LIN203 FINAL REVIEW

1. Loanwords

reasons for borrowing

- flexible in terms of what a word can sound like
- historical reason: be invaded several times

sources of loanwords in English

Latin and Greek

why?

- Latin was the lingua franca of European scholarship long after the fall of the Roman Empire
- When English began to be used for scholarship, it borrowed Latin for those terms already existed
- The Romans had borrowed a lot of scholarly words from Greek in ancient times for the same reason
- English had a large component of French loanwords already; French is historically derived from Latin, so there was already a model of how to fit Latinate words into English

differences between loanwords and native words

- the native and Latin words have about the same basic meanings, or denotation, but they differ in more subtle aspects of meaning, or connotation, as well as the contexts in which they're more likely to be used.
- the Latin words are more abstract, technical, and legalistic, the native words sound more informal and personal
- the native words again seem more direct, less formal, and less fancy; they are also often shorter and less complex

doublets and cognates (from lec4)

- cognates: Since Greek, Latin and English are all(distantly) related languages, they have some similar-looking morphemes in common just because they all inherited them from their common prehistoric ancestor. e.g. English *mother*, Latin *matr-*, and Greek *metr-*, they look similar not because of borrowing, but

because they inherited from the same source. These words are called cognates.

- doublets: English often borrows a morpheme that it already has a cognate for, or borrows two cognates from related languages, they are called doublets.

distinguishing between Greek and Latin morphs (from lec9? lec4?)

- vague way: just as Latinate words are usually more formal or specialized than native words, Greek words are often more formal or specialized than Latin words

2. History of English

stages in the development of English and some of its relatives

- Indo-European
  - Germanic
    - West Germanic
      - Prehistoric English
        - Old English
          - Middle English
            - Modern English
      - Frisian
      - Low German
      - Dutch
      - Afrikaans
      - German
      - Yiddish
    - North Germanic
      - Viking Norse
        - Old Norse
          - Norwegian
          - Icelandic
          - Swedish

- Danish
- East Germanic
  - Gothic
- Italic
  - Latin
    - French
    - Italian
    - Spanish
    - Portuguese
    - Romanian
- Celtic
  - Welsh
  - Irish
  - Scots Gaelic
- Hellenic
  - Classical Greek
    - Modern Greek

- **Germanic family and subfamilies**
  - East Germanic: now extinct, Gothic
  - North Germanic: the Old Norse, now developed into Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic
  - West Germanic: German, Yiddish, Dutch, and English
- **major stages of English**
  - Prehistoric English (400-700)
    - 5th century, Germanic tribes invaded England
    - English borrowed almost no loanwords from Celtic
    - England was converted to Christianity
    - words of Church borrowed

- Old English (700-1100)
  - written in a version of the Latin alphabet
  - epic poem *Beowulf*
  - inflection (plural, gender, case)
  - invaded by Vikings, Norse language borrowed (some ‘doublets’ appeared, since Norse and English were both Germanic languages)
- Middle English (1100-1500)
  - Norman Conquest in 1066
  - The Normans spoke French, so French loanwords borrowed
  - Geoffrey Chaucer, *Canterbury Tales*
- Early Modern English (1500-1800)
  - Renaissance
  - Latin and Greek words
  - works of Shakespeare and the King James Bible translation
- Present-Day English (1800-present)
  - globalization, increasingly borrowed Latin and Greek words

- **major changes in the history of English**
  - loss of Old English inflection
  - Great Vowel Shift **********
    - ME and early ModE
    - picture
    - gradual
  - major sources of loanwords at different periods

3. Morphs, morphemes, and allomorphs

- **morphs vs. morphemes**
  - a morph is a specific form that appears as structural unit in a given word
  - a morpheme consists of one or more morphs with the same origin and function

