'Etymythological othering' and the power of 'lexical engineering' in Judaism, Islam and Christianity A socio-philo(sopho)logical perspective

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> El original es infiel a la traducción 'The original is unfaithful to the translation' (Borges 1943, cf. 1974; 732)

1. Introduction

This chapter casts light on cross-religious interactions at the micro-level of lexis. It focuses on mechanisms of 'etymythology' (popular/folk-/synchronic etymology) and 'lexical engineering', especially within Jewish, Christian and Muslim groups. Lexical engineering reflects religious and cultural interactions and often manifests the attempt of a religion to preserve its identity when confronted with an overpowering alien environment, without segregating itself from possible influences. The result can be contempt, as in the case of rejective phono-semantic matching. But lexical engineering is not always rejective: it can also lead to a kind of 'cultural flirting', as in the case of receptive or adoptive phono-semantic matching. Thus, lexical engineering gives us a valuable window onto the broader question of how language may be used as a major tool for religions and cultures to maintain or form their identity.¹

I came to the topic of language and religion as a linguist who has been especially interested in language contact and historical 'camouflage linguistics', the study of the various forms of hidden influence of one language on another (cf. Zuckermann 2000, 2003). In particular, I have been dealing extensively with Jewish languages: Israeli (a.k.a. somewhat misleadingly 'Modern Hebrew'), as well as Yiddish and Biblical, Rabbinic, Medieval and Maskilic Hebrew, which contributed to the early development of Israeli in *fin de siècle Eretz Yisrael* ('Land of Israeli'; cf. Zuckermann 2003, 2005). The Jewish experience in Europe over the past millennium has been one of

cultural survivalism and isolation alternating with integration. I do not enter into a sociological discussion of the vicissitudes of this experience presently; it has been amply treated elsewhere.

In the course of my linguistic studies of Jewish languages, I have found numerous traces of this experience in a multitude of coinages in Hebrew, as well as Yiddish. These coinages were typically made by the most learned groups within Jewish society, that is to say those with the greatest exposure both to the ancient texts and those individuals with perhaps the strongest sense of cultural responsibility for how to guide their people over the perilous waters of the Diaspora.

My observation of this linguistic phenomenon within Judaism lead me, in turn, to speculate on how it might be manifested in other groups as well – for instance, Muslim and Christian, but also more recently emergent groups whose sense of shared identity and recognition by external society is not yet secure, such as the 'Black Jews'.

In my view, a micro-analysis of a specific phenomenon, such as lexical engineering, can tell us about the whole sociological picture. *Maxima in minimis*. I believe that – as in a hologram, where the whole picture can be seen in each constituent element – individual word biographies contain micro-representations of the broader socio-cultural dynamics. Such a 'holographic' model of information distribution – cf. Sacks' 'order at all points' view (1992) – 'understands order not to be present only at aggregate levels and therefore subject to an overall differential distribution, but to be present in detail on a case by case, environment by environment basis. A culture is not then to be found only by aggregating all of its venues, it is substantially present in each of its venues' (Schegloff 1992: xlvi).

This chapter does not pretend to provide the reader with exact details of the identity of the lexical engineers, how many people knew about their coinages and the nature and extent of their sociological influence. Rather, I intend to introduce the phenomena of lexical engineering and etymythological othering from a sociolinguistic and theo-philological point of view, keeping in mind the cultural context of the coinage. I would invite colleagues in the field of the sociology of religion to consider further potential implications of this phenomenon for their own studies.

2. Rejective lexical engineering

The apparent identity of what appear to be cultural units – human beings, words, meanings, ideas, philosophical systems, social organizations – are maintained only through constitutive repression, an active process of exclusion, opposition, and hierarchization. A phenomenon maintains its identity in semiotic systems only if other units are represented as foreign or 'other' through a hierarchical dualism in which the first is 'privileged' or favored while the other is deprivileged or devalued in some way. (Cahoone 2003: 11)

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Consider the following expressions, found in early, uncensored copies of the Babylonian Talmud, Sabbath Tractate, 116a:

- 1. און גליון lawen gilyon 'evil revelation-book'
- 2. עוון גליון śawōn gilyōn 'sin revelation-book'
- 3. אבן גליון י*e<u>b</u>en gilyōn* 'stone revelation-book'

These terms all refer to the gospels and are adaptations of Greek εὐαγγέλιον euangélion (> Latin euangelium) 'gospel', lit. 'glad tidings, good news; reward of good tidings, given to the messenger', from eû 'good' + ángelos 'messenger, envoy'.) Only later did ángelos come to refer to 'divine messenger, angel', as in the diametric opposite – note the positive connotation and the direction of the etymythology – Non angli sed angeli, si forent Christiani 'Not Angles but angels, if they were Christian', attributed to Gregory the Great, when he was shown English children reduced to slavery in Rome in 573 AD – cf. German englisch, currently 'English', originally 'angelic'.)

(Biblical) Hebrew גליון גליון גליון גליון agilyōn/gillåyōn, which I translate as 'revelation-book', generally refers to 'blank parchment, the margin of scrolls', 'writing tablet' (cf. Syriac גליונא gelayona 'volume'). However, the etymon of גליון is the root גליו (cf. אליונא is the root גליון is a good nativizer of euangélion since the latter was associated with Apocalypse (the revelation), cf. Latin apocalypsis and Greek ἀποκάλυψις apokálupsis, the latter being a noun of action from ἀποκαλύπτειν, the meaning of which is exactly the same 'to uncover, disclose' (< ἀπό 'off' + καλύπτειν 'to cover').

Note the structural compromise in the expressions above. For example, און גליון ג'מֿשׁנּח gilyōn literally means 'evil of book' rather than 'book of evil'. Switching places between the nomen rectum and the nomen regens – resulting in גליון און "śgilyōn ʔåwɛn 'book of evil' – would have been much better semantically but not nearly as good phonetically. A similar 'poetic licence' occurs in Maskilic Hebrew péeyr ámud (pronounced in Polish Ashkenazic Hebrew péayr ámid), lit. 'glory of pillar', an adaptation of European pyramid. עמוד פאר אל 'amud péeyr, lit. 'pillar of glory', would have been much better semantically. '2

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preserves both the meaning and the approximate sound of the parallel expression in the Source Language (SL), using pre-existent Target Language (TL) lexical items or roots. The following figure is a general illustration of this process:

$$SL\ x\ `a'\ \rightarrow\ \rightarrow\ \rightarrow\ \rightarrow\ \rightarrow\ TL_{(+PSM)}\ y'\ `a''\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ \leftarrow\ TL\ y\ `b'$$

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More specifically, אבן גליון lawen gilyōn, עוון גליון sawōn gilyōn and אבן גליון sawōn gilyōn – as opposed to פאר עמוד péeyr ámud – are what I call rejective PSMs. I define rejective PSM as politically incorrect PSM; a subversive PSM – produced by members of one religion or national group – which undermines or attacks those of another group, in some cases used for propaganda purposes.

