “*croma*”. Furthermore, “*supremacista*” (from “supremacy”) and “*gentrificar*” illustrate the adaptation via affixation.

Figure 12

“Necessity” of anglicisms (23.5)



Regarding the “necessity of anglicisms”, the above figure shows that the number of “necessary anglicisms” is higher than “unnecessary anglicisms”. Most of the anglicisms of this version add a new meaning to the Spanish lexicon, such is the case of “*vapeo*” (from “to vape”) and “*pansexualidad*” (from “pansexuality”). Nevertheless, there are still “luxury anglicisms”. Examples that illustrate this concept are “*webinario*”, considering that in Spanish, “*seminario web*” conveys the same meaning. Identically, “*driblador*” expresses the same meaning as the word “*regateador*”.

Finally, according to the criteria to identify anglicisms of De la Cruz Cabanillas & Tejedor Martínez (2019, p. 69), “anglicisms directly from English” can be found in following examples, “biopic” and “pansexual”. Then, examples of English as promoters of the words can be found as well. Such as, “bambara”, which actually comes from Arabian or “mudra”, which comes from Sanskrit. Additionally, there are anglicisms created by affixation of Spanish affixes, as in the case of “*vapear*”, with the addition of the suffix “-ear” to “vape” and “*supremacista*”, which is created via suffixation with the addition of “-ista” to “supremacy”.

Figure 13

Evolution of anglicisms per version

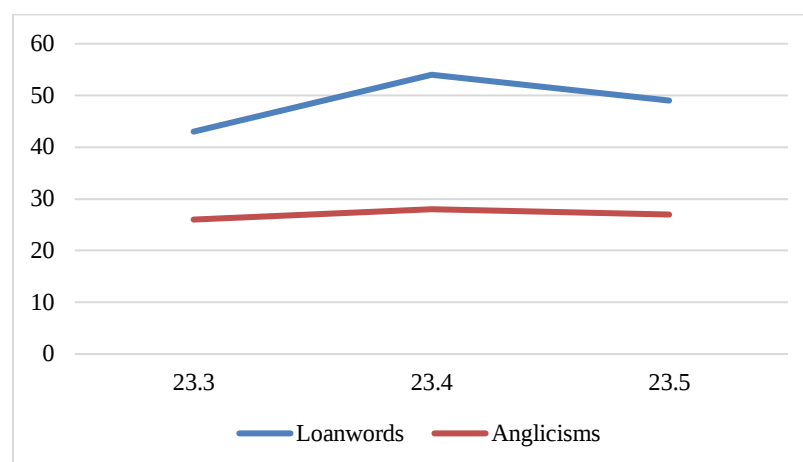
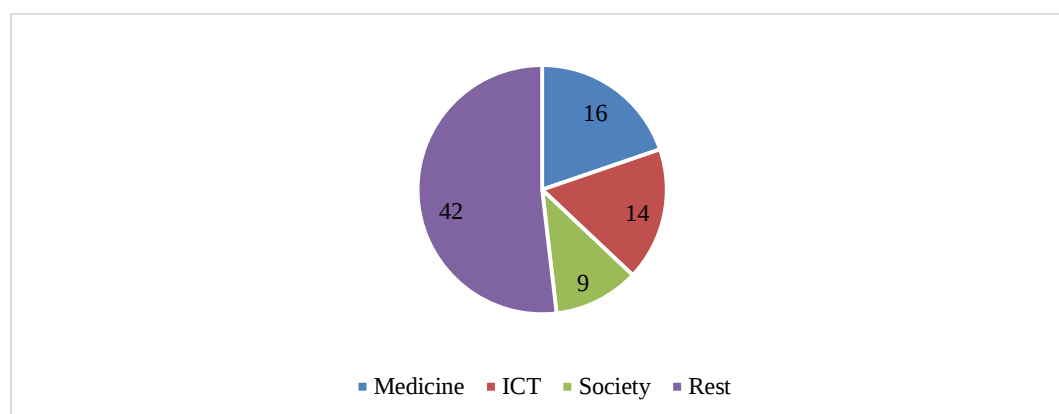


Figure 13 illustrates the evolution of loanwords and anglicisms per year. The evolution follows a constant line due to the proximity of the versions. The three online versions were published at the end of 2019, 2020, 2021, respectively. Furthermore, this above figure demonstrates the influence of English on languages, in this case, Spanish. As testified by the number of anglicisms being over half of the loanwords in each version. In total, 81 out of 146 loanwords were anglicisms, which is 55.47%.

