LATIN INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Introduction

There are some languages that try to avoid as far they can the use of alien terms. They do this by forming new words that are made up of native elements. English, however, has always made use of foreign words. The English language has been particularly open to foreign influences (Serjeantson 1993: 1).

English has borrowed words from several languages over the course of its history. A great deal of the foreign elements in the English lexicon are of Latin or French origin, but several other languages have influenced English as well, e.g. Scandinavian. In my article I discuss Latin loanwords throughout the history of the English language. It must be kept in mind that French also had a great impact on the vocabulary of English, due to political reasons.[1]

Research has been made by several scholars, and there are a lot of good books that discuss foreign influence on the English language. These books are about the history of the language, and they have a chapter about lexis where foreign influence is discussed as well. What makes research difficult is that there are no written records from the Continental Period, i.e. before the migration of the Anglo-Saxons to the British Isles.

I. Old English

1. Historical background

From 55 B.C. Julius Caesar made attempts to invade Britain. He was not successful in this because the local population resisted fiercely. The Romans left Britain alone for the next century.

In A.D. 43 Emperor Claudius sent a huge army to the island. By about A.D. 50, most of today's England came under Roman control. The northern part of Britain escaped Roman dominion and remained unconquered (Millward 2011: 79).

The Roman Empire ruled much of Britain until 476, which was the year of its collapse. The troops left Britain around 410. The Roman Empire had great political power, the consequence of which was that Latin was spoken in parts of Britain and the European continent. It had a great influence on Celtic and Germanic languages (Gelderen 2006: 2).

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[1] For French influence, see Blake, Norman ed.: 1992: *The Cambridge History of the English Language, Vol. II: 1066–1476,* Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

2. Popular and learned loanwords

Before examining Latin loans I cite Thomas Pyles who makes a distinction between popular and learned loanwords. Popular loanwords pass orally and they are part of the vocabulary of everyday life. They are as if they were not different from native English words, those who use these words are not really aware of the fact that they are of foreign origin. Learned words, on the other hand, are the result of cultural influences. The main influence of this kind in Old English times was the Church. As time passes, learned words can become part of the living vocabulary, although they may be used only by a certain class or group. It may happen that they pass into the usage of the common people. This was the case with the word *clerk* (OE *cleric, clerk* < L *clericus*). *Cleric* was borrowed again from Latin as a learned word with the meaning 'clergyman', because *clerk* had acquired other meanings, including 'scolar' (Pyles 1964: 326).

Another analysis can be made from a different aspect. The Renaissance was a period when classical languages i.e. Latin and Greek, were rediscovered. These two languages were regarded to be superior to English. This fact is obvious from the form and quality of the words that were borrowed during the Renaissance. They are often long and learned, and are in contrast with shorter Anglo-Saxon words. Learned words were used in formal speech and writing. In contrast to this, Old English had Latin loans which were not learned or obscure. They form part of the core vocabulary of Modern English (Freeborn 1998: 71).

According to Pyles, a little more than 500 words of Latin origin occur in the Old English word stock in the period until the Norman Conquest (Pyles 1964: 327).

3. Classification of loanwords

There were three distinct occasions before the end of the Old English period when Latin loans came into the English language.

1) Continental borrowing before the migration of the Anglo-Saxons to England.

2) Early Latin borrowings during the settlement period (Latin through Celtic transmission).

3) Borrowings in connection with the Christianisation of the Anglo-Saxons after ca 600/650. This last period may be subdivided into the time before and after the Benedictine reform.

Each period has a specific character of loanwords (Hogg 1992: 301).