- **etymological vs. synchronic analysis**
  - pick etymological
  - what is a morph? the smallest unit that has an identifiable structural contribution in the context of the history of the word and the vocabulary as a whole, even if ti's not obvious to the average speaker.
- **types of morphemes:**
  - free vs. bound
    - free morphs are those that can stand on their own as a word
    - bound morphs are those are always attached to other morphemes
  - content vs. function
    - content morphs (a.k.a. lexical morphs) have referential meaning
    - function morphs usually embody structural or grammatical information about content morphs, or modify or specify shades of meaning
  - roots, prefixes and suffixes
    - the root is a content morph usually contributing the core of the meaning
    - an affix is typically a bound function morpheme contributing information about finer shades of meaning, structural relationship
      - prefixes
      - suffixes
        - often determine what grammatical category a word is
      - (infixes)
- **affixes and syntactic category**
  - derivation: the most common way to create a word, by adding one or more affixes to a base to create a word with a different meaning and / or different category than the base
  - two classes of derivational affixes
    - Class 1:
      - can trigger changes in the pronunciation of the base
      - affects placement of syllable stress
      - can combine with bound roots

- mostly consists of affixes borrowed from Greek and Latin
- *-(i)ty, -(t)ive*

▼ Class 2:

- no effect on pronunciation
- rarely affects which syllable is stressed
- mainly combines only with bases that themselves standalone words
- mostly consists of native English affixes
- *-ness, -ful, -less*

▼ **empty morphs**

- no meaning or structural function but just provide a transition from one morph to the next: -a-

▼ **derivational affixes vs. inflectional affixes**

- derivational affixes (above)

▼ inflectional affixes

- creates different forms of the same word, indicating specific grammatical information, but not changing the core meaning
- some have irregular morphs for inflected forms: *oxen*
- some alter or replace the root, instead of adding an affix
- changing a vowel in the stem is called ablaut

▼ **suppletion**

- some lexemes replace the root with an unrelated root morph for inflection: *went, worse…*
- some cases, not totally unrelated to the basic root, is called partial suppletion: *brought, were*

▼ **compounding**

- creating a word with two or more lexical roots

▼ endocentric vs. exocentric

- endocentric: head at the end, *blackboard, lemmon-yellow*
- exocentric: don’t have a head, *redneck, pickpocket*

- **miscellaneous types of word formation**
  - zero derivation / conversion
    - assigning an existing word to a new syntactic category
      - paper: N->V, drink: V->N
  - eponyms
    - converting a proper name into a common word
      - *sandwich, boycott*
  - back-formation
    - creating a word by removing what looks like an affix from an existing word, even if it wasn't originally an affix
      - *pea* is from *pease*, and *cherry* is from *cherries, escalate* is from *Escalator*
  - blending / portmanteau words
    - creating a word by combing parts of two words
      - *smog = smoke + fog, brunch = breakfast + lunch, chortle = chuckle + snort*
  - acronyms
    - creating a word from the first letters or syllables of a phrase
      - *radar = radio detection and ranging, scuba = self-contained underwater breathing apparatus*
  - onomatopoeia
    - creating a word to refer to and imitate some sound
      - *buzz, hiss, beep, zip*
- **identifying allomorphs and morphological structure**

4. Types of allomorphy

- **how to tell whether two morphs are allomorphs or the same morpheme?**
  - 1. allomorphs of the morpheme have the same function (and usually the same approximate meaning)
  - 2. the choice of which allomorph to use depends on other morphemes in the same word

- 3. allomorphs share a common history and related pronunciation

- **phonological-motivated allomorphy (serve to repair problematic sequences of sounds)**
  - assimilation (from lecture5)
    - a common phonological process that phonetics affect allomorphy
      - voicing assimilation
        - *regular, inter-reg-num, di-rec-t, di-rec-tion*
        - match the voicelessness of the following consonant
      - place (of articulation) assimilation
        - *in-duce, in-scribe, im-pel, im-bibe, con-tend, con-serve, com-pel, com-bine, syn-thetic, syn-drome, sym-pathy, sym-bol*
        - match the place of articulation of the following consonant
      - total assimilation
        - *il-lusion, ir-radiate, col-lect, cor-rect*
        - exact copy of the following consonant
  - Latin vowel weakening
    - due to some Latin phonological rules, we need to weaken some syllables in the middle of a word
      - e.g. *cap-, cep-, cip-*
- **extended allomorphs**
  - sometimes a sequence of morphs gets reinterpreted as a single morph, often because one of the two has no particular meaning
    - *corp, -us, -or => corpus-, corpor-*
- **nasal infixation**
  - *-n-, -m-,* also a type of extended allomorph
- **ablaut grades:** *e, o* and *zero*
  - *gen-, gon-, -gn-*
- **doublets as allomorphs**

