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English as a lingua franca in marketing: Focus on the use of anglicisms in Italian and Polish

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Introduction

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation aims to analyse the worldwide spread and use of the English language as a lingua franca, and the different experiences of acquisition of anglicisms by the Italian and Polish languages, in particular in the semantic field of economics and marketing.

The economic sector is one of those areas, in which the influence of English is felt most throughout almost all languages. This phenomenon can be traced back to the influence of the United States as an economic power, as well as to the globalisation of work marketplace and marketing, and to the spread of digital technologies that allow people and nations, who are geographically distant from each other, to be brought into contact.

English has been considered the lingua franca of global communication for decades now and is usually also used by non-native speakers when they need to communicate in a language known to all. This enormous diffusion of the English language in the majority of economic sectors has as a consequence a notable linguistic interference between the speakers' native language and English, while the number of anglicisms introduced into all languages appears to be constantly increasing, especially when it comes to terms relating to the technological and economic sphere.

This occurrence has also been noticed, among many, in the Italian and Polish languages, but there are differences between the two. This work thus aims to analyse the ways in which such phenomenon occurs, the differences between these two experiences, as well as the similarities.

CHAPTER 1

ENGLISH AS LINGUA FRANCA IN MARKETING

1.1 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

Before proceeding with the analysis of data related to the use of anglicisms in Italian and in Polish, it is worthwhile to introduce the topic of the use of English within other languages and as the common language of international communication.

By now it seems obvious, that English has officially become the international lingua franca of the economic, political and touristic fields. Within the domain of international trade, companies can no longer exempt dealing with a sector that operates almost exclusively in English.

Nowadays the English language is often used by manufacturers and sellers to add a hint of prestige, renown and charisma to their brand - its use in sales transfers a sense of practicality and quality to both the international trader and the tourist (McArthur, 1998). In many cases the use of English itself is considered an indicator of worth and modernity of a manufacturing or selling company.

Even common customers are easily attracted by marketing campaigns that make use of the english language, as it appears as a symbol of innovation and youthfulness.

Businesses that are frequented by residents of a locality, such as clothing stores or restaurants, can take advantage of an English slogan or name to attract the locals, who may begin to perceive them as luxury services destined mostly for tourists.

The use of English as lingua franca appears therefore as a strategy to promote products and services in a simple, even trivial way. However, a marketing campaign characterised by a predominance of English is often employed also for goods considered *niche* or luxurious.

In order to make use of this asset, it is necessary to know how to use English to promote products and services, and in particular it is required to have an excellent command of the language itself and of the linguistic strategies to communicate effectively with it (Kachru, 1996).
The globalised and frenetic world in which we live today compels us to pay particular attention to the use of the lingua franca as a means of intenational communication, one that is understandable to all. The occurrence of this phenomenon started from a political necessity, but it also developed to become a fundamental element in the economic and commercial sector.

The need to find a lingua franca for international communication comes as natural and obvious in contemporary society: without it, we would have to rely solely and exclusively on a very complicated network of interlingual translation and interpretation services. The choice to use a language that can allow people from every corner of the world to understand eachother proves to be economically and culturally more sustainable for everyone. Not only would translation services be tremendously more expensive in terms of time and money for companies and commercial businesses, but they would not meet the speed objectives required by the economic and commercial sectors (Crystal, 2005).

The choice of English as lingua franca is due to many factors, especially the massive migration of European populations to the United States, and the consequent growing importance of said nation on the international theatre. In commerce and world politics, the US influence led to the publication of works and the spread of the English language on a global scale (Scarpa, 2014).

English began to establish itself as an international lingua franca throughout the world only in the second half of the 20th century, even though, as previously stated, the historical reasons that reinforced its affirmation as such had already been in action in previous centuries.

In the aftermath of the allied (British and American) victory in the World War II, the strong cultural influence of these two military powers, that share the English language, has spread all over the world, starting with the European and Asian populations. From that moment English became the most used and understood language among the headquarters of the new international institutions that would that would mark the course of the European and American post-war history.

This has led to the definition and affirmation of what scholars now call *the Expanding Circle* or *Kachru's Third Circle* – the Indian-American sociolinguistic researcher and writer Braj. B. Kachru was the first one to offer an innovative interpretation of the English language's expansion and it's use (Kachru, 1982).

According to Kachru, the diffusion of various types of English in today's world can be described through a scheme of three concentric circles.

There is a so-called "*inner circle*" that includes all the countries where English is the primary and native language for the majority of the population. In these countries, the English language is used in the realm of the family, at school, in media communication and in every other area of daily life; here it has officially the role of national language and sees its historical and cultural fundaments. Among these countries we could enumerate the United Kingdom, the United States of America, New Zealand and Ireland.

The second of the three concentric circles is called the "*outer circle*": it includes a large number of countries having English as their second offical language, where it was imposed by colonizers between the 17th and 19th centuries. Since the *inner circle* countries, especially the United Kingdom, used to represent an unmatched colonizing power, there are many countries that adopted English as the language of government and bureaucratic control. Within the *outer circle* we can find India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, the Philippines, Malaysia, Kenya, Nigeria and Singapore.

The last of the three circles of the Indian scholar's theory is the one mentioned previously, the so-called "*Expanding Circle*", and it includes all areas of the world, where English is studied as a foreign language and is used as a lingua franca for international communication, especially in the fields of diplomacy, commerce, technology and research (Kachru, 1996).

In these countries, the English language is not endowed with any particular administrative status, but is simply used as a common basis for international communication. For this reason, it is commonly taught in schools and supported by national governments as a fundamental basis for the future of the nation itself. An example of a nation we could enumerate within the *Expanding Circle* is Italy, as well as Poland and other European nations. There, the English language is taught as a compulsory first foreign language, without it being officially used by the internal government of the country itself.

When using a lingua franca, it is essential to focus attention on the communicative effectiveness of the message, which must be properly manipulated in order to be clear and comprehensible to the exemplary interlocutor to whom it refers. The linguistic norms on which English as a lingua franca is based do not always coincide with those used by native English speakers.

In fact, the English language as a lingua franca has undergone a number of variations over the years, as it has been used by speakers of many different languages. This kind of speakers have always favoured mutual understanding and linguistic simplicity over grammatical correctness of the English language. In this they differ greatly from speakers from English-speaking countries (Jenkins, 2007).

The strategies preferred by users of English as a lingua franca, unlike those normally used by native speakers, are aimed at facilitating linguistic mediation from a practical and cultural point of view.

English as a lingua franca, especially when it comes to marketing and commerce, is much simpler and more natural in appearance than English as a native language, and often leads to the use of *interlingual transfer strategies* that are of interference between one language and another (Jenkins, 2006). The linguistic and cultural environment, in which the speakers of English as a lingua franca live, represent a very important influence on the linguistic repertoire used, and generate a good amount of examples of creativity in a language.

In the marketing field in particular, there are cases, in which the English language as a lingua franca leads to the creation of innovative and creative solutions to promote a product or a service. Advertising aims to communicate to customers of a company or an agency, both the present and the potential future ones, so it has to be as inclusive and clear as possible. The most effective strategy in marketing, a sector in which a great deal of different and competing actors coexist, is to manipulate the communicative ability of the lingua franca in the best possible way (Crystal, 2005).

1.2 Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF)

English is considered a lingua franca in a great deal of economic and political sectors, such as diplomacy, international relations, foreign trade and marketing. However, it is possible to subdivide this language into many varieties of English based on the sector in question.

In fact, *Business English as a Lingua Franca* (BELF) is one of the varieties of sectoral English, used mainly in the areas of foreign trade. Its origin can be found in the diversity of communications for international exchanges and in the expansion of computer-mediated communication.

This type of English has particular characteristics that greatly distinguish it from others, such as a poor adherence to grammar rules, which are often overlooked and leave room for numerous grammar and spelling errors. The fact of leaving out and accepting mistakes, and aiming for the easiest and most understandable possible version of the English lexicon are fundamental factors in communicating through *Business English as a Lingua Franca* (Firth, 1996).

The goal for the BELF users and speakers is, substantially, that of reaching their own business objectives in a creative manner, without placing too much attention on grammatical correctness of the language used as a means of communication. In short, *Business English as a Lingua Franca* reflects, in its characteristics, the general *English as a Lingua Franca*; the difference stands in its declination into the context of commerce.

The simplicity of this variety of the English language is all the more critical, considering that it's also used for the writing of technical documents and user manuals.

BELF therefore represents a neutral code between two interlocutors, who belong to two different cultural backgrounds, but neither of them can declare English as their mother tongue. It is a linguistic variety limited to the discussion of business topics in the international community, so it is pursued only (or mainly) by professionals of that sector, without bein able to be fully understood by those who are not part of the international trade world (Louhiala-Salminen *et al.*, 2005).

The communication through BELF is obviously always influenced, in one way or another, by the cultural reality of its users and by the way they perceive themselves and their partner in conversation. These perceptions are undoubtedly also linked to the presence of stereotypes and differences between the interlocutors' cultures, even when the topic is business (Poppi, 2012).

As previously stated, speech in BELF is often characterized by some peculiarities that distinguish it, such as a frequent substitution of the codes used, the adjustments and regularizations of the grammatical rules of the standard language, the fixed courtesy formulas useful for the establishment of a both verbal and written communication with business intentionsThese formulas in large use in business-related communication worldwide, especially by non-native English speakers, appear as not very frequent and familiar to the people who come from the earlier mentioned *Inner* and *Outer* circles (Kachru, 1996).

For example, the professor of Linguistic and Cultural Studies Franca Poppi highlighted, in a corpus of mails in *Business English as a Lingua Franca* from Chinese and Italian workers, how the Chinese have a clear tendency to use a much more formal and verbose tone than Italians, with frequent use of honorific names. This typical feature of Chinese culture was clearly reflected in the English used by workers of that population, just like it happened with others (Poppi, 2012).

It seems clear that the language norms between different populations can be relative, especially in intercultural contexts. The differences and the relativity of these norms often generate unintended implications, which also depend on the basic conditions of communication.

Even the vocabulary choices are influenced by the fact, that BELF speakers are not native speakers of English, and they rely on discursive strategies characterized by their own culture. Because of the use of these different cultural discourse strategies between interlocutors from different countries, the communication through BELF may sometimes not have the desired success.

Possible reasons that can lead to a communication failure in BELF could be the lack of speech intelligibility, differences in cultural background and stereotyped associations between the cultures taking part in the communication (Gerritsen and Nickerson, 2009).

The comprehensibility of a message indicates whether it is understood or not by various interlocutors of the communication, i.e. it indicates the positive transfer of the communicative intention of the sender of the message.