The first period was the one when the Germanic tribes who were living on the Continent came into contact with the Romans. After Julius Caesar had conquered Gaul, Roman merchants had travelled as far as Scandinavia. This resulted in a greater degree of intercourse between Germanic and Roman tribes (Baugh 1993: 78). Contacts between the two peoples were not always peaceful in the beginning, but they gradually became peaceful. More and more members of the Germanic tribes joined the Roman army, the consequence of which was that these German soldiers and their families became familiar with Latin military words. Latin words denoting plants and animals they had not seen before, as well as names of objects that were used in the camp came into the various Germanic dialects. The Roman merchant followed the army. He sold

his goods, e.g. dresses, ornaments, jewels, plant products and household vessels from the south. Settlers also stayed, and they introduced building terms. According to Hogg, it is estimated that about 170 lexical items were borrowed during the continental period. From these, roughly 30 per cent denote plants and animals, 20 per cent food, vessels, household items, 12 per cent buildings, building material, settlements, 12 per cent dress, 9 per cent military and legal institutions, 9 per cent commercial activities, 3 per cent miscellaneous other phenomena (Hogg 1992: 302).

It is important to mention here the fact that there are no written records from this period. The reason for this is that Proto-Germanic was a spoken language. We know about the borrowing of Latin words from the analysis of sound changes (Freeborn 1998: 71).

List of the various kinds of loanwords adopted during this first period:

a) words related to agriculture and war:

camp 'battle' < L *campus; weall* 'wall' < L *vallus; strǣt* 'road, street' < L *strata; mîl* 'mile' < L *mile*.

b) words connected with trade are more numerous:

pund 'pound' < L *pondus; mynet* 'coin' < L *moneta*.

Wine trade was one of the most important commercial branches:

wîn 'wine' < L *vinum; must* 'new wine' < L *mustum; eced* 'vinegar' < L *acetum; flasce* 'flask, bottle' < LL *flasconem*.

c) words relating to domestic life and household articles:

cytel 'kettle' < L *catillus; mese* 'table' < VL *mesa; teped* 'carpet, curtain' < L *tapetum; cycene* 'kitchen' < L *coquina; cuppe* 'cup' < L *cuppa; disc* 'dish' < L *discus* (Baugh 1993: 78).

d) words related to dress:

belt 'belt' < L *balteus; cemes* 'shirt' < L *camisia; side* 'silk' < VL *seda* < L *seta; sutere* 'shoemaker' < L *sutor* (Hogg 1992: 302).

The second period of Latin influence occurred during the settlement period after ca. 450 until the Christianisation of the Anglo-Saxons, which started at the end of the sixth century. After about 410, the use of Latin began to decline. The reason for this was that only those Britons used it who belonged to the upper classes and those who lived in the cities and towns. There was no opportunity for direct contact between Latin and Old English. This meant that the Latin words which came into Old English during this second period arrived through Celtic transmission. The Celtic influence on Old English vocabulary had been very slight, which meant that the Latin loans that were transmitted by the Britons were also very small. Let us have a look at a few examples: *ceaster* < *castra*, cf. *Chester, Colchester, Manchester*, etc.; *port* 'harbour, town' < *portus, porta; wic* 'village' < *vicus; munt* 'mountain' < *mont-em; torr* 'tower, rock' < *turris* (Hogg 1992: 34).

The loanwords of the first and second period came into English mainly orally. This is why there are no literary remains from the pre-Christian period. In Beowulf, however, Christian and pagan elements are mixed. Christian words were not unknown

to the people before their conversion. There is evidence that they knew some terminology. The word *church* is one of the earliest loans that belong here. In Old English it was *cirice, cyrice*. It is from Greek *kuriakón* '(house) of the Lord', or rather the plural *kuriaká*. Christianity became the official religion of the Empire in 313, and from this time the Germans invaded Christian churches. This was the reason for their becoming familiar with the word. Jespersen (1967: 37–8) lists some other words that belong to this very early period: *Minster,* OE *mynster* < L *monasterium; devil* < L *diabolus,* Gr *diabolos; angel,* OE *engel* < L *angelus,* Gr *aggelos*. The majority of Christian words, however, came into the English language only after the conversion.

The source of the loanwords of these first two periods was Vulgar Latin. This differed from Classical Latin, which was used for scholarly and religious purposes. Vulgar Latin was the popular form, used in speech. It became different from Classical Latin by way of sound changes, e.g. *í > é, ú > ó*. There are two criteria to determine the age of a loan. One is whether it has undergone these sound changes or not. Thus, we can speak of early loans and late loans. Kastovsky illustrates both categories with some words.

