Old Norse Influence in Modern English

The Effect of the Viking Invasion

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B.A. Essay

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Abstract

The Vikings from Scandinavia invaded the British Isles during the late eighth century. They prevailed there for the next 300 years, until the Normans arrived. Despite having been such a dominant force they left behind diminutive evidence of their reign. That was the general assumption up until the second half of the nineteenth century when philologists began investigating English. Their investigations successfully established the definite evidence of the Vikings language in English.

The Vikings spoke a language called ‘Old Norse’, which today is an extinct language. Old Norse and Old English were in many ways similar since they belonged to the same language family, Germanic. Therefore, the Old Norse constituents integrated with ease into Old English. These borrowings went undetected for centuries but remain in the language up to the present-day.

It is estimated that there are around 400 Old Norse borrowings in Standard English. These borrowings are amongst the most frequently used terms in English and denote objects and actions of the most everyday description. This thesis determines which aspects of the language were and still are influenced by Old Norse and if these borrowings are still productive in Modern English. Moreover, it examines the varied influence Old Norse had on different English dialects.
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1. Introduction

This thesis attempts to answer the question what remains of Old Norse (ON) in Modern English (Mod.E), that is the aspects of the English lexicon where ON borrowings can be found and if these borrowings are still productive in English. The thesis will also examine the diverse influence ON had on different English dialects.

During the second half of the nineteenth century philologists began to examine English with the intention of exploring the surviving remnants of the Vikings in the British Isles. This examination resulted in studies which revealed that a large part of the English lexicon is undeniably derived from ON, in some instances by lexical borrowing and/or semantic fusion.

Before the nineteenth century, it appeared as if the evidence of the Vikings in the British Isles had been obliterated. Thankfully, there were philologists who took interest not in what remained of the Vikings in British soil, but what remained in the language of the islanders themselves. The philologist Jens Jacob Asmussen Worsaae, examined and scrutinized every linguistic and historic document available. He finally succeeded in establishing the unmistakable evidence of the Vikings, not only in Britain but also in Scotland and Ireland. He published his findings in his survey *Minder om de Danske og Nordmændene i England, Skotland og Irlan* in 1851 (Geipel, 1971, p.7).

The reason for why the ON evidence in English remained unnoticed for many centuries is due to the fact that the Norse constituents were so thoroughly integrated into English that many of them remained undetected until the nineteenth century (Geipel, 1971). Another factor is that English, ON, Scandinavian languages, and languages like German and Dutch, belong to the Germanic language group. Therefore, ON resembled the language of the Angles and Saxons in many ways. The integration of ON into English could occur without any disruption of the semantics or phonology of English (Geipel, 1971).

As Geipel (1971) mentions, the Scandinavian element in English has been somewhat neglected and consequently there are not many thorough, systematic and detailed studies on the subject. What has been published in the past decades mostly builds on previous studies, many of which were published in the late nineteenth century or early twentieth century. These studies might be dated, but, they are not
outdated, and the results, i.e. the ON terms found in English are a great foundation for a thesis like this.

The publication of various articles, etymological dictionaries and journals based on earlier investigations, from the early twentieth century and onwards, are the foundation on which this thesis is based.

The following chapters will reveal the wide-ranging influence ON had on the English language, from the time of the Viking invasion and up to the present-day. Additionally, the ON borrowings in Mod.E gathered in this study were categorized according to the aspects they influenced, and listed in the Appendices at the end of this thesis.

1.1. Introduction to Sources

As mentioned above, the research conducted on the remainders of ON in English has been scarce. Particularly in more recent times where there have been few studies on the subject. Looking at the reference list, it is apparent that there is a need for more up-to-date studies, although the publications of Björkman (1900), Lockwood (1975), Thorson (1936), Jespersen (1905), Trudgill (1984) and one, more recent, by Townend (2002) provided the foundation for this thesis.

The publication that proved to be of most importance during the compilation of this study was that of John Geipel, *The Viking Legacy: The Scandinavian Influence on the English Language*, published in 1971. According to Geipel himself, his publication is the first of its kind for nearly 120 years; that is the reassessment of the Scandinavian linguistic influence on the English language to full extent. Geipel’s publication is in all respect the most recent and thorough on the subject, despite being more than forty years old. Geipel uses the publications of Björkman, Thorson, Lockwood (an earlier publication than the one used in this thesis) and Jespersen in his survey, which denotes the obvious importance of these authors previous publications.

