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MORPHOLOGICAL TYPOLOGY OF LIVESTOCK TERMINOLOGY IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Annotation

The study of the morphological typology of livestock terminology in the English language focuses on the structural and word-formation mechanisms underlying terms related to animal husbandry. English livestock vocabulary demonstrates diverse morphological processes, including compounding (e.g., *sheepfold, cattle-breeding*), derivation (e.g., *herdsman, shepherding*), conversion (*to milk – milk*), and affixation (*cowherd, stockman*). The analysis reveals that many terms are historically rooted in Old English and Germanic linguistic traditions, while others have been borrowed from Latin and French, reflecting cultural and agricultural exchanges. The productivity of compounding and conversion illustrates the analytic tendency of English, where new livestock terms often emerge through semantic extension and lexical innovation rather than inflectional morphology. This typological approach highlights the dynamic nature of English livestock terminology, showing how morphology not only encodes professional knowledge but also reflects broader linguistic, cultural, and historical developments.

Keywords: morphological typology, livestock terminology, English language, word-formation, compounding, derivation, affixation, conversion, etymology, Old English, borrowings, analytic language, semantic extension, agricultural lexicon, terminology system.

Аннотация

Исследование морфологической типологии терминологии животноводства в английском языке сосредоточено на структурных и словообразовательных механизмах, лежащих в основе терминов, связанных с животноводством. Английский словарный запас, связанный с животноводством, демонстрирует разнообразные морфологические процессы, включая словосложение (например, sheepfold, cattle-breeding), деривацию (например, herdsman, shepherding), конверсию (to milk – milk) и аффиксацию (cowherd, stockman). Анализ показывает, что многие термины имеют исторические корни в древнеанглийском и германском языках, в то время как другие были заимствованы из латинского и французского языков, что отражает культурный и сельскохозяйственный обмен. Продуктивность словосложения и конверсии иллюстрирует аналитическую тенденцию английского языка, в котором новые термины, связанные с животноводством, часто появляются в результате семантического расширения и лексических инноваций, а не через флективную морфологию. Этот типологический подход подчеркивает динамичный характер английской терминологии в области животноводства, показывая, как морфология не только кодирует профессиональные знания, но и отражает более широкие лингвистические, культурные и исторические изменения.

Ключевые слова: морфологическая типология, терминология животноводства, английский язык, словообразование, словосложение, деривация, аффиксация,

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конверсия, этимология, древнеанглийский язык, заимствования, аналитический язык, семантическое расширение, сельскохозяйственный лексикон, терминологическая система.

Annotatsiya

Ingliz chorvachilik terminologiyasining morfologik tipologiyasini o‘rganish bo‘yicha ushbu tadqiqot chorvachilik bilan bog‘liq atamalar asosidagi strukturaviy va so‘z yasalish mexanizmlariga qaratilgan. Inglizcha chorvachilik bilan bog‘liq lug‘at turli xil morfologik jarayonlarni, jumladan, birikma (masalan, qo‘y boqish, chorvachilik), derivatsiya (masalan, chorvador, cho‘ponlik), konversiya (sutga – sut) va affiksatsiya (cowherd, chorvachi) ko‘rsatadi. Tahlil shuni ko'rsatadiki, ko'plab atamalar qadimgi ingliz va german tillarida tarixiy ildizlarga ega, boshqalari esa lotin va frantsuz tillaridan olingan bo'lib, madaniy va qishloq xo'jaligi almashinuvini aks ettiradi. Kombinatsiya va konversiyaning mahsuldorligi ingliz tilidagi analitik tendentsiyani ko'rsatadi, unda chorvachilik bilan bog'liq yangi atamalar ko'pincha fleksiyon morfologiyasi orqali emas, balki semantik kengayish va leksik innovatsiyalar orqali paydo bo'ladi. Ushbu tipologik yondashuv ingliz chorvachilik terminologiyasining dinamik xususiyatini ta'kidlab, morfologiya nafaqat kasbiy bilimlarni kodlashini, balki kengroq lingvistik, madaniy va tarixiy o'zgarishlarni qanday aks ettirishini ko'rsatadi.

Kalit so‘zlar: morfologik tipologiya, chorvachilik terminologiyasi, ingliz tili, so‘z yasalishi, birikma, hosila, affiksatsiya, konversiya, etimologiya, qadimgi ingliz tili, o‘zlashtirish, analitik til, semantik kengayish, qishloq xo‘jaligi leksikasi, terminologik tizim.