- *semi- ~ hemi-, sex- ~ hex-, serp- ~ herp-* (one Latin, one Greek, but both borrowed into English)

- another source of doublet morphs is Latin and French
  - ME borrowed the Norman French form a morpheme, then borrowed its ancestor the same morpheme from Latin

5. Phonetics

- **consonants are described in terms of two main parameters:**
  - place of articulation
  - manner of articulation
    - obstruent: some obstacle blocks the whole vocal tract
      - comes in paired voiced and voiceless version
    - sonorant: only part of the vocal tract is blocked
      - all sonorants are voiced
- **manners of articulation**
  - stop
  - fricative
  - affricate
  - nasal
  - lateral
  - approximant
- **places of articulation**
  - bilabial
  - labiodental
  - (inter)dental
  - alveolar
  - postalveolar
  - palatal
  - velar

- glottal
- **voicing**
- **vowel features**
  - height (hight, mid, low)
  - frontness/backness (front, central, back)
  - tenseness/laxness (tense, lax)
  - rounding (rounded, unrounded)
  - diphthongs
    - 3 major diphthongs
      - boy
      - prize
      - mouth
- **stress**

6. Morphophonological rules

- **representation of rules (basically how to write a rule, which is obvious)**
  - describe how morphemes change in different contexts, in was that are motivated by phonological features and patterns
  - based on the phonology of Greek and Latin, not the phonology of English
- **types of morphophonological rules**
  - assimilation
  - deletion
  - cluster simplification
  - insertion
  - rhotacism
  - Latin double-t rule
  - others discussed in the textbook
- **ordering of rules**

- **natural classes**
- **exceptions to rules**
- **allomorphy based on obsolete or borrowed phonology**

7. Meaning

polysemy vs. homonymy

- polysemy: a morpheme can have multiple meanings
  - physical object vs. abstract entity it represents
  - multiple meanings are connected by metaphorical association
- homonymy: when distinct morphemes with unrelated meanings have the same form
- homonymy and polysemy have different causes
  - homonyms have different origins and look the same through coincidence;
    - homonyms might originate as loans from different sources
    - they might originate because of a loan that sounds the same as a native word
    - they might originate because two morphemes that were originally pronounced differently come to be pronounced the same through language change
    - these are all pairs of two different and unrelated morphemes
  - polysemous meanings of a morpheme all have a common origin
    - the same origin, being generated out of earlier meanings through semantic shift

relationships between multiple meanings

- metaphor
  - based on resemblance between old and new meanings—a word gains a meaning that is somehow similar to the original meaning
  - the similarity can manifest in various ways:
    - literal physical similarity
    - a similar relation to its context

        - a more abstract relationship
        - spatial metaphor: describing a concept or idea in terms of physical directions or relationships
    - metonymy
        - based on some kind of connection between two entities—using a word to refer to something that is related to the original meaning, not because of resemblance but because of some other association
        - synechdoche: using a part of something to refer the whole, or vice versa, or the material to refer to something that's made of it
- **causes of semantic change**
    - changes in the world can lead to changes in the meanings of words
    - people use language in creative and playful ways
    - the way people learn language
- **results of semantic change**
    - narrowing: a word is specialized to refer to a subset of what it originally meant
    - widening: opposite to narrowing
    - pejoration: a word takes on a more negative connotation
    - amelioration: opposite to pejoration
    - strengthening: opposite to weakening
    - weakening: a word's meaning loses force or intensity

