



FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA

Grao en: Lingua e Literatura Inglesas

Latin influence on English vocabulary, with special reference to the Modern English period.

María Vázquez Castaño

Titoría: Belén Méndez Naya

Curso académico 2018-2019



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Asdo.: María Vázquez Castaño

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A handwritten signature in blue ink, which appears to be 'Angela'.

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Resumo [na lingua en que se vai redactar o TFG; entre 1000 e 2000 caracteres]:

The aim of this dissertation is to offer an account of Latin influence upon the vocabulary of the English language. Latin is the most prolific source of borrowings in English and, according to the OED, there are over 40,000 words in English of Latin origin that have entered the language throughout the different periods of its history. In fact, this influence of the Latin language on English did start even before English came to be an independent language, as there were already Latin loanwords in the Proto-Germanic vocabulary, and it can still be felt in the present day. In a theoretical part of the dissertation, an overview of the influence of Latin in the different historical periods of English will be presented, but special attention will be paid to the Modern English period (1500-1900). This period is specially relevant due to the significance of Latin borrowings in a period of massive lexical expansion taking place in the Renaissance, which is closely linked with the elaboration of functions of English as part of its standardization process, but also because of the big controversy arising around the introduction of these obscure words (the "inkhorn" controversy). In the Late Modern English period Latin also plays a central role in the creation of precise vocabulary to deal with the increasing knowledge on the different scientific fields (both by borrowing and by creation of so-called neo-classical compounds). To complete the view, I will conduct a practical study with the OED as the main source of information, where I will select a group of words and classify them according to the semantic fields, degree of integration and lexical history.

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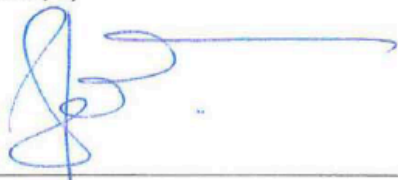

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1. Introduction

Throughout the history of the English language, the English vocabulary has been constantly enlarged and enriched by means of borrowing from other languages. Until this day, Latin is the most prolific source of borrowings in English, with over 40,000 borrowings from this origin registered in the OED3. This dissertation focuses on the Latin influence upon the vocabulary of English, that is, the enrichment that the English language experienced as a consequence of borrowing lexical and semantic items from Latin. Since the Modern English period is considered to be the period in which the highest numbers of borrowings from Latin entered the English vocabulary, this will be the period that will be dealt with in depth.

As a student of languages, the evolving mechanisms of languages have always captivated my attention. Since I had the opportunity of studying Latin in previous years and the English language was the language I chose to continue my studies on, the possibility of doing some research on the connections between these two languages was very appealing. As mentioned above, the influence of Latin on the English language has been noticeable throughout the different periods of its history, even when Latin is no longer alive, in the sense that it is no longer spoken by a community of speakers. Its condition of classical language caused that other languages, like English, kept borrowing items from it and evolving after its models. It is possible to say, thus, that, although it was no longer used as a language by itself, it continued to enrich other languages. Indeed, Latin even contributed, together with Greek, to develop an international scientific vocabulary, and some words that belonged to this vocabulary eventually managed to enter the common English vocabulary.

The dissertation can be divided in two main parts: (i) a theoretical part in which the Latin influence on the English language is accounted for on the different periods of its history, and (ii) a practical study in which a group of Latin borrowings recorded in the OED are classified in terms of their word-category, semantic field, degree of integration and frequency on current use.

In the theoretical part of the study, the classification of lexical borrowings followed was that of Durkin (2009), as it provides a convenient frame for the study, due to its clarity and updated condition. References such as Durkin (2014), Serjeantson (1968) and Sheard (1970) were primary in the theoretical overview of the Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and Modern English (ModE) periods. Apart from offering information on the different periods' backgrounds, the aim of this section is to provide information on Latin borrowings specifically. Thus, questions such as which type of borrowing was the predominant in each period and which semantic fields and word-categories were the most affected by Latin borrowings are addressed. For the practical part, as a dictionary-based study, the main reference was the OED (Oxford English Dictionary), from which the tokens analysed for the practical part were taken. The study was carried out on 182 Latin loanwords into Modern English with the intention of providing a faithful representation of the Latin loanwords entering the English language in this period.

The OED is a historical dictionary that provides information on the moment of introduction, etymology, chronology, current (and former) frequency and the historical development of words' forms and meanings. Furthermore, the online version allows to carry out an advanced search in which different browse categories are involved, such as origin and subject, which were especially relevant for the selection and classification of the selected borrowings in the practical study. All these features turn the OED into the most appropriate source for the practical study, since it enables not only the creation of a list of Latin loanwords, but also the detailed analysis of those loanwords.

These two parts previously mentioned are divided into five chapters. The present introduction (Chapter 1) presents the aims of the study, personal motivations on the topic and the main references used. Chapter 2 is focused on the delimitation of the scope of the study. Since it is not possible to account for Latin borrowings into English as a whole, lexical borrowing, and more specifically loanwords, constitutes the actual target of this study. Thus, an introduction for the theoretical part is presented, consisting chiefly on a definition of lexical borrowing and an elaboration on the main types: (i) loanwords, (ii) loan translations, (iii) semantic loans and (iv) loan blends. Chapter 3 comprises a theoretical overview of the English history regarding the influence that Latin had on its vocabulary, from a moment previous to the differentiation of the English language from the Germanic group until the Late Modern English period. Chapter 4 shows the

methodology followed for the classification of the Modern English loanwords from Latin analysed in the practical study and the results obtained. Finally, Chapter 5 provides a summary on the theoretical part and the main findings of the study, as well as some thoughts on possible future research.

2. Delimiting the scope of the study: borrowing and types of lexical borrowing.

It is necessary in this first section to clarify exactly what is meant by borrowing in this dissertation, since the ample range of meaning that this term may cover might give rise to ambiguity. Therefore, a close look at this term will be taken with the aim of delimiting the object of this study and, immediately after, a classification and definition of those different types of borrowing relevant for the same purpose will be provided.

Linguistic borrowing differs from other methods of language expansion in the sense that it involves taking linguistic material from external sources instead of illustrating language internal processes (Burrige and Bergs 2017: 39). In its broader sense, Durkin (2009: 132) describes linguistic borrowing as “the usual term for the process by which a language (or variety) takes new linguistic material from another language (or variety), usually called the donor” and in doing so, that linguistic material remains in both languages, changing and developing differently, without it being “given back” to the donor. According to this view, and as Durkin (2009: 132) himself points out, any kind of linguistic feature may be a target of borrowing, be it phonological, morphological or syntactical features. Nevertheless, the focus of this study will be the so-called lexical borrowing, which is considered to be the most usual type of borrowing (Burrige and Bergs 2017: 40).

Lexical borrowing is a kind of linguistic borrowing that, as noted by Durkin (2014: 8), occurs when the lexis of one language (commonly called the donor language or sometimes the source language) exercises an influence on the lexis of another language (commonly called the borrowing language or sometimes the receiving language), with the result that the borrowing language acquires a new word form or word meaning, or both, from the donor language.

In this sense, lexical borrowing is a strategy of vocabulary expansion, together with creating, shifting, shortening, composing and blending (Algeo 1998: 66-88).

There are two terms that could be seen as lexical borrowings, but that actually ought not to be put under the same frame. Therefore, we should establish a differentiation between lexical borrowing and two other terms: code switching and imposition. On the one hand, Durkin (2009: 174) describes code switching as a phenomenon in which

bilingual speakers switch between use of one language and use of another, in the knowledge that they are addressing other who also have some knowledge of each language, and who are hence to at least a very limited extent bilingual whereas imposition, also called language shift, is the term referred to

the process by which speakers introduce new material into a language in the process of a shift from primary use of one language to primary use of another.

This is typical in a situation of language death, where a community ceases to use one language in favour of another (Durkin 2014: 11).

Thus, in the first case it would not be a matter of foreign words being introduced in a language, rather than a combining use of two different languages; while in the case of imposition, some features from the dying language would be transferred or imposed on the other (Durkin 2009: 161).

Two main reasons for borrowing have traditionally been identified in the literature: need and prestige. On the one hand, need has been a cause for borrowing in those cases when a new object or concept appeared for the first time in the world of a linguistic community. Since that concept was not known for the speakers of that community, they would simply introduce in their own language the term used to name it in a donor language. Other borrowings, however, are due to prestige: the prestigious situation of a donor language can also lead to borrowing of a term which already has a native counterpart, thus leading to the coexistence, at least at first, of two stylistically different words expressing the same concept (Durkin 2009: 142-143). Therefore, borrowing may occur either because a word designates a concept that is genuinely new for the community of speakers of a language, or because of the desire of turning the borrowing language into a prestigious one, while its speakers pretend to have a good command on a foreign prestigious language (Trask 1996: 18-19). After examining these motivations, Durkin (2009: 156) claims that we could consider necessary borrowings those introduced in a language because of the need to designate a name to an unknown thing, while those imported for prestige reasons would be seen as unnecessary. However, evaluating whether borrowings are necessary or unnecessary is not the object of this study, since it would also be required to analyse to

what extent the so-called “necessary borrowings” could have not been supplied through different word creation strategies in the borrowing language.

Borrowing usually arises in situations of contact between the speakers of different languages, but for extensive borrowing to occur, those languages should be mutually intelligible at least in part, so as to avoid confusion (Durkin 2009: 156). If we pay attention to the kind of vocabulary that is usually affected by borrowing, we could say that basic vocabulary, referring now to those terms very frequently used, is “much more resistant to borrowing in normal borrowing situations than non-basic vocabulary” (Durkin 2009: 156-157). However, basic vocabulary may also be borrowed, and often the explanation given to this is prestige, probably only because it is the easiest alternative to use as a justification after having acknowledged that need would not be considered a good argument for it (Durkin 2009: 160).

After this introduction to the concept of lexical borrowing and the main motivations behind it, it would be appropriate to have a look at the main kinds of lexical borrowing that can be distinguished. Even though it is possible to find different typologies concerning to lexical borrowing, the classification employed by Durkin (2009) will be the one followed in this dissertation. Durkin distinguishes mainly four types of borrowings: loanwords, loan translations, semantic loans and loan blends (2009: 134-140). Each of these will be clarified in the following sections.

2.1. Loanwords

According to Durkin (2009: 134-135) “[l]oanwords show borrowing of a word form and its associated word meaning, or a component of its meaning.” In this kind of lexical borrowing, thus, both the form and the meaning of a foreign word are introduced in the borrowing language, but this does not mean that the borrowed word will remain completely unmodified after going through this process. In fact, loanwords are usually adapted to the borrowing language’s own features: they are adapted to the sound system, they may also suffer a process of accommodation involving analogy at the morphological level, they may undergo semantic change, and they do continue evolving after the model of the borrowing language. Algeo (1998: 77) states that loanwords taken into English are

only affected by “sound-substitution for foreign sounds, transliteration of the spelling, or an adjustment of inflectional morphology.” Therefore, we could argue that, in a sense, loanwords might be adapted to the borrowing language so as for them not to feel like foreign words for the community of speakers of the borrowing language.

In consonance with this definition of loanword, Durkin (2009: 139) introduces another distinction in his classification, after a tradition in linguistics in the Germanic-speaking world. Thus, he differentiates between *Lehnwörter* (‘loanwords’) and *Fremdwörter* (‘foreign words’), a distinction also established by Algeo (1998: 77), who distinguishes between imperfectly-assimilated foreign words and loanwords. In the case of *Lehnwörter*, the words belonging to this category have been adapted phonologically and morphologically to the borrowing language, and sometimes new derivatives were created after these words; whereas *Fremdwörter* or foreign words retain their foreign features. Although there may seem to be a clear difference between these two concepts, sometimes it is not possible to classify a borrowed word according to them. This has to do with the fact that it is very frequent to find variants of a same borrowed word at an early stage of its introduction in the borrowing language, and, usually, these variants show a differing degree of integration.

Friar is an example of a loanword taken from French into English during the Middle English (ME) period, which was pointed out by Durkin (2014: 8). The form of the word was taken with only a part of its meaning into English, since Old French *frere*, meaning ‘brother’, was transferred to Middle English as *frere*, meaning ‘a brother or member of a religious order from the Roman Catholic Church’ (OED s.v. *friar* n.). The partial survival of the French meaning on English was probably a consequence of the need to designate a name to an ecclesiastical term before unknown for their speakers.

Loanwords are the only main type of lexical borrowing involving a direct borrowing of word form that Durkin identifies, so, in order to make a first distinction between loanwords and the other types of lexical borrowing, the next types could be addressed as semantic borrowings (Durkin 2014: 8).

2.2. Loan translations

This kind of lexical borrowing can be defined as the “replication of the structure of a foreign-language word or expression by use of synonymous word forms in the borrowing language,” (Durkin 2009: 135) without it implying the use of corresponding word forms. Sometimes, it might be difficult to assert the existence of a loan translation in what may seem to be only a coincidental parallel, as it is not always possible to find evidence endorsing that argument. Therefore, in many cases it will not be possible to tell whether a given term or expression is an actual loan translation or not (Durkin 2009, 135-136). Algeo (1998: 77) also addresses the concept of loan translations, describing them as “substitutions of native morphemes for foreign ones motivated by similarity of meaning.” A good example of loan translation is the English term *almighty*, which, as Durkin points out (2014: 9), was introduced in the language after the Latin *omnipotēns* (*omni-* ‘all’ and *potēns* ‘mighty’). Another clear case would be the English expression *New Christian* (introduced on the English language in the Early Modern English period), meaning ‘in medieval and early modern Spain: a Christianized Jew or (less frequently) Moor, *esp.* one who converted only nominally in order to escape persecution or expulsion,’ (OED s.v. *New Christian* n.), since its highly lexicalized meaning is not likely to be coincidental with the Spanish *cristiano nuevo*, attested in an earlier period (Durkin 2009: 135).

2.3. Semantic loans

Semantic loans, according to Durkin (2009: 136), refer to those words whose meaning was extended “as a result of association with the meaning of a partly synonymous word in another language,” while Algeo (1998: 77) goes a step further affirming that they are in fact “substitutions of foreign meanings for those of native morphemes motivated by a similarity of shape.” In the same way that loan translations could be difficult to differentiate from coincidental parallel terms in different languages, it is not always possible to tell whether a given word is a semantic loan or whether the semantic development of two words from different languages is simply coincidental. Likewise, it is difficult to distinguish whether it is the actual foreign language the one producing an influence on the development of a concept from another language, or, on the other hand,

extralinguistic factors such as culture are at work. Furthermore, in some cases we could even argue that a new loanword, instead of a semantic loan, was introduced in the borrowing language, since sometimes an actual continuity in the word borrowing the new meaning does not seem to exist. Consequently, these cases would be considered instances of homonymy, as two words with different origin and meaning would present the same or nearly the same form. For these reasons regarding the ambiguity of their origin, some scholars decided not to consider some cases of semantic loans and loan translations as borrowings, but just as semantic changes or instances of influence from a language into another. Semantic loans are historically unrelated to those foreign terms from which the new portion of meaning is taken; however, these words might present a similar form (like English *manage*, a borrowing from Italian, which was semantically influenced by French *ménager*) or, otherwise, be formally different (like English *manner*, semantically influenced by Latin *modus*) (Durkin 2009: 136-137).