2.1 Anti-Christian rejective PSMs concocted by Jews

Yiddish טום tum 'cathedral' (cf. Middle High German tuom, Modern German Dom 'dome') was transposed into the following:

- Medieval Hebrew תהום təhōm, lit. 'abyss' (documented with the meaning 'cathedral' in the late thirteenth century)
- Yiddish טמאה túmə, lit. 'abomination' (cf. Hebrew טמאה tum²å 'abomination')
- Medieval Hebrew טמיון יומין timyōn, lit. 'oblivion' (cf. Rabbinic Hebrew יצא לטמיון 'was lost completely, was gone for good', Medieval Hebrew 'id.') (documented in Mainz, 1150)

Latin (dies) natalis (cf. Italian Natale, Dialectal Italian nedal) 'Christmas (Day)' (lit. 'birthday') was nativised as the following:

Medieval Hebrew ותלה חולונ ווווי חולונ, lit. '(being) hanged', present form of (Biblical) Hebrew ומלה ווווי חולונ 'was hanged'. Hebrew מחלה חולונ 'Christmas' is documented in the writings of Ephraim ben Isaac of Regensburg from the twelfth century and is sometimes written as ניתל (see Lewinsky 1975: 446a, Wexler 1993: 69). There are two possibilities: (1) this PSM simply uses 'hanged' to refer to 'crucified' – cf. Ottoman Turkish: 'Execution is often called Salb. Though literally meaning "crucifying" in the Ottoman kanun salb seems to be mostly synonymous with asmak "hanging" (Heyd 1973: 260); (2) this PSM implies that there was a Jewish tradition according to which Jesus was literally hanged, as distinct from crucified; compare this with some medieval traditions

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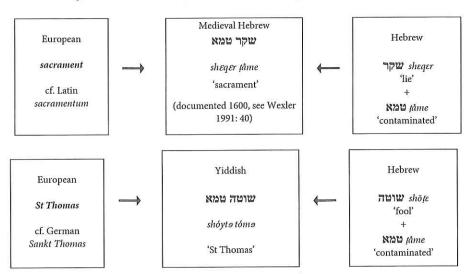
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holding that Haman (the chief minister of Ahasuerus, as stated in the Book of Esther) was not hanged (on the gallows prepared for Mordecai) but rather was crucified.

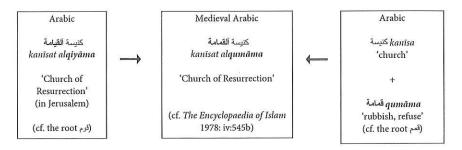
Medieval Hebrew ניטל niṭṭāl, lit. 'taken' (cf. Biblical Hebrew מא taken'), indicating that Jesus was taken from Judaism, see also חג חניטל hag hanniṭṭāl, lit. 'a holiday of the taken' or 'a holiday which was taken' (cf. Wexler 1990: 60). Modern Hebrew ניטל niṭel referring to 'Christmas Day' was used by Agnon (1962: 70). Even-Shoshan (1997: 1150c) and Klein (1987: 414c) claim that the etymon is Latin natalis (i.e. ניטל is a mere loanword from Latin). They ignore the co-influence of Hebrew ניטל niṭṭāl 'taken' or of Yiddish ינטל niṭṭāl 'taken' or of Yiddish יונאל itself a PSM of Hebrew אוֹנָם חוֹנְלַמּלֹי niṭṭāl 'taken', as well as Latin natalis. Supporting the hybridizational view is the existence of [i] between the [n] and the [t], cf. the possible [i] insertion in Hebrew אוֹנים ווֹנוֹל polin 'Poland' (see below).

The following are other anti-Christian PSMs devised by Jews:



It is worth noting that such forms of 'travesty' are not limited to cross-lingual creations. Consider the following intra-lingual cases of lexical engineering. Medieval Hebrew הפלח בית תפלח bet tiplå, lit. 'house of tastelessness' (cf. Biblical Hebrew לנגלום 'tastelessness', Yiddish tiflə), refers to 'church' (documented 1382, Wexler 1991:39-40; cf. Even-Shoshan 1997:1961b). בית תפלח bet tiplå is modelled upon Hebrew בית תפלח bet təpillå 'house of prayer'. One might say that the result was a minimal pair: bet tiplå 'church' (negative, non-Jewish) and בית תפלח bet təpillå 'house of prayer' (positive, Jewish). Following this line, Medieval Hebrew בית המפלח, trembling, horror' (cf. Isaiah 19:17), refers to 'non-Jewish holiday', as opposed to Hebrew אח hag '(Jewish) holiday' (cf. Yiddish בית המשלח holiday' (sestival', from Hebrew יום אור המשלח is an imitation of

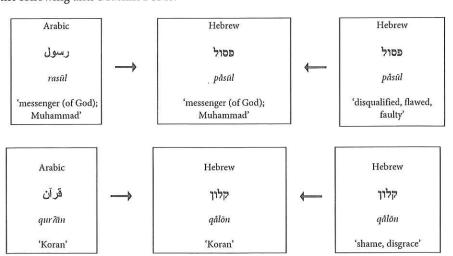
But the Jews were not the only group to engage in rejective PSM. An anti-Christian (intra-lingual) rejective PSM produced by Muslims is كنيسة ٱلقمامة kanīsat alqumāma, lit. 'Church of Rubbish', referring to 'Church of Resurrection', as following:



This Arabic example leads to Jewish PSMs designed to reject Islam.

2.2 Anti-Muslim rejective PSMs concocted by Jews

Lexical engineering by Jews has not been restricted to rejecting Christianity. Consider the following anti-Muslim PSMs:



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The tension between Muslims, Christians and Jews is, of course, an ancient one. However, such inter-cultural rivalries can be attested linguistically in the New World too.