Early loans:
disc 'dish' < *discus*
pic 'pitch' < *picem*
trifetum 'tributes' < *tributum*
cugele 'cowl' < *cuculla* (with VL [k] > [g])
culter 'knife' < *culter*
must 'must' < *mustum*

Late loans, showing the development of [i] > [ę], [u] > [ǫ] dating back to the third century:
cest, WS *cyst* 'box' < *cista*
peru 'pear' < *pirum*
segn 'banner' < *signum*
insegel 'seal' < *insigillum*
copor 'copper' < *cuprum*
torr 'tower' < *turris* (Hogg 1992: 303).

The age of a loanword can also be established by examining whether it has undergone those sound changes that are relevant also if one looks at the history of native words. These sound changes are *i*-umlaut and/or palatalisation/assibilation. Kastovsky talks about old loans and later loans.

Old loans:
tyrnan 'turn, revolve' < *tornare/turnare*
ciepan 'buy' < *caupo* 'innkeeper, wineseller'
mydd 'bushel' < *modius*
mynet 'coin, money' < *moneta*
cemes 'shirt' < *camisia*
celc 'cup' < *calicem*
cyse 'cheese' < *caseus*

Later loans:

calic 'cup' < *calicem*

tunece 'tunic' < *tunica*

pic 'pike' < *picus*

castel 'village, small town' < *castellum* 'fortified village < *castrum* 'fort' (Hogg 1992: 303).

Two similar words can be seen here: *celc* and *calic*. They are doublets. Some other examples of doubles:

cliroc/cleric 'clerk, clergyman' < *clericus*

cellendre/coryandre 'coriander' < *coriandrum*

leahtric/lactuca 'lettuce' < *lactuca*

spynge/sponge 'sponge' < *spongea*

læden/latin 'Latin' < *latinus* (Hogg 1992: 303).

In connection with the last pair of words, Pyles notes that a learned and a popular form of the same word could exist at the same time in Old English. The popular form, in this case *læden* also meant 'any foreign language' (Pyles 1964: 10).

During the third period, the loans were more and more introduced into the written language before they came into the spoken language. There were, however, many words which did not enter the spoken language, especially towards the end of this period. During this period, most loanwords came into Old English through the Church. This meant that there was a considerable increase in loans connected with religion and learning (Jespersen 1967: 37–8).

Freeborn gives a list of Latin loanwords from this period along with their first occurrence in Old English that was recorded in writing. He took the data from the Oxford English Dictionary. I have put these words into categories as he suggests (Freeborn 1998: 73).

The first category contains words which have to do with religion and the Church:

engel (950) 'angel' < *angelus, apostol* (950) 'apostle'< *apostolus, candel* (700) 'candle' < *candela, celic* (825) 'chalice' < *calix, creda* (1000) 'creed' < *credo, discipul* (900) 'disciple' < *discipulus, martyr* (900) 'martyr' < *martyr, mæsse* (900) < *missa, mynster* (900) 'minster' < *monasterium, nunne* (900) 'nun' < *nonna, papa* (900) 'pope < *papa, preost* (805) 'priest' < *presbyter, psealm* (961) 'psalm' < *psalmus, sabat* (950) 'sabbath' < *sabbatum, scrin* (1000) 'shrine' < *scrinium, talente* (930) 'talent' < *talentum, templ* (825) 'temple' < *templum.*

The second category of words is about education and learning:

mægester (1000) 'master' < *magister, scol* (1000) 'school' < *schola, titul* (900) 'title' < *titulus, fers* (900) 'verse' < *versus.*

The third category comprises words that have to do with household and clothing:

balsam (1000) 'balsam' < *balsamum, cæppe* (1000) 'cap' < *cappa, cest* (700) 'chest' < *cista, cugele* (931) 'cowl' < *cuculla, fann* (800) 'fan' < *vannus, fant/font* (1000) 'font' < *fontem, matt* (825) 'mat' < *matta, myrra* (824) 'myrrh' < *murra, sacc* (1000) 'sack' < *saccus, sioloc* (888) 'silk' < *sericus, socc* (725) 'sock' < *soccus* (Free-

born 1998: 73). Kastovsky adds *ferele* 'rod' < *ferula, pic* 'pike' < *picus* and *caul* 'basket' < *cavellum* as well (Hogg 1992: 307).