2.4. Loan blends

Durkin (2009: 137-139) points out that the dividing line between the types of lexical borrowing mentioned above is not always clear-cut, and, consequently, some scholars have distinguished “an intermediate category between loanwords and loan translations: loan blends.” This kind of lexical borrowing entails the replacement of one or more morphs for others in a borrowed complex word, with the aim of adapting the particular word to the borrowing language’s system (Durkin 2009: 138). In other words, the native word would be “remodelled using material from the borrowing language” (Durkin 2014: 9). An example of a loan blend given by Durkin is the English verb *neurotise*, which was borrowed from the French form *neurotiser* (the French suffix *-iser* was substituted by the English *-ise/-ize*). Nevertheless, as previously remarked, it is not always possible to decide whether a given word has undergone a process of loan blending or loan translation. Algeo (1998: 77) refers to hybrid compounds so as to account for the notion previously described, by saying that they are obtained through “a borrowing of a complex form with loan translation for part of it.”

2.5. Other classifications of lexical borrowing

In addition to the types mentioned above, other terms have also been used in the literature. The following types will not be taken into account in this dissertation, but I would like to mention them anyway with the purpose of showing that there is not a unique typology fixed, since, as we have already seen, problems may arise while trying to categorise the kinds of lexical borrowing we may find.

Algeo (1998: 77) includes a higher number of types in his classification than Durkin: (i) imperfectly assimilated foreign words, (ii) loanwords, (iii) loan translations, (iv) hybrid compounds, (v) semantic loans, (vi) innovative borrowings and (vii) loan clippings. The correspondences between some of them and those identified by Durkin have already been established throughout the previous sections, but there are yet two other types that he distinguishes: innovative borrowings and loan clippings. Innovative borrowings are those compounds created after two or more foreign elements that only occur in the borrowing language (Algeo 1998: 77); hence, this kind of lexical borrowing also entails the usage of the word creation strategy of compounding, resulting in a new word that did not belong to the vocabulary of the source language from which the two parts for the compound were taken. An example of innovative borrowing is “*bierkeller* ‘a German-style beer hall’, suggested by German *Biergarten* and *Ratskeller*” (Algeo 1998: 77). While composition is the strategy of vocabulary expansion involved in innovative borrowings besides borrowing, loan clippings are the result of the “shortening of a spoken or written form, either at a morpheme boundary or between such boundaries,” (Algeo 1998: 72) of particular words introduced through borrowing in the language. For instance, a case of loan clipping is “*femt(o)*- ‘one quadrillionth, i.e. 10^{-15} , of any unit in the international system of measurement’, [which comes] from Danish or Norwegian *femten* ‘fifteen’” (Algeo 1998: 77). Therefore, as we can see, more categories of lexical borrowing other than those treated above can be identified.

To sum up, lexical borrowing is a strategy of vocabulary expansion that can be justified by means of need and borrowing, through which words belonging to a foreign language are introduced into another, enriching this latter one. A single typology of lexical borrowing has not been fixed, but instead we can find a rich and varied terminology so as to refer to the different borrowing techniques. In spite of that, four main types can be

distinguished: loanwords, loan translations, semantic loans and loan renditions, and even though the boundaries between them are not completely clear, they will still help us to provide an account of the kinds of lexical borrowings introduced on the English language from Latin.

After this introduction to lexical borrowing and the typology that will be followed on this study about the Latin influence on the Modern English vocabulary, the following section will be focused on the different stages of the English history, with regards to the kind and amount of Latin borrowings we can find and the historical context operating behind them.

3. Latin influence on English vocabulary

Most of the languages we find in the world, if not all, borrow or have borrowed lexical and semantic items from another language, at least at a particular stage of their history. As a consequence of that borrowing, languages have enriched their vocabulary by other means different from those native processes through which languages evolve through time. Since lexical borrowing, as we have already seen in chapter 2, involves taking an already created form and/or meaning from another language, the process of acquisition of new vocabulary items is usually much faster than the native strategies for vocabulary expansion, and this is the reason why the speakers of a given language tend to resort to lexical borrowing when they need to introduce a new concept or idea into their language. English is not an exception to this general rule. In fact, Serjeantson (1968: 1) argues that “[t]he English language has throughout its history accepted with comparative equanimity words from other languages with which it has been in contact.”

As we will see throughout the analysis of the different periods, borrowing tends not to affect the basic vocabulary, that is, the words of a language showing a higher frequency usually trace back to a native origin. Moreover, the word-category of nouns tends to be the most highly affected by borrowing because of three reasons: it is one of the most numerous categories of words, if not the most numerous; new concepts and ideas tend to be coined through nouns; and nouns tend to be easier to adapt to the grammatical features of the borrowing language (Trask 1996: 23).

Latin influence over the English language has shown to be pervasive throughout the different periods of its history. Since Latin and English are both of Indo-European origin, thus belonging to the same language family, they share a common heritage that can be perceived in those words reflecting the common ideas in the speakers’ minds of both languages (Sheard 1970: 94). However, they developed differently into two distinguished language groups: Italic, in the case of Latin, and Germanic, in the case of English.

It is not an easy task to establish a date in which the influence of Latin on English started; however, we do know that this influence began even before the English language came

to be an independent language from the Germanic group, and, since then, Latin has continued to exert a certain influence on English until the very present day.

3.1. Latin lexical borrowings until 1500: The Old English and Middle English periods

In this subsection, the Old English (450-1150) and Middle English (1150-1500) periods will be briefly approached, so as to identify the different waves of influence from the Latin language into English, focusing on the moment and conditions that originated that influence, the Latin dialect that was the main source of the borrowing and the kind of vocabulary affected in the borrowing language.

3.1.1. The Old English period

The term Old English is usually applied to the period comprising from 450 A.D. until 1150 A.D.; however, I will refer here also to a period previous to the complete differentiation between Proto-Germanic and Old English. The OED lists only 460 words of Latin origin in the proto-Old English and Old English periods (specifically, until 1199). The influence, however, was likely to be richer: some of the Latin borrowings were probably not recorded before their disappearance, since the first manuscripts date from the seventh century onwards.

3.1.1.1. The problematic tripartite division of Latin borrowings into OE

At this early stage of the English language, as pointed out by Sheard (1970: 121-122), three distinct periods of Latin influence can be identified. In a first period borrowings entered into the English language as a consequence of a situation of contact between the Germanic people and the Romans, since the Angles, Saxons and Jutes had not travelled to the isles yet and dwelt on the continent (Sheard 1970: 121). In the meantime, in the first century A.D. the British Isles were inhabited mostly by Celtic peoples whose

languages were classified in the Celtic branch of Indo-European (Durkin 2014: 55). *Germani* was the name given to the peoples that spoke Proto-Germanic, and, since they inhabited the North-West regions of the European continent, some of them entered into contact with the Romans, leading both to continuous conflicts, but also to an extensive cultural exchange (Durkin 2014: 53-54). This Roman influence occurring before 450 affected the Proto-Germanic language, and, as a consequence of that, the languages in the Germanic group would also show that influence later on (Sheard 1970: 121). Due to the proximity of their territories in the continent not only Latin exerted an influence on Germanic, but also the other way around, that is, borrowings from Germanic are also found in the Latin language in this period. It is important to remark that the situation of contact we have just mentioned led to the fact that it was Vulgar Latin, or spoken Latin (which would later develop into the Romance languages), the variety of Latin borrowings were taken from (Serjeantson 1968: 11). In the second period that we can establish, which goes from 450 until 650, we no longer find a direct contact between these two peoples, since the Anglo-Saxons had already arrived to the British Isles (Sheard 1970: 121). Between the year 43 A.D. and the first years of the fifth century, the Roman Rule of the British Isles took place (Durkin 2014: 56-57). As a result of that, the Vulgar Latin used by the Romano-Britons was the dialect exerting an influence then upon the English language (Serjeantson 1968: 13). Even though we can be certain that such an influence existed, the truth is that little is known about the linguistic situation of Roman Britain. Many historians and historical linguists believe that, although Latin was the language of the administration and a great part of the elite, the regular men and women would keep using their native Celtic languages (Durkin 2014: 57-58), maybe incorporating a little Latin vocabulary to their own. In any case, lexical borrowing from Latin into Old English was very prominent, and at least some of these borrowings may have entered the vocabulary indirectly through Celtic as a consequence of the Roman Rule (Durkin 2014: 62). On the other hand, there was little influence from Celtic into Germanic in what concerns to lexical borrowing, even though some scholars argue that, contrastingly, the grammatical and structural influence was noticeable (Durkin 2014: 61). Finally, a third period of Latin influence on Old English can be mentioned, in which the conversion to Christianity of the Anglo-Saxons “brought the English into close contact not only with religious ideas, but with many aspects of Roman culture and scholarship” (Sheard 1970: 121-122). This new wave of borrowing started around 650, and Classical Latin became the new chief source for the religious and learned borrowings entering the English

language (Serjeantson 1968: 14). According to Durkin (2014: 63), “[t]he impact of Latin, through the Church, on Old English was considerable.”

In the words of Serjeantson (1968: 13), “[i]t is sometimes impossible to distinguish between loans of the later continental period (which were introduced between 300 and 450) and those of the first centuries of the settlement (450-650),” before the conversion of the English people to Christianity. To assert the date of introduction of a Latin borrowing of these periods is actually a difficult task. On the one hand, there were no written records of English until the seventh century to indicate the introduction of new words into the language (Serjeantson 1968:13). On the other hand, the late appearance of a borrowing in a manuscript is no real proof of the late adoption of that word, since it might have already been recorded previously in an earlier manuscript that failed to survive or it could belong to a kind of words that does not usually appear in literary records (Sheard 1970: 122). Therefore, the occurrence of a loanword in an early text does not really provide much information about its date of introduction, as, in fact, it could have been introduced in any of the three periods mentioned above (Sheard 1970: 122). Nevertheless, Sheard (1970: 122-123) argues that there are two tests, also recognized by Serjeantson (1968), that are relatively accurate so as to date these Old English borrowings. The first test would involve a comparison between Old English and other early Germanic languages. In this sense, if we find Latin words occurring in Old English that also occur in many other Germanic languages, we can be almost sure that they were adopted into the language at an early stage, before the different Germanic dialects split. Although this is quite an accurate test, there are exceptional cases, since the conversion of many Germanic tribes to Christianity meant the individual introduction of the same Latin words into different Germanic languages as a result of an influence of the Latin language over a wide area. The second test has to do with the evidence of phonological or sound changes. There are phonological developments affecting English (and therefore both Latin borrowings and Old English words) that can be accurately dated, and their presence or absence in the borrowed words provides information on its moment of introduction. Hence, “loan-words adopted early enough would naturally undergo all the phonological changes operative on native sounds at the time” (Sheard 1970: 123), even though it is necessary “to be on guard against sound-substitution and analogical levelling” (Sheard 1970: 123).

Concerning the semantic fields that Old English borrowings from Latin most commonly belong to, Sheard (1970: 122) has pointed out that

[t]he influence of Latin on the Germanic vocabulary in the continental period was largely of a commercial nature, though some evidence is also to be seen of a rise in the standard of living conditions generally. This [...] suggests that these were the aspects of Roman life which most impressed the Germanic tribes.

Serjeantson (1968: 271-288) offers a list of the predominant semantic fields in which borrowing took place in the different phases of the Old English period. We can see that the majority of the borrowings we find in all three periods established by Serjeantson belong to the same semantic fields. The fields distinguished are: the military, legal and official fields; trade and measures; coins; metals; dress and textile; household and other useful objects; food, drink and cooking (and even hunting and fishing); vessels; towns, houses and buildings; plants and agriculture; animals, birds and fish; disease and medicine; religion and learning; and miscellaneous terms.

The influence of Latin on the semantic fields of military, trade and coins can be accounted for by considering the relationships between the Romans and the Germanic tribes. The Romans tended to recruit Germani people for the Empire's military, and this, together with the exchange of goods between both peoples, led to a blurring of the boundaries between their territories, favouring linguistic contact (Durkin 2014: 54-55). In Roman Britain, Latin had been the dominant language, since it was the one used by the administration, the elite and the military, as Latin had the status of *lingua franca* in the Roman military. Thus, the influence of this language can be perceived in fields related with the privileged ranks (regardless of the fact that Celtic was the language of the majority) in the period right after the Anglo-Saxon Conquest, while the Celtic language would have shown quite a different sort of influence (Durkin 2014: 57). Even though the semantic fields covered by Latin borrowings continue to be mostly the same after 650, the words borrowed then tended to be of a "learned" nature since they were introduced through the written language (Hogg 2012: 113). Some borrowings related with learned contexts in the last period exerted an influence over new semantic fields: music and poetry; books and learning; and calendar and astronomy. Learned borrowings were mainly introduced via the Church, as a consequence of the impact of Christianization (Durkin 2014: 63).

3.1.1.2. The bipartite division of Latin borrowings into OE

As a result of the controversy arising from this division into three chronological groupings regarding the loanwords from Latin into Old English, Durkin (2014: 104-105) follows a different model, which only distinguishes two stages: earlier borrowings (until 650 A.D.) and later borrowings (from 650 A.D. onwards). With this classification it is possible to avoid the many problems that the previous one presented in relation with the difficulty to offer a clear delimitation between those loanwords belonging to the continental and the early years of the settlement. For that reason, this will be the classification followed in this dissertation.

It is possible to appreciate that, predominantly, the prototypical Latin loanwords entering into Old English belonged to the class of nouns (see the introduction to Chapter 3), while the adoption of adjectives and verbs was rare. Even in the later stage it was unusual to find borrowings of verbs, and the few borrowed adjectives are mainly a combination of a Latin stem and an English suffix substituting for a Latin one (Serjeantson 1968: 14). In other words; loan blending would be the process through which adjectives from Latin were introduced into English. In fact, in this period derivative nouns, adjectives and adverbs were created out of Latin nouns through the free usage of Old English suffixes. Finally, some hybrid compounds deriving from Latin and Old English can also be found (Serjeantson 1968: 14).

The updated classification in semantic categories of earlier and later Latin borrowings into Old English presented by Durkin (2014: 107-119) distinguishes similar fields to those proposed by Serjeantson (1968). Thus, some examples of loanwords can be extracted from this model, in which Durkin offers the Latin (L) attested forms that served as etymons for the forms borrowed into Old English. The majority of the examples he provides are nouns, since the semantic categories mentioned refer only to that category of words, while verbs and adjectives appear at the end without a semantic differentiation. In the table below, we can see some examples.