For clarity in the distribution of the main word-formation models in livestock terminology, we present table, which reflects the types of morphological structure, examples, their relative transparency for understanding, approximate frequency by corpus, and features of lexicographic fixation.

Word model	**Examples (Eng.)**	**Meaning transparency**	**Frequency (body)**	**Lexicographic registration**
Simple	*cow* (cow) [Merriam-Webster, 2020]; *sheep* (sheep); *hog* (pig)	Non-derived, semantically autonomous; the internal form is historically uncertain (e.g., *hog* from ancient Eng.)	Very high (basic words, S1 in Longman) [Longman, 2015]	Included in all general dictionaries as basic words; usually without stylistic features. They have many meanings (including figurative ones) that are separated in dictionary articles [Merriam-Webster, 2020].
Compound	*livestock* (livestock) [Oxford	High: the value is derived from the parts (cattle	Medium: commonly known	In general dictionaries, it is cited either as a

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	Dictionary, 2019]; *sheepdog* (sheepdog) [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *henhouse* (chicken coop)	+ live = "live inventory") - most additions are transparent to the carrier	composites are used frequently (e.g., *livestock* ~ 2 times less *cow*); narrow - less	separate article or under the base; definitions are usually given that reveal the composition (*sheepdog: "a dog trained to herd sheep"*) [Cambridge, 2019]. Marks are rare (can indicate sphere, e.g. *free stall* [Tech.]).
Derivative	*piglet* (piglet) [Longman, 2015]; *gosling* (goose calf); *shepherdess; unbroken* (unlearned, unbridled [horse])	Medium: For known suffixes, it is understandable (*-let* = small piglet), but some derivatives are idiomatic (e.g., *gelding* is unclear without knowing the verb *to geld*)	Different: productive diminutives are quite frequent, narrowly specialized. (type *gilt, farrow*) low-frequency	Commonly understood derivative terms are included in dictionaries without footnotes (*piglet* - in Longman marked as a frequent word) [Longman, 2015]; narrow ones are marked with footnotes (*gilt* [specialized] in Cambridge) [Cambridge, 2019]. Many derivatives form dictionary nests around basic concepts (*lamb, lambing, lambkin*, etc.).
Borrowed	*poultry* (poultry) [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *pork* (swine); *ranch* (ranch)	Low: The word is entirely borrowed from another language, the morphemes are opaque	From high to low: old borrowings of the type *pork* are very common, late technicalisms of the type	In dictionaries - in the main composition, often with the mark *etymology* (the source language is indicated). By style: can be

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		(*poultry* does not contain clear morphemes for English eyes)	*veterinus* - only in specialized literature	marked if there are restrictions (e.g., *swine* - [Old use] for "swine") [Merriam-Webster, 2020]. Many borrowed terms have parallels (synonymy) with their original ones, which is noted in the interpretations (see *poultry* - "domestic fowls, e.g. chickens..."). [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]).
Blend / abbreviation	*beefalo* (bison and cow hybrid) [Merriam-Webster, 2020]; *BSE* (spongy bovine encephalopathy)	Medium/low: portmanteau requires guesswork (beef+buffalo), abbreviations require deciphering; unclear without context	Low: highly specialized or jargon; *BSE* is known by disease outbreaks, *beefalo* is a rare word (conversational)	Blendings are included in some dictionaries with an explanation of their origin (*beefalo* - "blend of beef and buffalo") [Merriam-Webster, 2020]. Abbreviations are usually given in specialized reference books or as separate dictionary articles in industry publications (in the general dictionary, *BSE* can be listed as an abbreviation in an article about an illness). Marked as *[informal]*, *[abbr.]*, etc., depending on the situation.