In the fourth category, there are words that denote plants, herbs and trees:

bete (1000) 'beet' < *beta, box* (931) 'box' (tree) < *buxus, ceder* (1000) 'cedar' < *cedrus, finugl* (700) 'fennel' < *finuclum, gingiber* (1000) 'ginger' < *gingiber, lilie* (971) 'lily' < *lilium, palma* (825) 'palm' < *palma, pere* (1000) 'pear' < *pira, pin* (1000) 'pine' < *pinus, plante* (825) 'plant' < *planta, rædic* (1000) 'radish' < *radicem* (Freeborn 1998: 73). Kastovsky also lists *caul/cawel* 'cole, cabbage' < *caulis, laur* 'laurel' < *laurus, menta* 'mint' < *minta* (for earlier *mint), rose* 'rose' < *rosa* and *sigle* 'rye' < *secale* (Hogg 1992: 307).

The last category includes words that have to do with foods:

coc (1000) 'cook' (n) < *cocus, crisp* (900) 'crisp' < *crispus, lopustre* (1000) 'lobster' < *locusta* (Freeborn 1998: 73).

Kastovsky adds two more categories: that of music and that of buildings.

Music:

citere 'cither' < *cithara, fiþele* 'fiddle' < VL *vitula, orgel* 'organ' < *organum.*

Buildings:

fenester 'window' < *fenestra, palentse* 'palace' < VL *palantium, plætse* 'open place in a town, street' < *platea* (Hogg 1992: 307).

Although the loanwords of the third period were more and more introduced into the written language and some did not enter the spoken language at all, as it is discussed earlier, there were some words that came in, at least partly, via the spoken language. The evidence for this lies in the fact that quite a few loans show the phonological changes that were characteristic of Vulgar Latin or had not been present in Classical Latin vocabulary. These loans reflect the kind of Latin that was spoken in the monasteries, and that differed from Classical Latin. The centuries that followed brought a difference. The loanwords of these centuries were more or less exclusively taken from Classical Latin, and they primarily entered the written language. The reasons for this lie in the external history of the English language between 800 and 1050: the invasions of the Vikings, Alfred's educational reforms and most importantly, the Benedictine monastic revival (Hogg 1992: 307).

II. Middle English

1. Historical background

There has been doubt about when the Middle English Period began. Some linguists say it began in 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, when William the Conqueror came on the English throne. Blake however, states that it is a historical and political date, and language does not change in accordance with the political situation. The matter of when Middle English started depends on those features which are significant and can be regarded as having marked a change in the language (Blake 1992: 1). Pyles defines the year 1100 as its beginning (1964: 139), while according to Baugh and Cable (1993: 52) it began in 1150.

William the Conqueror won the Battle of Hastings in 1066 and he ascended the English throne. He took French noblemen with him from Normandy.[2] The result of this was that a lot of French words came into English during this period because French was the language of the court and of upper classes. Besides French, a large number of Latin words also entered English. A difference can be observed between French and Latin loanwords. Latin words were generally introduced through the written language, and they were not as popular as French loans. Certain groups of people, namely ecclesiastics and men of learning, spoke Latin among themselves. This means that several Latin words could come directly into spoken English, but their number is small compared to the words entering through literature (Baugh 1993: 184).

2. Classification of loanwords

In the Middle English Period, it is often impossible to tell whether a word is of French or Latin origin. Here are a few examples of such words: *complex, miserable, nature, relation, register, rubric, social.* These words can either come from Latin or French. The reason for this is that they were learned items in French too. They had not gone through certain phonological changes (Pyles 1964: 328).