8. Variation

- **definition of language**
    - languages aren't discrete and well-defined entities; the boundaries between them are fuzzy and it's not always possible to e.g. count how many there are.
    - the individual way a particular person speaks, with a different grammar and vocabulary than anyone else's idiolect
    - but two people's idiolects are broadly similar to each other
    - another version of language is that: agreement on a common authority—two people speak the same language if they would consult the same source to find

the name of something they don't know the right word for. (but not applicable all the time)

- **language vs. dialects**
  - a dialect is an intermediate abstraction between 'idiolect' and 'language'—a set of very similar idiolects, often associated with a given geographical area.
  - the difference between 'languages' and 'dialects' depends on scale; it's not an absolute difference.
  - what gets called a 'dialect' or a 'language' often depends on political factors such as national boundaries
    - Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish
    - Serbian, Crotian
    - Urdu, Hindi
    - opposite example: Chinese
    - the same principle applies to languages change over time
- **idiolect (see above)**
- **standardization**
  - social judgment, not a linguistic one
  - standard dialects are those used by educated people in formal situations, and they conform to people's prejudices about the 'proper' way to speak.
- **prescriptive vs. descriptive**
  - descriptive approach
    - the goal is to describe as accurately as possible the way language is used—how sentences are strutted, how sounds combine, etc.—and why it is used that way.
    - does not make value judgments between dialects
    - descriptivists don't deny the existence of standardization—that people will be socially disadvantaged by speaking non-standard dialects and regarded more favourably if they use standard dialects.
    - but these are facts about society, not facts about the dialects themselves
      - dialects become standard because they're spoken by privileged people, not vice versa

- non-standard dialects aren't inadequate or 'wrong' in any objective sense; it's just by an arbitrary social judgment that they're considered that way

- prescriptive approach
  - aim is to maintain and enforce standards on language use, defining some dialects (and features) as correct and others as incorrect.
  - this attitude aims to prescribe how people 'should' speak, rather than to describe how people do speak.

- **myths of prescriptivism**
  - nonstandard dialects
    - are lacking in structure or 'ungrammatica'
    - speakers are less intelligent
    - features are illogical or don't make sense
    - change away from the current standard is harmful to the language

- **sources of prescriptive rules**
  - often it's based on social structure
    - the dialect spoken by the most wealthy, powerful, or privileged group will have its features considered to be the most linguistically 'correct'
  - sometimes based on borrowing features from other respected languages
  - and sometimes prescriptivists just take their personal preferences

9. Latin word formation

- **noun plurals**
  - Latin nouns and adjectives were inflected for case—inflectional suffixes showed what role the noun played in the sentence.
    - nominative: subject of the sentence, *fel-es*
    - accusative: object of the sentence, *fel-em*
    - genitive: possessive, *fel-is*
    - dative: indirect object, *fel-i*
    - ablative: (various other grammatical functions), *fel-e*

- *Not all nouns used the same set of case suffixes

- when English borrows Latin nouns / adjectives, it usually ignores case suffixes, and borrows only the stem (or the French form of the stem)

- sometimes however, English borrows a Latin word with the nominative suffix: *radi-us, analys-is, are-a*

  - when this happens, sometimes only borrows the nominative singular, and uses the regular English plural suffix for the plural: *bonuses, areas*

  - but usually English borrows borrows both the nominative singular and plural, so the plural form used in English is the Latin nominative plural: *radii, analyses*

- common Latin nominative suffixes, singular and plural (see the chart)

- also *-on* is a common Greek nominative singular suffix with plural *-a* as in *polyhedron* and *polyhedra*

- *[-us]* some situations to watch out for:

  - the nominative singular *-us* ending usually corresponds to plural *-i* (as we can see in the chart), however, there are many *-us* words whose Latin plurals aren't in *-i*. It is a common mistake to use *-i* for the plurals of these words.