The way Geipel structures his survey is also very helpful. He gives a detailed analysis of the common roots of English and ON and then enlightens the reader with the history of the Vikings in the British Isles. There are two chapters that discuss the evidence of ON place and personal names in Britain. The last pages of the book include two short appendices with a selection of Scandinavian loanwords in Mod.E and also a selection of British surnames of probable or partial Scandinavian origin. Geipel does not, however, include a detailed chapter on the ON terms in the more
common aspects of the English dialects, i.e. the terms that belong to the most everyday level of the English vocabulary. He does state that the aspects of the English lexicon that are influenced by ON are that of fauna, natural and topographical, Norse mythology and negative terms, without discussing or listing these words at length in his publication. This thesis attempts to use Geipel’s statement and account for the ON borrowings and categorize them according to these aspects.

1.2. Old Norse

ON belongs to the Germanic language family. It is the language spoken in Scandinavia during the Viking Age (c.750-1050) and throughout the Middle Ages (c. 1050-1350) (Barnes, 2008). ON was a widely spread language and was therefore not entirely uniform. The language spoken in Norway around 750 differed from the language spoken in Iceland in 1350 (Barnes, 2008).

Modern Icelandic is the closest language to ON of all Nordic languages today, both in regards to the inflectional system and the basic vocabulary, and it remains an important factor when examining ON (Barnes, 2008). For example, ON ‘Þessi maðr er mikill fyrir sér. Hann bitu eigi vápn í dag, en nú granda honum eigi ormar.’ Without much alteration this text can be gramatically correct in Modern Icelandic; ‘Þessi maður er mikill fyrir sér. Hann bitu eigi vopn í dag, en nú granda honum eigi ormar.’ Mod.E ‘This man is great indeed. Him bit not weapons today, moreover now harm him not snakes.’ – from Ragnars saga Loðbrókar (Saga of Ragnar Shaggy-Breeches) (Lockwood, 1975, p. 208). Diachronic phonology suggests that the main difference between ON and Modern Icelandic is phonetics and pronunciation. The inflectional system and basic vocabulary are similar but the pronunciation has changed considerably since the first settlement of Iceland (Barnes, 2008).

According to Townend (2002), there was a close link between Old English (OE) and ON. This relationship was broken in the fifth century by the events of the Migration Period, in particular the Anglo-Saxons invasion of Britain. By the time they became reconnected at the beginning of the Viking Age (c. 750), speakers of ON and English had been secluded from each other for approximately two hundred and fifty years. Despite this seclusion, the phonological system of the two languages had remained remarkably similar.
1.3. Old Norse Evidence in English

As a result of the Viking expansion (c. 750-1050), ON came to be spoken in widely different places such as the Faroe Islands, Greenland and the British Isles (Barnes, 2008). “The first time we hear of Scandinavian pirates in England is in the following passage in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle for the year 787:

\[ \textit{hēr nam Beorthric cing Offan dohtor Eadburʒe. And on his dažum cômôn ērest III scipa Norðmanna, and þā se zerēfa þēr tō rād, and hīe wolde drīfān tō þēs cinges tūnē, þūþ þē hē nyste hwēt hīe wēron, and hine man þēr ofslōh. þēt wēron þā ērestan scipu Deniscra manna þē Anzel-cynnes land zesohtan.} \] (Björkman, 1900, p. 263).

“In this year King Beorhtric married Offa’s daughter Eadbub. And in his day three ships came for the first time; and then the reeve rode there and wanted to take them to the king’s vill because he did not know what they were; and he was killed. They were the first ships of Danish men that came to the land of the English people.” Translation by Townend (2002, p.1).

Assuming that the year 787 is reasonably accurate, we can assume that Vikings invaded England in the late eighth century. And they remained a dominant part of England for the next 300 years, or until the Norman Conquest in 1066.

In the second half of the ninth century the Vikings had spread over vast parts of England and started to conquer lands and began their permanent settlement. They prevailed in England for the next 200 years, until the Normans invaded. Large groups of Vikings therefore left their part of England, the ‘Danelaw’ that was the part of England which king Alfred allocated to the Vikings, where they would confine their activities (Geipel, 1971). Some of the Vikings went to Scotland, Orkney and Shetland whilst others went home to Scandinavia and some stayed. Therefore, it can be argued that the Viking expansion ended when the Normans invaded Britain.