Semantic field	Early borrowings	Late borrowings
Religion and church	“ <i>munuc</i> ‘monk’ [L <i>monachus</i>]”	“ <i>apostol</i> ‘apostle’ [L <i>apostolus</i>]”
Learning and scholarship	“ <i>Læden</i> ‘Latin; any foreign language’”	“ <i>meter</i> ‘metre’ [L <i>metrum</i>]”
Plants, fruit and products of plants	“ <i>coccel</i> ‘corn cockle, or other grain-field weed’”	“ <i>ceder</i> ‘cedar’ [L <i>cedrus</i>]”
Animals	“ <i>cocc</i> ‘cock, rooster’ [L <i>coccus</i>]”	“ <i>camel</i> , <i>camell</i> ‘camel’ [L <i>camelus</i>]”
Food and drink	“ <i>must</i> ‘wine must, new wine’ [L <i>mustum</i>]”	
Medicine	“ <i>ele</i> ‘oil’ [L <i>oleum</i>]”	“ <i>cancer</i> ‘ulcerous sore’ [L <i>cancer</i>]”
Transport, riding and horse gear	“ <i>strœt</i> ‘road; paved road, street’ [L <i>strata</i>]”	
Warfare and weapons	“ <i>camp</i> ‘battle; war; field’ [L <i>campus</i>]”	“[<i>m</i>]ilite ‘soldiers’ [L <i>milites</i> , plural of <i>miles</i>]”
Tools and implements	“ <i>forc</i> , <i>forca</i> ‘fork’ [L <i>furca</i>]”	“ <i>pīc</i> ‘spike, pick, pike’ [perhaps L * <i>pic-</i>]”
Buildings and parts of buildings, construction, towns and settlements	“ <i>torr</i> ‘tower’ [L <i>turris</i>]”	“ <i>foss</i> ‘ditch’ [L <i>fossa</i>]”
Containers, vessels and receptacles	“ <i>buteruc</i> ‘bottle’ [perhaps from a derivative of L <i>buttis</i>]”	“[<i>p</i>]urs, <i>burse</i> ‘purse’ [L <i>bursa</i>]”
Coins, money, weights and measures, and units of measurement	“ <i>mynet</i> ‘a coin; coinage, money’ [L <i>moneta</i>]”	“ <i>mancus</i> ‘a money of account equivalent to thirty pence, a weight equivalent to thirty pence’ [L <i>mancus</i>]”
Transactions and payments	“ <i>trifet</i> ‘tribute’ [L <i>tributum</i>]”	
Clothing and fabric	“ <i>mentel</i> ‘cloak’ [L <i>mantellum</i>]”	“ <i>tuniċe</i> , <i>tuneċe</i> ‘undergarment, tunic, coat, toga’ [L <i>tunica</i>]”
Furniture and furnishing	“ <i>pyle</i> , <i>pylu</i> ‘pillow, cushion’ [L <i>pulvinus</i>]”	

Precious stones	“ <i>pærl</i> ‘(very doubtfully) pearl’ [perhaps L * <i>perla</i>]”	
Roles, ranks and occupations	“ <i>mangere</i> ‘merchant, trader’ [L <i>mango</i>]”	“ <i>consul</i> ‘consul’ [L <i>consul</i>]”
Punishment, judgement and codes of behaviour	“ <i>regol, reogol</i> ‘rule; principle; code of rules; wooden ruler’ [L <i>regula</i>]”	

Table 1. Early and Late Old English borrowings from Latin: nouns (Durkin 2014: 108-119)

Apart from these noun semantic categories, examples of two other classes of words are also offered:

Word class	Early borrowings	Late borrowings
Verbs	“ <i>trifulian</i> ‘to break, bruise, stamp’ [L <i>tribulare</i>]”	“ <i>offrian</i> ‘to offer, sacrifice’ [L <i>offerre</i>]”
Adjectives	“ <i>sicor</i> ‘sure, certain; secure’ [L <i>securus</i>]”	“ <i>[f]als</i> ‘false’ [L <i>falsus</i>]”
Miscellaneous	“ <i>copor</i> ‘copper’ [L <i>cuprum</i>]”	“ <i>[f]als</i> ‘fraud, trickery’ [L <i>falsum</i>]”

Table 2. Early and Late Old English borrowings from Latin: verbs, adjectives and miscellaneous (Durkin 2014: 113-116)

It is remarkable that loanwords were not the most salient kind of borrowing found in OE. Actually, the semantic influence from Latin in the OE period is considerable. The influence was such that it is possible to find both a semantic development on already existing words and the formation of so-called loan translations (Durkin 2014: 63). Therefore, “semantic borrowing [...] was the characteristic means of accommodating new concepts in the vocabulary of Old English” (Durkin 2014: 63), especially in the religious field because of the process of Christianisation (Durkin 2014: 162). Semantic borrowing could involve the adoption of a meaning from a foreign word into a native one either because they share another meaning (e.g. “Latin *lingua* ‘tongue’ : ‘language’ = Old English *tunge* ‘tongue’ : ‘language’” (Durkin 2014: 162), with the meaning ‘language’

being adopted from Latin into English) or without there being an exact semantic correspondence (e.g. “*cniht* ‘child, servant, retainer’ acquired the additional meaning ‘disciple, follower of Christ’ from Latin *discipulus*, originally ‘learner, pupil’” (Durkin 2014: 163)). “Old English *ælmihtiġ* ‘almighty’ [...] was probably formed as a loan translation of Latin *omnipotēns*” (Durkin 2014: 164), which, as we have already seen, was also a very common procedure in the Old English period that entailed adopting a meaning through the translation of the components of the Latin term.

Some of the words borrowed before the Norman Conquest survived to the present-day, but many others were displaced by French borrowings, whose form was different, although they came from the same ultimate source (Serjeantson 1968: 14). Others, however, showed a high degree of integration in the English language, since they were the origin of new derivatives and compounds (Durkin 2014: 121), and survived as a consequence of that.

3.1.2. The Middle English period

In the Middle English period (comprising from 1150 until 1500) the influence of Latin seems to have been more important than in the OE period, as the OED records almost six thousand words from this origin (between 1100-1499). However, since most of these Latin borrowings, as we will see, were introduced via French, it is sometimes difficult to affirm whether some of them entered the language directly from Latin or not.

The English language suffered important changes due to an external event occurring in this period: the Norman Conquest (which took place in 1066) (Grant 2009: 365). After the Normans took Britain a multilingual situation arose and the English language lost its prestige in favour of Anglo-French (the variety of French spoken by the Normans) and Latin, which were the languages used for the higher functions. It was not until the late fourteenth and fifteenth centuries that English fulfilled again those roles from which it was left out before, as they were performed by those other two foreign languages. Therefore, we can talk about a situation of triglossia in this period, since three different languages were used in different social situations in the same community. In this way, Latin was the language used in the Church, while Anglo-French was the language of the

administration and commercial business, since it was the mother tongue of the foreign nobility. English remained as the most commonly used language in Britain, because it was used by the lower classes. Even though Latin, which was taught through French, was restricted to religious domains and Anglo-French was spoken by a very small part of the population, words, forms and meanings from the two more prestigious languages were introduced in the vocabulary of the general population, some of them entering common usage. Moreover, borrowing from Latin and French became a need in order for English to be able to perform by the end of the fourteenth century the linguistic functions that were carried out previously in this period by those languages, so that it could eventually become a prestigious language positioned at their same level (Durkin 2014: 229-236).

After taking a look at this general context, it is easier to understand why both Latin and French were the most prolific sources for lexical borrowing in the ME period. The great amount of borrowings from these two languages caused a transformation in the derivational morphology of English, the loss of native vocabulary in favour of foreign one, changes in the meaning of native words, and the stratification of the English lexis with a noticeable dissociation concerning many semantic fields. It is important to mention that, in spite of the rapid acquisition of borrowings, the changes that affected the nature and structure of the ME vocabulary were actually very slow (Durkin 2014: 223-225).

As previously remarked, sometimes it can be difficult to distinguish whether a borrowing in this period has a French or Latin origin, since French was one of the Romance languages developing from spoken Latin. In many cases a composite origin seems to be the most likely option (Durkin 2014: 236-237). Nevertheless, some words are with no doubt identified as French borrowings, as their Latin forms were noticeably adapted to that language to the point that that French influence can be appreciated in the English form too (Serjeantson 1968: 261). On the other hand, there are cases in which a borrowing from Latin could have been introduced through French into Middle English, because it had been previously borrowed into French. Indeed, many learned Latin borrowings had also been introduced in French and some of them have afterwards been borrowed through the Romance language into English. With the aim of identifying those borrowings directly coming from Latin into Middle English, negative evidence was considered to be one of the best options. Therefore, those borrowings that were not attested in French at all, or at least not at a particular date or meaning, would potentially be borrowings solely from

Latin (Durkin 2014: 244). However, there are a lot more borrowings that could be either Latin or French, since, in a period in which semantic borrowing from these two languages into English was quite important, they showed many cognate words that semantically were very similar (Durkin 2014: 245-246). Likewise, with regard to loanwords, a medieval French word would sometimes show a very similar form to the Latin one which it comes from (Serjeantson 1968: 261), this being, hence, another proof of the difficulty of source identification. Furthermore, many OE Latin borrowings were re-borrowed or reinforced from French, Latin or both in this period, making it also difficult to ascertain their dates of introduction apart from whether there has been some input from French or not, since the continuity or discontinuity between the Old English and Middle English words is not always clear (Durkin 2014: 251-253).

As in Old English, Middle English borrowings from Latin are usually of a technical character, and are very often related with religion, as we have already seen that Latin was the main medium in the religious domain. Thus, among the technical semantic fields that suffered the adoption of loanwords we should mention first ecclesiastical terms (e.g. *requiem* or *pater*), and then words related with the study and practice of the law (e.g. *conviction*, *memorandum* and *persecutor*), other legal words and phrases more exclusive of this field (e.g. *alias* and *habeas corpus*), terms of the schools and writing (e.g. *abecedary*, *et cetera*, *index* and *simile*) and varied scientific terms (e.g. *diaphragm*, *mercury*, *comet*, *gladiol*, *locust* and *chrysoberyl*). In addition to this classification, there are many other technical words introduced in this period that cannot be grouped as easily (e.g. *depression*, *confederate* and *adjure*) (Serjeantson 1968: 259-261). In Table 3 some more examples of Latin borrowings into ME are classified according to their semantic fields. The so-called “aureate terms” were also borrowed in this period, developing a style that alternated between English and Latin forms. These words exclusively used for literary purposes kept their pure Latin form and were used by, for instance, many of Chaucer’s successors, who conceived the aureate (“< *aureātus* decorated with gold” (OED s.v. *aureate* adj.)) style as the golden style of the English language; nevertheless, their introduction into the Middle English vocabulary is not as remarkable, since they did not become part of the real English vocabulary (Sheard 1970: 246).

Semantic field	ME borrowings
Ecclesiastical terms	<i>gloria, magnificent, lector, diocese, salvator, psalm, alleluia, sabbat...</i>
Study and practice of the law	<i>arbitrator, client, defalcation, equivalent, executor, hereditament, legitimate, pauper...</i>
Exclusively legal words	“ <i>alias, dedimus, habeas corpus, subpæna, prima facie [...]</i> ”
Terms of the schools and writing	<i>allegory, cause, desk, ergo, formal, library, memento, neuter...</i>
Scientific terms: medicine	<i>hepatic, orbit, dislocate, ligament, saliva...</i>
Scientific terms: alchemy	<i>ether, sal effronium, calcine, distillation, fermentation...</i>
Scientific terms: astronomy	<i>ascension, dial, equinoxium, intercept, retrograde...</i>
Scientific terms: botany	<i>cardamon, juniper, pine...</i>
Scientific terms: zoology	<i>asp, cicade, lacert...</i>
Scientific terms: mineralogy	<i>adamant, chalcedony, onyx...</i>
Other technical words	<i>aliment, colony, compact, immortal, dissent, infect...</i>

Table 3. Middle English borrowings from Latin (Serjeantson 1968: 259-261)

If Tables 1 and 2 are compared with Table 3 it is possible to appreciate that in the ME period the Latin borrowings seem not to be as well adapted to the English language concerning their form as in the previous period. This has to do with the fact that, in general, Latin borrowings introduced during the OE period are indeed shorter than those introduced in the ME period. The English native vocabulary has always been characterised by its short forms, so polysyllabic Latin borrowings in the ME period, like *legitimate* or *magnificent*, point at a lower degree of integration into the language.

In contrast with the OE period, in the ME period loanwords seem to prevail over semantic borrowings (including both semantic loans and loan translations). However, the detection of the latter is often more difficult. An example of this kind of borrowing is the creation of Middle English *black salt* after the Latin term *sal niger*, as a case of a loan translation (Durkin 2014: 264).

Even though borrowing did also occur in the OE period, the Norman Conquest led to the adoption of such a high number of words of French and Latin origin into ME that more than half of the OE vocabulary disappeared, as native words were eventually replaced by those borrowings (Trask 1996: 20).

3.2. Latin borrowings in the Modern English period

The situation of the English language changed dramatically in the Modern English period. As we have already seen, English had been for a long time subordinated to two other languages: French and Latin, but in this new era its functions were expanded as it started to be used in the written mode, after having regained its lost prestige. We are now in the moment of the elaboration of functions of English on its way to develop a standard variety (after the dialect of London), so those linguistic functions previously performed by Latin became part of the vernacular's target. Consequently, English began to be used in learning and in the religious discourse (Durkin 2014: 306). Anyway, the prestige of Latin did not decline, and as Durkin (2014: 307) affirms, some of the dominant Renaissance styles of the Early ModE period characterised by their Latinate diction were based on the aureate style of the late ME period.

According to Sheard (1970: 241), English has been constantly enriched after the fifteenth century in terms of borrowing. This fact “reflects both the various foreign contacts of the period and the growing demands made on the evolving standard language” (Nevalainen 1999: 332), as English now had to cover all linguistic functions, which were before carried out in French or Latin. The extensive borrowing from foreign languages together with productive word-formation processes caused an enormous and unprecedented growth in the English lexis, and the borrowed lexis not only provided new names for new ideas, but also different names for already existing terms (synonyms) and fostered the appearance of different registers in the language (Nevalainen 1999: 332). Latin borrowings have been continuously entering the English language since 1500 onwards, with “the largest numbers having been introduced during the second half of the sixteenth century and the first half of the seventeenth” (Serjeantson 1968: 264). The following figure from the OED provides the number of Latin borrowings introduced in a timeline

from the year 1000 until 2000. The peak in the aforementioned centuries can be clearly appreciated.