When communicating through BELF, there often are problems capable of jeopardizing the very intelligibility of the message due to the interference with the mother tongue of the sender. The speaker is influenced by the language they use daily, the one he knows best, and tends to mix its grammar and

vocabulary with those of English, creating a sentence that a person who does not speak the same mother tongue will never be able to understand correctly (Jenkins, 2007).

Moreover, when speaking, one often involuntarily refers to their cultural background, which may not be in common with other speakers, especially when using English as a Lingua Franca. It brings forth the communication strategies typical of a culture and a language, which nonetheless can be applied in one way or another to other languages as well; in short, even though speakers use the same language, in this case BELF, does not necessarily mean they use it in the same way.

An example of this type of problem could be the tendency of people from Northern Europe (e.g. Denmark, Sweden, Norway, UK) to deal with the problems to be solved in the workplace in a very direct and clear way, without mincing words. On the other hand, people from Mediterranean countries (e.g. Italy, Spain, Greece) prefer to address work issues with longer and more formal speeches, and consider the too direct ones as a form of discourtesy (Gerritsen, Nickerson, 2009).

These kinds of differences in the work environment could cause serious communication problems, especially when the use of a mostly informal language is seen as a lack of respect by the recipient's culture. This could lead to a false opinion in regard to the education and respect of a worker towards his colleagues, his superiors and customers.

Furthermore, the English used by people who use it only as a lingua franca in business and at work, generally, remains strongly linked to the native language of the speaker in other ways as well. These can generate associations in the interlocutor's mind, even negative ones, with the various stereotypes linked to the culture of the sender of the message. Some of the characteristics that a listener could think of, just relating to the speaker's English accent or choice of words or register, could be their economic and social status, their level of education or the type of profession they carry out.

There have not yet been many studies investigating the effect that English with different accents has on recipients of different cultures, but it would certainly be interesting to investigate this issue further in future research.

Lastly, as a consequence of the English language's status as a lingua franca for international working contexts and its use for carrying out offical and international communication strategies, the standard language also underwent changes in its vocabulary and grammar to be more suited to the specialized needs of each professional field and to be more "cross-cultured". In this way, it has become easily understandable to professionals of many different cultures, trying to avoid communication difficulties as much as possible (Millot, 2015).

1.3 Language skills

The use of the English language in a particular sector, such as that of marketing, requires a set of language skills in order to be accessible to the public for which it is intended.

First of all, it is necessary to give a short introduction to "marketing". This English term is hardly translatable into Italian and it can be simply explained as the activity concerned with finding and satisfying human and social needs in one way or another (Kotler, Armstrong, 2017).

It is a sector within economics, specialized in understanding the needs of the market and consumers. Once these needs have been identified, marketing also takes care of satisfying them with all the tools at its diposal. The main focus of marketing experts is the study of the relationship between a particular market and its users inside and outside the company. However, aside from researching various needs, it can also create new ones previously unknown to the customer himself, through different means of persuasion.

The main purpose of marketing strategies is always that of increasing sales and optimizing company's profits, so that it reaches the set targets. Marketing strategies always have an active effect on the market segment they are dealing with (Bardicchia, 2022).

Marketing can also be seen as a social process to achieve business objectives more effectively, exploiting the tools of the sale of products and services, making sure to always offer the right product to the relative market segment and guarantee greater entrepreneurial success (Kotler, Armstrong, 2017).

One of the main tools used by marketing strategists is advertisement, by means of which companies establish a connection with their present and potential customer, as well as with the entire public in the area. In order to make the most of such a wide-ranging tool as advertising, marketing experts often resort to the use of English as a Lingua Franca in advertising communication.

More than any other, this sector highlights how useful a language common to the vast majority of the world's population is for commercial and entrepreneurial development, since it guarantees the ability to communicate both effectively and creatively with the widest audience possible.

To use English as a lingua franca in marketing coherently and effectively, it is essential to be fully aware of the fact that English as an international language is not unified, but there are different varieties, as mentioned above. Consequently, a company operating in the current globalized economy must be able to select the variety of English as a Lingua Franca most useful for achieving its objectives.

Companies often limit themselves to using a very superficial variant of English, which is far from the standard one. With the use of a linguistic variant that is easily accessible to people of different

nationalities, companies aim to spread a marketing communication aimed at several countries at the same time, in order to optimize times and costs. Since standard English is used only by native speakers or by those who intend to address a predominantly native-speaking audience, the majority of multinational companies consider it inconvenient and difficult to develop their international communication with that variant of English. The difficulty lies predominantly in the fact that the consumers who do not have a mastery of English equal to that of a native speaker would fail to understand the message fully or with the intended spontaneity (Christiansen, 2016).

It is very common that a simplified variant of English is used in the names of products and companies, or in advertising slogans, so that it is indeed a lingua franca that everyone can understand. In these cases, the marketing strategy is mainly aimed at local consumers or tourists of various nationalities, but not at native English speakers.

In these cases, a simple and creative use of the English language is preferred, often mixed with words and structures from the original language of the company or that of the audience it is addressing. Here, a total grammatical correctness of English evidently takes a back seat, given that it is assumed, that the majority of viewers of the message might not know it at all. Often partial unclearness or incoherence could result from the author of the message himself not being a native speaker, so the typical and fixed structures of correct English are sometimes not fully respected.

There are also cases of marketing messages in which foreign words are used within texts written in another language in order to make the text sound more fashionable and international, at least in appearance (Christiansen, 2017). An example of such use of English as a lingua franca in the marketing sector could be the preference for the term "meeting" in speeches and slogans, replacing the Italian variant, as well as words like "leader", "e-mail" or "business".

Another purpose of marketing strategies is to inform potential customers about the specifications and accessibility of different products on the market, so that buyers can compare them with others before deciding which one to purchase. Besides informing, the language of marketing aims also to persuade them to buy, as well as to remind them of the previous reasons for purchasing a certain product or service.

In this area, language is of fundamental importance, and English allows to carry out such a strategy thanks to its highly rich vocabulary. A large quantity of words to choose from guarantees marketers to find many that can be related to the chosen brand and, therefore, be an attraction for the consumer.

One of the characteristics of the English language is that it seems to have a larger number of words, synonyms and homonyms than other languages, so the question of choosing the most suitable words for a given advertising situation or product seems to be more urgent. It is essential that marketing

professionals take into great consideration the emotional power of the words they use, choosing well what information to communicate and what to leave out (Kannan, Tyag, 2013).

Within the field of English-language marketing, it is very common to use compound adjectives to indicate the benefits of a product or service, such as "top-quality" or "long-lasting". These adjectives are immediately understandable even to an audience that does not have full command of the English language, and give a clear idea of the benefit provided by the product or service in question.

English as a lingua franca in marketing favors the use of positive terms at all times, and avoids negatives as much as possible in its communication, so that it places emphasis on why a product or service stands out from the competition. Often this variant of the English language is not very accurate, literally speaking, because the language of marketing does not include specific judgements or terms of comparison.

In the marketing industry, specialists are required to have language skills that are essential for the success of communication strategies. First and foremost, all marketing experts must have the full knowledge and mastery of the written English, including its syntax, spelling, morphology and grammar. Only in second position do we find oral language skills, the so-called "speaking skills", which allow marketers to speak efficiently and clearly with the public and other industry insiders. With speaking skills, one must also have excellent language listening skills and a broad understanding of communicative intentions of the interlocutors (Farral, Lindsley, 2008).

Subsequently, it is also important to have an excellent command of written language, and therefore a know-how to write a coherent and concise text for the target audience. All of this is important in order to be able to modulate one's communication according to not only the intentions, but also to the culture and presumed needs of the interlocutor, both in oral discourse and in written text.

CHAPTER 2

THE USE OF ANGLICISMS IN ITALIAN AND POLISH

2.1 Linguistic interference

The process of learning any foreign language by any non-native speaker, for example an Italian or Polish native speaker, inevitably leads to the phenomenon of the overlapping of linguistic codes, especially during the period prior to achieving a good mastery of communication in a given foreign language.

The overlapping of different linguistic codes is evident above all in the transfer of words or phrases from one language within the discourse to the other (Milowska-Samul, 2014).

Linguistic interference can be seen as a distortion of the rules of grammar, vocabulary or syntax caused by mastering more than one language. Interference is the visible linguistic result of a psychological process called *transfer*, in which skills already known by the speaker are applied to the new foreign language (Sharwood Smith, Kellerman, 1986).

The process of interference does not always represent a phenomenon of which the speaker is aware, in fact, sometimes people do not fully consider the linguistic differences between one language and another and tend to use structures and phrases of a different language without noticing it.

The English language appears to be the one from which most of the interferences with the Italian languages originate. This is easily attributable to the considerable exposure to this language that each of us undergoes on a daily basis, even though not everyone has a good command of communication in the English language (Sharwood Smith, Kellerman 1986).

The fact that English is the lingua franca of the vast majority of global economic sectors, as well as the language commonly used in politics and international relations, leads almost all the population of the most developed countries to be constantly surrounded by its terms and communications.

Nowadays the use of anglicisms concerns almost anything that surrounds us, activating the consequent phenomenon of anglicization of the language. There is an increasing tendency to apply linguistic and morphosyntactic structures typical of the English language to all other languages, thus generating linguistic calques.

Furthermore, it should be noted that many terms originating from the English language have now acquired an international status and are also in common use in languages such as Italian and Polish (Milowska-Samul, 2014).

The transfer of an element from the English language into Italian, as well as linguistic transfer in general, can be divided into positive transfer, when the English interference makes it easier to learn and use the target language, and negative transfer, when instead it leads to committing syntactic or morphological errors in the target language.

Negative transfers can lead to an incorrect acquisition of the linguistic norms of the reference language and to greater difficulty in using the language correctly (Rati, Stilo, 2020).

However, positive transfer can make the target language speaker's life easier, because knowing another linguistic system different from the one of one's own language of origin, is responsible for a greater mental openness, giving the speaker the ability to identify the most effective linguistic and cognitive strategies for communication.

Learning other languages also allows one to maintain a network of very strong connections between concepts within the mind, training mental and communicative flexibility. The speaker quickly gets used to ranging between different linguistic mechanisms and grammatical rules (Milowska-Samul, 2014).

Between the seventies and eighties of the last century, researchers often focused on the study of the conditions in which the linguistic experience previously acquired influenced the path of learning a foreign language, in particular they analyzed the way in which the acquisition of a second language relates to knowledge of the mother language (Ringbom, 1987).