From the Norman Conquest to 1500, many religious terms came into English. Examples include *collect* 'short prayer', *mediator* and *Redeemer* (the synonymous *Redemptor* is earlier) (Pyles 1964: 329). Cser (2003: 100) adds *limbo, requiem* and *lector.*

Words having to do with scholastic activities include *simily, index, library* and *scribe* (Pyles 1964: 329).

Words relating to science are for example *dissolve, equal, essence, medicine, mercury, opaque, orbit, quadrant,* and *recipe* (Pyles 1964: 329).

In addition to these words, Cser (2003: 100) also lists some that belong to the field of education and learning: *allegory* (ultimately from Greek), *et cetera, cause, contradiction, desk, formal, major, minor.*

In the field of administration and law, we find words such as *client, arbitrator, conviction, executor, gratis, implement, legitimate, memorandum* (Cser 2003: 100).

The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries saw a great increase in the number of Latin loanwords. Baugh and Cable give the following list of miscellaneous words: *abject, adjacent, conspiracy, contempt, custody, distract, frustrate, gesture, history, homicide, immune, incarnate, include, incredible, incubus, individual, infancy, infinite, innate, innumerable, intellect, interrupt, lapidary, legal, lucrative, lunatic, magnify, malefactor, missal, necessary, nervous, notary, ornate, picture, polite, popular, prevent, private, promote, prosecute, pulpit, reject, remit, reprehend, script, scripture, scrutiny, solitary, spacious, subdivide, subjugate, submit, subscribe, summary, suppress, temperate, testify* (Baugh 1993: 185).

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[2] For a detailed description of the Norman Conquest, see Morgan, Kenneth O. 2000: *The Oxford Illustrated History of Britain,* Oxford University Press, Oxford.

III. Modern English

1. Historical background

The largest number of foreign elements came into the English language during the first part of the early modern period (especially 1530–1660). There were several reasons for this. First, English started to be used in fields that had been dominated by Latin before. Such fields were theology, philosophy and natural sciences. These sciences underwent expansion and the consequence of this was that a special kind of vocabulary had to be created.

A second reason for the rapid increase of loanwords was that during the Renaissance and the Reformation, vernaculars became important in various parts of Europe. There was a desire for these languages to replace Latin, but this resulted in a deeper knowledge of Classical Latin itself. A third reason was that there was predilection for rhetoric embellishment in the 16th century, and this also affected the language (Cser 2003: 117).

2. Loanwords

Pyles gives the following list of words borrowed from Latin during the Modern English period:

area, abdomen, compensate, composite, data, decorum, delirium, denominate, digress, edition, education, fictitious, folio, fortitude, gradual, horrid, janitor, jocose, medium, modern, notorious, orb, pacific, penetrate, querulous, resuscitate, sinecure, series, splendid, strict, superintendent, transition, ultimate, urban, urge, vindicate (Pyles 1964: 329).

Cser gives a list where he classifies them according to the part of speech they belong to:

Nouns: *allusion, anachronism, antipathy, atmosphere, capsule, chaos, denunciation, dexterity, disrespect, emanation, excrescence, excursion, expectation, halo, inclemency, jurisprudence, system.*

Adjectives: *abject, agile, appropriate, conspicuous, dexterous, expensive, habitual, impersonal, insane, jocular, malignant.*

Verbs: *adapt, alienate, consolidate, emancipate, eradicate, erupt, excavate, exist, meditate, recollect.*

Borrowed lexis gave new names for new concepts, but also increased synonymy in the English language. This means that in Modern English there are alternative ways of saying the same thing in different registers. We can observe a lack of transparency in the lexicon, which had started to build up with the French element in Middle English, and continued with the Latin loans of the early Modern English period. The consequence of this is that there is no formal connection between quite a few words that are semantically related, e.g. *amatory* and *love, audition* and *hearing, anatomy* and *cutting up* (Lass 1999: 333).