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From Table above, it follows that the most productive and communicatively important models are simple and compound words - they cover the main vocabulary and are intuitively understandable to speakers. Derivative and borrowed terms add subtlety and precision (indicating specific categories, processes, and animal states), but often require specialized knowledge or are labeled as belonging to professional language. Lexicographical practice reflects this difference: general dictionaries strive to cover both basic and key specialized terms, providing the latter with *Tech.*, *Specialist* marks or stylistic guidelines [Cambridge, 2019; Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. For example, dictionaries record not only *pig, boar, sow* (common language names for pigs), but also *barrow* "chested male," *farrow* "offspring, offspring" - with markings "specifically" or explanations [Merriam-Webster, 2020; FAO Glossary, 2010]. This allows the user to distinguish between terminology levels. The transparency of a term is especially important for multi-element names: as researchers note, a term "unintelligible" in terms of morphemic composition is often accompanied by explanations in the text or footnotes [Gillespie, 2010]. Thus, abbreviations of the type *AI (artificial insemination)* are almost always revealed at the first mention. In general, the richness of word-formation models testifies to the active development of vocabulary: along with centuries-old simple words, the language of livestock breeders is constantly replenished either by new combinations (under the influence of technological progress - *feedlot, grass-fed, zero-grazing*), or by borrowings of international terms (*probiotic, silage*, etc. - many of them are reflected in the Oxford Dictionary of Agriculture [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]). An important conclusion - **the morphological structure of English zooterms is closely related to their genesis**: for example, complex and suffixal formations are more characteristic of native and ancient vocabulary (German), while "solid" borrowings are usually of Roman or classical origin. This is how the interaction of genetic and word-formation characteristics manifests itself.

Genetically split terms: parallel names of the same concept. One of the most notable consequences of the mixed genesis of English terminology is the presence of pairs of terms denoting the *same referent, but originating from different language layers and* differing in usage. Often this applies to the already mentioned phenomenon: **one animal - two names** (German and Roman), where one is used in relation to the animal itself, the other - to the product (meat) or other derivative of it. This "splitting" occurred in the post-Normandy period of English language history due to socio-cultural reasons. After the conquest, the elite and the court culinary sphere spoke French, while the pastoral peasants continued to speak English. Therefore, when talking about a live animal on the farm, an Anglo-Saxon word was used *(ox, cow, swine, deer,* etc.), and when this animal was served as a dish, a French word was used *(beef, pork, venison,* etc.). This plot is well-known both in linguistic literature and in mass descriptions of English language history, often cited as an educational example of the influence of social factors on vocabulary [Atkins, 1992]. However, in addition to the classical triads "cow - beef," "pig - pork," "sheep - mutton," there are other pairs in English terminology that reflect the same principle of genetic segregation. For example, *deer* (literally "deer," but in ancient English *dēor* meant "animal, large animal") - and *venison* (literally "dove," from Old French. *veneison,* lat. *venatio* "hunting, prey") [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. In the Middle Ages, *venison* meant the meat of any hunted animal, but over time it narrowed to "olenina" - the meat of a deer [Britannica, 2023]. The *deer* itself continued to be called a folk word. Another pair: *calf* (calf) - *veal* (calf). The term *veal* came from Old French (as *veel,* cf. French *veau),* and already by the 14th century, it was recorded in English: "meat of a young calf" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. This word was clearly associated with high-class culinary arts, while farmers grew *calf*

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using the original *cealf* (Ancient English form). Similar opposition exists for pork: *swine* (pig, collectively) - an old Anglo-Saxon word, in plural *swine;* and *pork* - French-Norman *porc* (from Latin *porcus).* There is a nuance here: the word *pig* (pigling, pig) was not the main word in the Anglo-Saxon period (used *swine, sow* etc.), *pig* spread later (possibly from dialects), but its competition with *swine* is a separate plot. In the context of our question, it is important that *pork* became firmly established precisely behind the meaning of "swine as meat," *while German-English words (swine, pig)* continued to mean animal. *Moreover, swine* has fallen out of active use over time and is now marked as *old-fashioned or formal* ("old. or office.") [Cambridge, 2019], *while pig has become the main colloquial word for animals,* and *pork* is the sole word for meat. Thus, the original "pig-pig" triad was reduced to a pair (since *swine* was removed). In the field of poultry farming, a similar phenomenon is observed: the traditional Germanic word *fowl* ("bird, especially domestic bird") and the borrowed *poultry* (from Old French. *poulettrie).* Initially, *fowl* (Ancient English *fugol)* meant any bird, including domestic chickens, and still remains in this meaning in the language (although outdated). *Poultry* appeared in the mid-14th century as a collective name for domestic birds (chickens, ducks, turkeys, etc., raised for meat and eggs) [Merriam-Webster, 2020]. *Currently, poultry* is the main term for the category "domestic poultry" in the agricultural context, *while fowl* is used limitedly (in species names - *waterfowl* "waterfowl," *guinea fowl* "ceasarca," or in literary style to refer to birds in general) [Cambridge, 2019]. Dictionaries directly note: *fowl* - literary or old-use in the general sense of "bird" [Longman, 2015], *while poultry* - is commonly used and is usually interpreted as a plural noun with the meaning of "farm birds" [Cambridge, 2019]. Here we see a slightly different functional differentiation: *poul* vs *poultry* - not animal vs meat, but colloquially-obsolete genus name vs official-industrial category name. However, the genetic nature of parallelism is the same: the Germanic word coexisted with the Romance word, and the Romance word became the "normative" term of the agricultural sector, while the original word transitioned to the category of stylistically marked vocabulary.