It was soon understood that, when a person learns a second language, they try in every way to simplify the process, exploiting their previous linguistic knowledge both from the language they are studying and from their mother tongue. The constant comparison of the elements of the mother language and the foreign one being studied causes interference and mixing in the learner mind.

During this process, the perception of similarity between the different languages taken into consideration has a very important value. The more a learner perceives that the two languages, i.e. their mother tongue and the language they are studying, are similar, the more they will be inclined to apply the phenomenon of linguistic transfer. This means that they will be more willing to transpose the syntactic and morphological mechanisms of one of the two languages onto the other, in order to obtain their communicative result with the maximum saving of cognitive energy (Kellerman, 1978).

When it comes to linguistic interference at the syntactic level, it can be soon noticed that the learner has a natural tendency to transpose the syntax of their native language into the language they are learning as a way to create complete sentences.

Linguist Diane Larsen-Freeman studied this phenomenon in the learning of the syntax and morphology of the English language by various foreign students (Larsen-Freeman, 1975).

This phenomenon of transfer makes it possible to point out elements of universal grammar which characterize all human languages. With regard to syntax, interlingual transfer often affects areas such as the use of articles, word order, relative subordinate clauses and negation (Liu, 2001).

The order of words within the sentence turns out to be one of the most analyzed and most common aspects of interlinguistic interference. In the case of the relationship between English and Italian, it is possible to highlight that in both languages the grammatical subjects tend to precede the verbs, which in turn precede the object complements. However, while in the English language the word order cannot be changed easily without the risk of modifying the communicative intention or affecting the success of the communication itself, the Italian language allows a certain flexibility of the word order in the clause, based on the meaning and communicative intention that the speaker wants to convey. The clauses in which the constituent elements do not follow the order S(ubject) V(erb) O(bject) are marked clauses, in which the focus or the most informative element is positioned at the end to make it more evident (Chapetón, 2011).

2.2 The effects

The phenomenon of linguistic interference develops thanks to the relationship of closeness and exchange between two different languages. When it is prolonged and strong, linguistic interference leads to a real transformation within one of the two languages in question.

This kind of change manifests itself more clearly in the case of influence of a dominant language, which is usually accompanied by a greater relevance at an economical and political level of its country of origin.

In some cases, these are lexical changes, especially with the addition of foreign words to the common vocabulary of a language. Other times deeper transformations take place, which modify the syntax of simple sentences and more complex sentences (Ringbom, 1987).

The borderline case of the effects of linguistic interference is the total disappearance of one of the two languages, the weaker and less relevant one, in favor of the stronger one, which ends up replacing it in everything.

As stated before, interference is a phenomenon that always appears when there is contact between different languages, with the consequent overlapping of their codes within the mind of the speaker during the act of speech. However, a necessary condition for this to occur is that there has to be at least one person who can speak both languages in question fluently. The interference generated at contact between two or more languages could have lesser effects when it is limited by the language skills of a single person.

Some reasons that can bring linguistic interference in the communication of an individual to spread to other people can be convenience, linguistic creativity, the prestige of the individual and his capacity for innovation (Gusmani, 1989).

By making a small analysis of the current situation regarding the influence of the English language on the Italian one and its effects, we can easily see that the interference of the English language, which clearly appears to be the dominant one for purely historical, economic and political reasons, has not yet predominantly affected the Italian syntax (Rati, Stilo, 2020).In some cases, we can notice certain changes in the structures of the Italian sentences, such as the use of the construct "ricco in" instead of the more common "ricco di" due to the influence of the English structure "rich in". Often the use of prepositions appears as the simplest and most persistent long-term linguistic interference in the language, so it is not uncommon to find cases like the one just mentioned.

Other trends that are clear interferences from English in Italian are the use of adjectives together with verbs instead of adverbs, for example, in the sentence "pensa positivo" instead of "positivamente", or the inversion of adjective and noun, with the adjective being put first like in English, for example in the word "baby-assassino".

However, these small consequences of interference can not be considered real transformations of the syntax of the Italian language (Zolli, 1976).

On the other hand, when it comes to the lexical interference of the English language on the Italian one, we can note very different effects and a much greater influence. The amount of anglicisms that the Italian language has assimilated in recent years has increased considerably, also thanks to technological innovations, such as the Internet and social media, the creation of new words in English, as well as the fact that it is being taught in schools, and it is heavily present in the music industry worldwide and used also by non-English artists.

Anglicisms are becoming more and more commonly used among the Italian population and are remarkably surpassing the limits of sectoral languages in which they were once necessary. This phenomenon could also be due to the enormous prestige that the English language has acquired within the Italian culture and language, as a representative of economically and politically predominant nations in the international geopolitical arena of the moment.

As consequence, the emulation and lexical interference of English words in communication in Italian can appear as the desire of the wealthier groups to appear more educated and different from the middle class.

English and the countries in which it is used as a national language represent a real cultural model for Italians; therefore, its emulation is a note of prestige that allows a person to stand out from the crowd. Furthermore, it should be noted that in recent periods the masses are also beginning to emulate the behaviour of the ruling strata and are using anglicisms in even greater numbers and frequency (Zolli, 1976).

In the past centuries it was much more natural to resort to the adaptation of a loanword into the mother tongue, as it happened, for example, for the English word "beef-steak", which was adapted into Italian as "bistecca". Now, however, we no longer tend to translate or transpose words from English in any way, instead we leave them as they originally are.

Nowadays, languages are not given enough time to come up with new words that would indicate things already described by English terms, since the need for the new word is immediate and the English original already exists and can be readily used.

It has already been noted by many scholars, including the Serbian linguist Ivan Klajn, that in ancient times loanwords were almost always adapted to the target language, while with time the tendency to change decreases (Klajn, 1972).

The tendency to emulate the English language has as a natural consequence the proclivity to express a large part of the most innovative concepts in a hybrid and reinvented language, which is no longer entirely Italian but not English either. About half of the neologisms that have enriched the Italian language in the last ten centuries come from the English language and have undergone only a few minor modifications to adapt to Italian.

Moreover, it is possible to notice how root words of Anglo-Saxon origin have now become true matrixes for coining other neologisms of similar meaning, unlike the roots formerly used in the Italian language, which typically came from Greek or Latin (Gusmani, 1993). As for the Polish language, according to The Great Dictionary of Foreign Words (PWN), it currently contains about 3500 anglicisms.

The first ones started to appear at the beginning of the 20th century and mostly came from brand names, such as the word "Adidasy" commonly used to describe a pair of sneakers, or "Pampers" for diapers (szkolajezyk.pl, 2022). In recent years more and more anglicisms came around predominantly through the Internet, the technology field and pop culture. In fact, it is customary to use words like "serial" to indicate TV series, "mecz" derived from English "match", "legginsy" from "leggings" or "biznes" adapted from "business". It is also worth mentioning, that typical colloquial written English abbreviations, such as "btw" for "by the way", or "omg" for "oh my god", became of common use in informal written Polish internet discourse, as well as in the oral one in some cases.

Therefore, it is possible to point out that linguistic interference, depending on the language from which it comes and on the economic and political status of the reference nation, has extremely different effects. Sometimes it is limited to some specific words and expressions that may or may not have adapted to the receiving language in order to conform to its phonetic and morphological rules. At other times, on the contrary, it appears as a phenomenon similar to "colonization" of the receiving language, which seems almost dependent on the terminological and semantic contribution of a dominant language such as English.

While nowadays loanwords are a rather inevitable and mostly positive phenomenon, as they allow to expand the vocabulary of a language, they also present some drawbacks. Their overuse could reveal itself to be problematic, as it would make it difficult to communicate with those, who are not fully familiar with them. Moreover, loanwords tend to replace their Polish equivalents, which end up becoming forgotten (szkolajezyk.pl, 2022).

2.3 The data

To analyze the use of anglicisms in the modern Italian language, a series of data from some specific corpora presented by scholars in past years were analyzed.

One of such corpora used for the analysis of anglicisms in the Italian language there is the Corpus of Contemporary Written Italian (Corpus di Italiano Scritto Contemporaneo, CORIS)[1]. A project started in 1998 by the University of Bologna and published in 2001, it is the first large corpus of written contemporary Italian language developed on the model of the large electronic corpora of European languages, with the purpose of creating a representative and sizeable general reference corpus of written

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[1] https://corpora.ficlit.unibo.it/coris_ita.html (last visited on 12/11/2023)

Italian that would be easily accessible and user-friendly. It contains more than 150 million words from a collection of authentic texts dating back between the 1980s and the 2000s, chosen by virtue of their representativeness of modern Italian. Even though it was created more than 20 years ago, it is being kept updated every three years thanks to a built-in monitor corpus (De Santis, 2021). This corpus was useful for a quantitative research and to establish whether a given anglicism was already in use in the texts making up the original part of the corpus, but it proved to be challenging to find out more about individual sources.

Another important Italian collection examined is the LaRepubblica[2] corpus, created between 2001 and 2004 by the Institute for Translatology at the University of Bologna (SSLMIT). It is based on texts that appeared between 1985 and 2000 in the Italian daily newspaper "La Repubblica", one of the most widely spread newspapers in Italy. With a total of 325,726,782 words, it is almost three times larger than the CORIS corpus (ride.i-d-e.de, 2017). Despite the texts not being as recent as the other corpora, it still stands as a fine source of information on the use of loanwords in the Italian language and it is easily accessible through the NoSketch Engine interface.

The last corpus used for the analysis of the use of anglicisms in Italian was the PAISÀ[3] (Piattaforma per l'Apprendimento dell'Italiano Su corpora Annotati), a joint project of the University of Bologna, the CNR Pisa, the European Accademy of Bolzano and the University of Trento developed between 2009 and 2012. It is a free online corpus with an integrated search engine, containing about 250 million words coming from a total of around 380 thousand documents, of which more than two thirds originate from Wikimedia Foundation websites. While representing a remarkable resource, this corpus appeared as the least useful one, as the search engine turned out to be unintuitive and the query results not as complete as the other corpora.

On the other hand, for the analysis of the presence and use of anglicisms in the Polish language it was necessary to start from the first frequency dictionary available for the contemporary Polish language, published in 1990 by the psychologist and researcher Ida Kurcz and a series of colleagues (Kurcz et al., 1990).

The collection of terms present in this frequency dictionary was made on a series of texts from the 1960s and 1970s. The categories analyzed were not limited to essays and newspaper articles, but also included fiction texts, scientific articles and plays. Within the list of about ten thousand terms, the

percentage of anglicisms turned out to be very small, with about 60 entries in total. This corresponds to only 0.6% of the total entries included in the dictionary (Kurcz et al., 1990).