2.3 Anti-Jewish etymythology concocted by 'Black Jews'

The rhetoric of the 'Black Jews' - or 'Black Hebrew Israelites' - who belong to the Israeli School/Church of Universal Practical Knowledge (cf. Israelite Church of God and Jesus Christ) contains many subversive rejective etymythologizations. In all their publications, there is an emphasis on the written word, typical of fundamentalists. Each claim is substantiated by references to the Old and New Testaments. As I have been particularly interested in their rhetoric, I have observed these Black Jews at one of their main propaganda centres: the intersection of Times Square and 45th Street in New York City. They gather there daily in order to persuade African-Americans and Hispanics to join their movement, preaching and distributing leaflets to their target audience (white people are welcome to listen but are not given leaflets). The Black Jews believe inter alia that they are the real Jews, that Jesus was black and that UFOs are the 'Chariots of God'. They claim that the following are the real twelve tribes of Israel: Juda - the Negroes, Benjamin - West Indians, Levi - Haitians, Simeon - Dominicans, Zebulon - Guatemalans through Panamanians, Ephraim - Puerto Ricans, Manasseh - Cubans, Gad - North American Indians, Reuben - Seminole Indians, Naphtali - Argentinians and Chileans, Asher - Colombians through Uruguayans, and Issachar - Mexicans.

The Black Jews believe that the Ashkenazic Jews are in fact Khazars in origin (i.e. people of Turkic origin who occupied a large part of southern Russia from the eighth century to the eleventh century). Thus, the main preacher suggested homiletically that the word *Khazar* derived from Hebrew חזיר hāzīr 'pig' H (cf. Yiddish חזיר hházər) (obviously, he pronounced both with [k]). In other words, 'white people are no more than pigs'.

On another occasion, the homilist insisted that the word *Jewish* (as used by white Jews) actually derived from *Jew* and *-ish*, the suffix meaning 'round about', 'somewhere near' (cf. *elevenish*) or 'approaching the quality of, somewhat' (cf. *yellowish*). Thus, 'white Jews are not the real Jews, but are pseudo-Jews'.

Schindler (cf. Steven Spielberg's film Schindler's List, 1993; etymologically 'shingler') for the Black Jews is a swindler, justifying their belief that 'the Holocaust is nothing compared to the tragedy of one hundred million black slaves'.

Listening to the Black Jews' rhetoric, I was reminded of the lexicological anecdote which I have heard in Germany, according to which the German word for 'key' is Schlüssel (cf. schliessen 'to close'), whereas the Hebrew word for 'key' is paral (cf. Israeli maftéakh; deriving from Hebrew מפתח 'to open'), because 'the Jews were wandering thieves who opened the gates to farms, which had been locked by their

German owners'. Consider also the etymythologies linking Jew with jewellery, German with germ, French with frog (note here the influence of the French culinary delicacy frog legs, and possibly also of quoi quoi quoi, reminiscent of a frog's croaking). Consider also Russian жидёнок zhidénok 'Jewish child (derog.)' (cf. kike), based on the model of чертёнок cherténok 'little devil' and ягнёнок yagnénok 'lamb' (Malkiel 1968: 232), and (the now rare) Spanish pecadezno 'little devil', modelled on (the now rare) judezno 'Jewish lad' and morezno 'young Moor' (ibid.).

Such philological rationalizations were conducted by Friedrich Nietzsche – to ground his moral theory. For example, in the highly (if perhaps fancifully) etymological First Article (Chapters 4-5) of *Zur Genealogie der Moral* (1887) (cf. 1966: ii: 774-7), Nietzsche suggested that there was a link between lexical items such as:

- German schlecht 'bad' and schlicht 'plain, common' (cf. 1966: ii: 774-5) (Note that in pre-late eighteenth century Yiddish literature, שלעכט shlekht meant 'simple')
- Latin malus 'bad' and Greek mélas 'black' (ibid.: 776)
- Gaelic fin 'gentle, fine' and its earlier form, which meant 'blond' (ibid.:776)
- Latin bonus 'good' and duonus (< duo 'two') 'duellist, fighter' (cf. bellum-duel-lum-duen+lum) (ibid.:777)
- German gut 'good', göttlich 'god-like' and gotisch 'Gothic' (ibid.:777)

2.4 Othering and apollonianism

The most basic motivation for rejective lexical engineering is OTHERING, defining and securing one's own (positive) identity through (the stigmatization of) the 'Other'. The 'Other' is what permits us to discover – and even constitute – the 'self'. The self is defined thanks to the mirror reflection that the Other represents. In other words, we define ourselves through the 'Others'.

Instead of the 'thinking I', epitomized in Descartes' (1637) revolutionary phrase *Je pense*, *donc je suis* (*cogito ergo sum*, 'I am thinking, therefore I exist', a.k.a. 'I think, therefore I am'), Lévinas (1972) begins with an 'ethical I'. According to Lévinas, the self is possible only with its meeting of the Other. (The self is seen and defined thanks to a deep 'shock' which destabilizes one's whole being until one discovers that one is defined as responsible for the Other. This discovery of oneself carries responsibility toward the Other without waiting for reciprocity. Thus the 'Other' constitutes the basis for ethics.) Following othering, an empowering sense of unity is created within a religious/national group, countering a perceived threat from outside the group.

Besides othering, lexical engineering can also be the result of APOLLONIANISM (see *la tendenza apollinea* 'Apollonian tendency', Pisani 1967: 160 and Zuckermann 2004). I use the term Apollonianism in a general sense denoting the wish to describe and create order, especially with unfamiliar information or new experience. An updated, albeit frivolous, example of this general tendency is the story about the South Dakotan who went to Athens and was happily surprised to find out that the Greeks are

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fans of NASA's projects: wherever he went, he saw the name *Apollo*.⁶ As this anecdote shows, the 'Apollonian tendency' would also seem to include a significant dimension of ethnocentricity.

Apollonianism often includes a significant dimension of ethnocentricity. But not necessarily. When travelling, I often ask locals trivia questions to find out what they know about world affairs. In Fiji I asked my taxi driver, who took me to Navala village: 'Have you heard of Clinton?' 'Yes!', he answered. 'Do you know of Kennedy?' 'No!'. 'How about Chomsky?', I continued. 'Yes!', he said, to my great surprise (How come a taxi driver in Fiji knows Noam Chomsky?). 'What do you know about Chomsky?', I said. 'It is from China', he retorted. 'You eat with it!'... The phonetic appropriation of *Chomsky* as *chopsticks* is Apollonian.