Thus, the genetic splitting of terms manifests itself in the English livestock lexicon mainly in the form of pairs of synonymous names that differ in their sphere of use. Table provides examples of such pairs, indicating the origin of each element, the functional difference, and a brief historical-lexicographic characterization.

Genetically determined parallel names (English zooterms)

Pair of terms (animal - product/category)	**Origin of each**	**Functional difference**	**Historical reason for separation**	**Lexicographic Notes and Notes**
deer - venison ("deer" - "Lenin")	*deer*: ancienteng. *dēor* (German root) [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *venison*: Old French. *veneison* < Lat. *venatio* "hunting,	*deer*: animal name (wild animal); *venison*: the name of the meat (dich, now specifically deer)	Norman nobility used *venison* for game (hunting prey), while Anglo-Saxons called animals *deer*. Gradually, the value of *venison* narrowed to deer meat [Britannica, 2023].	In modern dictionaries, *venison* is usually defined as "deer meat" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. This word is stylistically neutral in culinary context. *Deer* has not lost

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	prey" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]			its significance and remains the name of the animal; pl. *deer* (unchanged) is specifically noted in dictionaries.
calf - *veal* ("calf" - "calf's meat")	*calf*: ancienteng. *cealf* (German) [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *veal*: Old French. *veel* < Lat. *vitellus* "calf" [Merriam-Webster, 2020]	*calf*: live animal (young cattle); *veal*: dairy calf meat as a food product	Social and linguistic division: farmers raised *calf*, nobles ate *veal*. The French *veal* entered the language as a gastronomy term around the 13th-14th centuries and became established for the product [Oxford Dictionary, 2019].	*Veal* is marked in dictionaries as [U] (uncountable, real) with the meaning "the meat of a calf" [Cambridge, 2019]. *Calf* has, in addition to the main value, a series of variables. (e.g. *calf* - calf of the leg), but in zooterminology, it remains in its direct meaning; for plural *calves*, a special spelling is indicated.
Swine - *Pork* ("pig" - "pig")	*swine*: ancienteng. *swīn* (German, collectively "pig") [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *pork*: Old French. *porc* < Lat. *porcus* "pig" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]	*swine*: animal designation (usually plural - pig head); also a derogatory nickname; *pork*: pork, food product (not called by the word "pork")	French *porc* came after 1066 as a name for meat (initially also for animal, but in English it only supplanted it in cooking). *Swine* for a long time meant both singular and plural "pig/swine," but gradually fell out of colloquial use, giving way to the word *pig* (German origin, but later appearance)	*Swine* is marked as obsolete or formal: "swine: [old-fashioned] pigs" [Cambridge, 2019]. Now it occurs in stable combinations (for example, *swine flu* - "swine flu"). *Pork* is a commonly used word for pork, fixed without stylistic marks, often indicating its countlessness

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			[Cambridge, 2019].	and culinary context. For example, *pork* defined as "meat from a pig, eaten as food" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019].
poultry - *poultry* ("bird" - "household bird (as a category) ")	*fowl*: ancienteng. *fugol* (German. "bird") [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]; *poultry*: English-French *pulletrie* from *poulet* "chicken" (< Latin *pullus*) [Merriam-Webster, 2020]	*fowl*: the general name of a bird, especially a domestic one; in singular and plural, now book or as part of a species (wildfowl); *poultry*: collective designation of agricultural poultry (chickens, ducks, etc.), usually multiple meaning of the category	In the Middle English period, *poultry* and poultry were used in parallel, but *poultry* (French by origin) became established in farmers' professional speech and official terms, and poul gradually became noted as dialectal/obsolete outside of special combinations.	Modern dictionaries define *poultry* through *fowl*: "poultry - domestic fowls (chickens, turkeys, ducks) kept for meat or eggs" [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. Grammatically indicates: *poultry* - plural noun (category in plural) [Cambridge, 2019]. *Fowl* is supplied with droppings (e.g., "[literary or old use] a bird kept for its meat or eggs" [Longman, 2015]), except for terminological compositions (type *waterfowl*), where it acts as a neutral component.