However, it is important to remark that, between the end of the 1990s and the beginning of the 2000s, languages such as Polish did not have reliable corpora, especially in the area of loanwords. This fact was also noted by the German professor Manfred Görlach in the course of his work on writing the book "A Dictionary of Anglicisms". He remarked that the corpora of the Polish language are not representative of the spoken language and of the real diffusion of anglicisms within it (Görlach, 2001).

Given the limitations of the previous corpus, the analysis had to take into consideration other, richer and more recent corpora, such as the National Corpus of the Polish Language[4] (Narodowy Korpus Języka Polskiego, NKJP) published in 2011, which brought together the work and studies of the Institute of Computer Science of the Polish Academy of Sciences, the Institute of the Polish Language of the Polish Academy of Sciences, the PWN Scientific Publishing House and the Department of Computational and Corpus Linguistics of the University of Łódź (Pędzik, 2012).

The National Corpus of the Polish Language is the biggest and the most important corpus of the Polish language, made up of more than one and a half billion words from sources of all kinds, from classic literature to daily newspapers and specialist periodicals or transcripts of conversations and internet texts, in a way to include lexemes characterizing every segment of Polish population and every common theme. It offers two different online search engines, which allow to carry out a research both on the balanced 300-million word subcorpus and the full version of the NKJP. This corpus, being richer, more complete and more recent, was the one most taken into consideration for the purposes of lexical analysis.

Another corpus explored in order to learn about the use of anglicisms present within Polish was the MoncoPL[5] online corpus, probably the only publicly accessible one that actively keeps track of the Polish language and is constantly being updated. The main advantage of the fact that this corpus is kept up to date is the ability to look for neologisms, neo-semanticisms and loanwords that have appeared in the Polish language over the last few years. It currently contains over 8000 million words, mainly received through RSS channels from over 1500 news and industry websites and blog platforms, as well as from other sources, such as the Polish Parliament Corpus. This corpus also includes its own search engine providing various query options, as well as useful informations on concordances and sources of a given word (Pęzik, 2020).

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[4] nkjp.pl (last visited on 13/11/2023)
[5] http://monco.frazeo.pl/ (last visited on 14/11/2023)

The last collection used to analyse the use of anglicisms in Polish was the Polish Language Corpus PWN[6] available online and created by the National Scientific Publishing House (PWN), another large corpus containing 100 million words from many different kinds of sources, ranging between books, magazines, websites, spoken texts and even literary classics dating back to the Medieval times. Compared to other coprora, this one includes a large number of literary texts in order to take into account the tradition of cultural authority, which is particularly vivid in Poland. In this analysis, however, it was mainly used for the purposes of quantitative research because of the limited information its search engine interface gives, focusing mainly on the amount of times the queried word appears, the concordances and the source.

2.4 Methodological approach

During the process of analysing Polish and Italian corpora, the focus was mainly put on the presence of loanwords from the English language, in order to be able to compare how much the two languages are inclined to assimilate adapted or non-adapted English words into their communication.

The corpora of the Polish language, which are much larger, but also more dispersive than the Italian ones, required a more in-depth search for the presence of anglicisms, with the consequent use of a greater amount of time. Their search engines, however, turned out to be more intuitive, easier to use and provided more precise information.

Some of the Italian language corpora, of which consultation online is free, included search engines that appeared to be slightly dated and challenging to use properly in order to extract all the information needed for the purpose of this analysis, such as the CORIS. Nevertheless, they still turned out to be useful mainly for a quantitative research on anglicisms and for some additional insight on how they are used thanks to concordances.

Once an anglicism was identified without the aid of an electronic data processing tool in the target language, in this case Italian and Polish, it was possible to exploit the search software to verify its use and frequency in the texts used to generate the corpus in question.

The literature and online articles reviewed in this dissertation proved to be a great source of anglicisms to search for in the corpora and subsequently analyse. Some of the English loans were found during the corpora analysis itself. Those included within this thesis are the ones ranking the highest on the wordlists,

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[6] https://sjp.pwn.pl/korpus (last visited on 23/09/2023)

while the less frequent ones (with about a hundred hits or making up less than 0.00001%) were considered irrelevant given the remarkable sizes of the corpora and therefore discarded.

Considering that the term content in all the corpora used during the analysis in some cases exceeded the order of hundreds of millions of tokens, the use of electronic software proved to be essential to search and read the included lexemes.

The study of loanwords, in general, sees as a starting point the analysis of a corpus, in which hypothetical anglicisms can be found. Analyses based on corpora make it possible to verify both the absolute and the relative frequency of anglicisms in consideration, although there may be doubts about the representativeness of the attestations and the frequency extracted from a corpus (Moon, 1998).

By means of the PELCRA, MoncoPL and PWN search engines it was possible to query the Polish corpora and determine the frequency of some anglicisms, choosing whether or not to include inflections and derivatives from loanwords. With the use of corpora, it was possible to determine the frequency of use of anglicisms, the register in which they are used and the type of source in which they are most present, such as newspaper and magazine articles, fiction and non-fiction written works, oral discourses and a great deal of online texts. Moreover, based on the corpus information it is also possible to identify the chronology of the use of a specific loanword, going back to the period in which it started to be a commonly used word in the target language.

Taking into account the fact that it is not possible to use one piece of software that would combine the corpora and provide a contrastive search between Italian and Polish, a different strategy was required. Manual data analysis has turned out to be a simple and effective strategy for comparing the use and occurrences of a given term in Polish and Italian, given that there are many similar anglicisms between these two languages.

The manual work of comparing the data regarding anglicisms found among the corpora in two different languages may seem a very time-consuming and arduous approach. However, since the corpora are generally easy to explore thanks to the advanced search engine softwares and the data is, for the most part, easy to access, it is not a strategy to be discarded in advance.

Sometimes, however, corpora have usage and access constraints, complicating the query process, which can sometimes be unintuitive in itself. Among the most user-friendly corpus analysis tools are: NoSketchEngine, an open-source, limited version of the famous SketchEngine service, which enables the analysis of corpora of various languages with particular attention to collocations and sources, which in our case are useful for analysing the Italian LaRepubblica newspaper corpus; the PELCRA search engine, providing concordances of the queried word in the KWIC (Key Word in Context) format, as well

as a quick access to graphs containing data on the kinds of texts the given word is used in, and finally the MoncoPL engine, allowing to easily browse through a massive amount of recent texts.

Generally speaking, data analysis approaches were defined by the type of corpus in which the analysis itself was taking place, requiring a certain flexibility and adaptability of the strategy.

The size of the corpus itself and the sort of source texts composing it were the key features that guided the choice of a strategy for querying, as well as the data that were subsequently extracted and considered in the following analysis.

CHAPTER 3

DATA ANALYSIS

3.1 Analysis of the Italian data

Once the starting corpora were selected for the analysis of the use of anglicisms in the Italian and Polish languages, it was possible to proceed with the examination of their presence in one of the two languages. In this case, the decision was made to start with the Italian language.

Before the 1980s and 1990s, a specific study of anglicisms in contemporary Italian had never been conducted, but after corpora were introduced as data types on which such analysis was carried out, the situation began to change (University of Bologna, CILTA, 2001).

The semantic fields that are most prone to the use of anglicisms are politics, economics and technology. Economics is a field in which non-adapted foreignisms are often used (Masini, 1994). The English loans linked to marketing, given their close relation, are usually found within the field of economics. In fact, extremely widespread and indispensable anglicisms characteristic of all these fields emerged from research.

Anglicisms in *LaRepubblica*	Frequency (hits)	Normalised values
leader(ship)	108,063	0.0280%
manager	26,161	0.0069%
computer	26,030	0.0068%
premier	25,707	0.0068%
partner(ship)	21,813	0.0057%
holding	15,005	0.0039%
business	14,615	0.0038%
spot	14,468	0.0038%
slogan	12,596	0.0033%
sponsor	11,662	0.0031%
staff	10,595	0.0028%

management	6,976	0.0018%
marketing	4,934	0.0013%
budget	4,289	0.0011%
welfare	4,025	0.0011%

Table 1: A breakdown of the most frequent anglicisms in the La Repubblica corpus

The analysis of anglisisms in LaRepubblica provides an overview of the most recurring anglicisms in the Italian language. Given that the corpus consists exclusively of newspaper articles, the English loans mainly concern the areas of politics and economics. In fact, the most frequent anglicism appears to be "*leader*", common for both of the aforementioned fields, and including its morphological variant "*leadership*" which extends the meaning to the whole status.

The anglicism in Table 1 that is most specific to the field of politics is "*premier*". This anglicism derives from the British word combination "*Prime Minister*", which is typically used in news papers (Longman Dictionary). Other anglicisms characteristic of this field were returned from the corpus, namely "*welfare*", "*budget*" and others with a slightly lower frequency, such as "*privacy*" (3,022), "*tax*" (1,873) often premodified by the adjective "*minimum*", and "*spread*" (450).

Among the most frequent ones in the field of economics are English words like "*manager*", "*partner*", including its morphologically derived form "*partnership*", "*holding*", "*business*" and "*management*", while the ones more characteristic of the areas of marketing and advertisement are "*spot*", "*slogan*", "*sponsor*" and the word "*marketing*" itself. Other anglicisms of this kind are attested within the LaRepubblica corpus, though with a smaller number of hits. These are "*joint venture*" (3,726), "*design*" (2,375 hits including "*designer*"), "*leasing*" (2,314) and "*target*" (1,258).

These terms indicate precise concepts in economics which, despite having an Italian equivalent, appear not to be translated into Italian (Università di Bologna, CILTA, 2001).

Within the field of marketing, the term "*target*" (Fig. 1) defines the group of customers a given product or ad is intended for. However, a closer analysis of collocations shows that this word also tends to be used in Italian as a synonym of "*bersaglio*", that is, "*goal*" or "*aim*".

Fig. 1: A sample of collocations containing the word "*target*" in LaRepubblica

Table 2 shows the highest ranking in CORIS. Among them can be found a larger number of anglicisms related to economy and marketing, while as we have seen above, in LaRepubblica there are more English loans related to politics. As can be seen from Table 2, such anglicisms reach very low amouts in terms of normalised values, except for "*premier*", "*privacy*" and "*welfare*"). Many of the most recurring anglicisms however are largely the same. One that appears here much more frequently than in the LaRepubblica corpus is "*design*", often used in the Italian marketing to describe products of which the aesthetic element plays an essential role.