One may argue that othering and Apollonianism contradict each other, as othering is defining oneself vis- \dot{a} -vis the other whereas Apollonianism is defining the other by appropriation to one's own *Weltanschaung* and reference-point system. I propose two solutions for this alleged paradox. First, complementary distribution: lexical engineering is sometimes the result of othering and other times the result of Apollonianism. Second – and more spectacularly – Apollonianism can be seen as ripples within the tsunami of othering. In other words, lexical engineering often encompasses both processes simultaneously.

2.5 Other motivations and effects of rejective lexical engineering

There are many other reasons for lexical engineering and etymythology. The PLAY-FULNESS of PSMs in Hebrew, Yiddish and Israeli can be linked to the Jewish midrashic tradition of homiletic commentary on the Hebrew scriptures, in which puns, or the use of serendipitous similarity between distinct words, were employed in the service of interpretation. In later generations too, wordplay has been a conspicuous feature of Jewish oral argumentation – cf. פלפול pilpul, which should be distinguished from the universal 'Apollonian tendency'. Producing witticisms (in both the general and the contemptuous sense of the word), which create humour at the expense of another, and often at the expense of oneself, is cherished in Judaism (known also for its self-deprecation).

Regarding the effect of rejective lexical engineering, my intuition suggests that in Judaism, theo-linguistic metaphors, etymythology and lexical engineering might perform sublimation, i.e. they might release negative energy towards the 'enemy' and thus reduce or neutralize possible violence among the 'lexical manipulators'. In other words, cross words, not swords or make words, not wars. Alternatively, lexical engineering might be a symptom of pacificity rather than a cause for it. All that said, this chapter does not attempt to provide evidence for such a 'pacific claim', and the relative pacificity of the Jews throughout history can obviously be explained in other ways. Furthermore, it is hard to provide sociological insights for lexical engineering concocted in the past as there is no possibility of interviewing and surveying speakers. Still, it would be undesirable to reject 'socio-philology', i.e. socio-linguistic research of the past. Future research should analyse whether current etymological and lexical manipulations, for example by the Black Jews, really reduce possible violence among those who produce them, as well as among their listeners.

One of the main motivations for rejective PSM is ICONICITY, the belief that there is something intrinsic about the sound of names/words. The very iconicity might be the reason for refraining from translating *Hallelujah* and *Amen* in so many languages, as if the sounds of such basic religious notions have to do with their referents themselves – as if by losing the sound, one might lose the meaning. Compare this to the *cabbalistic* power of letters, for example in the case of *gematria*, the method of interpreting the Hebrew Scriptures by interchanging words whose letters have the same numerical value when added. A simple example of *gematric* power might be the famous proverb אונ פונס מין יצא סוד *niknas yayin yaṣȧ sōd*, lit. 'entered wine went out secret', i.e. 'wine brings out the truth', *in vino veritas*. The *gematric* value of יי wine' is 70 (>=10; >=10; >=50) and this is also the *gematric* value of אונ 'secret' (ס=60; >=6; T=4). Thus, this sentence, according to many Jews at the time, had to be true.

A similar mechanism appears in the case of rejective PSMs. Consider Lithuanian Ashkenazic Hebrew רע דם מח (cf. Yiddish ra dam), lit. 'of bad blood' (from Hebrew רע דם ras dam 'of bad blood'). This is a toponymic rejective PSM of Polish Radom, the name of a town in Poland (approximately 100 km south of Warsaw), or of its Yiddish adaptation ródəm (see Weinreich 1955: 609, Wexler 1991: 42). Thus, if a pogrom had occurred in Radom, it would surely have been rationalized by ra dam 'of bad blood'. Obviously, providing such an etymythological explanation for the pogrom was regarded by some Jews as a mere play on words. However, others might have conceived of ra dam as having deep intrinsic truth, which might have been religiously and homiletically based. One should not forget that at that time it was a common belief that all languages were God-created and that Hebrew was the divine Ursprache.

In Dovid Hofshteyn's poem Kindershprukh (first published in 1920, cf. Shmeruk 1987:261), Kiev is rhymed with Yiddish אינב 'Job' (the ancient patriarch whose story forms a book of the Old Testament), from (Biblical) Hebrew אינב 'iyyōb' (Job', the connotation being of distress and disaster, corresponding to the life story of the biblical Job. Such iconicity is implied jocularly in one of Amos Oz's stories, where a

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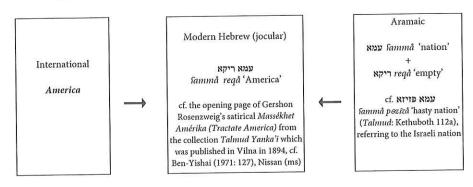
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German-speaking Israeli is talking about going to the Negev (Hebrew גגב, a geographical region in southern Israel). Owing to a German-based final devoicing (although it is now established that the natural default of all speakers - not only of Germans - is final devoicing, cf. Singh 1987), instead of pronouncing négev, she says négef, which means 'plague'. In reality, the Negev (especially for someone who was brought up in Germany) is a terribly hot desert, hard for living.

Yiddish צאַר tsar 'tsar' (the Russian emperor) has sometimes been associated with (Hebrew>) Yiddish צאר 'grief, sorrow', whilst Israeli צאר 'tsar' was understood as an enemy (cf. Avinery 1946: 139) due to (Biblical Hebrew>>) Israeli צר tsar 'enemy' (cf. Esther 7:6: Biblical Hebrew איש צר ואויב *līsh ṣar wəlōyeb*= 'adversary and enemy').⁸ The youth movement in Israel השומר הצעיר *hashomér hatsaír*, lit. 'The Young Guard', was derogatorily acronymized as אים shmuts (cf. Yiddish שמוץ shmuts) shmuts and German Schmutz 'dirt, filth'). Interestingly, this name was later adopted by the members (shmútsnikim) themselves. This is certainly not the case with the following fin de siècle anti-American PSM:



Similarly, Israeli עם ריקני am reykaní, lit. 'empty nation', can jocularly replace (International>) Israeli אמריקני amerikáni 'American'. Compare this to the diametrically opposite Chinese 美国 MSC měiguó, Cantonese meikok, lit. 'beautiful country', a domestication of America. There are, however, also Chinese examples of rejective toponymic PSMs, used to propagandize against hostile nations. For example, the Turks were called in Classical Chinese 突厥 (MSC tūjué), consisting of 突 tū 'attack, invade' and 厥 jué 'stone-launcher' (sixth-ninth centuries). Mongol was allied with Classical Chinese 蒙古 (MSC ménggǔ), consisting of 蒙 méng 'dark, obscure, abuse' and 古 gŭ 'old, locked, stubborn' (introduced around the eleventh century but still used).