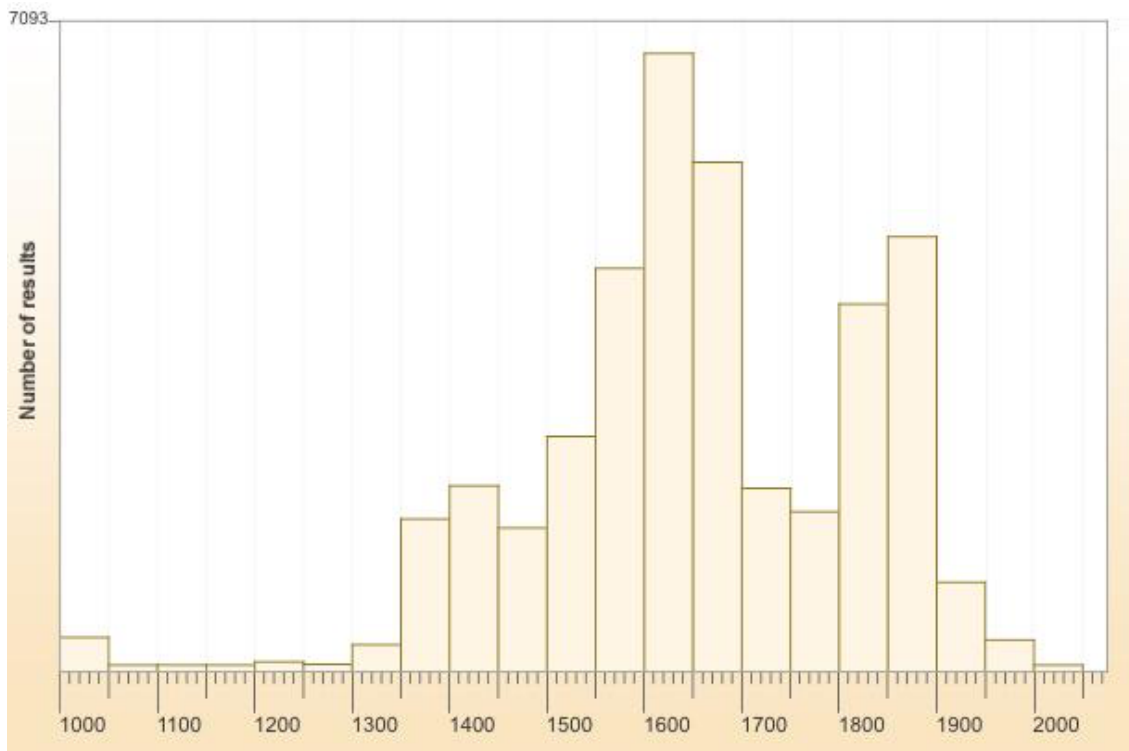


Figure 1: Latin borrowings through time (1000-2000) (OED: timelines)

The Modern English period (1500-1900) is, thus, the period in which the highest rate of Latin borrowing took place. The OED records over thirty-three thousand new words of this origin between 1500 and 1899 (Sheard 1970: 241). In spite of the great amount of Latin borrowings introduced in this period, the everyday-use vocabulary had been already established before (Sheard 1970: 241). These borrowings, however, indicate “the continuous importance of Latin culture and literature in England especially under the influence of the Classical Renaissance” (Serjeantson 1968: 259).

The Modern English period is usually divided in two subperiods: the Early Modern English period (1500-1700) and the Late Modern English period (1700-1900). Latin borrowing was copious in both of them, but, as we will see in the following subsections, whereas borrowed words helped to develop the more formal registers of the lexis in the Early Modern English period, in the Late Modern English period they came to be part of a more technical and precise vocabulary (Durkin 2014: 309).

3.2.1. The Early Modern English period (1500-1700)

The Early Modern English period comprises from the sixteenth century to the late seventeenth century. This is the period of the Renaissance, in which the interest on classical learning promoted the study of the classical languages, that is to say, Greek and Latin. As a consequence, both of them showed an impact on the English vocabulary. Latin was still the universal language of the Church and scholarship then, and, together with Greek, it seemed to represent linguistic perfection as opposed to vernacular languages such as English. For that reason, the new ideas resulting from the Renaissance, concerning classical arts, philosophy and science, and those others arising from the process of the religious Reformation and the exploration of new territories overseas were conveyed, on many occasions, through borrowings from the classical languages (Sheard 1970: 246-248). However, this large adoption of foreign words led to a big controversy on whether they actually enriched the language, as the innovative writers claimed, or rather corrupted it. According to Hughes (2000: 147), the Early Modern English period was the first period in the history of the English language in which the state of the language became the object of controversy.

3.2.1.1. The inkhorn controversy

In a period in which the vindication of the vernacular language took place, leading to the expansion of its functions to domains which were considered to be the territory of Latin before, English forms were paradoxically remodelled after the Latinate ones and classical genres and styles were imitated. The aim was to achieve a Golden Age in English; so many loanwords from Latin were adopted in order to make the English language comparable to the classical languages and, particularly, to Golden Age Latin (Adamson 1999: 541-544).

The amount of borrowings adopted into Modern English from both Latin and Greek during the Renaissance was considerable. The fashion of introducing these foreign words in written texts was, indeed, disproportionate, to the extent that many words entered the language deliberately, without there being an actual need for their introduction (Sheard 1970: 249-250). The motives for borrowing were both practical, since the English

vocabulary proved to be insufficient, and stylistic, since richness of vocabulary was pursued (Nevalainen 1999: 358), but the latter clearly prevailed. This can be explained by the fact that the rhetorical style of the period valued copy or abundance over any other quality, and Latin loanwords were seen as the best option to achieve that quality, due to the prestigious situation of Latinate word forms (Durkin 2014: 308). The only purpose of this exaggerate adoption of Latin terms was that of providing the English language with an equal power of literary expression to the one owned by the classical languages. Apart from the huge number of loanwords introduced, Latin meanings were also transferred to native words, but most of them did not happen to remain in the language. The strangeness and obscurity of these borrowings led to a great controversy, with scholars positioning and arguing both in favour and against them (Sheard 1970: 249-250).

The inkhorn controversy was the name given to the many responses that the borrowing of such amount of Latin terms aroused (Sheard 1970: 251). Particularly, it was superfluous learned borrowings introduced “for the sake of magniloquence” (Nevalainen 1999: 359) the ones that were being criticised (Nevalainen 1999: 359). This controversy might be understood as a “struggle for linguistic supremacy” (Grant 2009: 367) between scholars claiming that the English language was valid for all purposes, and scholars that kept supporting Latin as the language of scholarship (Grant 2009: 367). There are three main different schools of thought in this period that must be mentioned in relation with this debate: purists, archaisers and neologisers. (Barber 1997: 53). On the one hand, some scholars, that were later called “purists”, argued that these “inkhorn terms”, which began to appear with the aureate language of the fifteenth century, would only cause strangeness and obscurity in the language (Sheard 1970: 250). As pointed out by Nevalainen (1999: 333), borrowing is the reason why English does not show any sort of formal connection between words belonging to the same semantic field, and, therefore, that would mean that many words in the lexicon of English lack transparency because they were adopted through borrowing (Sheard 1970: 250). For this reason, purists defended the need of preserving the purity of the English language, maintaining its clear vocabulary. When the coining of a new term for a new idea was needed, they stood either in favour of word-creation through native means (i.e. affixation or compounding) or even the addition of new technical meanings to already existing words, as the resulting words would be semantically self-evident (Barber 1997: 62). Archaisers went a step forward in order to avoid the adoption of borrowings. Apart from defending the use of the existing English

words instead of synonymous foreign words, they considered that the revival of obsolete English words was the best option in those cases in which a new term was needed (Barber 1997: 53). Likewise, they promoted the usage of words from regional dialects, particularly in the literary field (Barber 1997: 67). On the other hand, there were also scholars, called “neologisers” or “reformers”, ready to defend the borrowing of Latin terms. In order to fight back purists’ and archaisers’ arguments, they claimed that other languages had borrowed in the past with the aim of enriching their language, and, after some time being part of their vocabulary, those words eventually became transparent for the community of speakers (Sheard 1970: 251). To avoid criticism with regard to this aspect, neologisers often explained the meaning of those borrowings they introduced (Barber 1997: 54). With the purpose of defending the need for borrowing, these scholars qualified the contemporary state of the English language as barbarous or unpolished, manifesting the need for borrowing and enrichment (Hughes 2000: 156).

Of course, these are only the most extreme positions adopted towards borrowing, but many other scholars defended intermediate standpoints (Hughes 2000: 156). Finally, an in-between policy was adopted, since the efforts of both sides led to a more responsible use of this mechanism for the enlargement of vocabulary (Sheard 1970: 251). As a solution had been achieved, the debate did not last long and it was eventually quietened down along the seventeenth century (Durkin 2014: 319).

3.2.1.2. Learned borrowing

The positions mentioned towards borrowings, and especially loanwords, in English are found in many contemporary comments that arose as a result of the rapid growth of the English vocabulary (Durkin 2014: 316). Bilingual Latin dictionaries were created so as to provide glosses for the recently introduced learned vocabulary, also called “hard words” (Nevalainen 1999: 334). Many loanwords (such as *charientism*, *discruciating*, *fatuate* and *obstupefact*) failed to survive in the language and are now obsolete, since they were not really needed, but many others became part of the regular vocabulary (Sheard 1970: 251-253).

Although Latin loanwords belonged to the learned type in the Early Modern English period, some of these words are indispensable now, so we can conclude that they definitely helped to enrich the English language. Some of them are: nouns like *anachronism*, *crisis* and *theory*; verbs such as *benefit*, *eradicate* and *extinguish*; and adjectives like *appropriate*, *conspicuous* and *scientific* (Sheard 1970: 253). The word-categories mentioned (especially nouns (see the introduction to Chapter 3), but also verbs and adjectives) are the ones to which most of the Latin loanwords of Early Modern English belong (Nevalainen 1999: 366). In Table 4 more examples of learned borrowings from Latin into Early ModE are provided, classified according to the word-category they belong to. Even though their impact was not as important as that of loanwords, loan translations were introduced and used in the period even by purists, together with native word-formation processes, as “a means of augmenting native lexical resources” (Nevalainen 1999: 360). Examples of these are *gainrising*, meaning ‘resurrection’, and *biwordes*, meaning ‘parables’ (Nevalainen 1999: 360). In the case of semantic loans, it was quite common for Latin and/or French borrowings adopted in the ME period to acquire a new meaning from one source language or the other during the Early Modern English period. An example of this is the addition of the meaning ‘a role or character’ to the word *person*. However, it is difficult to distinguish cases of semantic borrowing from those in which the re-borrowing of a loanword has led to a convergence of two forms (the one of the word introduced in this period and that of the earlier borrowing) (Durkin 2014: 335).

Word-category	Early ModE learned borrowings
Noun	<i>abdomen, appendix, catastrophe, delirium, enthusiasm, idiom, irony, skeleton...</i>
Verb	<i>consolidate, erupt, exist, meditate...</i>
Adjective	<i>audacious, expensive, habitual, jocular, metrical, pathetic, precise...</i>

Table 4. Early Modern English borrowings from Latin (Sheard 1970: 253)

It is important to remark that, in the period of the Renaissance, Latin borrowings are no longer commonly filtered through French, since they rather go back to classical or neo-Latin. Moreover, word form can be used in this period to distinguish Latin borrowings

from the French ones, especially in the following cases: verbs that were borrowed from the Latin past participial stem (ending thus in *-t/-s-*), instead of the present (e.g. *communicate*, that developed from *commūnicāt*, the past participial stem of *commūnicāre*); agent-nouns ending in *-or* (e.g. *promotor*); and nouns and adjectives ending in *-ory/-ary* (e.g. *minatory* and *pulmonary*). (Durkin 2014: 320-324). According to these factors, the origin of these borrowings is clearer. However, this distinction does not work in a few cases in which a word could show formal input from either of them, and in other instances the Latin word form does not mean the avoidance of semantic input from French. In any case, borrowings from French decrease after 1500 and they never get to contribute to the basic vocabulary as much as in the Middle English period (Durkin 2014: 347-348).

As mentioned above, although in this age characterised by the experimentation with language many words introduced into English had a learned nature at first, being only used by specialists, many of them have become part of the common vocabulary through time. On the other hand, others never became part of the common vocabulary. However, we should still take into account the scientific and technological vocabulary that was greatly developed during the Renaissance (Sheard 1970: 255). Most of the scientific and philosophical works were written in Latin, since “[it] was the *lingua franca* of international science and scholarship” (Nevalainen 1999: 365). As pointed out by Sheard (1970: 257-260), this favoured the intelligibility between scientists all around the world. This specialised vocabulary served as an international instrument, allowing, at the same time, scientists to express an idea very clearly, because of the inflexibility of these words that only occurred in certain circles. Moreover, the Latin words used were not as familiar as the vernacular ones, so the risk of confusion with other words was smaller. Since, as already mentioned, most of these works were written in Latin, only a few borrowings of this nature were adopted in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Some examples of technical loanwords are *pollen*, *radius* and *skeleton* (Sheard 1970: 261-263).

In the seventeenth century the advance of science was so remarkable that, although works were still mostly written in Latin, many scientific words entered the common language, among which we find: *equilibrium*, *formula*, *pendulum* and *data*. The most developed sciences were anatomy, medicine, natural history, botany and biology, and as a result of

that many of the words introduced into English were related with those fields, like *pneumonia* and *rabies* (Sheard 1970: 263).

Finally, it is also important to highlight another kind of Latin borrowing that occurred along the two centuries of the Early ModE period. This aspect has to do with the borrowing and naturalisation of many Latin affixes (Stockwell and Minkova 2002: 42). Affixes and roots stand for the two types of morphemes existing in English. The main differences between them have to do with the fact that no affix can form a word by itself, while some roots may be able to; affixes' meanings are frequently not as clear as the meanings of roots, and they might even have no meaning; and the total number of affixes is negligible in comparison with the number of roots. However, even though they are different, both types participate in processes of word-formation (Stockwell and Minkova 2002: 63-64). The process of naturalisation of Latin affixes proves the great impact Latin loanwords had on the English language during these centuries, since there needs to be a high number of borrowings carrying the same Latin affix for it to be adapted into the language. Some of these Latin affixes that were borrowed and adapted into English are the suffixes “-ence, -ancy, -ency < Latin -entia, -antia, -y” (Stockwell and Minkova 2002: 42). Others, like the Latin suffixes -ia, -ous and -ate, and the prefixes *post-* and *sub-* maintained their Latin form when they were borrowed, but became naturalised in the sense that they also started to be used as elements belonging to the productive morphology of English (Stockwell and Minkova 2002: 42).

3.2.2. The Late Modern English period (1700-1900)

The late-seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are recognised as the period of the Restoration and the Age of Reason. In this historical moment, the return of the French influence with Charles II led to the emergence of a national feeling among the population towards the vernacular language. Therefore, the need of a refined and purified style for the English language was defended, and scholars stood up for native words against foreign elements.

3.2.2.1. The doctrine of correctness

While in the previous centuries copy was the quality that scholars sought for in the language, clarity of expression was from the mid seventeenth century onwards the most valued one, which resulted in a drop in the number of borrowings introduced in the eighteenth century (Durkin 2014: 308). Durkin (2014: 308) gives two possible reasons for this delay concerning the suspension of large borrowing: “the continuing growth of specialist technical vocabulary and of distinct stylistic registers [...], and the further growth of existing word families.” The decline of borrowing was even greater as a result of the new stage of the standardisation process that took place in the eighteenth century, codification, the usage of Latinate lexis being restricted to formal and elevated styles of language, or to more restrictive vocabularies associated with technical fields (Durkin 2014: 308-309).