Anglicisms in CORIS	Frequency (hits)	Normalised values
computer	17,179	0.01043%
leader(ship)	16,873	0.01025%
web	11,008	0.00668%
premier	7,713	0.00468%
software	7,534	0.00457%
business	5,752	0.00349%
manager	5,748	0.00349%
partner	5,697	0.00346%
marketing	3,813	0.00231%
design	3,189	0.00193%
slogan	2,540	0.00154%
privacy	2,540	0.00154%
blog	2,447	0.00148%
welfare	2,279	0.00138%

management	2,110	0.00128%
sponsor	2,018	0.00122%

Table 2: A breakdown of the most frequent anglicisms in the CORIS corpus

However, due to the much broader variety of source texts in CORIS, it is possible to notice plenty of English loans pertaining to the technology and Internet areas, both of which remarkably contributed to spreading the use of English terms in other languages. In fact, among the highest ranking anglicisms there are "*computer*", "*web*" and "*software*", including others with fewer entries, like "*blog*" (an abbreviation of "*web log*") and "*email*" (840 hits in CORIS).

Furthermore, an in-depth analysis of collocations in CORIS demonstrates that it is common for anglicisms in the Italian language to appear together with other English words, which are not normally used on their own and usually already have an Italian equivalent. For example, the terms "*manager*" (fig. 2.1) and "*management*" (fig. 2.2) are very often pre-modified by the adjectives "*general*" and "*top*" or by other nouns, such as "*risk*", "*account*", "*product*" or "*project*".

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CORIS1980_2000: oluto . In palio per i quattro <top manager> " in vitro " , un viaggio - s
CORIS1980_2000: onale ; 2 business development <account manager> , laureati , lingua inglese e
CORIS1980_2000: e multinazionali ; 2 technical <account manager> , conoscenza generale dei pro
CORIS1980_2000: e è alla ricerca di 15 giovani <top manager> - è il connubio tra la filoso
CORIS1980_2000: o vendite 4,6 % ( + 58,6 % ) I <Product manager> 4 % ( o14 , 9 % ) J Capo cont
CORIS1980_2000: tecnico di gestione progetti ( <project manager> ) , in particolare nei settor
CORIS1980_2000: iale non standard è seguita da <project manager> : un paio di queste figure so
CORIS1980_2000:  di informazioni - aggiunge il <top manager> della casa editrice dello Str
CORIS1980_2000: io - spiega Alessandro Mauro , <product manager> per l ' Italia della società
MONITOR2017_20: avorare con le startup " . Gli <asset manager> si preparano alle elezioni eu
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Fig. 2.1: A sample of collocations containing "*manager*" with other English words in CORIS

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CORIS1980_2000: rso possono essere : master in <general management> e offrire una panoramica orga
CORIS1980_2000: degli iscritti ad un master in <general management> deve essere laureato , mentre
CORIS1980_2000: mi informativi . Nel master in <general management> devono esserne scelte 8 : 7 n
CORIS1980_2000: lle sue varie articolazioni di <asset management> , corporate finance e merchan
CORIS1980_2000: di questi bollettini editi dal <Product Management> . SISTEMI CONSONI ALLE ESIGEN
CORIS1980_2000: sa non è deciso a tavolino dal <top management> ma è il risultato della somma
CORIS1980_2000: uantificare e da dimostrare al <top management> . L ' avvento di Intranet e d
CORIS1980_2000: un ' ampia reportistica per il <Top Management> Telecom . L ' applicazione pi
CORIS1980_2000: aschile ( quadri , dirigenti e <top management> ) e svolgono un lavoro cooper
CORIS1980_2000: li derivati e gli strumenti di <risk management> ) che richiedono una capacità
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Fig. 2.2: A sample of collocations containing "*management*" with other English words in CORIS

While it is rarely possible to notice this phenomenon occurring with English loans concerning technology (e.g. "*personal computer*") or some less frequent ones concerning politics (e.g. "*carbon tax*"), it happens considerably more often with economics- and marketing-related anglicisms.

For example, the aforementioned noun "*design*" is sometimes found in combinations such as "*interior design*", "*graphic design*" or "*industrial design*"; the word "*business*" appears in collocations such as "*core business*", "*business plan*" or "*business to consumer*", while the term "*chat*" (1,076 hits in CORIS) can often be found in noun phrases like "*chat room*" or "*chat line*". Another case of this phenomenon is the word "*corporate*" (580 hits in LaRepubblica and 477 hits in CORIS) which appears by itself when used in Italian as a noun, but tends to bring along the English term it pre-modifies as an adjective (Fig. 3), like "*finance*" or "*governance*".

#11365973	iazione da affiancare alla tradizionale attività di merchant bank e	corporate	finance " ha replicato Jody Vender .</s><s>Dietro le dichiarazion
#11928108	ine d' intermediazione .</s><s>Questo vuol dire che i servizi di '	corporate	finance ' e ' capital market ' sono anche i servizi e i prodotti che s
#12566511	a sfida : trasformare il vertice aziendale secondo il modello delle	corporate	americane .</s><s>Ciò richiede una scelta drastica da parte dei
#12920003	o .</s><s>Si privatizza , si globalizza , si adottano i principi della	corporate	governance , ma la sceneggiatura delle assemblee resta quella c
#13488403	i><s>Il problema è che siano chiari e rispettosi delle regole della	corporate	governance di un paese , in caso contrario c' è il codice " .</s><s
#13489203	><s>" Con gli strumenti che esistono a cominciare da quelli della	corporate	governance che già funzionano bene .</s><s>A patto che non si
#15057460	di raccolta , una maggiore attenzione a quei settori nuovi come il	corporate	finance e , allo studio , la possibilità di effettuare interventi di mer
#15058127	i nostri azionisti ?</s><s>Altri discorsi , sui temi più specifici del	corporate	finance , ce li siamo invece già posti concretamente .</s><s>Pur

Fig. 3: A sample of collocations containing "corporate" in LaRepubblica

Despite containing over 250 millions of tokens, the PAISÀ corpus was considered less relevant for the purposes of this research due to the type its source texts, of which a vast majority comes from Wikipedia articles. However, it still proved useful for a quantitative research, although even the anglicism with the highest number of hits did not come close to 0.01% of the corpus. Table 3 lists the most frequent anglicisms in the PAISÀ corpus.

Anglicisms in PAISÀ	Frequency (hits)	Normalised values
leader	15,812	0.00125%
computer	15,470	0.00610%
blog	13,998	0.00559%
software	12,845	0.00513%

design/designer	8,303	0.00332%
manager	5,541	0.00221%
target	4,744	0.00178%
partner	4,547	0.00181%
spot	4,471	0.00178%
business	3,538	0.00141%
marketing	3,284	0.00131%
hardware	3,238	0.00129%
staff	3,222	0.00128%
sponsor	3,160	0.00126%

Table 3: A breakdown of the most frequent anglicisms in the PAISÀ corpus

The most frequent anglicisms are similar to those found in the previous corpora. The main difference lies in the fact, that the highest ranking English loans appear to be the ones pertaining to the fields of technology and Internet, followed by those specific to economics and marketing, while the ones related to politics reached the lowest numbers.

Other interesting examples of anglicisms, which were found in the corpora with a significant number of entries, are "*flop*" (829 in LaRepubblica) meaning an unsuccessful launch of a product or promotional initiative; "*spread*" (622 in CORIS), "*merchandise*" (531 in LaRepubblica, including "*merchandising*"), and "*commercial*" (557 in LaRepubblica), found used as a noun in its morphological variant "*commercials*" or associated with other English words, such as "*commercial paper*" or "*commercial banking*".

Loanwords from other languages relate to very broad and common areas, whithout concentrating around precise sectors. These include, for example, *nonchalance*, *cinema* or *baionetta* from French, *compleanno*, *guerriglia* or *golpe* from Spanish (Vallotto, 2022) and *assassino*, *alfiere* or *alambicco* from Arabic (Fennino, 2022). They are often centuries old and can be adapted or not.

In regard to anglicisms, this only seems to be the case for those, which became part of the Italian language many generations ago and have since adapted to the Italian spelling and pronunciation. In fact, they behave as if they were Italian words (Tawfik, 2021), for example *la bistecca* from the English *beef-steak*, *la locomotiva* from *locomotive*, *la sterlina* from *sterling* or *la giungla* from *jungle*.

It can be generally stated, that the Italian language acquires anglicisms very easily. Especially in recent decades, it shows a marked tendency not to adapt them to its own rules, and instead it prefers to use them in their original form, including morphological variants (such as words containing the suffixes *–ship* or *-s*, like "*partners*" or "*partnership*") and additional words carried together by anglicisms, as seen in the analysis of CORIS. This, as already stated before, derives from the growing importance that the English language has acquired in sectors such as marketing, economics and technology. The only exception encountered during the research is the phrase "sito *web*" (1,236 hits in CORIS and 2,169 hits in PAISÀ), a half-adapted version of the term "*website*", which shows very few or no entries.

As demonstrated by the analysis, the majority of anglicisms regarding politics and economics is mainly present in newspapers, online articles, blogs and advertisements, being widely used by the press and by politicians. English loans related to technology, on the other hand, are found predominantly within specialistic texts and manuals.

However, a recent survey of articles in major newspapers showed that there are not that many English loanwords. Anglicisms crowd into the titles, where size matters and short words are convenient, but they make up less than 3% of the text of the articles (Gualdo, 2020). In fact, even with the numbers summed up, all of the anglicisms considered in this research barely reach 0.1% within the corpora. While still generally providing large numbers of entries, demonstrating therefore their broad use, they only make up a very small portion of the corpora.

3.2 Analysis of the Polish data

At this point it is also necessary to focus on the analysis of the Polish part of the data. Having previously explained the difficulty of finding reliable data on the diffusion of anglicisms in the Polish language, we can note that, despite the fact that electronic corpora may apparently not be the most suitable tool for researching anglicisms, there are currently no other tools for better identification of foreign loanwords (Przepiórkowski, 2004).

Corpora allow us to better verify the use of pre-identified loanwords within a given language at a given moment in time. Any analysis of the adaptation and the use of foreignisms in the Polish language using electronic data processing tools must be preceded by the very identification of the anglicisms to be taken into consideration. The corpus then allows us to verify the validity of the borrowing hypotheses considered and to evaluate their characteristics and adaptation into Polish.

Like in the case of Italian corpora, the corpus research focuses mainly on the anglicisms pertaining to the fields of economics (therefore including marketing and advertisement), politics and technology. Tables 4 and 5 show the most frequent anglicisms in the two Polish corpora under investigation in this dissertation.