  - some Latin words in *-us* have nominative plurals also in *-us*:

    - *apparatus, consensus, detritus, fetus, status*

  - *virus* was an oddball irregular noun

  - some nouns end with *-us* but have no nominative singular suffix; the *-us* is part of the stem, and the nominative plural suffix is *-a*

    - *corpus ~ copor-a, genus ~ gener-a*

- *[-s]* some situations to watch out for:

  - the nominative singular suffix *-s* often causes allomorph in its base, leading to the singular and plural having different stem allomorphs

  - some common patterns:

    - *x = cs*. *Appendix* and *matrix* do end with the *-s* suffix (i.e. *appendic-s, matric-s*) so their plurals are *appendic-es* and *matric-es*

    - voicing assimilation. the base form of the root *laryng-* contains a *g*; the *-s* suffix causes *g* to devoice to [k] and produce *larynx*

        - Latin vowel weakening: *e* in the basic form may reduce to *i* in the plural: *index, apex, vertex* have the plurals *indices, apices, vertices*.
    - English has a small number of nouns borrowed from Latin cases other than the nominative

- **common derivational affixes (noun)**
    - a Latin noun may be formed just by attaching inflectional suffixes to the root, but a noun may also include derivational suffixes, which attach between the root and the inflectional ending, *caps-ul-a* containing the diminutive suffix *-ul-*
    - as usual many derivational suffixes only indicate a syntactic category; but others indicate a more specific meaning—
        - *-ari-* indicates a place: *libr-ary, sanctu-ary, aqu-ari-um*
        - *-(t)or* indicates an agent—who or what performs a particular action: *ac-tor, connec-tor, inspec-tor*
        - *-(c)ul-* is often a diminutive: *mole-cule, parti-cle, glob-ule, homun-cul-us*
        - NOTE sometimes they appear in more French-like forms (*-cle*), sometimes in Latin-like forms but without the inflectional suffix (*-cule*), and sometimes in exact Latin forms with the inflectional suffix (*-cul-us*)
    - Adjective-forming derivational suffixes are treated in the similar ways

- **verb morphology**
    - background
        - the principal parts of a verb are the forms you need to know to be able figure out all the other inflected forms
            - English verbs have three principle parts—
                - the infinitive (*stay, take, sew, teach*)
                - the past tense (*stayed, took, sewed, taught*)
                - the past participle (*stayed, taken, sewn, taught*)
            - Latin verbs have four principle parts--
                - the first-person present tense: *amo* ‘I love’, *video* ‘I see’, *capio* ‘I take’
                - the infinitive: *amare* ‘to love’, *videre* ‘to see’, *capere* ‘to take’
                - the first-person perfect tense: *amavi* ‘I loved’, *vidi* ‘I saw’, *cepi* ‘I took’
                - the perfect participle: *amatus* ‘loved’, *visus* ‘seen’, *captus* ‘taken’

- the perfect tense is almost always irrelevant to English loanwords
- and the present tense and infinitive are very similar
- so just need to focus on present (infinitive) stem and the perfect participle

- thematic vowels
  - an empty morph that may be either *-a-, -e-,* or *-i-*
- present stem (do)
  - the present stem of a Latin verb usually consists of (an allomorph of) the root plus a thematic vowel
  - the inflectional endings on a verb usually comes after the thematic vowel
  - *am-a-re* ‘to love’, *vid-e-re* ‘to see’, *aud-i-re* ‘to hear’
  - *am-a-s* ‘you love’, *vid-e-s* ‘you see’, *aud-i-s* ‘you hear’
  - a few derivational verb suffixes exist
    - the most important one is *-sc-*, which means ‘begin’ or ‘become’
      - *conval-e-sc-e-re -> convalescee* ‘become strong’
      - *evan-e-sc-e-re -> evanesce* ‘begin to vanish’
      - note *-sc-* have thematic vowels both before and after it.
- present participle (doing)
  - the Latin present participle has the suffix *-(e)nt-* after the thematic vowel; it has the same meaning as English *-ing*
  - *am-a-nt-* ‘loving’, *vid-e-nt-* ‘seeing’, *aud-i-ent-* ‘hearing’
  - this participle is a very common source for adjective and noun loanwords, with roughly the same meaning as it has in Latin:
    - *err-a-nt- errant* ‘wandering'
    - *ag-e-nt- agent* ‘doing'
    - *adolesc-e-nt- adolescent* ‘growing up'
    - *conven-i-ent- convenient* ‘coming together’
    - *recip-i-ent-, recipient* ‘receiving’
- gerundive participle (will/should be done)