Many scholars, especially grammarians and orthoepists, tried to fix the language by following their own rules. This is how the “doctrine of correctness” began. The aim was to turn English into a perfectly regular language, just like the way in which Latin was perceived. The main motive for this regularisation was the emergence of the common idea about the language undergoing degeneration, as Latin did after its “golden age” (although scholars did not agree in which moment to set the English “golden age”). The many linguistic changes taking place in the previous century (both concerning the borrowing of elements from other languages, such as Latin, and the free conversion of words from a class to another) were considered to be the reason for this degeneration. Even though scholars discovered that English, compared to Latin, lacked order in grammatical terms, the attempts to establish a fixed language did not stop (Sheard 1970: 302-303). In any case, as Sheard pointed out (1970: 303)

[t]his desire to give English a polished, rational, and authoritative form, similar to that of Latin, led to the attempt to settle all disputed points either by appeal to authority, which at first meant Latin authority, or by reasoned argument, and eventually to the demand for a law-giving body, an Academy which should have authority first to purify the language, and then fix it in its final perfect form.

The result of this cleansing and purifying process was that of an impoverishment in the vocabulary, as stated by Sheard (1970: 303-304), since the authorities intended to ban and extinct the use of a great amount of words and expressions. As a consequence of this purification of the language, Latin borrowings introduced in the period of the Renaissance were examined. The highly-Latinised vocabulary of the sixteenth century started to be, thus, purged, since in many cases it was found to be unnecessary, and the same happened with many of other foreign languages, such as French (Sheard 1970: 304). Writers were more interested in finding native means to achieve classical effects, rather than on remodelling English according to Latin forms (Adamson 1999: 596).

While many old native words were recovered, dictionaries appeared as a way of fixing the language, and, although in the early seventeenth century they were merely lists of “hard words”, in the eighteenth century English words belonging to the general vocabulary were included, as the standard was being created (Sheard 1970: 307-309). In spite of the attempts to purify the language, scientists were rather interested on intelligibility, so words composed of Latin (or Greek) and English elements continued to be introduced in the language as science advanced, since most of those words that were available in the two classical languages had already been borrowed (Sheard 1970: 264).

3.2.2.2. Scientific borrowing

In the nineteenth century the purist attitude adopted in the eighteenth century towards the English vocabulary continued, so there was an attempt to replace many foreign words and elements with native ones. However, after a period of an important influence from French and Latin, English had lost its ease to apply its native word-formation patterns, so this process was not particularly well received. An example of a Latin word that was replaced by an old native one was that of *manual* in favour of *handbook*, despite the fact that both forms eventually survived in different contexts (Sheard 1970: 313-314). As regards more specialised vocabularies, since new fields of science continued to emerge and expand, technical terminology continued to be developed through the adoption of Latin and Greek words and word-forming elements (Durkin 2014: 309). As we can appreciate in Figure 1, in this century there is another peak in what borrowings from Latin is concerned.

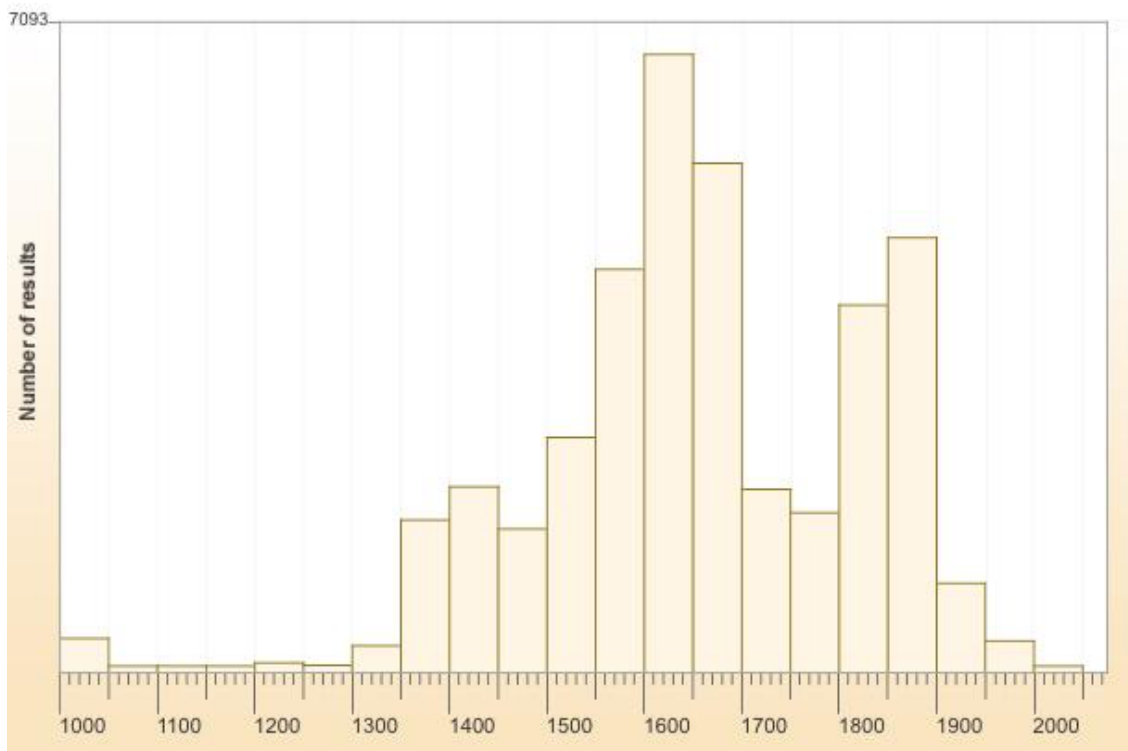


Figure 1 (repeated for convenience of the reader): Latin borrowings through time (1000-2000) (OED: timelines)

Durkin (2014: 340-341) distinguishes two groups of scientific Latin borrowings: (i) words composed of one or more Latin elements, and sometimes even Greek elements, with classical Latin or naturalised endings, which were created by modern scientists; (ii) and Latin loanwords “employed by modern scientists in the systematic terminology of various disciplines” (Durkin 2014: 341). A high number of the modern borrowings from Latin that we find in English are created after the first group. For instance, *abietene* ‘[a] volatile, odoriferous liquid hydrocarbon mixture obtained by distillation of the resin of the digger pine of California, *Pinus sabiniana*, and formerly used as a solvent and in patent medicines [...]’ (OED s.v. *abietene* n.), which comes from the classical Latin *abiet-*, *abiēs* ‘fir tree’ and *-ene* (Durkin 2014: 341). Durkin (2014: 346) himself points at the similarity between this group of borrowings and neoclassical compounds, which will be dealt with at the end of this chapter. However, while the words belonging to this group are considered to be loanwords or at least adaptations of words from Latin, neoclassical compounding is a type of modern English word formation strategy. In the second group, we find Latin borrowings into the scientific Latin used by modern scientists. These typically maintain their Latin form, occur in noun phrases usually with other Latin words,

and appear in texts that were written in English, especially in the fields of medicine and taxonomy. An example would be *Panthera tigris*, which is a collocation of a noun expressing the genus, *Panthera*, and another conveying the species, *tigris* (Durkin 2014: 344). In Table 5 further examples of these two types are collected.

Groups	Late ModE borrowings
Formations from Latin elements with classical Latin or naturalised endings	“ <i>oleiferous</i> yielding or bearing oil (1804) < classical Latin <i>oleum</i> oil + the (borrowed) combining form <i>-iferous</i> ”
	“ <i>papaverine</i> a type of crystalline alkaloid (1848) [probably] < classical Latin <i>papā-ver</i> poppy + the (borrowed) suffix <i>-ine</i> ”
Scientific Latin words	<i>Quercus robur</i> = “oak”
	<i>Panthera leo</i> = “lion”
	<i>Ventriculus sinister</i> = “left ventricle of the heart”

Table 5. Late Modern English borrowings from Latin (Durkin 2014: 344-346)

The twentieth-century vocabulary underwent a great expansion comparable to that of the Renaissance (Sheard 1970: 314), and, in what concerns Latin borrowings, they continued to be introduced until this day when science demanded the coinage of new terms. Some examples of Latin borrowings from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, according to Sheard (1970: 264) are *allotropy*, *isomerism* and *neurilemma*. In any case, he (1970: 264) also claims that we should be careful while talking about scientific vocabulary, since these words are not really used out of their specialised fields in English, and, therefore, are not clearly part of the English vocabulary, but of that of science instead.

In addition to borrowing, Durkin (2014: 309) affirms that the use of word-forming elements from the classical languages (i.e. so-called “neoclassical compounds¹”) was then, and continues to be, the most recurrent pattern for the coining of new technical and scientific vocabulary. Even though this is not exactly a case of borrowing, the concept of

¹ Neoclassical compounding is what Algeo calls innovative borrowing (see Chapter 2.5). While Algeo considers innovative borrowing as a type of lexical borrowing, other scholars, such as Durkin, claim that neoclassical compounding is a pattern of word-formation within English and other vernaculars.

neoclassical compounding needs to be approached here, because of its importance for the creation of new words in the ModE period. According to Sheard (1970: 264), it was the continuous and extensive borrowing of classical terms for scientific purposes what resulted in the need to create new terms in order to be able to meet the demand. Neoclassical compounding is defined as a pattern of word-formation within English and other European vernacular languages that is based on the model of compounding patterns of the classical languages. This shows the great impact that both Latin and Greek have on Modern English and its technical vocabulary. The basis of the compound is the combination of two classical elements that are dependent in English and that can be distinguished from native affixes. Even though their elements might have been taken from Latin, those words created after bound forms are not loanwords, since they only occur in the borrowing language where they have been put together (Durkin 2014: 346-347). Therefore, the resulting words are indeed neologisms (Grant 2009: 367), “English-born compounds in origin” (Grant 2009: 369). Some examples are: *biomorphism*, *cryogen* (Durkin 2014: 346) and *television* (Grant 2009: 368).

According to Bauer (1983: 213), the elements of neoclassical compounding can be confused with affixes, since they might be added to a lexeme so as to form a new word. However, he claims that the elements of neoclassical compounding are different from affixes, and he refers to them as combining forms (Bauer 1983: 213-214). Initial Combining Forms and Final Combining Forms can be combined so as to create a new word without the need of a root (e.g. *electroscope*), whereas it is not possible for prefixes and suffixes to do the same. Likewise, as affixes need to occur with an independent element, it is not possible to form a compound with an Initial Combining Form and a suffix (e.g. **electroness*), nor to combine prefixes with Final Combining Forms (e.g. **cology*). Even though there might be some exceptions, it seems that the only requirement for lexemes to be turned into Initial Combining Forms is to end in a vowel. That way, they can form a new word through their combination with a Final Combining Form. For that purpose, lexemes ending in a consonant can be added a final *-o* (/əu/), as Initial Combining Forms tend to end in that vowel (e.g. *jazzophile*). The difference between Initial Combining Forms and prefixes, however, lies also in their meaning: the former seems to carry a higher density of lexical information (compare: ICF *eco-* and prefix *pre-*). From another perspective, the elements conforming a neoclassical compound could be seen as roots different from the English ones in the sense that they are classical in origin

and bound, and as a result they can only occur with another bound root (Bauer 1983: 214-216). In any case, “[n]eoclassical compounds are extremely productive in English, and are also used as bases in derivational processes, e.g. *holographic, prebiological*” (Bauer 1983: 216).

To sum up, in the Early Modern English period the many Latin borrowings taking place add mostly to the differentiation of a more formal and sophisticated register or even to specialised fields, instead of adding to the general vocabulary of English, while in the Late Modern English period scientific Latin provided Latin loanwords with new technical meanings and new compound words were created after the Latin model (Durkin 2014: 348-349). Through this overview of the Latin influence on the different periods of the English language, we can conclude that Latin has been a very prolific source for the acquisition of new vocabulary in English, either because of need or prestige reasons, even after no more contact with the language was kept.

4. A study of Latin loanwords in ModE: Evidence from the OED

Once the theoretical framework has been dealt with, I will now explain the practical analysis on Modern English borrowings from Latin that I have carried out. The aim of this study was to explore the parts of speech and semantic fields that were mostly affected by Latin borrowings during the Modern English period. Likewise, the form of the borrowings was taken into consideration, so as to appreciate their degree of integration within the English language. I also took into account their frequency of occurrence in current use.

4.1. Methodology

The analysis was applied to 182 borrowings from Latin into Modern English that were recorded in the OED, whose date of first citation ranged from 1500 to 1899. In order to conduct the analysis, I selected first the category of Latin origin (categories > origin > European languages > Italic > language of origin: Latin) among the browse categories of the OED, and then the date of first citation (1500-1599; 1600-1699; 1700-1799; or 1800-1899). Since I wanted to obtain the same number of examples from each century, I decided to pick the first two Latin borrowings from each letter of the English alphabet per century that fulfilled the requirements presented above, that is to say, approximately 50 borrowings from each century. In Figure 2, we can see that the first two results that appear when we look for Latin origin and the date filter of 1500-1599 in the advanced search are *aback* and *ab aeterno*. Thus, those words were the first ones to be considered. However, the number of borrowings per century obtained was not exactly the same, since there were some letters of the alphabet in which it was not possible to find that amount of Latin borrowings fulfilling the requisites that I will mention later on (letters <k>, <w>, <x> and <y>). Thus, the analysis was performed on 46 borrowings introduced from 1500 to 1599; 44 borrowings introduced from 1600 to 1699; 44 borrowings introduced from 1700 to 1799; and 48 borrowings introduced from 1800 to 1899.

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Help on Search Results | Print | Email

Advanced search results

Showing 1-20 of 7317 results in 7317 entries

View as: List | Timeline Jump to alphabetical point: GO ntry | Frequency | Date

1. [aback, n.](#) [View full entry](#) 1592
...A square section or area, sometimes containing an inscription....
2. [ab aeterno, adv.](#) [View full entry](#) 1593-4
...From eternity, from the beginning of time; from the most remote antiquity. Now somewhat rare....
3. [abalienate, v.](#) [View full entry](#) a1555
...transitive. To estrange or alienate in feeling; to cause to feel removed or distant. Also: to remove, distance. Frequently with *from*. Now rare....
4. [abalienation, n.](#) [View full entry](#) 1596
...Removal or transferral of feeling; estrangement, alienation....
5. [abannition, n.](#) [View full entry](#) 1583
...An act or the action of banishing someone, usually for a year as a punishment for manslaughter....