The given pairs illustrate that genetic duplication of terms in English does not mean complete synonymy - instead, there is a functional-stylistic distinction. German terms are usually simple, "folk," they refer to the animals themselves or are used in everyday speech, while Roman (Norman) terms are more formal or narrowly specialized, often attributed to products or categories. Historically, this is due to the coexistence of two language traditions after 1066 and

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the establishment of different words in different communicative spheres [Atkins, 1992]. Over time, this distribution became recognized as an internal feature of English. For example, for native speakers, *pork* is simply "swine as food," and the connection with *pig* ("animal") may not be felt, despite the consonance of the first sounds; while for language learners, such pairs are difficult and require explanation (often mentioned as a cultural-linguistic fact). Lexicographically, all these pairs are reflected through cross-references and explanations. Thus, in the Oxford Dictionary, one can see that the article *venison* indicates "= deer meat," and the article *deer* can mention in the historical reference that previously *deer* meant any animal, and meat is called *venison* [Oxford Dictionary, 2019]. Similarly, *pig* vs *pork*: Longman and Oxford dictionaries provide examples like "pork - meat from a pig" [Longman, 2015]. Some modern dictionaries (especially for language learners) provide such words with markings about usage: for example, *cow* in colloquial language can mean "any large animal from cattle" - noted *informal*, *pig* as offensive - *derogatory*, *swine* - *old-fashioned* [Cambridge, 2019; Merriam-Webster, 2020]. All of this is work on breeding the meanings of former "synonyms." It should be noted that in other languages, such splitting may not occur - for example, in Russian and Uzbek, one word denotes both animal and meat ("cow" - "beef," "pig" - "pig" - these are a pair of words in Russian, but in Uzbek *sigir* means both cow and beef in certain contexts; for pig meat, it often simply *chöchqa göshti* - "pig meat"). Thus, the English vocabulary is the result of unique historical circumstances. Genetic analysis allows us to identify these hidden doublets and understand their origins, which is crucial when comparing them with other terminological systems.

Morphological structures and formation models. Another aspect reflecting the historical development and functioning of livestock terminology is the morphemic-structural organization of terms. The English language, being analytical, forms new terms both through internal word-formation resources (suffixation, composition, abbreviation) and through borrowing or calquing. In livestock lexicon, several main models are presented: 1) simple, indivisible bases (simplex), 2) compound bases (compound terms), 3) derivatives - derived words with suffixes or prefixes, 4) direct borrowings as ready-made units, and 5) mixed formations, including contaminations and cuts (blends, abbreviations).

Simple (monomorphic) words are, as a rule, the oldest and most frequent terms already mentioned in the genetic review: *cow, pig, sheep, goat, bull, ram, mare* etc. They do not contain the affixes that are highlighted today and are perceived by the bearers as "elementary" names. As a rule, this is a legacy of ancient English (or other old layers), therefore the inner form of the words is obscured: the average speaker does not understand the origin of the word *cow* or *ox* from the historical root with the meaning "bull/head of cattle" *(ox* is related to ancient Indo-European. *uks-en,* cf. rus. "wolf") - these connections are only stable etymologically. However, it is the simple words that form the basis of terminology - according to corpus data, they demonstrate the highest frequency in texts about animal husbandry and agriculture [Longman, 2015]. For example, *cow* and *pig* are among the thousand most frequent words of the English language, which is confirmed by their status in educational dictionaries (level A1-A2 according to the CEFR scale) [Cambridge, 2019]. Their semantic transparency is due to the direct reference to the basic objects (animals) without additional shades. Lexicographically simple terms typically have multiple meanings in dictionaries (e.g., direct and figurative: *pig* - "piglet; filthy, gluttonous" [Merriam-Webster, 2020]) and can include cultural or idiomatic connotations, but do not imply morphemic division.