Anglicisms in NKJP (PELCRA)	Frequency (hits)	Normalised values
budżet	260,756	0.01710%
premier	198,615	0.01302%
komputer	134,900	0.00884%
lider	134,237	0.00880%
partner	97,467	0.00639%
sponsor	81,640	0.00535%
e-mail	64,371	0.00422%
biznes	61,139	0.00400%
marketing	38,966	0.00255%
menedżer	33,120	0.00217%
blog(ger)	30.081	0.00197%
biznesmen	29,770	0.00195%
monitor	20,474	0.00134%
monitoring	18.686	0.00122%
holding	11,994	0.00078%
business	9,155	0.00060%
czat	8,649	0.00056%
leasing	7,868	0.00051%
computer	5,986	0.00039%
broker	5,587	0.00036%

Table 4: A breakdown of the most frequent anglicisms in the NKJP corpus

Anglicisms in MoncoPL	Frequency (hits)	Normalised values

premier	2,847,132	0.03380%
budżet	1,501,718	0.01781%
lider	1,278,042	0.01517%
partner	1,114,385	0.01323%
biznes	1,060,091	0.01258%
e-mail	861,111	0.01021%
marketing	610,890	0.00725%
komputer	536,957	0.00637%
business	330,608	0.00392%
monitoring	268,197	0.00318%
sponsor	205,461	0.00243%
blog(ger)	193,707	0.00230%
biznesmen	161,459	0.00191%
menedżer	155,334	0.00184%
software	134,612	0.00159%
holding	107,665	0.00127%
design	100,041	0.00118%
monitor	88,991	0.00105%
manager	80,420	0.00095%
korporacyjny	75,368	0.00089%
broker	55,545	0.00065%
leasing	53,034	0.00062%

Table 5: A breakdown of the most frequent anglicisms in the MoncoPL corpus

From a first analysis it emerged that in the Polish language there is a much higher tendency to adapt the spelling of English loans compared to Italian, which appears to be linked directly to the English pronounciation of the term in question. Given the fact that Polish is a heavily inflectional language, the search engines were used in a way to also take into consideration the variations of number, gender, case, and to include words which change class due to affixation. This operation was performed for all queries in order to take into account all the available occurrences of a given term.

For example, during the analysis of anglicisms related to the field of economics, it turned out that the term "*business*" appears in 9,155 entries in the NKJP corpus, while its adapted variant "*biznes*" comes up almost seven times more with 61,139 results. A closer analysis of collocations brings up several different considerations. In its original spelling, the word "business" only changes by sometimes taking on case-related suffixes (e.g. "*businessu*", "*businessem*"; Fig. 4), and tends to occur in compounds with other English words, like "*businessman*", "*businesswoman*", "*show-business*" or "*business class*". The adapted Polish equivalent "*biznes*", on the other hand, is much more prone to acquiring case suffixes (such as "*-u*", "*-owi*", "*-om*", "*-em*" etc.; Fig. 5) and sometimes appears with a prefix (e.g. "*narkobiznes*", referring to illegal drug dealing, or "*seksbiznes*", indicating prostitution). It also extends the graphic adaptation to the additional words, creating terms like "*biznesmen*" or "*bizneswomen*", used as singluar nouns in Polish despite "*men*" and "*women*" being plural nouns in English.
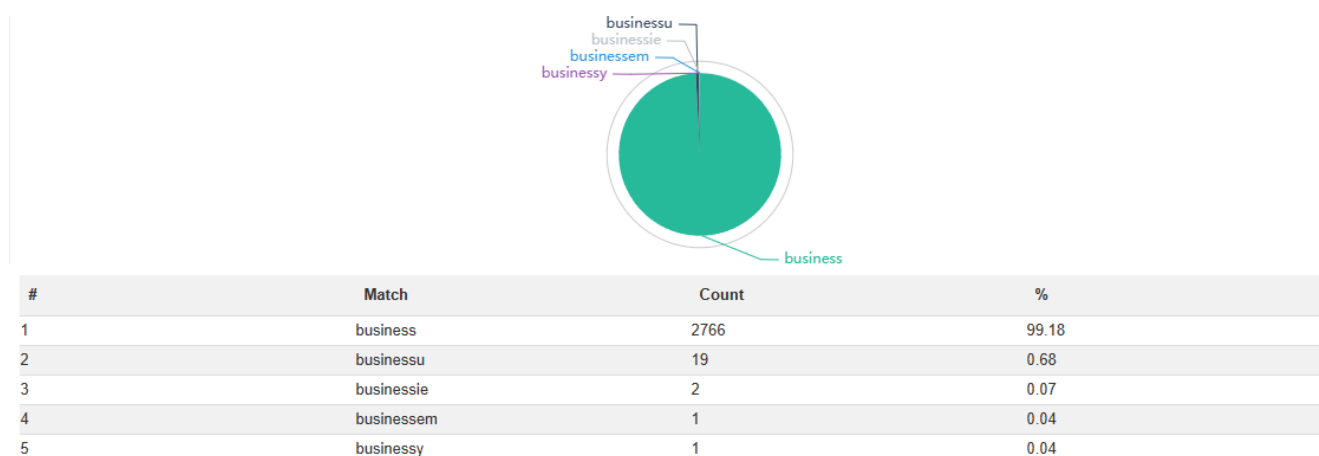

#	Match	Count	%
1	business	2766	99.18
2	businessu	19	0.68
3	businessie	2	0.07
4	businessem	1	0.04
5	businessy	1	0.04

Fig. 4: Most frequent variants of "*business*" per 10.000 hits according to MoncoPL

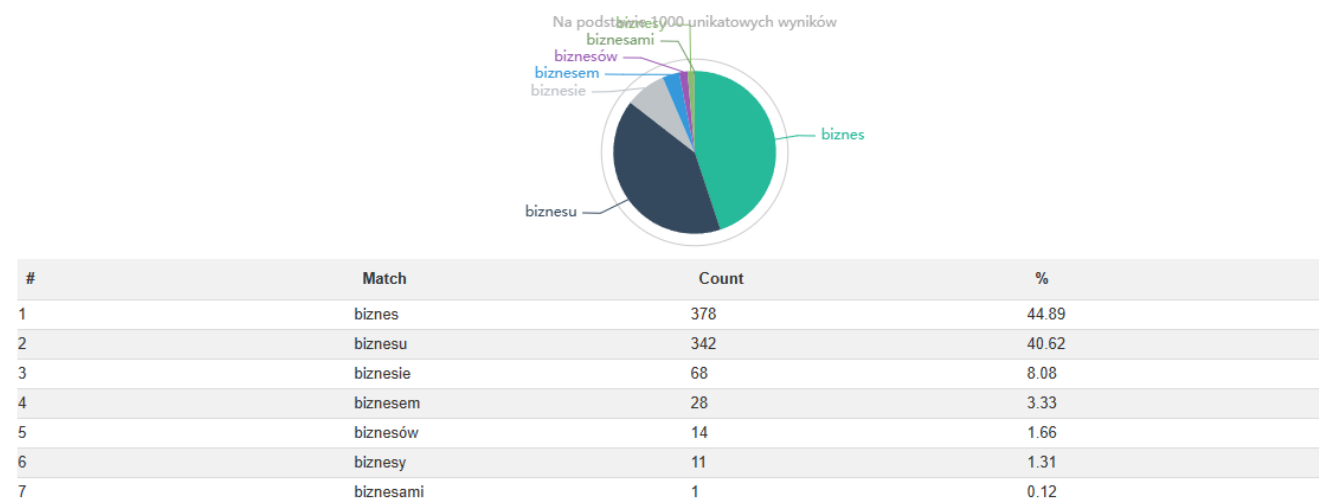| #	Match	Count	%
1	biznes	378	44.89
2	biznesu	342	40.62
3	biznesie	68	8.08
4	biznesem	28	3.33
5	biznesów	14	1.66
6	biznesy	11	1.31
7	biznesami	1	0.12

Fig. 5: Most frequent variants of "*biznes*" per 1.000 hits according to MoncoPL

A similar phenomenon regards the word "*leader*", which only appears in 2,658 entries in NKJP (including "*leadership*"), while its adapted version "*lider*" comes up 50 times more, with 134,237 hits, seldom together with a prefix (Fig. 6), like "*wicelider*" (eng. "*vice leader*") or "*współlider*" (eng. "*co-leader*"). These terms are commonly found in the fields of economics and politics, but also within sports and music as well.

490.	W grupie XI wrocławskiej B klasy świetnie gra teraz	wicelider	, drużyna z Brochowa, ale Wulkan ma 9 pkt.	Słowo Polskie Gazet...
491.	W sobotę w meczu na szczycie spotkały się obrońca tytułu i	wicelider	Ronal z prowadzącym w tabeli ZRB Mazur. Stary mistrz prowadził	Słowo Polskie Gazet...
492.	iespodziewanie stracił punkty	wicelider	klasy okręgowej, drużyna MKS -u 1985 Szczawno-Zdrój. Piłkarze z	Słowo Polskie Gazet...
493.	Gdy tylko wybucha konflikt między rządem a opozycją, prezes PSL,	współlider	obozu rządowego, odgrywa rolę przywódcy narodowej opozycji,	Gazeta Wyborcza
494.	czy sukcesy komercyjne. Przekonał się o tym Mick Jones,	współlider	legendarnej formacji The Clash. Wystąpił wraz z zespołem BAD II	Gazeta Wyborcza
495.		Współlider	Platformy zapowiedział też, że chce się spotkać po koleżeńsku z	Dziennik Zachodni
496.	możemy zrobić – powiedział „Trybunie Śląskiej" Łukasz Golec,	współlider	uOrkiestry.	Trybuna Śląska
497.	W kwalifikacjach nie wzięli udziału Słoweniec Robert Kranjec (	współlider	klasyfikacji generalnej z Ahonenem po dwóch konkursach w	Polska Głos Wielkop...
498.	Pianista i	współlider	Michael Jefry Stevens pierwsze CD nagrał w 1991 roku jako	Polska Głos Wielkop...

Fig. 6: A sample of collocations containing "*lider*" with affixes in NKJP (PELCRA)

The highest ranking anglicism in NKJP is "*budżet*", an adapted equivalent of the English term "*budget*". Another example is "*manager*" recurring 6,352 times in NKJP, a relatively small number compared to its much more broadly used, graphically adapted version "*menedżer*" with 33,120 hits. It can also be found less frequently adapted as "*menadżer*" (4,390 hits in NKJP), used predominantly in informal contexts, such as online interactions and posts. Other anglicisms used mainly in their adapted forms are "*czat*", from the English "*chat*", and the term "*komputer*", among the most frequent ones, a slight and obvious adaptation of the English "*computer*".