3. Prefixes and suffixes

Several new productive elements came into the English language. I will give a list of prefixes and suffixes that are of Latin origin. I have collected a set of examples for each of these from the *Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology:*

Fig. 1. Prefixes

Root	Etymology	English examples
ab-, a-, abs-	*ab-*	*abnormal, absent*
ante-, anti-	*ante*	*antebellum, anticipate, antiquity*
ben-	*bene*	*benefit, benevolent*
bi-, bin-, bis-	*bis, bini*	*bicycle, biennial, binary*
de-	*de-*	*decay, declare, decline, descend*
ex-	*ex-*	*exclude, exist, exit*
in-, il-, im-, ir-	*in-*	*illicit, impossible, inimical, irrational*
multi-	*multus*	*multilingual, multiply*
ob-, o-, oc-, of-, og-, op-, os-	*ob*	*obdurate, oblique, oppose*
re-, red-	*re-*	*recede, repeat, redact*

Fig. 2. Suffixes

Root	Etymology	English examples
-able, -ible	*-abilis, -ibilis*	*loveable, edible*
-al	*-alis*	*gradual, manual*
-ence, -ency	*-entia*	*difference, confidence, urgency, emergency*
-ity, -ty	*-itas*	*clarity, university, poverty*
-ment	*-mentum*	*containment, amendment*

IV. Attempts to purify the language

The rise of humanism in the 15th century meant the reassessment of the nature and function of Latin. Humanists were intent on re-establishing the Latin of the classics. They disapproved of the spoken variety of Latin and wanted it to be taught and pronounced in its classical state. This made Latin a dead language. To become expert in classical Latin required much more study then to be able to use some form of Vulgar Latin. Command of Latin became restricted gradually to scholars. Scholars like Erasmus could write and speak in classical Latin, for Latin remained the language of inter-

national scholarship, and authors like John Milton and Francis Bacon could write Latin as well as English, and issued some of their works in Latin. Fewer people used Latin, so it ceased to be a possible competitor with English at the spoken level, and even at the written level its use became restricted to scholarship and to certain formulaic documents and memorials (Cser 2003: 37).

Although English could now develop as both the national spoken and written language of England, the existence of Latin as a dead language and of French as a fashionable language cultivated outside England had important implications. A living language like English could never be as perfect as a dead language like Latin, which was also the language which provided the model for all grammatical systems. Latin was considered to be a perfect language because its grammar had been codified. In the same way, a language that had only recently formed standardised varieties and in which approved works of merit, such as those written by the literary triumvirate, i.e. Chaucer, Gower and Lydgate had only just started to be composed, could hardly be compared with a language like French, which not only had its origins in Latin, but which could also trace its literary history back several centuries. As a consequence, the English felt that their language was inferior to Latin and French. The changes that English as a living language was subject to had already started to receive unfavourable mention in the fourteenth century and this criticism increased enormously. This problem grew bigger with the invention of printing. For the early printers needed to provide texts in an English that was acceptable to everyone in the country and also up to date. The problems which critics complained of in English centred on its barbarous nature because it lacked the refinement of Latin and French. It was not expressive enough because it did not have the necessary vocabulary, and the vocabulary it did have was unsophisticated. One could not express oneself elegantly in English, because it lacked the refinement of French and Latin. It was not polished (Blake 1996: 182–4). This was the time when people started to think about how to purify the language.

Purist tendencies emerge when "there is a recurrent phenomenon that speakers of a language agree that the state of their language is in decline, that it contains too many words from informal varieties, that it is threatened by modernising and foreign influences: in short, that it was better in the olden days and that nowadays something needs to be done to restore it to its former glory" (Langer 2005: 1).

a) archaisms: *crossed* instead of *crucified, wiseards* instead of *magi, waite on* instead of *servant, biwordes* instead of *parables, hunderer* instead of *centurion,* etc.

b) calques from Latin and Greek: *freshman* from *proselyte, gainsbirth* from *regeneration, gainrising* from *resurrection,* etc.