Similarly, Hawaiian Pukiki 'Portuguese' might constitute a xenophobic PSM deriving from English Portuguese and Hawaiian pukiki 'strong, violent, impetuous' (cf. Deroy 1956:287). Note that Hawaiian k is inter alia the common replacement for English t and g (see ibid.:243). Medieval Hebrew עמלק lămåleq 'Amalek', a nation epitomizing evil since the days of the Old Testament, was used to refer to hostile Armenia. Ostra (south-east of Rovno) - cf. Yiddish סטרע óstrə and Polish

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ımeruk whose ib 'Job', y of the where a Ostróg – was referred to in Yiddish as אויס תורה óys tóyrə 'without Torah'. However, by others (or by the same people in other times), it was Ashkenazic Hebrew אות תורה oystóyro or Yiddish אות תורה ostórə, i.e. 'sign of Torah' (cf. Bar-Itzhak 1996:29). Hebrew אות תורה, as well as Chinese 美国 'beautiful country; America', lead us to a discussion of 'politically correct' PSM.

3. Adoptive lexical engineering

3.1 Politically correct PSM

The following are 'politically correct' toponymic PSMs:

- Ashkenazic Hebrew שפירא shapíro 'Speyer' (a town near Heidelberg) (cf. ibid.)
 - 1. Aramaic שפיר shappirå 'beautiful', the female form of Aramaic שפיר shappīr (Daniel 4:9) 'handsome, pleasing, good, cheerful' (Jastrow 1903:1616b).
 - 2. Yiddish שפייער shpéyər, German Speyer (toponym).

The positive connotation of this toponymic PSM might explain its frequent appearance in many Jewish surnames appearing from the beginning of the sixteenth century, e.g. *Shpiro*, *Shapirin*, *Shapira*, *Sapir* (cf. Beider 1993: 532b).

- Ashkenazic Hebrew מגן וצנה mógeyn vetsíno 'Mainz' (cf. Wexler 1991:42)
 - 1. Biblical Hebrew מגן וצנה mågen wəṣinnå, a conjunction which appears in Jeremiah 46:3, Ezekiel 39:9 and Psalms 35:2, meaning 'shield and shield'.9
 - 2. Hebrew מאגנצא magéntsa 'Mainz', Yiddish מאַגענצע magéntsə, Polish Moguncja, Latin Maguntia (Moguntia, Mogontiacum) (toponym).
 - 3.
- Ashkenazic Hebrew הר אדני har adó(y)noy 'Hrodna, Grodno' (Weinreich 1955:610)<
 - 1. Ashkenazic Hebrew הר אדני har adenóy 'The mount of the Lord', from Hebrew הר אדני 'The mount of the Lord' in Isaiah 2:3.
 - 2. Yiddish גראָדנע gródnə, Polish Grodno, Belorussian Hrodna, Russian Гродно Gródno (toponym).

Consider Medieval Hebrew פולין pōlīn 'Poland'. Blanc (1989:57) claims that there is no reason for its [i] vowel, cf. Yiddish póylņ, Polish Polska (polski 'Polish'), Russian Польша Pól'sha, Italian Polonia, English Poland. This might lead to the conclusion that פולין is a semanticized phonetic matching (henceforth, SPM) based on the Hebrew autochthonous root לין l.y.n. 'lodge, stay'. (As opposed to PSM, where the target language material is originally similar to the source language lexical item both

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Blanc mentions the well-known popular rationalization according to which 'when the Jews came to Poland, the skies ordered them to stay there'. A detailed investigation is presented by Bar-Itzhak (1996: 30-7). However, my explanation, which may refute Blanc's claim regarding the [i] in פולין, is that Yiddish $p\acute{o}yln$ was spelled in pre-Modern Yiddish as פולין or as פוילין (cf. the current spelling פוילן). Note that the pronunciation of (Medieval Hebrew>) Israeli פולין by some speakers of Israeli, especially in the past, has been pólin, which resembles the German and the Yiddish forms (as distinct from polín). This pronunciation could serve to strengthen the orthographic explanation. It seems that Medieval Hebrew פולין was not an SPM ab initio but rather a phonetic adaptation that has been rationalized etymythologically ex postfacto. The success of the etymythology is apparent among a few Israeli-speakers who pronounce בפולין 'in Poland' befolin - rather than bepolin - although this kind of (Hebrew) spirantization is in decline (in Israeli).

Another name for Poland is Israeli פולניה polánya, which could be reanalysed as פה לן יה 'Here stays God'. However, the term might have been induced by analogy to other Israeli country names corresponding to the feminine form of the noun which refers to the person who lives in the country (or to the feminine adjective), cf. אנגליה ángliya 'England' versus angliyá 'English (feminine)', and רוסיה rúsya 'Russia' versus rusiyá 'Russian (feminine)'. Consider also Italian Polonia 'Poland'.

Such concoctions were very common among maskilim, followers of the Jewish Enlightenment movement Haskalah in Germany (1770s-1880s; cf. Aufklärung), led by the philosopher Moses Mendelssohn (1729-86) and the poet, linguist and exegete Naphtali Herz Wessely (1725-1805, also known as Váyzļ). Thus, Maskilic Hebrew פועלא טבא poyálo tóvo (Israeli poalá tavá), lit. 'good workingman/labourer' (an Aramaic expression appearing in the Talmud, as [põ\ala taba], cf. Jastrow 1903:281b, 1145a), was the name some maskilim used for Poltava, a city in the Ukraine (south-west of Kharkov, east of Kiev), with a thriving Jewish community - cf. Yiddish פּאָלטאַװע poltáva, Russian Полтава Poltáva and Polish Poltawa (cf. Avinery 1946:135 and Klausner 1949:97).