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Compound words (composites) are formed by combining two or more bases. In *livestock* terminology, it is a productive way to name either a new concept or to clarify its species affiliation. Typical examples are *livestock* (literally "living cattle" - the general designation of farm animals) [Oxford Dictionary, 2019], *sheepdog* ("shepherd," add. "sheep dog") - a dog for grazing sheep [Oxford Dictionary, 2019], *cowpox* ("cowpox," the name of the disease) and many others. The composition is often used to denote professions and tools: *cowherd* ("cattle herder," cp. *shepherd* - "sheep herder") - now obsolete, but *cowboy* ("cowboy"), *stockman* ("cattle herder"), *pigpen* ("pig pen," *pen* - pen), *henhouse* ("chicken coop") etc. - all these words are constructed as a combination of nouns, where the first clarifies the second. The meaning of a complex term is usually easily derived from the sum of the components' meanings, i.e., **the transparency of such words is high.** For example, *horsefly* - literally "horsefly," a large fly that bites horses; *fish flour* - "fish flour" (feed additive) and so on. In the field of animal husbandry, many compound words have become terminological combinations (sometimes written with a hyphen or separately, but functioning as a single name): *dairy cattle* ("dairy cattle"), *draft horse* ("draft horse"), *free-range chickens* ("chickens in free play") and so on. Such terms may have variable orthography, but the principle of compounding remains leading. The frequency of complex terms is usually average: widely used terms of the type *livestock* have firmly entered the language (frequency of ~30 cases per million words in the news corpus, which is quite high), while narrow ones - e.g. *sheepdog* - are less common, mainly in specialized contexts [Longman, 2015]. In dictionaries, many composites are cited either as separate articles or as nest components (e.g., *-dog* as a component): at the same time, their **direct motivational meaning is indicated,** which indicates transparency: *sheepdog* defined as "a dog trained to herd sheep" [Cambridge, 2019]. Thus, for a native speaker, compound terms are understood from the context, while for a translator/linguist, they are interesting as a reflection of the nomination method through a combination of simple ideas.

Derivatives (derivatives) are formed using suffixes and prefixes. In animal terminology, diminutive suffixes denoting young animals are widely used: *piglet (piglet)* contains the suffix *-let* "small" [Longman, 2015]; *gosling (goose)* - suffix *-ling* "children"; *doggie (sp. dog)* - suffix. *-ie; chick (chicken)* - Suf. *-ck* from *chicken,* etc. These suffixal models reflect that in English, specialized terms for young animals are often derived from the general name of the species. Sometimes such derivatives have entered the literary language from professional jargon and are therefore fixed with markers: for example, *hogget* - in British English, it refers to a ram/sheep aged ~1 year (not an adult, but not a lamb), formed from *hog* with a diminutive suffix. *-et;* now marked as a dialectal industry term (used in New Zealand, Australia) [Collins, 2018]. Another common type of derivation is **gender and status suffixes:** in English zooterminology, the feminine suffix *-ess* is rarely used (since *lioness, tigress* refers to wild animals), while specialized vocabulary often offers separate roots for female and male genders (such as *cow* vs *bull, ewe* vs *ram,* etc.), or refers to word combinations *(female pig* or colloquial *sow pig).* However, some suffixal derivatives exist: *heifer* "calf, young cow (before calving) " - historically derived (ancient Eng. *heahfore,* suffix denoting a young person); *steer* "young bull" - from the verb *steoran* "to castrate" with the suffix result (obsolete derivation). The suffix *-er* forms the names of figures and tools: *farmer* from *farm; breeder (breeder, breeder)* from *to breed; shearer (shear)* from *to shear; trough (feeder)* is not a suffix, but *feeder (also "feeder")* - from *to feed* + *-er* (literally "what feeds"). These examples show that derivation serves to form entire nests of cognate terms within a thematic group. **Prefixation** also occurs: usually to denote opposite or clarified concepts. For example, *unenriched cages* (in poultry

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farming - "unenriched cages" for chickens, with the prefix *un-* opposite) or *crossbreed* ("to cross/metis," the prefix *cross-* indicates interbreeding) [Gillespie, 2010]. In veterinary lexicon, prefixes of Latin origin: *anti-parasitic* (anti-parasitic), *multi-species, neo-natal,* etc. - but this is already an influence of scientific style. In general, **the morphological transparency of derivatives varies:** some are understandable to the speaker ("piglet" is unambiguously perceived as "little pig" [Longman, 2015]), while others require knowledge (e.g., *farrow* - both the verb "to sow" and the noun. "pigs" - does not contain clearly recognizable modern affixes, it is a historical word; dictionaries note it as a special term for pig farming [Merriam-Webster, 2020]). The frequency of derivative terms is also heterogeneous: *common language terms (piglet, foal, lambing) are widely used,* while narrow ones *(gilt, spay/neuter)* are limited by professional circles. Lexicographers usually mark special derivatives: for example, *gilt* "young sow before first calving" is marked as *Specialized (Animal breeding)* in Cambridge Dictionary [Cambridge, 2019], and *barrow* "castrated fattening pig" may not be found in general dictionaries, but is necessarily included in industry glossaries (listed in the FAO database with precise definition) [FAO Glossary, 2010].