Unfortunately, despite having been in England for three centuries, the Vikings left behind diminutive evidence of their reign there. Apart from a few burial sites containing weapons, coins and other artifacts and a few buried pagan ships there are
few valued evident reminders of the Vikings in the British Isles (Geipel, 1971). The residual evidence of their language – Old Norse – in the English language and dialects is their greatest legacy.

According to Jespersen (1905, p.62), the first evidence of a Scandinavian loan word in English is in a war-poem written shortly after the battle of Maldon in 993, which would be the verb *call*, ON *kalla*. This shows how early the linguistic influence of ON began to be felt. In some instances words acquired a new meaning through the ON counterpart. For example, Mod.E words *bread, bloom, dream, dwell, gift* and *plough* were OE terms and signified a fragment, a mass of metal, joy, to make a mistake, a dowry and a measure of land, respectively. Their present meanings are those of ON (Geipel, 1971, p.65).

Only by turning to the language and place names in the British Isles can abundant and unambiguous evidence be found of the Vikings stay there (Geipel, 1971).

2. Old Norse in Modern English

It has been estimated that an educated English speaker has a vocabulary of 20,000-30,000 words. Studies have revealed that about 400 words in English are incontestably Scandinavian in origin and are still in daily use in standard, literary English (Geipel, 1971, p.69). Although 400 words are a mere fraction of those 20,000-30,000 words it must be acknowledged that most of the ON terms left behind by the Vikings are the very bedrock of English lexicon and the most frequently occurring words in spoken English. Geipel also takes this further and states that if rural dialects are added the number goes quickly from 400 to 2,000 items, enough to allow a person to carry on a simple conversation using entirely ON terms.

There is a major difference between ON and Mod.E. ON is a much more highly inflected language.

“In English the function of a word can often be deluded from its position in relation to other words. We understand: *Olav saw the old woman* to mean that Olav was the one who saw and the old woman was the one who was seen because Olav precedes saw. In a corresponding ON sentence it
would be perfectly possible for the order to be reversed without a change in meaning. Everything would depend on the inflexions. Thus: Ólafr sá konu þá ina gömlu and Konu þá ina gömlu sá Ólafr both mean ‘Olav saw the old woman’, because the forms Ólafr and konu þá ina gömlu are unchanged. If we wish the sentence to mean ‘the old woman saw Olav’, we must alter the forms of the words so that Ólafr becomes Ólaf and konu þá ina gömlu becomes konu sú in gamla” (Barnes, 2008, p.3)

Despite the inflectional and phonetical difference, Mod.E still has many lexical similarities with ON.

The ON borrowings in English are not bound to few concepts. Rather, they spread through the English language. As mentioned by Geipel (1971) but not discussed at length in his publication, the most influenced aspects of the English lexicon are that of fauna, natural and topographical, Norse mythology and negative terms, respectively. This thesis will exploit this statement and account for the ON borrowings in these aforementioned aspects. Furthermore, it will explore the borrowing of the ON pronoun þeir, Mod.E ‘they’ and borrowings that altered OE verbs, which occurred after the Viking expansion.

According to Durkin (2009), there are two common motivations for lexical borrowing, one is need and the other is prestige. Borrowing because of need is when a new thing is not known to the borrowing language but has a name in the donor language. Borrowing because of prestige is when a speaker believes that there is greater social status attached to a word from the donor language. That is borrowing for need is necessary and borrowing for prestige is unnecessary. English did both, that is borrowing for example topographical terms which ON was rich of but English was not, is borrowing because of need. Borrowing Norse mythology terms, to include in video games, as will be discussed later in the thesis, is borrowing because of prestige.

2.1. Fauna Terms

ON borrowings can be found in all eight parts of speech. The largest part, however, affected by ON was nouns. Many of those nouns, were fauna concepts, especially bird terms.

There are numerous ON fauna terms in Mod.E, although their meaning might
have shifted, e.g. bitch, filly, lemming, narwhal, reindeer and elk. Bitch, ON bikkja literally (lit.) ‘female dog’. Bikkju-sonr, can also be found in ON, same as son of a bitch. Elk, ON elgr; filly, ON fylja lit. ‘female horse’; lemming, ON lomundr lit. ‘small rodent’; narwhal, ON náhvalr lit. ‘corpse-whale’ and reindeer, ON hreindýr (Harper, 2013). See Appendix 1.1. for further details.