Maskilic Hebrew פה נוי זה po novi ze (Israeli po naví ze), lit. 'here (this) is my (beautiful) dwelling', was an SPM of Yiddish פאניוועוש pónivezh, the name of the town in Lithuania, famous for its Jewish centre (cf. Lithuanian Yiddish pónivez) (used by Gordon 1883: 151, cf. Klausner 1949: 97). Maskilic Hebrew שר טוב sar to(y)v, lit. 'good ruler', was an SPM of Russian Саратов Sarátov (the name of a city in Russia), cf. Weinreich (1955: 610fn). One of many anthroponymic positive SPMs was Maskilic Hebrew רבת פאר rabes-per (Israeli rabát-peér), lit. 'full (feminine) of glory', for Robespierre. Compare it to various Chinese SPMs of names of famous Westerners.

A politically correct PSM word (rather than name), which gained currency in Israeli is גא ge or גאה geé 'gay, homosexual', as following:



Israeli עליז alíz 'homosexual' seems to override Israeli עליז alíz 'homosexual', which originally meant 'gay (merry, cheerful)' and thus constituted a calque of English gay. Note the semantic connection of the literal meaning of אמה 'proud' to the use of English gay pride to imply an empowered homosexual community. For many lesbian, gay, bisexual or transgendered native speakers of English, signifiers which include the word pride immediately imply gay pride, cf. pride week (Israeli שבוע הגאווה hagaavá), gay pride parade.

Israeli אמו geé 'homosexual' is a politically correct PSM, which is in contrast to rejective PSM, which is politically incorrect. On another continuum from rejective PSM is what I call adoptive PSM. Below, in §3.3 I shall provide a religion-related example of what I mean by adoptive PSM. But first, let us briefly discuss a related philological problem.

3.2 Multiple causation versus multiple etymology

The story goes that Osama Bin Laden died and went to heaven. He was greeted by George Washington, who slapped him and yelled, 'How dare you try to destroy the nation I helped conceive!' Patrick Henry then approached and punched Osama in the nose. After that, James Madison entered and kicked him in the shin. He was followed by an angry Thomas Jefferson, who whacked Osama over the head with a cane. The thrashing continued as John Randolph, James Monroe and sixty-six other early Americans came in and unleashed their anger on the terrorist leader. Suddenly, as Osama lay writhing in unbearable pain, an angel appeared. 'This is not what you promised me,' Osama said to the angel. 'Come on, Osama,' the angel replied, 'I told you there would be seventy-two *Virginians* waiting for you in heaven.'

This amusing anecdote brings to mind a recent case of a scholarly reanalysis of the Koranic 'virgins' promised to Muslim martyrs: Luxenberg (2000) suggests that $\hbar \bar{u}r \sin \hbar \bar$

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analysis of ggests that Koran, are but rather lartyrs will . Note that associated If this alternative interpretation is true, or rather, if one can convince fundamentalist Muslims that it is true, it has the potential to change the course of history, at least in cases like the story of a Palestinian teenager caught in Israel with his penis wrapped with delicate white cloth just before attempting a suicide-bombing. When asked about it, he said that his mother had told him that when he arrives in paradise he would get seventy-two virgins and his penis needed to be ready.

One could consider the various analyses of Arabic ħūr to be a case of multiple etymology. Another multi-etymological lexical item is the internationalism pidgin, for which at least seven possible etyma have been offered, e.g. English business (as corrupted by Chinese; OED), Hebrew פדיון pidyon 'barter', and Yago pidian 'people' (see Hall 1966: 7, Mühlhäusler 1986: 1, Aitchison 1981: 192, Todd 1974, Hancock 1979, Baker and Mühlhäusler 1990). Another famous example is the English expression OK, allegedly deriving from ole korrek 'all correct' or Old Kinderhook or Choctaw okeh, and so forth. Consider also macabre, which is traceable either to Hebrew מכבי makkabbī (cf. Judas Macabré, OED) or Arabic مقابير maqa:bir 'tombs, graveyards'.

In some cases, however, it is very hard to distinguish between multi-etymology and multiple causation. In other words, one should be careful not to mistake a multi-etymological lexical item for a PSM. Consider Rabbinic Hebrew מְפָקר 'was heretic/ irreligious/licentious, broke faith (masculine, singular)', which has two possible sources:

- 1. Eponymous verbal morphemic adaptation of the name of the irreligious Athenian philosopher *Ερίκουτος* (Επίκουρος) 'Ερίς (c.300 BC).
- 2. Metathesis of Rabbinic Hebrew פרק על תורה påraq, cf. Rabbinic Hebrew פרק על תורה påraq sol tōrå 'threw off the yoke of the Torah, became a heretic', from Biblical Hebrew פרק על påraq sol 'shed responsibility'.

There are five possible analyses:

- 1. The etymon is (1) with (2) being a rationalization ex postfacto.
- 2. The etymon is (2) with (1) being a rationalization ex postfacto.
- 3. The etymon is (1) induced by (2).
- 4. The etymon is (2) induced by (1).
- 5. The origin is both (1) and (2), i.e. it is a PSM of Epikouros.

3.3 Adoptive PSM: a tool for concealing the influence of non-Jewish traditions

In the following example, Wexler (1993) suggests that the Hebrew etymon is an *ex postfacto* interpretation serving to Judaize a foreign term (and tradition). In other words, his analysis is parallel to Analysis (1) above, and accordingly, if one confronts Wexler's 'foreign' etymology with the traditional Hebrew etymology, the following is a multi-etymological lexical item.

- Eastern Yiddish חלה khálə (Southeastern Yiddish khólə) 'braided (white) bread loaf (eaten on the Sabbath), hallah, chollah' (cf. Western Yiddish ברכת bárkhəs ' bérkhəs 'id.' below; Both khálə and bárkhəs are mentioned in the list of lexical isoglosses between Western and Eastern Yiddish by Weinreich 1973: ii: 390 and Katz 1983: 1025a) <<<
 - 1. (Biblical) Hebrew חלה ħallå cf. Yiddish khálə, Southeastern (Ukrainian) Yiddish khólə, Israeli khalá – 'dough loaf offered to the priest in the Temple in Jerusalem' (e.g. Exodus 29:2, 23). I believe that the etymon of Hebrew חלה is the Hebrew root חלל h.l.l. 'hole'. However, Even-Shoshan (1997:538a) points out that a possible etymon is the Hebrew root חלי h.l.y. (cf. חלה h.l.h.) 'sweet', but note the dagesh in the ל of חלה hallå, which I analyse as dagesh compensativum. The semantic explanation for the use of the root חלל h.l.l. might be the fact that the ancient hallah had a hole in it, like today's bagel, so that it could be put in a high place in order to prevent mice and other animals from spoiling it. Biblical Hebrew חלל h.l.l. might be related to Akkadian ellu 'pure' (see Entsiklopédya Mikraít: iii: 143), and Biblical Hebrew חלה ħallå sometimes referred to 'unleavened bread' (usually called in Hebrew מצה masså), see Leviticus 8:26, Numbers 6:19. It is important to note that before it gained its current sememe, Yiddish חלה khálə referred to the part of the (non-braided) loaf separated out for sacred purposes, a tradition known as מפריש חלה (Israeli mafrísh khalá) 'dedication/offering of hallah'.
 - 2. Frau Holle, a goddess/witch in German folklore (recounted by the Brothers Grimm), one of whose tasks was to inspect the braids of girls during winter (Wexler 1993:116-7) cf. the German idiom Frau Holle schüttelt die Betten (aus), lit. 'Mrs Holle is shaking the duvets', i.e. 'It is snowing' (or, as children might say, 'The old woman is plucking her geese').