- the gerundive participle is also based on the present stem; its suffix is *-(e)nd-* after the thematic vowel
- it usually has a future passive meaning—indicating that something will or should undergo the action denoted by the verb
- thus *ag-e-nd-a* consists of things that should be done; and *add-e-nd* is a number that will be added to another number
- *Errand* is an example of a word derived from the gerundive whose relationship to a future passive meaning is less obvious

▼ perfect participle (done)

▼ usually perfect participle has a passive meaning as well

▼ the formation varied

▼ A. the most basic form: adding the suffix *-t-* to the root:

- *sec-* 'cut' -> *sec-t-us* '(having been) cut'
- *rap-* 'seize' -> *rap-t-us* '(having been) seized'

▼ B. sometimes, the suffix *-t-* is added after a thematic vowel

- *am-* 'love' -> *am-a-t-us* '(having been) loved'
- *aud-* 'hear' -> *aud-i-t-us* '(having been) heard'

- the perfect participle often has a different allomorph of the root than the present stem does. may be because the present stem uses nasal infixation, or it may be because they have different types of Latin vowel weakening, or there is assimilation or some other morphophonological process
- chart (compare present stem vs. perfect participle stem, also list t+t cases and irregular cases)
- even when perfect participles are formed irregularly, though, the stems always end with *t* or *s.*

▼ perfect participle stems are sometimes used for nouns and adjectives with meanings based on the passive meaning of the participle itselt

- *intric-a-t-* 'entangled' -> *intricate*
- *solu-t-* 'loosen, dissolve' -> *solute* 'something that has been dissolved'
- *re-mot-* 'moved back' -> *remote* 'far away'

- *rap-t-* ‘seized’ -> *rapt* ‘fascinated, engrossed'
- *sec-t-* ‘cut’ -> *sect* ‘distinct subgroup of a religious group’

▼ occasionally perfect participles have active meanings (in Latin and English):

- *adul-t-* ‘having grown up’ -> *adult*
- *exper-t-* ‘having tried’ -> *expert* ‘someone who has tried a lot of things’

- very many English verbs use the perfect participle stem of a Latin verb: *act, audit, bi-sect, con-struct, di-gest, ex-empt, im-merse, prosecute, use,* etc.
- The very common verb-forming suffix *-ate-*: *renovate, generate, venerate, complicate, navigate, consecrate, create,* etc. comes from the thematic vowel *-a-* plus the perfect participle suffix *-t-*

▼ derivational suffixes that attach to perfect participle stem

- *-(t)ion,* which forms abstract nouns
- *-(t)ive,* which forms adjectives
- *-(t)or*, which forms agent nouns

▼ 10. Historical linguistics

▼ Indo-European and its subfamilies

- Proto-Indo-European (PIE) was spoken at least 5000 years ago and was not written

▼ subfamilies of Indo-European include:

- Germanic
- Italic (including Latin and its descendants the Romance languages)
- Greek (a subfamily with only one language in it)
- Celtic (Irish, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh and a few others)
- Indo-Iranian (languages of south Asia and Iran: Hindi, Persian, etc.)
- Balts-Slavic (languages of eastern Europe: Russian, Polish, Latvian, etc.)
- Albanian
- Armenian

- William Jones was the first (in 1786) to point out that Sanskrit was related to European languages.
- The similarities exist because of the existence of cognates
- Cognates in related languages aren't necessarily similar, but related languages have regular patterns of sound correspondences