Many English bird terms are derived from ON. That could be explained by the importance of birds in ON, e.g. in Norse Mythology Huginn and Muninn, Odin’s ravens, and Veðrfölnir the hawk that lives in Yggdrasil (Gylfaginning, 1997). Bird names were also common in ON personal names, e.g. female names Arnfríðr the first element Arn- meaning eagle and Svanhildr the first element Svan- meaning swan and men’s names e.g. Haukr ‘hawk’ and Hrafn, ‘raven’ (Ward, 2013).

The following examples are several of the bird terms that are found in Mod.E which derive from ON. There were also a few bird terms found in OE that were cognates with ON, which shows how the phonological system of two languages was remarkably similar. All of the examples were retrieved from etymonline.com (Harper, 2013), except garefowl which was retrieved from Thorson (1936, p. 26).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ON borrowings</th>
<th>ON/OE cognates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auk, ON álka</td>
<td>swallow, ON svala OE swealwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>garefowl, ON geirfugl</td>
<td>hawk, ON haukr, OE hafoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loon, ON lómr</td>
<td>thrush, ON þróstr, OE þyrsce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skua, ON skvífr</td>
<td>sparrow, ON spörr, OE spearwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snipe, ON snípa</td>
<td>starling, ON stari, OE stærling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tern, ON þerna</td>
<td>rook, ON hrókr, OE hroc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eider, ON æþar genitive of æþr</td>
<td>stag, ON steggr, OE stagga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gosling, ON gæslingr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See Appendices 1.1. and 2.1. for further details.

In regards to this topic of bird terms and later discussion of ON influence in English dialects, it is worth mentioning the Scottish island, Orkney, which is home to a number of migrating birds. Many of the bird species found in Orkney derive their
name from ON or Norn (the dialect spoken in Orkney and Shetland before the eighteenth century, for further details see chapter 4.1.). For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>cattie-ogle</strong></th>
<th><strong>hegrie</strong></th>
<th><strong>stare</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>ugla</em></td>
<td>ON <em>hegri</em></td>
<td>ON <em>stari</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘short-eared owl’</td>
<td>‘heron’</td>
<td>‘starling’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>craa</strong></th>
<th><strong>horsegowk</strong></th>
<th><strong>stock duck</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>kráka</em></td>
<td>ON <em>hrossagaukr</em></td>
<td>Icelandic <em>stökkönd</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘crow’</td>
<td>‘snipe’</td>
<td>‘mallard’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>chaldrol/shaalder</strong></th>
<th><strong>hrafn</strong></th>
<th><strong>sula</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>tjaldr</em> ‘oystercatcher’</td>
<td>ON <em>hrafn</em></td>
<td>ON <em>súla</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘raven’</td>
<td>‘gannet’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>erne</strong></th>
<th><strong>loom</strong></th>
<th><strong>swart back</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>örn</em> ‘white-tailed eagle’</td>
<td>ON <em>lómr</em> ‘loon’ or ‘great northern diver’</td>
<td>ON <em>svartbakr</em> ‘great black-backed gull’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>gauk</strong></th>
<th><strong>scarf</strong></th>
<th><strong>tyst(i)e</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>gaukr</em> ‘cuckoo’</td>
<td>ON <em>skarfr</em> ‘cormorant’</td>
<td>ON <em>teista</em> ‘guillemot’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>smyril</strong></th>
<th><strong>whitemaa</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ON <em>smyrill</em> ‘merlin’</td>
<td>ON <em>hvítmávr</em> ‘gull’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples taken from Mallimak, [n.d.], Orkney Bird Names.

### 2.2. Natural and Topographical Terms

Another greatly influenced word group, found in the numerous nouns mentioned above, was the one containing natural and topographical terms. A large part of ON toponymic terms was incorporated into English. In many instances these words became productive ingredients in English place names. According to Geipel (1971) and Townend (2002), ON borrowings had an effect on microtoponymy as in the
names of elevations (mountains, hills and prominent rocks), depressions (clefts, valleys, passes and rivers), bodies of water (including marshland) and forest. The ON borrowings examined below can be divided into three groups, place name suffixes, common nouns and compound proper nouns. There are exceptions to this grouping, e.g. reef, which is found both in compound proper nouns and as a common noun (Harper, 2013).