It emerges that graphic adaptation mainly concerns those terms, which might lead a Polish speaker to pronounce them wrong due to their original English spelling. The Polish language thus aims to make reading anglicisms easier for its native speakers, who tended to have little knowledge of Anglo-Saxon phonetic practices and risked not to be fully understood in the context of the object of communication (Przepiórkowski, 2004).

On the other hand, the anglicisms with a spelling easier to pronounce with Polish phonetics are used in their original form, especially the ones ending with –*ing*, such as "*marketing*", "*holding*" or

"*monitoring*". However, this occurrence finds a less frequent application when analysing some of the more recent terms that, despite their particular English spelling, tend to mostly stay in their original form, despite also having an adapted version. For example, "*leasing*" is much more frequent that "*lizing*" (52 hits in NKJP, 116 hits in MoncoPL); "*design*" is used much more often than "*dizajn*" (234 hits in NKJP, 6963 in MoncoPL); "*e-mail*" appears more often than "*mejl*" (1,885 hits in NKJP, 5,835 in MoncoPL).

The most frequent anglicisms found in the Polish corpora are mostly similar to those found in Italian corpora, given the focus on the three fields mentioned before. Among those more commonly found in the Polish language are "*holding*", a synonym of the English "*corporation*"; "*broker*", in marketing describing a trade intermediary; "*monitoring*", referring to the security system relying on cameras; and "*monitor*", in Polish used both to describe a computer screen and an institutional journal.

From the analysis of the corpora another phenomenon emerged regarding the use and adaptation of anglicisms in the Polish language. The affixation of English loans does not only come from declination of the words to the cases present in Polish, but also from the process of derivation, which tends to change the word's class, but normally maintains its semantic meaning. For example, the noun "*monitoring*" is also used as a verb by replacing the English suffix "*-ing*" with the Polish suffix "*-ować*", characteristic of infinitive verbs, creating therefore "*monitorować*", which means "to watch over". Obtained in a similar manner is the word "*sponsorować*", meaning "to sponsorize".

The graphically adapted noun "*komputer*" turns into an adjective when joined with the suffix "*-owy*", "*-owa*", or "*-owe*", depending on the gender and number of the following noun, for example "*gry komputerowe*", meaning "videogames". Another example is the adapted noun "*mejl*" (from the English "*mail*") turning into the adjective in a noun phrase like "*adres mejlowy*", meaning "e-mail address".

It is possible to conclude that the Polish language tends to adapt the English loans much more than Italian does. The anglicisms appearing predominantly in their adapted forms are also used with their original spelling, but much less frequently, and are found mostly in quotes, titles and English names.

Moreover, when used in institutional texts, books, newspapers, literature and formal articles, anglicisms in Polish normally keep their original English spelling. Conversely, they tend to become graphically adapted to the Polish spelling based on their English pronounciation when used in less formal contexts, online articles, forums and chats.

3.3 Comparison

After having discussed the results of this study on anglicisms in Italian and Polish, especially relating to the fields of politics, marketing, economics and technology, a brief comparison will be drawn of the phenomena of acquisition of anglicisms in both languages.

The first difference that can be noted between the two languages with regard to the anglicisms used in them is the fact that, considering the same English loans as used in both languages, Polish shows a stronger tendency to adapt loanwords than Italian, even if only graphically.

Such practice has now almost disappeared in the Italian language, even though some traditional anglicisms maintain phonetic and graphic adaptations. The ones recently introduced into Italian hardly ever undergo any graphic or morphological adaptation, as has been explained previously.

The Polish language, on the other hand, shows a tendency to modify the spelling of words coming from different languages to facilitate their use by Polish speakers, which possibly also demonstrates a lesser familiarity of the Polish population with the English language in the past years (Mańczak-Wohlfeld, 2004). A further example of this phenomenon could be the adaptation of the spelling of the English words "*football*" into "*futbol*" and "*hockey*" into "*hokej*", or "*smartphone*" into "*smartfon*".

Another difference is that Polish not only tends to adapt anglicisms more than Italian, but also very frequently modifies them by means of affixation. This is due to the fact that the Polish language relies on morphology for creating plural forms and compounds, as well as for the declension of words into its seven different cases, forcing their respective suffixes on the English loans.

The Italian language bypasses this phenomenon by relying on the use of prepositions and articles, thus avoiding changing of the word class of anglicisms and normally using them in their original, base form. For example, the English plural noun "*businesses*" becomes "*biznesy*" in Polish and "*i business*" in Italian.

Thanks to the corpus-based approach, it was also possible to notice that many lexical elements coming from the English language brought along a series of other anglicisms that complete their meaning in the form of fixed expressions or collocations. This phenomenon seems to happen much less frequently in Polish.

In spite of their significantly different usage in Polish and Italian, the corpus-based study has demonstrated that these two languages share a great deal of anglicisms. While there is no shortage of English loanwords coming from various semantic areas, according to the analysis reported in this study their predominance takes place in the economic, political and technological spheres.

It is also important to point out that a large number of foreign entries, especially from Romance languages, have also come into use in Polish thanks to the mediation of the English language itself. Often

these are terms that have seen their original meaning modified, while maintaining the morphological root very similar.

An example of this phenomenon is the Polish term "*adwokat*", meaning "lawyer", from the English word *advocate*, which in turn means "supporter". Another one could be "*benefis*", which indicates economic income (Klemensiewicz, 2007).

Anyway, the analysis also shows that, despite anglicisms appearing with high frequencies in both the Italian and the Polish corpora, they make up only a very small portion of the latter considering their remarkable sizes. In fact, the sum of the anglicisms taken into consideration roughly makes up only 0.1% of the total number of tokens per corpus, as shown by the normalised values.

A main difference remains and is the fact that, in Polish, the habit of graphically adapting English terms still exists to make them more readable and easier to use for those who do not have full command of written English.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the analysis of corpora of Italian and Polish revealed that the acquisition of anglicisms in the Italian language has been a slightly easier and quicker process than in Polish, but also significantly less "creative" in terms of graphic adaptation and morphological variety.

However, both languages share many similar English loans pertaining to the fields of economics (including marketing), politics and technology, and it is evident that the previously mentioned difference is becoming progressively less marked over time, as digital technologies make all people interconnected despite the physical distance.

Following the analysis of the anglicisms found in the corpora, among the most recurrent and important loanwords in Italian are "*manager*", "*business*" and "*partner*" in economics, "*spot*" and "*slogan*", "*sponsor*" and "*marketing*" among those more specific to the field of marketing, "*leader*" and "*premier*" in politics, and "*computer*", "*web*" and "*blog*" in technology.

On the other hand, some of the most recurrent anglicisms in Polish appear to be similar to the Italian ones, albeit including many adaptations: "*biznes*", "*menedżer*", "*partner*" and "*holding*" in the field of economics; "*marketing*", "*sponsor*" and "*design*" among the terms more specific to the area of marketing; "*lider*", "*premier*" and "*budżet*" in the politics area; "*e-mail*", "*komputer*" and "*blog*(*ger*)" regarding technology.

The interferences at a linguistic level and, above all, at a lexical one have increased exponentially thanks to the communication that has been brought about by the introduction of the Internet. Rapid exchanges allow a greater inflow of English terms which are used more and more in their original form, without undergoing changes in spelling and phonetics that were typical in the traditional acquisition of anglicisms. In the Italian language, over 70% of the 8,468 anglicisms recorded in the GRADIT 2007 dictionary are not adapted (Ferrari, 2017).

Also, in Polish a tendency has been noticed to acquire anglicisms and use them regularly in daily communication, which has awakened the concerns of some language purists. There are scholars who judge the dominance of English in some fields as a detriment to the Polish language, and thus tend to discourage its use in science and technology (Dubisz, 2012).

The predominance of anglicisms in different sectors is sometimes seen as an attack on the Polish language, carrying with it the risk of disappearance. Others, on the other hand, consider the use and adoption of anglicisms as an enriching phenomenon (Chłopicki, 2005).

This occurrence is equally marked in the Italian language. In Italy the common use of anglicisms does not stop at the level of daily communication among the population or at the sectoral languages, such as marketing and technology, but has even affected the official language of politics and legistlation (Cortelazzo, 2016).

In both Italian and Polish a particular increase in number of anglicisms has taken place due to the recent development of new digital technologies and the growing cultural, economic and political influence of the USA. In fact, there are many anglicisms in common between these two languages.

This trend would have not been so evident in Poland during the Cold War, between the '60s and the '80s. However, once the period of cooling of international relations ended, the renewed cultural and commercial relationships began to bring the Anglo-Saxon influence also to the Polish population (Widłak, 2006).

In the last century, there used to be a greater and more evident inclination towards adapting anglicisms, mainly in Polish, in order to bring them closer to the reader who did not have the mastery of the English language, the study of which also used to be much less widespread. While English started to be introduced into schools in 1989, it is only since 2009 that English has been compulsory for children to learn from the first grade of primary school (Seratowicz, 2023).

In regard to linguistic influence and to the introduction of anglicisms into a foreign language, it appears that geographical proximity is, in this case, a factor of essentially no relevance. In fact, linguistic contact now happens mainly by means of communication, from the press and the radio to the Internet.

It can be claimed that Italian and Polish have historically had two different experiences in the acquisition of anglicisms, due to the diverse histories and relations between the two countries, the English language and the United States, in particular. However, nowadays the attitude of these populations towards English terms is becoming considerably closer, with a consequent increase in the number of anglicisms present in the two languages.

In conclusion, it appears that Italian is generally more permeable to the influence of the English language than Polish, although the latter is also showing an increasing openness towards the introduction of non-adapted loans into its daily communication and in various semantic fields.

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Summary in Italian

Questa tesi mira ad esplorare l'espansione e l'uso della lingua inglese come lingua franca, soprattutto negli ambiti dell'economia e del marketing, e in particolare ad analizzare e confrontare il conseguente uso di anglicismi nell'Italiano e nel Polacco. Questi settori sono caratterizzati da una forte influenza della lingua inglese in seguito alla globalizzazione della comunicazione e del commercio e all'affermazione degli Stati Uniti come una delle maggiori potenze economiche nel mondo.

Oggi sembra che l'inglese sia considerato la lingua franca della comunicazione globale, e viene ampiamente usato nelle aree dell'economia, della politica, della tecnologia e del turismo. Inoltre, molti parlanti non nativi sfruttano l'inglese come un modo per comunicare a livello internazionale a prescindere dalla propria lingua madre. La lingua inglese viene spesso usata anche dalle aziende nel marketing di prodotti e servizi come un'efficace strategia per apparire più prestigiosi, carismatici e di lusso, ma anche per dare un senso di qualità e innovazione al proprio messaggio in modo da attrarre più clienti.