▼ **Porto-Indo-European and its properties**

▼ PIE is reconstructed as having 3 sets of stop consonants

- voiceless
- voiced
- voiced aspirate

- **cognates**

▼ **regularity of sound change**

- when a language undergoes changes in pronunciation, the same sound in the same context changes the same way in all words
- this is different from semantic change, where 'every word has its own history'

▼ **chain shift**

▼ Grimm's Law:

- voiceless stops become fricatives, leaving a gap for the voiceless stops
- voiced stops become voiceless and fill that gap, leaving a new gap
- the voiced aspirates become plain voiced stops, and fill that gap

▼ GVS

- long high vowels become diphthongs
- long mid vowels become high
- and long low and lowish vowels become mid

▼ **Grimm's Law and regular correspondences**

▼ Jakob Grimm (1819)

- voiceless stops become voiceless fricatives
- voiced stops become voiceless stops

- voiced aspirated stops become normal unaspirated voiced stops
- most obvious at the beginning of a word

▼ the discovery of Grimm's Law was very influential in the history of linguistics:

- it demonstrated Germanic was part of the Indo-European family
- it showed that family relationships could be established not just by direct similarity but by consistent correspondences between different sounds
- it showed that sound change is regular, affecting, all words in which a given sound appears

▼ **differences between Latin and Greek**

- in Greek and Latin, the voiceless and plain voiced stops remained unchanged, so the correspondences with English are easy to see
- the PIE voiced aspirates changed to other sounds in Latin and Greek as well: in Greek they became voiceless aspirates; in Latin they became fricatives
- Greek developed sounds represented by *ph, th, ch, y, z* through sound change; it lost the sounds represented by *j, qu, v* (actually [w]), which existed in PIE; and unlike Latin, ancient Greek never developed *f*.
- So borrowed morphemes containing *j, qu, v* and *f* are generally from Latin and those containing *ph, th, ch, y, z* are very likely to be from Greek.
- Most of time, English prefers to combine Greek morphemes with other Greek morphemes, and Latin with Latin.

▼ **Classical Latin, Ecclesiastical Latin, and Vulgar Latin**

- Classical Latin: the standard dialect of the Roman Empire (remained as a written language even the spoken language changed)
- Ecclesiastical Latin: the spoken language of the Catholic Church, lingua franca of European scholarship for many centuries

▼ Vulgar Latin: spoken by common people, non-standard, spread across the Empire and evolved differently in different places

- the regional dialects of Vulgar Latin became Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian, and many others

▼ **role of Latin in Europe**

▼ English has borrowed from Latin and its descendants at all periods—

- Proto-Germanic borrowed from Classical and early Vulgar Latin

- Prehistoric and OE borrowed from Ecclesiastical Latin
- ME borrowed from Old French, especially the Norman dialect
- present-day English borrowing from present-day French
- all eras of English have borrowed from Classical Latin

▼ **major changes from Latin to French**

▼ Latin word-final syllables were usually greatly simplified or lost in French; these usually included inflectional endings

- like English, this means French lost noun case
- this is why English often drops case endings when borrowing from Latin (following the model of French)
- also affected the derivational morphology of French; that's why even when borrowing words directly from Latin, the last morpheme usually appears in its French form.

▼ changes before front vowels

▼ often velar or alveolar stops become fricatives or affricates near front vowels

- the velar stops *c, g* became [s] and [d3] before front vowels *i* and *e*
- Latin *t* also often became [s] in French when followed by *i* (plus another vowel)

▼ a major change distinguishing French from other Romance languages is that *c* becomes *ch* before *a*

- *chant* (Old French), *cantus* (Latin)

- Diphthongization was quite common

▼ **lenition**

- A common type of sound change: consonants become weaker in their articulation
- generally involves changing the consonants' manner of articulation
- stop -> affricate -> fricative -> approximate -> vowel
- *riparium ->river; recipio -> receive; delibero -> deliver; caput -> chief; conductum -> conduit; fructum -> fruit; focarium -> foyer*