Your current search (entries):

Date filter 1500 - 1599

Origin European languages > Italic > Latin

Save search Refine search

Refine your search

- Subject
- Region
- Usage
- Part of Speech
- First Cited in

Search within results for: in Full Text GO

Entry	Date
A, n.	OE
a, pron.	a1225
a, adj.	?a1160
a, prep.1	OE
a, prep.2	c1275
a, conj.	?a1325
a, int.1	?c1200
a, int.2	c1440
a-, prefix1	
a-, prefix2	c1275
a-, prefix3	1673
a-, prefix4	
a-, prefix5	
a-, prefix6	
-a, suffix1	
-a, suffix2	
A1, adj.	1776
A2, n.	1999
aa, n.1	1430
aa, n.2	1859

Figure 2: Latin borrowings introduced into Modern English from 1500 to 1599 (OED: advanced search)

Once I decided which borrowings I was going to include on my study, I started to classify them according to their date of introduction in the English language, the part of speech or word-category they belonged to, the semantic field they are most regularly applied to, their form (whether they were adapted to the English language or they kept their Latin form) and their current frequency of usage. The entries of the different words usually provided most of that information. So as to classify those words in terms of their semantic fields, I decided to use the basic subject categories that the OED distinguishes, instead of recurring to the historical thesaurus, as I considered the former ones to be more convenient. Therefore, in those cases in which the entry of a given loanword did not offer any classification according to those subject categories, I selected one of them myself by considering its predominant meaning. Likewise, I decided to choose only one subject category in those cases in which the OED provided more than one for a same word, for a clearer classification of the tokens analysed.

The frequency data of the OED is obtained from the comparison and analysis of different corpora, especially that of Google Books Ngrams data. Because of its convenience, this was the model followed to indicate the current frequency of usage of the selected borrowings. There are eight bands that mark the overall frequency score of the different words since the decade of 1970 until the present day (see OED: key to frequency, available at <https://public.oed.com/how-to-use-the-oed/key-to-frequency/>). Figure 3, which was taken from the OED (key to frequency), shows the frequency range that each of the eight bands covers and the percentage of entries that are categorised within each band. The frequency band of a word is, thus, calculated in terms of the number of times it occurs per million words in typical usage.

Band	Frequency per million words	% of entries in OED
8	> 1,000	0.02%
7	100 – 999	0.18%
6	10 – 99	1%
5	1 – 9.9	4%
4	0.1 – 0.99	11%
3	0.01 – 0.099	20%
2	< 0.0099	45%
1	–	18%

Figure 3: Frequency bands range (OED: key to frequency)

Borrowing from Latin is a really broad area, since it would include loanwords, loan translations and semantic loans. Such a study would be really difficult to cover completely in this dissertation. For that reason, I decided to reduce the scope of my study to Latin loanwords. However, loan blends were also considered, for the boundary between loan blends and loanwords is not always clear, and their proximity is remarkable (see Chapter 2.4). In any case, semantic loans and loan translations such as *dame's-violet*, which is “[a] translation of the Latin name in the old herbalists, *Viola matronalis*, or of its equivalents” (OED s.v. *dame's-violet* n.), were not taken into account. Moreover, the Latin loanwords into Modern English included in the analysis are direct loanwords in the sense that they come directly from Latin and from Latin only, showing a certain ultimate Latin origin. For instance, the two Latin borrowings mentioned before, *aback* (OED s.v.

aback n.) and *ab aeterno* (OED s.v. *ab aeterno* adv.), are both ultimate Latin borrowings, as they come from classical Latin *abacus* and post-classical Latin *ab aeterno* respectively, so they were included in the analysis. However, those loanwords that did not fulfil that principle were excluded from the classification. Among these exceptions, we find borrowings showing an uncertain or multiple origin, borrowings coming indirectly from other language into English via Latin, borrowings introduced into Modern English combined with an English element, and neoclassical compounds (which, as seen in chapter 3, are not exactly Latin borrowings). Finally, borrowings that are mainly historical or allusive, which are related to renowned or mythological figures or even to names of places or nations, were also left out of the classification. Even though they were not included in my classification, I will provide now some examples of the aforementioned exclusions.

Some words that appear in the OED's list when we look for Latin borrowings with the advanced search actually show an uncertain origin. An instance of this kind of borrowings that I found while performing my search was the word *ballote*, which the OED classifies as either a borrowing from French or a borrowing from Latin (OED s.v. *ballote* n.). Apart from borrowings of doubtful origin, we can also find words of multiple origins that come in part from Latin. Some examples of this are *babirusa*, that comes partly from Latin (Latin *babyroussa*) and partly from Malay (Malay *babi rusa*) (OED s.v. *babirusa* n.), and *labarum*, which comes partly from Latin (Latin *labarum*) and partly from French (French *labarum*) (OED s.v. *labarum* n.). Examples such as these were discarded. In the results of my search there were many examples of borrowings from other languages that were indirectly introduced into English through Latin. Two of these are, for example, *Cabbala*, which, although it was borrowed into medieval Latin, ultimately comes from the Rabbinical Hebrew word *qabbālāh* (OED s.v. *Cabbala*, *Kabbalah* n.), and *kalidium*, which was borrowed into modern Latin from Greek *καλίδιον*. Likewise, borrowings from Latin combined with English elements in the moment of their introduction were also common. An example of the latter is the word *gadean*, whose origin is the scientific Latin word *Gadus*, combined with the suffix *-ean* (OED s.v. *gadean* n.). Neoclassical compounds are also included in the list of Latin forms yielded in the OED search in those cases in which at least one of their elements was taken from Latin. However, since they are formed within English and they did not exist in Latin (as most of the times they were formed with both Latin and Greek elements that did not occur together in the classical

languages), they are not considered actual Latin borrowings in this dissertation. Some examples are *galanthophile*, whose etymons are the Latin word *Galanthus* and the Greek combining form *-phile*, joined through the connective vowel *-o-* (OED s.v. *galanthophile* n.), and *tabacosis*, which comes from the modern Latin word *tabacum* and the Greek suffix *-osis* (OED s.v. *tabacosis* n.). Even in those cases in which a compound already existed in Latin, such as *palatopharyngeus* (OED s.v. *palatopharyngeus* n.), they were not reckoned here as Latin borrowings if the origin of one combining form or lexeme was ultimately Greek, since, as I have already mentioned, exclusively those words of Latin origin only were considered in this study. On the other hand, compounds after Latin elements only that already existed in Latin were included, such as *quadrennium* (OED s.v. *quadrennium* n.) and *quadricorn* (OED s.v. *quadricorn* n. and adj.). Borrowings like *Jacobean* (OED s.v. *Jacobean* n.) or *Iberic* (OED s.v. *Iberic* n.) were also left out of the classification, since I considered them to be of little interest for the purpose of this study, as they were created after the names of renowned people and places respectively in order to convey a relation with them. *Oblate* (OED s.v. *Oblate* n.²) and *Sabbatine* (OED s.v. *Sabbatine* adj.) were also excluded, since they are borrowings of historical usage that are not relevant for the purpose of this study. Scientific terms named after a person's name like *kalmia* (modern Latin term that comes from the name of Pehr Kalm, combined with the suffix *-ia* (OED s.v. *kalmia* n.)) were also left out of the analysis for the same reason, as they derive from names instead of from truly Latin words.

4.2. Results

Once the words for analysis were selected, they were entered in an Excel file where they were classified according to (i) part of speech, (ii) semantic field, (iii) form and degree of integration, and (iv) current frequency. At the same time, we can see how the different variants of these categories are related with the moment of introduction of the Latin borrowings selected.

4.2.1. Part of speech

As mentioned in Chapter 3 (see 3.2.1.2), most of the borrowings from Latin introduced in the Modern English period belong to the category of nouns. However, we can also find adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and even some prepositions, combining forms and interjections, among others, of Latin origin.

Table 6 shows the number of the tokens analysed that can be ascribed to each category. Even though the analysis was only carried out among 182 borrowings, if we add the total results of each category, the resulting number is higher. This has to do with the fact that some of the borrowings selected were categorised within more than one category in the same entry. Therefore, we find borrowings that were introduced as nouns and adjectives, such as *ubiquitary* (OED s.v. *ubiquitary* n. and adj.), or adjectives and nouns, like *habitual* (OED s.v. *habitual* adj. and n.); adverbs, nouns and adjectives, like *magna cum laude* (OED s.v. *magna cum laude* adv. (n. and adj.)); and interjections and nouns, as in the case of *Q.E.D.* (OED s.v. *Q.E.D.* interj. and n.¹). As expected after considering the theoretical introduction, the three most common categories that borrowed from Latin are nouns, adjectives and verbs. Nevertheless, the category of nouns prevails over the others, since the number of words that belong to this category doubles the number of adjectives in the list compiled for this study. Moreover, verbs represent a very small portion of the tokens analysed, since only twelve out of the 182 words selected belonged to this word-category. With regard to the other categories highlighted in the table, the number of words belonging to them is scarce, so we can confirm that borrowing was not as common in these parts of speech. It is important to remark here the fact that the number of words belonging to each of the categories is maintained stable throughout the period under study, so the conclusions noted before can be equally applied to the different centuries, with the exception of the absence of verbs in the eighteenth century.

Part of speech	1500-1599	1600-1699	1700-1799	1800-1899	Total
Noun	34	25	31	32	122
Adjective	14	13	13	18	58
Verb	3	6	0	3	12

Adverb	1	0	0	1	2
Preposition	0	1	0	0	1
Combining form	1	0	0	0	1
Interjection	0	1	0	0	1

Table 6. Parts of speech affected by the Latin borrowings analysed (1500-1899)

After having considered the different parts of speech distinguished in Table 6, I will provide now some examples of the words analysed for the purpose of this study. The sixteenth century was the moment of nouns like *aback*, *barkary*, *cadaver*, *fabular*, *habition*, *jacture*, *napellus* and *obduction*; adjectives such as *ebullient*, *macerate*, *narratory*, *obcaecate*, *pacificatory* and *rabid*; and verbs like *fabricate*, *labefact* and *macerate*. As we can see in Table 6, 34 nouns, 14 adjectives and 3 verbs out of the 122 nouns, 58 adjectives and 12 verbs analysed in this study were borrowed in this century. Only one of the words selected from this century belongs to the category of adverbs, which is the adverbial phrase *ab aeterno*. It is interesting to see that we can even find the borrowing of a Latin combining form in this century. The combining form mentioned is *zenzi-*, which was borrowed from post-classical Latin *zensi-*. This combining form was used in the sixteenth and seventeenth century, mainly in adaptations of Latin words carrying a mathematical meaning (OED s.v. *zenzi-* comb. form).

In the seventeenth century, again, there are some nouns we could mention, like *abaction*, *baccalaur*, *fabellator*, *galena*, *habition*, *ibex*, *naris* and *tabe*; adjectives like *cabbalic*, *damnatory*, *habilitate*, *jacent*, *uberant* and *vacate*; and verbs like *ebibe*, *labefactate* and *vacate* (borrowed a few years before the adjective with the same form; see: OED s.v. *vacate* v. and OED s.v. *vacate* adj.). These are only some examples of the 25 nouns, 13 adjectives and 6 verbs borrowed in this historical moment. There is one preposition among the words selected from this century, which is *qua*. This preposition is restricted mainly to a literary and formal usage, with the meaning of “[i]n the capacity of; as being” (OED s.v. *qua* prep.). Moreover, the introduction of an interjection, categorised also as a noun, is to be remarked. This interjection is *Q.E.D.*, an initialism borrowed from post-classical Latin, created after *quod erat demonstrandum*, which means “which was to be demonstrated” (OED s.v. *Q.E.D.* int. and n.¹).

In the eighteenth century no verbs were found according to the requisites for the selection of words. However, we can still mention some of the nouns that were found, like *abandum*, *caecum*, *ebullience*, *fabulation*, *ictus*, *naevus maternus*, *obiter dictum* and *racemule*; and some adjectives like *caducary*, *damnose*, *galeate*, *labant*, *racemous* and *vaccine*. In this century, 31 of the words analysed belong to the category of nouns, while only 13 belong to the category of adjectives. While in the other centuries it was possible to find some extraordinary cases of words belonging to categories other than nouns, adjectives and verbs, it is not possible to do that in the eighteenth century if the conditions established for the selection of the list are followed.

Finally, in the nineteenth century we can mention again some examples of nouns, like *babuina*, *damnosa hereditas*, *fabella*, *ichthyosaur*, *kogia*, *labellum*, *objicient* and *zebrina*; adjectives, like *dactylar*, *fabricatory*, *jactant*, *labefact*, *racemulose* and *tabescent*; and verbs, like *cachinnate*, *jactitate* and *kernellate*. These are examples taken out of the list of 32 nouns, 18 adjectives and 3 verbs of the study. An instance of an adverb was also found. *Magna cum laude* is not only an adverb, but also a noun and an adjective, that is used in order to make reference to a degree or diploma, or the condition of having “a higher standard than the average” (OED s.v. *magna cum laude* adv (n. and adj.)).

4.2.2. Form and degree of integration

It is important to consider now the form of the borrowings selected. There are two kinds of borrowings according to their form: (i) those keeping their Latin shape (i.e. *Fremdwörter*) and (ii) those adapted (i.e. *Lehnwörter*) (see Chapter 2.1). The former kind of borrowings refers to those borrowings that were taken from Latin without suffering any modification on their form. Thus, they do not only preserve their Latin form, but they are also considered not to be well integrated into the English language. On the other hand, the latter kind or adapted borrowings are those that managed to enter the English language after being modified and integrated into it. In Table 7, the numbers of borrowings showing Latin or adapted forms are shown.

Form	1500-1599	1600-1699	1700-1799	1800-1899	Total
Latin	10	11	22	22	65
Adapted	36	33	22	26	117

Table 7. Form of the Latin borrowings analysed (1500-1899)

The majority of the borrowings analysed, specifically 117 out of 182, suffered some kind of adaptation to the English language when they were introduced. A great amount of the lexical borrowings analysed were adapted in the sense that they lost their Latin inflections. Both nouns and adjectives are representative of this kind of adaptation. Examples of this kind include *aback*, which comes from classical Latin *abacus* (OED s.v. *aback* n.), in which the Latin suffix *-us* is left out, *barkary*, which was borrowed from the medieval Latin form *barcarium* (OED s.v. *barkary* n.), with loss of Latin *-um*, or *vaccine*, whose origin is the Latin word *vaccīnus* (OED s.v. *vaccine* adj.), again with loss of Latin *-us*. The present participle or past participle forms of Latin verbs were sometimes borrowed as adjectives into Modern English, losing their inflection too. Some examples of this are *ebullient*, whose origin is Latin *ēbullient-em*, the present participle form of *ēbullīre* (OED s.v. *ebullient* adj.), and *ebriate*, whose origin is Latin *ēbriātus*, the past participle form of *ēbriāre* (OED s.v. *ebriate* adj.). However, other types of adaptations are also worth mentioning.