The place name suffixes of ON origin found in Mod.E are, by, ON býr ‘town’, although in English it seems to have referred to farmsteads, e.g. Grimsby, ON Grímsbær ‘Grim’s farm’ (Geipel, 1971, p.126). Garth, ON garðr ‘garden’, e.g. Applegarth (Geipel, 1971, p.133). Berg, ON berg, as in Wiberg corresponding to Viborg in Denmark (Geipel, 1971, p.135). Garth, can also be placed in the common nouns group meaning ‘small piece of enclosed ground’ (Harper, 2013).

The common nouns of ON origin found in Mod.E are, brink, ON brekka ‘slope, hill’; fjord, ON fjörðr ‘firth’; floe, ON flói ‘bay’; jökull, ON jökull ‘glacier’; maelstrom, ON malstraumr ‘whirlpool’; mire, ON ‘swamp’; sky, ON ský ‘cloud’. The aforementioned examples were retrieved from etymonline.com, (Harper, 2013).

The compound proper nouns of ON origin found in Mod.E are, fell, ON fjall ‘mountain’, e.g. Cam Fell, ON Kambafjall (Geipel, 1971, p.135); geyser, ON geyser ‘hot spring’, e.g. Excelsior Geyser (Richter, 2010); reef, ON rif ‘ridge under the sea’, e.g. Great Barrier Reef, commonly known as the largest coral reef in the world. Fell, geyser and reef can also be in the common nouns category. For further information on these words see Appendices 1.2. and 3.2. See chapter 4. Old Norse in English Dialects for Scottish and Northern dialectal topographical terms.

2.3. Norse Mythology Terms

The Vikings and Scandinavians in general believed in the Norse gods, at the time of the Viking expansion. Norse mythology has for centuries been a fascinating theme in various subjects, e.g. art, literature, television and the latest being video games. Poetic Edda (Eddukvædi) and Prose Edda (Snorra Edda) are the two great resources when examining Norse mythology (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2011).

In the tenth century ealdorman Æthelweard wrote a Latin Chronicle, which included a number of genealogies, namely those of royal houses. Æthelweard altered three genealogies by introducing specifically Norse elements, namely that of the Norse gods. Æthelweard included Óðinn, Víðarr and Baldr in the Anglo-Saxon royal
genealogies, regarding them as merely human kings of the legendary past (Townend, 2002). Proving that the Norse gods have been a major influence from the time of Viking invasion and up to the present-day.

One of the earliest and most prevailing examples of the Norse gods in English is found in the weekdays. A week consists of seven days. Of those seven English weekdays four bear the names of the Norse gods. In ON Tuesday was týsdagr ‘the day of Týr’. Týr ‘Tyr’ was the son of Odin and a brave war god, in OE Tiwesdæg. Wednesday was òðinsdagr ‘the day of Óðinn’. Óðinn ‘Odin’ was the greatest of all the gods and the ruler of Asgard ON Ásgarðr, in OE Wodensdæg. Thursday was þórsdagr ‘the day of Þórr’. Þórr ‘Thor’ was also the son of Odin, the strongest of all the gods, in OE Þurresdæg (Harper, 2013). Friday is not as clear as the other three; there is a disagreement on whether Friday was friggjardagr, freyjudagr or frjádagr (Ottóson, 2010). Arguments have been made which support all of these suggestions but friggjardagr has the most reasonable explanation. Frigg was the wife of Odin and queen of Asgard unlike Freyja whose family was Vanir. Their royalty was not as great as that of Frigg, Odin, Tyr and Thor. Friday is fríggjardagur in Faroese, lit. ‘day of Frigg’, nominative Frigg genitive Friggjar (Ottóson, 2010). The Faroese language is a descendant of ON, as was mentioned above. In OE Friday was Frigedæg. The Scandinavian languages (except for Icelandic) also have weekdays which draw their names from Norse gods; Danish/Norwegian tirsdag Swedish tisdag (Tuesday) onsdag (Wednesday) torsdag (Thursday) fredag (Friday). Faroese týsdagur (Tuesday) ónsdagur (Wednesday) hósdagur/tórsdagur (Thursday) and as said before fríggjardagur (Friday) (Dam, 2013).