Il mondo odierno è globalizzato, perciò la presenza di una lingua franca come strumento semplice per agevolare la comunicazione internazionale risulta quasi obbligatoria, anche per evitare di dipendere da un complicato e costoso sistema di traduzione e interpretazione.

La scelta della lingua inglese deriva da diversi fattori storici, politici ed economici a partire dal periodo coloniale, dalle migrazioni di massa degli europei verso le Americhe e dall'espansione dell'influenza culturale britannica e statunitense in tutto il mondo in seguito alla seconda guerra mondiale.

Il ricercatore sociolinguistico Braj B. Kachru interpreta questa espansione secondo uno schema di tre cerchi concentrici che descrivono diversi tipi di inglese nel mondo attuale. Il primo "cerchio interno" comprende i paesi dove l'inglese è la lingua nativa e primaria della maggioranza della popolazione, il secondo "cerchio esterno" include i paesi aventi l'inglese come la seconda lingua ufficiale, tra cui molte ex colonie britanniche, mentre l'ultimo "cerchio in espansione" comprende le aree del mondo in cui l'inglese viene insegnato come prima lingua straniera e usato per la comunicazione internazionale.

Tuttavia, le norme linguistiche dell'inglese usato dai madrelingua non sempre coincidono con quelle dell'inglese come lingua franca, spesso influenzato dalla lingua madre e dalla cultura di provenienza dei parlanti non nativi, portando ad una certa creatività linguistica. Inoltre, essi spesso preferiscono la semplicità pratica del messaggio e la comprensione reciproca alla correttezza grammaticale. Questo fenomeno riguarda anche l'inglese come lingua franca usato nel marketing, il quale risulta più semplice, chiaro e creativo, in modo da promuovere un prodotto o un servizio ai potenziali clienti.

Infatti, il *Business English as a Lingua Franca* (BELF) è una delle varianti settoriali dell'inglese usato come lingua franca, in particolare quando si tratta di temi che riguardano il commercio. In questo tipo di lingua inglese la regole grammaticali vengono spesso trascurate, puntando ad una comunicazione più semplice e facile da capire possibile, che ha lo scopo di raggiungere gli obiettivi commerciali in maniera creativa. Pur essendo influenzato dalle regole della lingua e della cultura di provenienza dei parlanti, il BELF cerca di rappresentare un codice neutrale a prescindere dallo sfondo culturale. La comunicazione potrebbe comunque essere compromessa dalle associazioni stereotipate o da un'eccessiva influenza della lingua madre sul BELF, portando a situazioni che potrebbero essere viste come mancanze di rispetto.

Il successo della comunicazione dipende anche dal livello di conoscenza della lingua inglese da parte dei parlanti, la quale tende ad essere fortemente influenzata dalla lingua d'origine, quando usata soltanto nel contesto lavorativo.

L'uso della lingua inglese settorale richiede un insieme di competenze linguistiche per essere accessibile. Prima di tutto, bisogna però conoscere il settore stesso.

Marketing è una parte dell'economia, che si occupa dell'identificazione dei bisogni nel mercato e di seguito della soddisfazione di questi bisogni nel miglior modo possibile. Le aziende si avvalgono di esso per attrarre una vasta clientela fedele al proprio marchio e per raggiungere gli obiettivi aziendali.

Uno degli strumenti di marketing più sfruttati è la pubblicità. L'inglese viene spesso usata in questo ambito per raggiungere il pubblico più vasto possibile. Quello utilizzato dalle aziende e destinato ad un pubblico di parlanti non nativi è lontano dalla lingua inglese standard. Si tratta di una variante semplificata, che favorisce un'esclusivo uso di espressioni positive e oggettive, spesso includendo parole e strutture della lingua locale, capace di rendere il messaggio più comprensibile ed efficace nel convincere il potenziale cliente all'acquisto. Questo processo è agevolato dalla ricchezza del vocabolario inglese.

Dunque, tutti gli esperti di marketing devono avere la piena conoscenza e padronanza dell'inglese scritto per produrre testi coerenti e concisi. In seconda posizione si trovano le competenze linguistiche orali. E' necessario possedere anche ottima comprensione delle intenzioni comunicative degli interlocutori.

Il processo di acquisizione delle lingue straniere porta alla sovrapposizione dei codici, creando di un'interferenza linguistica. Si tratta di una distorsione delle regole della grammatica, del vocabolario e della sintassi di cui il parlante spesso non si rende conto. Questo avviene in seguito all'applicazione delle competenze già acquisite alla nuova lingua straniera, cercando di semplificare il processo di apprendimento.

Tale fenomeno è particolarmente rilevante nel caso della lingua inglese, la cui presenza nei settori dell'economia globale, della politica e della tecnologia ci espone ad essa quotidianamente, attivando il fenomeno dell'anglicizzazione della lingua, l'uso sia delle strutture morfosintattiche che dei vocaboli inglesi in altre lingue.

Il trasferimento di un elemento da una lingua ad un'altra può essere positivo, quando esso facilita l'apprendimento e l'uso della lingua di destinazione, o negativo, quando invece porta a compiere errori in quest'ultima. Più le due lingue appaiono come simili, più l'allievo tenderà a trasporre le regole di una all'altra.

Un'interferenza linguistica forte e protratta nel tempo potrebbe causare effetti che vanno da una vera trasformazione sintattica e l'inserimento di elementi lessicali stranieri alla totale sostituzione. Tuttavia, la condizione perché l'interferenza avvenga è che il parlante padroneggi almeno una delle due lingue in questione.

In Polacco e in Italiano questo fenomeno è presente prettamente sotto forma di anglicismi, ovvero prestiti lessicali dall'inglese, che diventano sempre più comuni soprattutto grazie allo sviluppo tecnologico degli ultimi anni, come l'Internet e tante diverse forme dei media. I prestiti inglesi che si sono integrati in queste due lingue negli anni passati sono stati, almeno parzialmente, adattati in modo da conformarsi alle loro regole fonetiche e morfologiche. Gli anglicismi più recenti, invece, vengono prevalentemente usati nella loro forma originale. Questo potrebbe derivare dal fatto che nel passato la lingua inglese non veniva insegnata nelle scuole come lingua straniera d'obbligo, come invece avviene oggi. La presenza dei prestiti è un fenomeno positivo, in quanto arricchisce ed espande il vocabolario di una lingua, ma ha anche degli aspetti negativi. Essi infatti potrebbero rendere difficile la comunicazione per chi non ha delle buone conoscenze della lingua straniera, e potrebbero anche sostituire delle parole nella lingua di arrivo.

Per verificare la presenza degli anglicismi e analizzarne l'uso nel polacco e nell'italiano, sono stati analizzati alcuni corpora linguistici, tra cui CORIS (Corpus di Italiano Scritto Contemporaneo), LaRepubblica e PAISÀ per la lingua italiana, e NKJP e MoncoPL per la lingua polacca. Questi corpus sono di dimensioni notevoli e composti da una larga varietà di testi, sia formali che informali.

Innanzitutto sono stati individuati degli anglicismi pertinenti alle aree dell'economia, del marketing, della politica e della tecnologia nei testi di riferimento e nei corpora stessi. Di seguito essi sono stati ritrovati nei corpora con l'uso dei motori di ricerca per individuarne le quantità e studiarne l'uso tramite una dettagliata analisi delle collocazioni e delle concordanze.

Dalla ricerca risulta che tra gli anglicismi più frequenti in italiano abbiamo "manager", "business" e "partner" nel settore dell'economia; "spot", "slogan", "sponsor" e "marketing" nell'ambito del marketing; "leader" e "premier" nella politica; "web" e "blog" nel settore tecnologico. Succede spesso che alcuni anglicismi, integrandosi nell'italiano, hanno portato con sé altri termini inglesi che ne completano il significato sotto forma di espressioni fisse, per esempio "product manager" e "account manager". Inoltre, i prestiti inglesi nell'italiano tendono a rimanere nella loro forma originale, senza adattamenti morfologici o fonetici e senza cambiare la propria classe lessicale.

Nel polacco, invece, tra gli anglicismi più ricorrenti in polacco abbiamo "biznes", "menedżer", "partner" e "holding" dell'ambito dell'economia; "marketing", "sponsor" e "design" nel marketing; "lider", "premier" and "budżet" nel campo della politica; "e-mail", "komputer" e "blog(ger)" nell'area tecnologica. La lingua polacca mostra una tendenza ad adattare la grafia degli anglicismi alle proprie regole fonologiche in base alla loro originale pronuncia inglese, in modo da facilitarne l'uso da parte di parlanti polacchi. Questo adattamento rende gli anglicismi nel polacco soggetti a frequenti modifiche morfologiche, essendo una lingua molto flessiva. Esse consistono nella maggior parte dei casi nell'affissione, ovvero alla presenza di prefissi e suffissi, con i quali si declinano gli anglicismi nei sette casi del polacco (per esempio, "menedżer" diventa "menedżerowi", "menedżerom" etc.). Altri sono capaci di cambiare la loro classe lessicale (per esempio, il sostantivo "komputer" può diventare così l'aggettivo "komputerowy") oppure cambiarne il significato (per esempio, "narkobiznes" da "biznes" o "współlider" da "lider").

Dal confronto emerge che l'italiano e il polacco condividono molti anglicisimi riguardanti i settori già menzionati. Inoltre, considerando le grandi dimensioni dei corpora di entrambe le lingue, risulta che gli anglicismi, nonostante le alte frequenze, ne compongono solo una piccola parte. Infatti, la somma delle percentuali di tutti gli anglicismi presi in considerazione costituisce appena 0.1% nei rispettivi corpora. Le principali differenze riguardano l'adattamento dei prestiti inglesi, il quale è molto frequente in polacco e pressoché assente in italiano. Inoltre, nel polacco gli anglicismi subiscono spesso delle modifiche morfologiche che tendono a cambiare la loro classe lessicale, mentre l'italiano si avvale delle preposizioni e usa gli anglicismi nella loro forma originale.

L'italiano e il polacco hanno avuto storicamente diverse esperienze nell'acquisizione dei prestiti dall'inglese, date le loro diverse relazioni con la lingua inglese stessa e con gli Stati Uniti. In conclusione, appare che l'italiano sia generalmente più permeabile all'influenza dell'inglese rispetto al polacco, anche se quest'ultimo dimostra una maggiore apertura all'introduzione di prestiti non adattati nella comunicazione quotidiana e in diversi campi semantici.