Latin suffixes were sometimes replaced by their English adapted forms. Borrowings of this kind are in fact what has been called loan blends (see Chapter 2.4). Although they were classified as a type of borrowing in-between loanwords and loan translations, they were included in the study, as I consider them to be closer to loanwords indeed with a higher degree of integration. For instance, in *jacture* (OED s.v. *jacture* n.), whose origin is Latin *jactūra*, the Latin suffix *-ūra* was replaced by the French form *-ure*, which was the form taken into English. Likewise, in the case of *labascency* (OED s.v. *labascency* n.), that comes from post-classical Latin *labascentia*, the Latin suffix *-īa* was replaced by the suffix *-y*, which was the English form developing, through French *-ie*, from the Latin one. Verbs that derive from the participial stem of Latin verbs were really common, like *fabricate*, which was borrowed from Latin *fabricāt-*, the participial stem of the verb *fabricāre* (OED s.v. *fabricate* v.). However, it was also possible to find verbs borrowed from the Latin infinitive form leaving out the inflection that in Latin expressed the

conjugation type the verb belonged to, like *ebibe* (OED s.v. *ebibe* v.), which comes from Latin *ēbibĕre*. Even though the previously highlighted ones are quite predominant, there are many other ways through which a Latin borrowing could be adapted to English. These other types of adaptations reflect minimal changes and are more difficult to classify. For instance, in the case of the only combining form included in the list, we see that post-classical Latin *zensi-* became *zenzi-* in English in the moment of its introduction (OED s.v. *zenzi-* comb. form).

Among the adapted borrowings, it is quite interesting to see how two different loanwords coming from almost the same form of a Latin word can result in the same English form. Thus, two new words are obtained, which come from almost the same source and have a same form. An example of this is the introduction in the sixteenth century of the verb *macerate*, only six years after the introduction of the adjective *macerate*. Strictly, the origin of both words is the past participle form; however, whereas the adjective comes from Latin *mācerātus*, the past participle of *mācerāre* (OED s.v. *macerate* adj.), the verb has its origin on the past participial stem of the same Latin verb, that is, *mācerāt-* (OED s.v. *macerate* v.).

On the other hand, 65 borrowings out of 182 kept their Latin form, such as *cachinnator*, which comes from the Latin agent-noun *cachinnator* (OED s.v. *cachinnator* n.), and *obiter dictum*, which was borrowed from classical Latin *obiter dictum* (OED s.v. *obiter dictum* n.). Four of the five words highlighted in the previous subsection, because of belonging to word-categories that borrowing did not affect much, show a Latin form. These words are *ab aeterno*, *magna cum laude*, *Q.E.D.* and *qua*, while *zenzi-*, as we have already seen, was adapted. Even though the total number of adapted borrowings is considerably higher than the number of borrowings that maintained their Latin form, we can see in Table 7 that only during the Early Modern English period adapted borrowings prevailed over borrowings with Latin forms. In the Late Modern English period, the number of borrowings presenting a Latin form increased, as a result of the development of the scientific vocabulary. Some examples of Latin loanwords introduced in the Late Modern English period keeping their Latin form are *abannation*, *caecum*, *galea*, *habitus*, *labellum*, *obiter dictum*, *tablinum* and *ubi sunt*. An even distribution of the borrowings selected according to their form can be appreciated in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

4.2.3. Semantic field

Apart from their form and the part of speech they belong to, borrowings can also be classified in terms of the semantic fields they affect. Even though examples from all of the subject categories that the OED distinguishes could not be found among the words analysed, the number of words related with the semantic fields noted is still representative of the Latin borrowings entering the English language in the Modern English period. Table 8 shows the distribution of the words analysed according to their semantic fields, in relation with the moment of their introduction.

Semantic field	1500-1599	1600-1699	1700-1799	1800-1899	Total
Agriculture and horticulture	1	3	0	1	5
Arts	3	2	2	2	9
Consumables	1	1	1	1	4
Economics and commerce	0	2	0	1	3
Education	0	2	0	1	3
Heraldry	0	1	0	0	1
History	0	0	1	0	1
Law	3	3	6	3	15
Manufacturing and industry	1	0	3	1	5
Military	0	0	0	1	1
Philosophy	3	1	1	0	5
Religion and belief	10	4	1	2	17
Sciences	23	24	29	35	111
Social sciences	1	0	0	0	1
Technology	0	1	0	0	1

Table 8. Semantic fields affected by the Latin borrowings analysed (1500-1899)

The most outstanding total result that can be appreciated in Table 8 is definitely the high number of terms related with the semantic field of sciences. As mentioned in Chapter 3.2.1.2, during the Modern English period Latin was the main source for learned borrowings and the *lingua franca* of science. As a consequence, sciences, which were continuously developing at that moment, frequently borrowed Latin terms to create a more specialised vocabulary, different from the native one. Thus, it is not strange that 111 of the 182 words analysed belong to this semantic field. Some examples of these specialised words are *abacination*, which belongs to the scientific field of medicine (OED s.v. *abacination* n.); *ebracteolate*, that is related with the scientific field of plants (OED s.v. *ebracteolate* adj.); *galena*, a word related with mineralogy (OED s.v. *galena* n.); *gamba*, which belongs to the scientific field of animals and anatomy (OED s.v. *gamba* n.²); and *macerate*, which is also related with medicine (OED s.v. *macerate* v.). The number of scientific borrowings was practically the same in the different centuries of the Modern English period, although we can appreciate a gradual increase.

On the other hand, Latin had been the language of the Church in the Old and Middle English periods, and in the Renaissance it continued to be to some extent related with the religious domain. As a result of that, the semantic field of religion and belief is the second most affected by Latin borrowings. Since in the Early Modern English period the English language started to be used as the language of the church, the number of Latin borrowings with regard to this field decreased considerably, so that out of the 182 borrowings selected only 17 belong to this field in total. Some examples of borrowings with a religious meaning are *cabbalic*, which is related with Judaism (OED s.v. *cabbalic* adj.); *objicient*, chiefly related with the Roman Catholic Church (OED s.v. *objicient* n.); *pacificatory*, considered a term applied to religion in general (OED s.v. *pacificatory* adj.); *Quadragesima*, a term applied to Christianity (OED s.v. *Quadragesima* n.); and *sacramentary*, a liturgical term (OED s.v. *sacramentary* adj. and n.).

The third and fourth semantic fields that must be taken into account are those of law and arts, with a total of 15 and 9 borrowings respectively, which are evenly distributed across the four centuries covered. Some examples of borrowings related with the semantic field of law are *abandum*, *damnosa hereditas*, *habendum*, *namation* and *uberrima fides*. Examples of borrowings related with arts can also be cited, such as *fabulation*, which is related with literature (OED s.v. *fabulation* n.); *tacet*, related with music (OED s.v. *tacet*

n.); and *ubi sunt*, which belongs to the artistic field of literary and textual criticism (OED s.v. *ubi sunt* n. and adj.). The other semantic fields distinguished do not overcome the number of five borrowings, so we can say that they are not as salient. Some examples of these other semantic fields can be remarked. For instance, we find terms related with the fields of agriculture and horticulture, like *abactor*, referring to “[a] person who steals livestock” (OED s.v. *abactor* n.); consumables, like *ebulum*, which is a kind of wine (OED s.v. *ebulum* n.); education, like *magna cum laude*, referring to a degree, diploma or higher standard (OED s.v. *magna cum laude* adv. (n. and adj.)); military, such as *kernellate*, with relation to the military field of fortifications (OED s.v. *kernellate* v.); and philosophy, like the word *datibis*, which is a mnemonic term related with logic meaning “you will give” (OED s.v. *dabit* n.).

4.2.4. Frequency

Let us now focus on the frequency with which Latin borrowings introduced into Modern English occur nowadays. This will provide us with an idea of the current occurrence of Latin borrowings from Modern English in the speakers’ typical usage. Table 9 below provides a classification of the loanwords selected according to their frequency of occurrence. The method used for the classification, as previously mentioned in the methodology section, was that of the frequency bands of the OED.

Frequency	1500-1599	1600-1699	1700-1799	1800-1899	Total
Obsolete	20	21	13	8	62
Band 1	1	1	3	14	19
Band 2	9	10	16	21	56
Band 3	8	2	8	8	26
Band 4	7	7	5	3	22
Band 5	2	3	1	0	6
Band 6	0	0	0	0	0
Band 7	0	0	0	0	0
Band 8	0	0	0	0	0

Table 9. Current frequency of usage of the Latin borrowings analysed (1500-1899)

As we can see in Table 9, there are no Latin loanwords among the ones selected ascribed to the frequency bands 6, 7 and 8, that is, words that appear in typical usage between ten and more than 1000 times per million words (OED: key to frequency). This could be explained through the idea that basic vocabulary tends to show a native origin (see the introduction to Chapter 3), while Latin loanwords tend to belong to the specialised vocabulary. However, as we can appreciate in Figure 3 (OED: key to frequency), the percentage of words recorded in the OED that are assigned to these bands is very low, not surpassing the two percent if we put them together. Thus, even if some Latin borrowings could be ascribed to these bands, it would be difficult to find any examples in a study comprising only 182 loanwords.

In any case, we can see that most of the Latin loanwords introduced in the Modern English period are now obsolete, as a result of the extensive borrowing that took place especially during the Early Modern English period. In fact, 41 out of the 62 selected borrowings that are considered to be obsolete were introduced in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries as a consequence of the experimentation that characterised the period of the Renaissance. In some cases, the reason for their eventual disappearance was the resulting purge of the language (see Chapter 3.2.2.1). Some of these words are *aback*, *abandum*, *dactylar*, *ebulum*, *fabellator*, *jacture*, *naevus maternus*, *racemation*, *vaccin* and *zelotypy*. However, among the total numbers the frequency band 2 must also be remarked, since 56 loanwords are ascribed to this band. Even though the number of obsolete words is higher, after the period of extensive borrowing the number of words nowadays obsolete decreases considerably, while the number of words ascribed to frequency bands 1 and 2 increase. Words like *abactor*, *baccated*, *cachinnate*, *ebracteolate*, *fabella*, *kogia*, *pacificator* and *uberrima fides* belong to the frequency band 2, which means that they occur between 0,0099 and 0,099 times per million words (OED: key to frequency), while *abacination*, *babuina*, *magna cum laude*, *racemule* and *ulcuscle* are part of the words categorised with a frequency band 1, meaning that they only occur until 0,0099 times per million words (OED: key to frequency).

Loanwords ascribed to frequency bands 3, 4 and 5, on the other hand, show stable numbers throughout the whole period. Thus, there are 26 loanwords with a frequency band 3 almost equally distributed along the four centuries. This frequency band is applied to words occurring between 0,01 and 0,099 times per million words used (OED: key to

frequency). Some examples of these words are *ab aeterno*, *fabulation*, *galea*, *ichthyosaur* and *Quadragesima*. With a frequency band 4, there are 22 borrowings among which we can mention *cadaver*, *ebullience*, *ibex*, *obiter dictum* and *Q.E.D.* The fact that they are categorised with a frequency band 4 means that they occur between 0,1 and 0,99 times per million words (OED: key to frequency). There are only six borrowings showing a frequency band 5, which occur between 1 and 9.9 times per million words (OED: key to frequency). These words are *fabricate* (verb), *habitual*, *qua*, *rabies*, *vacate* (verb) and *vaccine* (adjective). It is possible to notice that most of these words classified with a frequency band 5 are already part of those words belonging to common usage.

Even though the OED (OED: key to frequency) says that words that are obsolete in current use are not classified in terms of their frequency of use, some loanwords are ascribed in fact both to a frequency band and the term obsolete. These loanwords tend to be related with the frequency band 1, such as *pacable*, a synonym for *placable* (OED s.v. *pacable* adj.), which might be the reason for its low or non-existing current use; but other instances in which obsolete loanwords were ascribed to other frequency bands were also found. For example, *label*, a term of the scientific field of plants and botany (OED s.v. *label* n.²), was categorised both as an obsolete word and a term showing a frequency band 3. Thus, after considering this, if we add the total numbers obtained in Table 9, we will appreciate that the resulting number is higher than the number of loanwords analysed in this study, as I decided to take into account both ascriptions when a frequency band co-occurred with the term obsolete in the categorisation of a loanword.

Those loanwords whose first meaning (the meaning they were adopted with) is now obsolete were not classified as obsolete in Table 9, as long as they preserve other meanings in the present-day usage. However, these and other similar cases were indicated in the “comments” section of the database included in the Appendix.

4.2.5. Relations between the different categories

Finally, I consider it important to say that an interrelation between the data in the different tables obtained can also be appreciated. In the following paragraph, I will try to provide an example of possible associations of the data obtained, with the aim of demonstrating

that the categories of part of speech, semantic field, form and frequency, together with the date of introduction of the loanwords, are truly interconnected.

As expected after considering the theoretical introduction in Chapter 3, the number of words that keep their Latin form increased as did the number of scientific terms in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. This has to do with the fact that loanwords with Latin forms were conceived as better options for the development of the technical vocabulary, since they did not lead to confusion by association with native terms and they were international. Some examples of scientific terms with Latin forms are *caecum*, *cachinnator*, *galbulus*, *habenula*, *ictus*, *kogia*, *labellum*, *nasus*, *quadrennium* and *yttrium*. Likewise, the frequency data is also related with the increase of scientific terms as a result of the rapid development of sciences in the Late Modern English period. Since the introduction of these loanwords into Modern English was a result of the need to provide scientific advances with names, their frequency of current use will be higher than the one of those borrowings introduced in the Early Modern English period for prestige reasons. By looking at the Appendix, we can indeed appreciate that the majority of loanwords with frequency band 2 introduced in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries belong to the semantic field of sciences. Among those cases of loanwords belonging to the semantic field of sciences and showing a frequency band 2, we find words like *abac*, *baccated*, *cachinnate*, *ebracteolate*, *galbulus*, *jaculator*, *kogia*, *racemous*, *sabella* and *ulex*. We can conclude, thus, that the predominant introduction of scientific borrowings led to an increase concerning the number of loanwords showing that frequency.

Likewise, we could establish this sort of correlations between other categories of the data analysed. For instance, words belonging to the semantic field of law tend to maintain their Latin form. Indeed, nine out of the fifteen loanwords related with this semantic field show a Latin form. These are *abandum*, *abannation*, *damnosa hereditas*, *habendum*, *idiota*, *obiter dictum*, *oblatio*, *uberrima fides* and *vacat*. Therefore, the data analysed in the previous sections provides a very interesting and useful account of how Latin loanwords were introduced along the Modern English period, conveying a relation between their degree of integration in the language and the semantic fields they are related to, and also showing the influence these parameters have on their current frequency of usage.

5. Conclusions

It is possible to say now that the data analysis confirms the statements found in the literature: the Latin language has been a most prolific source of borrowing for the English language, its influence being noticeable both when Latin was still spoken by a community of speakers and when it was no longer a living language.

5.1. Summary

As we already know, there are three periods in which the history of the English language can be divided: Old English, Middle English and Modern English. Latin borrowings already left an impression on the English language before English was considered to be independent from the Germanic group, and from that moment on it has continued to exert, to a greater or lesser extent, an influence upon the English language in the different periods of its history.

Considering this first Latin influence upon the Germanic group as a whole, it is possible to distinguish two periods of Latin influence on Old English, as the tripartite division has proved to be quite problematic. The first period would include those years in which the continental situation of contact between Proto-Germanic and Latin, specifically the vulgar variety, led to a cultural exchange between the two languages, as well as the first centuries of the Anglo-Saxon settlement on the British Isles, with Vulgar Latin of the Romano-Britons as the source of linguistic influence. In a second period, beginning in 650 A.D., the English people conversion to Christianity marked a new wave of Latin borrowing into English, whose origin was the Classical Latin of the Church and scholarship. Many different semantic fields received Latin influence in this period. Thus, we can highlight the adoption of commercial and military terms due to the continental influence; other official terms introduced through the Latin spoken by the Romano-Britons; and religious and learned terms entering the language as a consequence of the process of Christianisation. The category of nouns was the predominant category Latin borrowings belonged to in this period, with semantic borrowings as the main kind of borrowing operating in OE.