Loanwords can be considered as a separate model of terminology replenishment, although from a morphological point of view, a foreign word can be both simple and complex. In the context of word-formation classification, *borrowings* are units that have entered the language as a whole, without being divided into morphemes according to the laws of English. Many examples have already been given: *pork, beef, poultry, mutton* - old borrowings that have been phonetically mastered, but retain a "foreign" root (it is no coincidence that they cannot be decomposed for English-speaking consciousness). Some later borrowings are clearly perceived as scientific: *artificial insemination* (literal translation of Latin *inseminatio), bovine spongiform encephalopathy* (a medical term known as BSE) and so on - they can even be attributed to calquing or semi-calquing. However, there are also later borrowings within the general lexicon: for example, *ranch* "ranch, farm" - from the American Spanish *rancho,* entered English in the 19th century with the development of cattle breeding in America [Ensminger, 1997]. The word **cowboy** itself emerged on American soil (XIX century), but following the "English word + English word" model. When classifying terms by structure, borrowed words are often considered separately, as their **morphemic structure is opaque** to the English language. For example, *vaccine* "vaccine" - with the Latin root *vacc-* "cow" (from the historical use of the cowpox virus for vaccinations) - is not perceived by English speakers as a derivative of "cow," although in essence, the connection is direct. Dictionaries often explain such cases in etymological references: *vaccine* - "from Latin *vaccinus,* from *vacca* "cow"" [Merriam-Webster, 2021]. In active use, borrowed terms can acquire special stylistic connotations: for example, *swine* (German word) and *porcine* (Latin) both mean "swine," but the first is colloquial (although obsolete), the second is scientific-official. In this sense, the external form (origin) of a word serves as an indicator of its stylistic and functional belonging. The frequency of borrowed units varies: many old French borrowings have become widespread (type *pork, beef* - commonly used, see above), while book Latin-Greek ones are less common.

Mixed formations and abbreviations. In modern English, terms formed using non-standard methods - contamination (fusion of parts of words) or abbreviation - are not uncommon. There are also examples in the field of animal husbandry. One of the interesting ones is *beefalo:* a hybrid name for a cross between a domestic cow *(beef* cattle) and a bison *(buffalo).* The word *beefalo* originated in the USA in the second half of the 20th century and represents **blend** *(beef + buffalo).* Merriam-Webster records *beefalo* with the meaning "American bison and domestic

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cow hybrid (≈3/8 bison and 5/8 cow) " [Merriam-Webster, 2020]. A similar word - *cattalo* (from *cattle* + *buffalo)* - appeared as early as the end of the 19th century as the name of such a hybrid and is also used. These examples demonstrate creative word formation at the intersection of existing roots, although generally, such a model is rare and more characteristic of jargon or commercial nouns. In terms of frequency, *beefalo* and *cattalo* are low-frequency lexemes known to specialists and farming communities, but not to the general public (because, for example, they may not be found in learner's dictionaries, but in large ones - Merriam-Webster, Collins - they are present). Nevertheless, the fact of their fixation in dictionaries [Merriam-Webster, 2020; Collins, 2018] testifies to the penetration of even such "hybrid" names into literary language. Another type is **abbreviations and acronyms:** for example, *AI* (Artificial Insemination) - a commonly used abbreviation in the livestock sector [Gillespie, 2010]; *BSE* (Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy - spongy encephalopathy of cattle) is a veterinary term known to the general public in the form of the abbreviation BSE (by the way, it is often explained as "cow rabies" in journalism). Within the framework of morphological typology, acronyms can be attributed to a separate group, but overall, in the dissertation chapter, they are not the focus, as they relate more to disease and program names (in paragraph 2.2, we considered some of them, e.g., FMD - Foot-and-Mouth Disease - aster).

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