The Norse gods and their numerous associates have found a more modern field to place their influence and that is in popular culture, i.e. in comic books, television and video games. Since 1951, has Marvel Comics included the Norse god Thor as a character in one of their comic book series. Thor is a superhero who comes from Asgard and helps the inhabitants of Earth (Marvel Comics [n.d.]). Alongside him are many other references to Norse Mythology. Thor’s hammer Mjolnir, ON Mjölnir, is of course present as well as his father Odin, and his half-brother Loki. Other characters include Balder, ON Baldr; Síf, ON Sif; Ymir, ON Ýmr; Lauðey, not portrayed as Loki’s mother but as his father; the Valkyrie, ON Valkyrja; Brunnhilde, ON Brynhildr; Surtur, ON Surtr; Hela, ON Hel; Heimdall, ON Heimdallr; Bifrost, ON Bifröst; Frigga, ON Frigg; Faðnir, ON Fáfnir; Fenris Wolf, ON Fenrir; Midgard
Serpent, ON Miðgarðsormr; Vidar, ON Víðarr and Ragnarok, ON Ragnarök (Avenger693, [n.d.]).

Norse mythology has also been an inspiration to many of the most played electronic games in the world; most of them are MMORPG (massively multiplayer online role-playing game). Famous games like Halo, Final Fantasy and Ragnarok Online have included characters with names like Ymir, ON Ýmir; Aegir, ON Ægir; Garm, ON Garmr; Sleipnir, ON Sleipnir; Randgris, ON Randgríðr; Jotun, ON Jötunn; Munin, ON Muninn; Hugin, ON Huginn; Ida, ON Íðunn; Gungnir, ON Gungnir; Skidbladnir, ON Skíðblaðnir; Berserk, ON Berserkr and Einherjar, ON Einherjar. Place names include Elfheim, ON Áflheimr; Midgard, ON Miðgarðr; Yggdrasil, ON Yggdrasil; Vanahelma, ON Vanahelmr; Asgard, ON Ásgardr; Valhalla, ON Valhöll; Vigrend, ON Vígríðr; Gladsheim, ON Glaðsheimr; Utgard, ON Útgarðr; Bifrost, ON Bifröst. These games and their characters can be further examined on the webpage wikia.com which hosts service pages for these games, e.g. finalfantasy.wikia.com, ragnarok.wikia.com and halo.wikia.com.

World of Warcraft (WOW) is an online game where players take on the roles of fantasy characters that subsist in a virtual world. Over 10 million people from all over the world subscribe to WOW (Blizzard Entertainment, 2012). WOW has many references not only to Norse mythology but ON as well. The game includes names like, Hodir, ON Hóðr; Trollbane, ON Tröllabani; Thrall, ON Træll and Ettin, ON Jötunn for more examples see Appendix 1.3. In WOW different races have several fictional languages which on many occasions get inspiration from ON; words like re’ka, ON reka, Mod.E ‘to drive’, push; dogg, ON dögg, Mod.E ‘dew’; her, ON her, Mod.E ‘army’; haldir, ON haldir, Mod.E ‘to hold’; hrím, ON hrím, Mod.E ‘frost’; rune, ON rún, Mod.E ‘rune’; skalf, ON skjálfa, Mod.E ‘to shake’; nei, ON nei, Mod.E ‘no’ (wowwiki.com, [n.d.]). What is fascinating about this game in particular is the fact that WOW is an English game, commands and instructions are in English, and it is played all over the world by millions of people, which consequently increases the popularity of Norse Mythology and ON.

Norse Mythology terms are continuously being altered and reused through literature, art and most recently video games, leaving immense influence on the English language.
2.4. Negative Terms