In the Middle English period, the Norman Conquest and its effects on the English language must be accounted for. As a consequence of the conquest of the isles, English was displaced by other two languages, French and Latin, in those domains associated with the higher functions of a language. While French became the language of the administration and commerce, Latin continued to be the official language of the Church. Thus, many borrowings from the two privileged languages managed to enter the English vocabulary. Since many Latin words were being introduced through French into English, differentiating between direct and indirect Latin borrowings became a difficult task, as they had many cognate words in common. In any case, those words that were not attested in French at the moment of its introduction on ME are likely to be ultimately Latin borrowings. Since Latin was the language of the Church and scholarship, the semantic fields that were affected by Latin borrowings in this period are those concerned with religion, scholarship and even with the practice of the law. The word-category of nouns continues to be the most common category for borrowing, this time with loanwords prevailing over the other kinds of borrowing.

Finally, the Modern English period can be divided in two subperiods: the Early Modern English period and the Late Modern English period. In the former one the adoption of large numbers of borrowings led to one of the greatest debates concerned with the expansion of the English language: the inkhorn controversy. In spite of the attempts of purists and archaisers to stop the process of borrowing, a great number of borrowings continued to be introduced until the drop of the eighteenth century. During the Early ModE period, also known as the Renaissance, the borrowings introduced from the classical languages belonged to the learned type, this meaning that they helped to develop the formal registers of the language. In the Late ModE period the Latin borrowings introduced were mainly associated with specialised fields. The development of sciences led to the adoption of Latin elements, either by means of borrowing or neoclassical compounding, as scientists were not interested in the purification of the language that characterised the eighteenth century.

Until the present day, English continues to borrow from Latin when the coinage of a new term is needed, after having enriched the language throughout the different periods of its history. Thus, we can affirm that the Latin influence on English has been pervasive.

In the practical study, the meticulous process of selection followed, based on the decision of including loanwords of Latin origin only, resulted in the analysis of 182 Latin loanwords. The results found show significant information on the kind of Latin loanwords that were adopted into English during the Modern English period. Thus, the following findings are based on the results obtained concerning the predominant word-category, form, semantic field and frequency of occurrence of this period's loanwords.

- The predominant word-category in which Latin loanwords operated in this period was that of nouns, as expected after taking into account the information provided on the theoretical part of the dissertation (see the introduction to Chapter 3).
- Most of the borrowings introduced seemed to have suffered, to a greater or lesser degree, some kind of adaptation to the English language.
- Among the semantic fields distinguished, the majority of borrowings were classified as related with sciences, this semantic field involving a great variety of areas, such as physical sciences, medicine and mathematics.
- The obsolete category was the outstanding one together with the frequency band 2. This means that, while the great majority of the given loanwords are no longer part of the speakers' world, most of the loanwords that are still used nowadays belong to a category of rare usage, probably as a consequence of the predominance of the semantic field of sciences that points at their usage in specialised contexts.

To summarise, the Latin language has been an enormous source of borrowing for the English language throughout history, with the higher records of Latin borrowings taking place in the Modern English period, this process signifying both a great enrichment of the English vocabulary and the preservation of Latin words in the living vocabulary of a language.

5.2. Future research

Thanks to this study, I acquired many competences that fomented my interest on the chosen subject. Not only do I know now more about the history of the English language as a whole, but I also developed a good command of the OED webpage, as a result of the

advanced research I had to carry out, and the Microsoft Excel files, which were really useful for a clearer and more organised classification.

Since it was not possible to provide a complete account of the Latin influence on the Modern English period in this dissertation, I would consider as an interesting option for future studies the expansion of this research to other kinds of lexical borrowing, and even to other types of borrowing other than lexical, with the aim of obtaining more faithful results on the influence that the Latin language exerted over Modern English.

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Appendix: 182 Latin loanwords into ModE

Word	Part of speech	First occurrence	Semantic field	Form	Frequency	Comments
Aback	noun	1592	arts	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
ab aeterno	adverb	1593-4	philosophy	Latin	band 3	Rare usage
abaction	noun	1623	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
abactor	noun	1659	agriculture and horticulture	Latin	band 2	
abandum	noun	1729	law	Latin	obsolete	
abannation	noun	1721	law	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
abac	noun	1890	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
abacination	noun	1866	sciences	adapted	band 1	
Barbara	noun	1589	philosophy	Latin	band 3	
barkary	noun	?1592	agriculture and horticulture	adapted	obsolete	
baccalaur, 'baccalor	noun	1661	education	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
baccalaureate	noun	1625-49	education	adapted	band 4	
baccated	adjective	1731	sciences	adapted	band 2	1st meaning is obsolete
balant	adjective	1702	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
babuina	noun	1882	sciences	adapted	band 1	
baccate	adjective	1830	sciences	adapted	band 2	
cabbalist	noun	?1533	religion and belief	adapted	band 3	
cadaver	noun	c1500	sciences	Latin	band 4	
ca'bbalic	adjective	1684	religion and belief	adapted	band 1	
cacatory	adjective	1684	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
caducary	adjective	1768	law	adapted	band 2	
caecum	noun	1721	sciences	Latin	band 4	

cachinnate	verb	1824	sciences	adapted	band 2	
cachinnator	noun	18..	sciences	Latin	band 1	
dabitis	noun	1599	philosophy	Latin	band 2	
datary, n.1	noun	?1515	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	1st meaning is historical
damnatory	adjective	1682	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	
da'patical	adjective	1623	economics and commerce	adapted	obsolete	
dam'nose	adjective	1727	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
Datisca	noun	1760	sciences	Latin	band 2	
dactylar	adjective	1828	arts	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
damnosa hereditas	noun	1848	law	Latin	band 2	
ebullient	adjective	1599	sciences	adapted	band 4	
ebullition	noun	a1533	sciences	adapted	band 3	
e'bibe	verb	1689	consumables	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
ebullate	verb	1623	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
ebullience	noun	1749	sciences	adapted	band 4	
ebulum	noun	1713	consumables	Latin	obsolete	
e'bracteolate	adjective	1870	sciences	adapted	band 2	
ebriate	adjective	1847	consumables	adapted	band 2	Humorous usage
fabricate	verb	1598	manufacturing and industry	adapted	band 5	1st meaning is rare
fabular	noun	1565	arts	adapted	obsolete	
fabal	adjective	1656	agriculture and horticulture	adapted	obsolete	
fabellator	noun	1656	arts	Latin	obsolete	
fabricate	adjective	1755	manufacturing and industry	adapted	obsolete	Region categories: Britain and Ireland

fabulation	noun	1727-36	arts	adapted	band 3	
fabella	noun	1854	agriculture and horticulture	Latin	band 2	
fabrica,tory	adjective	1855	manufacturing and industry	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
gare, n.4	noun	1562	consumables	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
garruling	noun	c1550	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
galena	noun	1671	sciences	Latin	band 4	
gamba, n.2	noun	1607	sciences	Latin	band 2	Rare usage
galbulus	noun	1706	sciences	Latin	band 2	
galeate	adjective	1706	sciences	adapted	band 2	
galea	noun	1834	sciences	Latin	band 3	
galerite	noun	1828	sciences	adapted	band 2	
habition	noun	1502	social sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
habitual	adjective and noun	1526	sciences	adapted	band 5	1st meaning is obsolete
habendum	noun	1607	law	Latin	band 3	
ha'bilitate	adjective	1622	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
habena	noun	1706	sciences	Latin	band 2	
habit	adjective	1753	law	adapted	band 3	
habenula	noun	1876	sciences	Latin	band 3	
habitus	noun	1886	sciences	Latin	band 4	
idiota	noun	1566	law	Latin	band 3	1st meaning is historical
ignavy	noun	1543	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
ibex	noun	1607	sciences	Latin	band 4	
ibidem	noun	1663	arts	Latin	band 4	
ictus	noun	1707	sciences	Latin	band 3	1st meaning: arts
ideatum	noun	c1708	philosophy	Latin	band 2	
ichthyosaur	noun	1830	sciences	adapted	band 3	

ignescent	adjective and noun	a1828	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
jactation	noun	1576	sciences	adapted	band 2	
jacture	noun	1515	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
jacent	adjective	1611	heraldry	adapted	band 3	
jactancy	noun	1623	economics and commerce	adapted	band 2	
jaculator	noun	1765	sciences	Latin	band 2	
jube, n.1	noun	1725	manufacturing and industry	Latin	band 2	1st meaning is obsolete
jactant	adjective	1839	economics and commerce	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
jactitate	verb	1822	sciences	adapted	band 2	1st occurrence: derivative, and rare
kernellate	verb	1851	military	adapted	band 1	Archaic and rare usage
kogia	noun	1898	sciences	Latin	band 2	
labefact	verb	?1539-40	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
labefactation	noun	1535	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
labascency	noun	a1656	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
labefactate	verb	1645	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
labant	adjective	1727	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
label, n.2	noun	1707	sciences	adapted	band 3 and obsolete	
labefact	adjective	1874	sciences	adapted	band 1 and obsolete	Rare usage
labellum	noun	1810	sciences	Latin	band 3	
macerate	adjective	1541	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
macerate	verb	1547	sciences	adapted	band 4	1st meaning is obsolete

machinal	adjective	1680	technology	adapted	band 2	Archaic and rare usage
macilency	noun	1631	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
maculose	adjective	1727	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
madefacient	adjective	1727	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
madreporid	noun and adjective	1872	sciences	adapted	band 1	Rare usage
magna cum laude	adverb, noun and adjective	1856	education	Latin	band 1	Region categories: North American
napellus	noun	1576	sciences	Latin	band 1 and obsolete	
narratory	adjective	1592	arts	adapted	band 2	
naeve	noun	1619	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
naris	noun	1693	sciences	Latin	band 4	
naevus maternus	noun	1726	sciences	Latin	obsolete	
namation	noun	1706	law	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
Nassa	noun	1834	sciences	Latin	band 3	
nasus	noun	1826	sciences	Latin	band 3	1st meaning is rare
obcaecate	adjective	1568	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
obduction	noun	1578	sciences	adapted	band 3	1st meaning is obsolete
obambulate	verb	1614-15	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
obambulation	noun	1600	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
obcordate	adjective	1775	sciences	adapted	band 2	
obiter dictum	noun	1782	law	Latin	band 4	
objicient	noun	1864	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
oblatio	noun	1880	law	Latin	band 1 and obsolete	Rare usage

pacificator	noun	1539	religion and belief	Latin	band 2	
pacificatory	adjective	1582	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	
pabular	adjective	1656	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
pabulation	noun	1623	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
pagination	noun	1794	sciences	adapted	band 4	
palea	noun	1753	sciences	Latin	band 3	
pabulary	adjective	1835	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
pacable	adjective	1833	religion and belief	adapted	band 1 and obsolete	
Quadragesima	noun	c1560	religion and belief	Latin	band 3	Historical usage
quadragesimal	noun and adjective	1511	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	1st meaning is obsolete
Q.E.D., int. and n.1	interjection and noun	1614	philosophy	Latin	band 4	
qua	preposition	1647	sciences	Latin	band 5	Poetic and literary usage
quadragesimalia	noun	1738	religion and belief	Latin	band 2	Rare usage
quadrennium	noun	1779	sciences	Latin	band 3	
Quadrans Muralis	noun	1811	sciences	Latin	band 2	Historical usage
quadricorn	noun and adjective	1842	sciences	adapted	band 1 and obsolete	Rare usage
rabiate	adjective	1520	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
rabid	adjective	1594	sciences	adapted	band 4	
rabies	noun	1649	sciences	Latin	band 5	
racemation	noun	1623	agriculture and horticulture	adapted	obsolete	
racemous	adjective	1757	sciences	adapted	band 2	

racemule	noun	1793	sciences	adapted	band 1	Rare usage
racemulose	adjective	1830	sciences	adapted	band 1	Rare usage
racemulous	adjective	1859	sciences	adapted	band 1 and obsolete	Rare usage
Sabbatary	adjective and noun	1596	religion and belief	adapted	obsolete	
sacramentary	adjective and noun	1538	religion and belief	adapted	band 3	1st meaning is historical; and rare
Sabbatarian	adjective and noun	1613	religion and belief	adapted	band 4	
sabulous	adjective	1632	sciences	adapted	band 2	
sabu'losity	noun	1721	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
saburra	noun	1710	sciences	Latin	band 2	
sabella	noun	a1851	sciences	Latin	band 2	
sabelline, adj.1	adjective	1888	sciences	adapted	band 1	
tabula	noun	1535	sciences	Latin	band 4	
tabulate	adjective and noun	1596	sciences	adapted	band 4	1st meaning is obsolete
tabe	noun	1614	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
tabefaction	noun	1658	sciences	adapted	band 2	Rare usage
tablinum	noun	1715	history	Latin	band 3	
tacet	noun	1724	arts	Latin	band 3	
tabescent	adjective	1890	sciences	adapted	band 2	
tabule	noun	1893	sciences	Latin	band 2	
ubiquitary	noun and adjective	?1570	religion and belief	adapted	band 2	1st meaning is obsolete; and rare
ubiquity	noun	1572	religion and belief	adapted	band 4	
uberant	adjective	1622	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
uberate, v.1	verb	1623	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
ulcuscle	noun	1794	sciences	adapted	band 1	Rare usage

ulex	noun	1753	sciences	Latin	band 2	
uberrima fides	noun	1851	law	Latin	band 2	
ubi sunt	noun and adjective	1893	arts	Latin	band 3	
vacat	noun	1592	law	Latin	obsolete	
vaccin	noun	1589	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
vacate	adjective	c1688	law	adapted	obsolete	
vacate	verb	1643	law	adapted	band 5	
vaccine	adjective	1799	sciences	adapted	band 5	
vaccinium	noun	1706	sciences	Latin	band 2	
vaccinia	noun	1803	sciences	Latin	band 4	
vac'ciola	noun	1801	sciences	Latin	band 1 and obsolete	
wardatar(e)	noun	1535	law	adapted	obsolete	Region categories: Britain and Ireland
xiph	noun	1572	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
xeme	noun	1836	sciences	adapted	band 2	
yttrium	noun	1822	sciences	Latin	band 4	
zenzi-	comb. form	1557	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
zenzic	noun and adjective	1557	sciences	adapted	obsolete	Rare usage
zelant	noun	1624	religion and belief	adapted	obsolete	
zelotypy	noun	1623	sciences	adapted	obsolete	
zeta, n.2	noun	1706	manufacturing and industry	Latin	band 1 and obsolete	Historical usage
zirconia	noun	1797	sciences	Latin	band 4	
Zamia	noun	1819	sciences	Latin	band 3	
zebrina	noun	1846	sciences	Latin	band 2	