Figuratively speaking, Wexler suggests that the Hebrew etymon is the official step-father of the Germanic word but not the biological father. Following this line of thought, the Jews needed this step-father not in order to make the lexical item acceptable but rather in order to adopt officially the originally non-Jewish tradition denoted by the lexical item. The transplanted Hebrew etymon served as a passport. Like Nietzsche (see above), the iconoclastic Wexler uses philology in an *attempt* to kill some sacred cows, challenge our cultural mores and reveal the genuine origins of Jewish traditions and values. If Wexler's foreign etymon is false, he can then be regarded as an etymological manipulator. Should it be true, however, it has the potential to change our perception of Jewish history (it is currently too shocking to be confronted by puritan Jewish institutions). His data are nonetheless valuable for the philologist since the Germanic (and, in other cases, Slavonic) etymon might have played a role in the creation of *some* of the phrases he discusses. That said, whilst Wexler seems to consider the Slavonic/Germanic etymon to be the only true origin

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and the Hebrew to be a mere rationalization *ex postfacto*, my own tendency – being a strong believer in <u>multiple causation</u> – would be to argue that *both* Slavonic/Germanic and Hebrew took part in the nativization, thus constituting (adoptive) PSM. Hence, one could say that the lexical biography is *mosaic*, not only *Mosaic*.

4. Concluding remarks

Language is a guide to 'social reality'. (Sapir 1949:162)

Some linguists regard any study related to popular etymology and humour as apocryphal. It is time to overcome this prejudice and to realize that humourous concoctions are indicative of personal and national attitudes, and that popular etymology shapes speakers' perceptions and words' connotations, and thus influences speakers' actual lives. Since etymythology often results in altering the meaning and associations of a word, it, in fact, changes the 'real etymology'. Thus, it should not be overlooked even from a strict linguistic perspective, a fortiori a cultural one.

Sociolinguistically, etymythology is often more influential than 'real etymology'. The English word bugger originally denoted 'Bulgarian' (French bougre, Latin Bulgarus), referring to a sect of heretics who came from Bulgaria to France in the eleventh century. But since the real etymon (origin) is forgotten, Bulgarians don't normally complain about the sodomite meaning of the word in English.

On the other hand, on 15 January 1999, David Howard, a white aide to Washington DC Mayor Anthony Williams, who happens to be black, used the word niggardly – which means 'miserly, stingy' – in a conversation with two colleagues. Eleven days later, he resigned as rumours were spreading that he had used a racial slur. Speakers linked niggardly to the politically incorrect nigger and negro, although, initially, niggardly had nothing to do with nigger.

 that day Swedes traditionally eat waffles with jam or cream. The waffles are sometimes heart-shaped, and those who still know about the connection with the Virgin Mary might rationalize the form in terms of the Virgin Mary's heart.

Similarly, *mutatis mutandis*, Jimi Hendrix occasionally kissed a man on stage after singing 'scuse me while I kiss the sky (from the song Purple Haze, 1967) because he was familiar with the mondegreen 'scuse me while I kiss this guy (on mondegreens – misunderstood or misinterpreted phrases resulting from a mishearing, especially song lyrics – see Zuckermann 2003:248, 2000:24). Such shifts in reality alone render popular etymology a worthy subject for research.

One might argue against the PSMs discussed above: canis a non canendo 'The word dog is such because the dog does not sing/play' (note the phonetic similarity between Latin 'dog' and 'sing') – cf. the 'etymythological fallacy'; or lucus a non lucendo 'The word grove is thus named because it does not shine'. Thus, there are ugly women called Bella 'beautiful' (provided that Bella is not a phonetic matching of a Slavonic 'white', cf. the case of the 'Red (i.e. Beautiful) Square' in Moscow). However, such a claim disregards the power of etymythology, which in many of the aforementioned examples even results in a new lexical item.

Naphtali Herz Torczyner, who acted as the last president of the Hebrew Language Council (1942-9) and the first president of the Academy of the Hebrew Language (1953-73), wrote in 1938:

קדמוננו דרשו כתב תנשתון 'כתב שנשתנה', חילקו את המלה פת-בג לשתיים ומצאו בה את המלה העברית פת 'לחם', וכדומה. דרשות אלו רחוקות הן מן האמת הבלשנית כמו הדרשות שטיפלו גם בשמות הפרטיים הפרסיים שבתורה, עד שנעשה שם בנו של המן הרשע פרשנדתא לשם תפארת בשביל רש"י 'פרשן הדת' המפורסם. אין אלו אלא משחקי מליצות ולא לשון חיה ואמיתית.

Our ancestors interpreted ktav hanishteván as 'script that has been changed' [mislinking nishteván with nishtaná 'changed'], divided the word pat-bag into two and found within it the Hebrew word pat 'bread', and so on. These homiletic interpretations are far from the linguistic truth, in the same way as the interpretations of the Persian proper names in the Old Testament, so that even the name of the son of Haman the Wicked, Parshandáta, became a name of glory, the famous parshán hadát ['interpreter of religion'], for Rashi. These are nothing but rhetorical games [cf. melitzah, an intertextual citational style] and not part of the living and true language. (Torczyner 1938: 8)

Whilst I completely agree that such 'homiletic interpretations are far from the linguistic truth', this chapter shows that such 'games of rhetoric' are in fact an integral part of a 'living and true language'. In an article punningly entitled בלשנות ובטלנות balshanút uvatlanút (i.e. 'Linguistics and Idleness'), Torczyner – after phonetically matching his surname to Tur-Sinai (lit. 'Mount Sinai) – scorns laymen who think that German privat is derived from Hebrew פרטי (Israeli pratí) 'private' (see Tur-Sinai 1950:5). While Tur-Sinai's criticism is correct, he does not for a moment wonder whether such coincidental similarity can actually affect language itself, and not only meta-language.