Ralph Lever, the most radical of the English purists of the time, tried to substitute the Latin terminology of Logic in English with his own coinages, using compounding as the main means of his word formation: *an endsay* instead of Latin (later on L) *conclusion, an inbeer* instead of L *accidens, a naysay* instead of L *negation, saywhat* instead of L *definition, speechcrafte* instead of L *rhetoric,* etc. None of Cheke's or Lever's coinages has ever reached the active vocabulary of Standard English (Langer 2005: 101). Cheke was against "borrowing of other tongues", yet he knew that English

was "unperfight" and it was necessary to borrow words from other languages (Moore 1910: 16).

In the sixteenth century, English did not have a good reputation. It was considered to be a mixture of several languages. Peter Heylyn writes in his description of the earth that it is "a decompound of Dutch, French and Latine" (Moore 1910: 12). According to Bullokar, "it is not sufficiently furnished with apt terms to express all meanings" while Urquhart states that "paucity of words is the worst disease of our language" (Moore 1910: 17–8).

The purists continued their activity in the nineteenth century as well. They wanted to defend English from foreign influences. They wanted to anglo-saxonise England. "Nineteenth-century Britain saw great changes in political, economical and social life. But the most decisive influence of the language came from the rapid development of science and different branches of industry with their new notions, objects and inventions to be denoted. The experience of the past was taken into account as new terms were derived with the help of Greek and Latin morphemes (Bailey 1996: 140, in: Langer 2005: 103).

A new flood of loans from the classical languages resulted in the emergence of two forms of linguistic purism: xenophobic, represented by William Barnes and the poets G. M. Hopkins and W. Morris, supported by R. Ch. Trench, and elitist, represented by G. Graham, A. Bain, A. Ellis and other language critics.

William Barnes, the most conservative and thorough English purist of the nineteenth century, saw the reform of Victorian English in its Anglo-Saxon past and tried to anglo-saxonise the complex borrowed words or their components. He was very well acquainted with the works of his German colleagues and he followed their example, inventing PSs for the everyday and scientific vocabulary of Romance origin. The poets G. M. Hopkins and W. Morris directed their efforts at reforming English poetic language only. Barnes, Hopkins and Morris made great use of the following means and sources of PS formation:

a) revival of Old English (OE) words: *gleecraft* instead of *music, inwit* instead of *conscience, wort* instead of *plant* (Barnes); *chapman* instead of *merchant, lustyhead* instead of *pleasure, abye* instead of *to suffer* (Morris), etc. or OE affixes: *to for-free-en* instead of *to absolve, folkdom* instead of *democracy, breaksome* instead of *fragile* (Barnes); *astray, abide, unhouse, unbake* (Hopkins); *to-wearied* 'extremely wearied', *beewooed* 'allured, attracted', *ungreedy* 'generous' (Morris), etc.

b) use of dialectal words and elements; *doughty* instead of *active, fall* instead of *autumn* (cf. AmE *fall*), *sprack* instead of *energetic, toilsome* instead of *industrious* (Barnes); *cringe, dings, dint, flanks, gash, hack, hempen, housel* (Hopkins), etc. (Langer 2005: 103).

V. The failure of the attempts

We can get an idea about the contemporary welcome of the attempt of language reform if we read the notes to Spenser's work, written by a certain E. K., in which he explains the methods of borrowing and some words as well. These notes were pub-

lished together with *Shepheards Calender.* E. K. was probably Edward Kirke (1553–1613), Spenser's friend. In his opinion, these words are difficult to understand because they seem to be rough and rustic because old, archaic words are used mostly by countrymen. With this he explains why most writers did not use archaic words. These words do not have the stylistic elevation needed for being able to use them in literary works. Moreover, the number of archaic words is low to meet the need for new words. In connection with new words, people thought that the language could be enriched by them. What is essential is that loanwords are in harmony with English. George Puttenham (1529–1590), the author of *The Arte of English Poesie* says that the use of foreign words is not suitable for poetry, but they can be used in everyday language. What is important is that we use loanwords for a particular purpose. Scientific words, for instance, could not be replaced with other words (Moore 1910: 51–2).