Figure 14

Semantic fields of anglicisms (general)

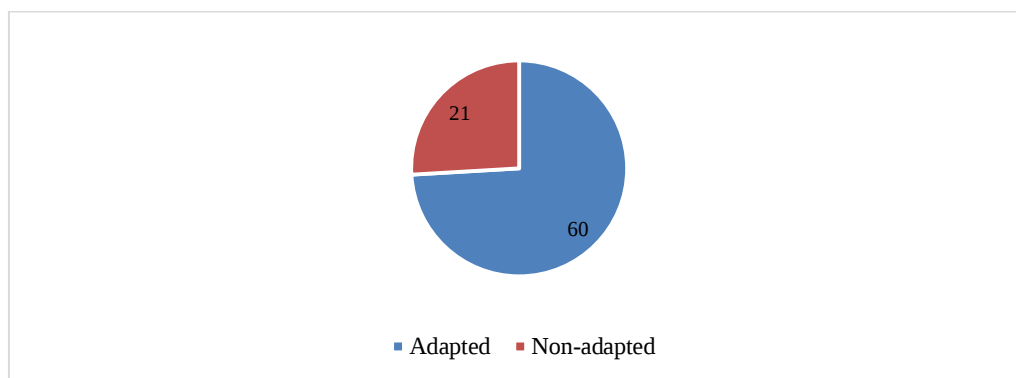


Throughout the analysis, anglicisms have been classified into different semantic fields. The most repeated semantic fields are “medicine”, “ICT”, and “society”. Figure 14 displays the importance of English within, arguably, three of the most relevant areas nowadays. Concerning “medicine”, English was the principal transmitting language of coronavirus terminology.

According to Nieto García (2021, p. 5), “ICTs” is a growth area in which English is used internationally. This information suggested by this author (2021, p. 5) is portrayed by Figure 14. Furthermore, “ICT” anglicisms will continue rising considering that this field is the present and future of the society. Finally, the addition of new terms into the “society” semantic field highlights the importance of English in our every-day life.

Figure 15

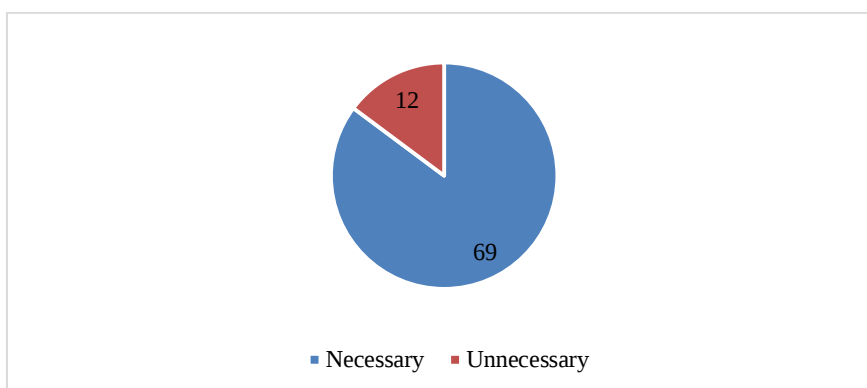
Adaptation of anglicisms (general)



It is not a surprise that the majority of the anglicisms’ form is changed when entering Spanish. Figure 15 illustrates that a word being adapted to the recipient language spelling rules is a normal process. Furthermore, remaining the original form of the anglicisms may generate difficulties on the Spanish population since they would not know how to pronounce them correctly. Also, this statistic praises the Spanish spelling rules because they make possible to adapt a great number of anglicisms.

Figure 16

“Necessity” of anglicisms (general)



To conclude with the analysis, Figure 16 displays the usefulness of the anglicisms analysed throughout this section. Furthermore, it represents how most of the anglicisms are “denotative”, as Varga *et al.* (2011, p. 73) name, since they convey ideas or meanings that are new to Spanish, or they are not words to describe them. Nonetheless, there are “connotative anglicisms” or “snobbisms”. This datum proves the lexical wealth of English, since it has a concrete term for a great variety of concepts.

4. Conclusions

The last section of this EDP concerns the conclusions that can be drawn. Firstly, the influence of English is inarguable. The honorifics English has received, either “Global Lingua Franca” or “hypercentral language”, are well-deserved and its recognition in the growth areas (“education”, “ICT”, “music”, or “tourism”, to name a few) has not been accidentally. Besides, the US has been the chief cause of the status of English due to its economic and political explosion in the 20th century.

Then, the evolution and spread of English seem to have not reached its peak yet. Although the number of terms exported by English is already immense, the inclusion of anglicisms will continue to the extent that growth areas evolve. This idea connects up with the following thought, which deals with the future of languages. This evolution and spread of English may trigger a future common language. Notwithstanding, albeit a global common language may result unthinkable, assessing the current situation of English feasible expectations are created. Furthermore, analysing the impact English has on Spanish, one of the dominant languages, the conjecture of sharing a language may be seen as a possibility.

The next idea concerns the significance of the borrowing processes. Languages share their grammatical rules, lexicons, or structures, and this enrich languages. This exchange of linguistic elements interrelates nations and speech-communities. Furthermore, it can also develop ease when learning a foreign language, obviously considering the learner first language and the target language.

Finally, the addition of anglicisms into Spanish suppose a positive evolution and reinforcement of the language. As it is illustrated in the analysis, most of the anglicisms integrated refer to new concepts that did not have an equivalent in Spanish. Also, the adaptation of anglicisms into Spanish displays another positive aspect of Spanish since the Spanish spelling rules permit the fully integration of a gamut of loanwords, as it is described in the analysis.

To conclude this EDP, subjects of discussion, which can be addressed in further research, have arose throughout the realization of the paper. Firstly, would be worthy to have a common language despite losing cultural identity, dialects, and languages? Secondly, despite the success of English, to what extent does Spanish influence English? Can Spanish reach the status English has achieved?

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