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4. A sim the US in Washing toast (Wl Thus, Intl *private* increased the use of (Hebrew>) Israeli פרטי *prati* 'private'. Torczyner, as well as many other good linguists, is blinded by an indoctrinated linguistic desire to reprimand laymen for linguistic ignorance. The result is insensitivity, neglecting the fact that the subject of the matter, language, is, after all, spoken by these very laymen.

The linguistic analysis of popular etymology should not restrict itself to discussing cases of mistaken derivation because – again – popular etymology often results in a new sememe/lexeme. Most importantly, this chapter demonstrates that etymythological methods are employed by educated, scholarly religious leaders. The distinction between *créations savantes* and *créations populaires* is not so categorical since many *créations savantes* are in fact 'populaires' (and many *créations populaires* are indeed 'savantes').

This chapter also shows the power of SERENDIPITY: coincidental phonetic similarity induces PSM, which might result among other things in the revival of an obsolete lexical item. Life and death – even for lexical items – are sometimes a matter of luck. Finally, then, lexical engineering reflects religious and cultural interactions and often manifests the attempt of a religion to preserve its identity when confronted with an overpowering alien environment, without segregating itself from possible influences. The result can be contempt (as in the case of *rejective* PSM) or 'cultural flirting' (as in the case of adoptive – or *receptive* – PSM).

Notes

- 1. I am grateful to the Rockefeller Foundation's Research and Conference Center, Villa Serbelloni, Bellagio, Italy, and especially to its manager Gianna Celli, for providing me with a conducive and enjoyable research environment. I also thank the Research Centre for Linguistic Typology (La Trobe University) and Churchill College (University of Cambridge). Finally, I am grateful to Simon Overall, Grace Brockington, Katherine MacDonald and Felicity Newman for their comments.
- 3. Cf. similar claims by Koestler (1976) and Wexler (1993).
- 4. A similar case arose in March 2003, due to American anger over France's refusal to support the US in its position on Iraq. On the cafeteria menus in the three House office buildings in Washington, the name of French fries appeared as freedom fries, and French toast as freedom toast (What about a freedom kiss?)

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- ⁵ Cf. Apollinisch 'Apollonian' versus *Dionysisch* 'Dionysian' in Nietzsche's works. Apollo, the beautiful sun-god of the Greeks and Romans, is symbolic of *reason*, whilst *Dionysus*, the Greek god of wine and fertility of nature, is associated with *wild* and ecstatic religious rites.
- 6. The same applies to the Indian scholar who went to Rome and was happily surprised to find out that the Italians are fans of Sanskrit grammar: wherever he went, he saw *PANINI* (Italian for 'sandwiches', as opposed to Pāṇini, the fifth-century BC Indian grammarian).
- 7. Cf. the story about the German Jew, a survivor of the Holocaust, who arrives in Roehampton (London) after the war, and enters a grocery store. While examining the oranges, he suddenly gets extremely upset when the grocer tells him: 'The small ones are for juice'.
- 8. Compare these to Yiddish נאַר *nar* 'fool', which was sometimes spelled as (Biblical) Hebrew 'boy'.
- 9. Cf. the same conjunction but in reverse order, צנה ומגן in Ezekiel 23: 24, 38:4.
- 10. English Poland may be a partial PSM since the paragogic excrescent d might have been introduced in order to imitate the existent word land, as in England.
- 11. I have met Israeli speakers who provided the ety*myth*ology that the English initialism *OK* is an acronym of Hebrew אמנם כן *omnåm ken*, lit. 'indeed yes', but they were aware of the manipulative recalibration.

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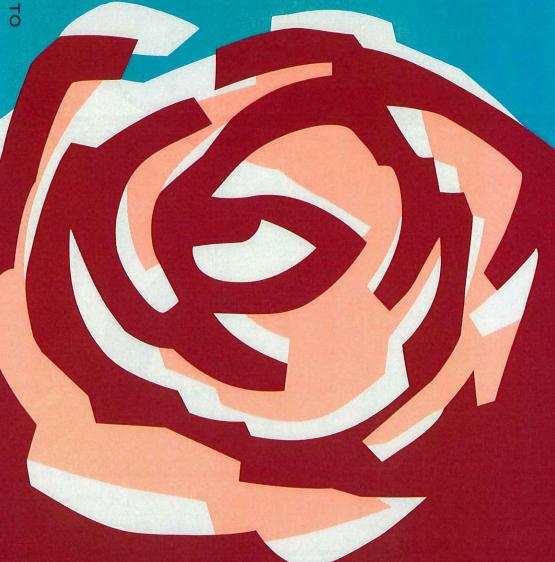
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Explorations in the Sociology of Language and Religion

EDITED BY TOPE OMONIYI AND JOSHUA A. FISHMAN



JOHN BENJAMINS PUBLISHING COMPANY

The Sociology of Language and Religion (SLR) is still in its infancy as a sub-discipline in the macrosociolinguistic tradition. It is therefore no coincidence that the editorial collaboration to produce its first definitive text Explorations in the Sociology of Language and Religion has involved Joshua A. Fishman, often cited in the literature as one of the founders of the Sociology of Language. Tope Omoniyi brings to the collaboration an insightful and incisive critical eye for engaging with diversity in the treatment of language and religion. Together as editors they have successfully midwived the birth of SLR. The studies and debates contained in this volume revisit those themes that both of the contributory disciplines of Sociology of Language and Religion have common interest in. The contributing authors explore new methodologies and paradigms of analysis that they deem appropriate for this interesting and complex interface in an attempt to demonstrate how the shared interests of these disciplines impact social practices in various communities around the world. The ultimate objective of the discussions is to fashion tools for creating a body of new knowledge that supports the emergence of a better society. Towards this end, the authors have harnessed resources from varied geographical, cultural, linguistic and religious constituencies without compromising analytical depth. In the process, they have opened up new areas of sociolinguistic inquiry. The volume is thus presented as a highly useful reference resource both for undergraduate and postgraduate scholarship.

What is interesting about the way in which the field of sociology of language and religion has been conceptualized in this volume is that it is both innovative and old. It is the interface of both language and religion that provides the innovation.

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