As a conclusion we can say that the English language reform was unsuccessful because it was realised that loanwords could not be eliminated from the language, they were really needed. Old words cannot be revived because loanwords have come into general use in the English language.

VI. Latin loans in English and Hungarian

Finally, I have made a comparison between English and Hungarian based on loanwords. Latin loanwords have come into Hungarian as well over the centuries. I am not going to give a detailed history of Latin loanwords in the Hungarian language.[3] I would only like to compare some Latin loans that are present in both languages. Some of these words have the same meaning in both English and Hungarian but there are some others which differ semantically. I have collected some Latin loanwords which have a difference in meaning in the two languages.

The English and Hungarian equivalents of the Latin word *musica* have different meanings. The English word *music* refers to all kinds of music, whereas the Hungarian word *muzsika* denotes only classical music or folk music. It cannot refer to popular music like rock, pop or jazz.

Another such word is *historia*. The English word *history* means 'the study of past events', the school subject which deals with these events, and also 'the record of what has happened to a person, family, house etc.' The Hungarian word has a restricted meaning. It is used only in the last sense.

The English noun *temple* comes from Latin *templum*. Its Hungarian equivalent is *templom*. The Latin word originally referred to pagan temples in ancient Rome. The English word has retained this sense, while the Hungarian word refers primarily to Christian church buildings.

The abstract noun *protectio* has a different meaning in English and Hungarian. Its English equivalent, *protection* has the same meaning as the original Latin word, whereas the Hungarian word *protekció* is used in the sense of 'pull', 'influence'.

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[3] For a detailed history of Latin loans in Hungarian, see Bárczi Géza–Benkő Loránd–Berrár Jolán 2002: *A magyar nyelv története,* Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest.

The verb *dirigere* has the form *direct* in English and the *dirigál* in Hungarian. It is interesting to observe that the Hungarian verb derives from the form *dirigere,* i.e. the second form of the Latin verb, whereas the English verb comes from *directus,* which is the forth, i.e. the supine form of the Latin verb.

The adjective *socialis* has the form *social* in English and that of *szociális* in Hungarian. In English, this word is used in a wide sense, but in Hungarian it has a restricted meaning.

The Latin verb *agere* was borrowed by both English and Hungarian but in different forms. As a verb, it is present in English as *act* and in Hungarian as *ágál*. As in the case of *dirigere,* it can be observed that the Hungarian verb is from *agere,* whereas the English verb derives from its supine, i.e. *actus.*

The noun form of the Latin verb, i.e. *actio* had several different meanings in Latin. Its primary meaning was the same as that of the English noun, i.e. *action,* but it was also used in the sense of 'prosecution' and 'performance'. English *action* has the following meanings: 1) the process of doing something, activity, 2) the events in a story or play, 3) fighting in battle, 4) a legal process, 5) a way of functioning, esp. of a part of the body. In contrast with these, the Hungarian noun *akció* means 'sale'.

These are just a few interesting examples that show the relationship between some English and Hungarian words that are of Latin origin. As a conclusion we can say that that Latin has made an influence not only on English but on other European languages as well, and the reason for this lies in European history and culture.

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LATIN INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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English has taken a great number of words from other languages throughout its history. One of these languages was Latin, which has influenced English from its earliest days till present time. The article is divided into five sections. The first three of these are further divided into sub-sections. These sections discuss Old English, Middle English and Modern English, respectively. Each of these three sections includes a brief summary of the historical background as well. I give lots of examples. I also examine the prosodic compare the prosodic structure of native and non-native words. I have also included a text which contains a lot of words that were new at the time it was written. The last two sections are about linguistic purism, the efforts taken to eliminate loanwords from English (section IV) and the reasons for the failure of the attempt (section V). Hungarian also contains words that came from Latin. Some of these words can be found in English as well. I have examined some of these words.