The ON borrowings listed above, influenced nouns, as was mentioned. This subject, negative terms, was influenced by adjectives of ON origin. As Geipel (1971) notes, grace and elegance are rare in the Scandinavian borrowings and “it can hardly be claimed that big, bag, scab, scum, nasty, clumsy, odd, blink, toss and prod make as great an impression on the intellect as do such classical concatenations as verisimilitude, procrastination or agoraphobia” (p. 69). What is known about the Vikings stay in England is that they were brutes and bastards and where they went vandalism, robberies and destruction followed. And perhaps for that reason, negative terms of ON origin were incorporated into English. The following examples were retrieved from etymonline.com, (Harper, 2013). For example, angry, ON angr ‘grief, sorrow’; awkward, ON öfugr ‘backwards’; clumsy, ON klumsa ‘dumbfounded’; dirty, ON drit ‘excrement’; ill, ON illr ‘bad’; rotten, ON rotinn ‘rotten, foul’; ugly, ON ugga ‘to fear’ uggligr ‘dreadful’; weak, ON veikr ‘ill’; wrong, ON rangr. In addition to the negative adjectives there were also several negative verbs, e.g. die, ON deyja; drown, ON drukna, scathe, ON skada; scream, ON skræma (Harper, 2013). See Appendix 1.4. for further details.

However, it would be difficult to carry on with casual conversation, expressing emotion and give thorough description if it were not for these borrowings. As Otto Jespersen remarks, “An Englishman cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what bread and eggs are to the daily fare” (Jespersen, 1905, p. 80).

2.5. The Pronoun they

It is generally held that personal pronouns are among those grammatical closed-class items that are least likely to be borrowed (Durkin, 2009). Vernacular manuscripts from the late eleventh century and the first half of the twelfth century present for the first time the personal pronoun they, and subsequently came the oblique form them and possessive pronoun their, which derives from the ON pronoun þeir, the dative and genitive forms being þeim and þeirra. In Mod.E their is a possessive pronoun although originally it was the dative form of the pronoun they. This change appears to have spread rather quickly from the areas of the Danelaw throughout the British Isles, obscuring, as it went, the native forms, he, hem and hire (Geipel, 1971, p.62). The
borrowed forms spread, from areas in which there was direct contact between
speakers of Norse and English to areas in which there would have been little or no
direct contact with Norse speakers (Durkin, 2009). The success of the ON forms is
almost certainly due to the fact that the native equivalent was close enough to the
third person singular pronoun (he, masculine, heo, feminine, him and her, accusative)
to be confused with it. The corresponding ON paradigm they, them, their, provided by
contrast, an agreeable alternative, which made it difficult to confuse with he, him and
her (Geipel, 1971, p.62). Such borrowings are sometimes referred to as a ‘therapeutic’
process, restoring important contrast in the grammatical system which had become
obscured as a result of phonetic change (Durkin, 2009, p.160).
OE pronoun, table from etymonline.com, (Harper, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Neut.</td>
<td>Fem.</td>
<td>(all genders)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>heo,hio</td>
<td>hie, hi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hine</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>hie, hi</td>
<td>hie, hi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>hire</td>
<td>hira, heora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>hire</td>
<td>him, heom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mod.E, after ON borrowing, * Dat. in disuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td>Neut.</td>
<td>Fem.</td>
<td>(all genders)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>he</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>she</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>its</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Dat.</td>
<td>him</td>
<td>it</td>
<td>her</td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.6. Later Borrowings; Verbs

A less obvious borrowing from ON is that of the third person singular –s ending in verbs, which does not appear in English until Middle English (c.1200-1500). It began in the more northerly reaches and eventually the northern usage became standard in English, replacing the OE –(e)th ending. According to Kubouchi (2006), for fourteenth century London speakers it was a northern stereotype. In the Reeve’s Tale, Chaucer uses it as one of the markers of his northern clerks: they say *ga-s, fall-es, wagg-es, far-es*, while the narrator and the non-northern characters say *goo-th, makk-eth*, etc (p.141). The earliest examples of the –s verb ending is in *The Book of the Duchess* (c. 1370) and *The House of Fame* (c. 1375) where it is used rhymes with noun plurals in –s and words like *elles ‘else’* (Lass, 1992, p.138). The suffix –sk attached to the root of an ON verb, indicated the reflexive form, i.e. ON baða ‘to bathe’, becomes *baða-sk ‘to bathe oneself’* (Geipel, 1971, p.25).

The ON influence evidently continued long after the Vikings departure. The verb ‘to be’ is the most irregular yet most common verb in English, (Harper, 2013). Irregular verbs, like ‘to be’ went through dramatic changes from OE to Middle
English, and eventually took on the form which we recognize today. The OE form of the verb ‘to be’ derives from three stems; the s-stem (eam, eart, is); the b-stem (beo, bist, bid) and past stem (wesan, originally this was a class V strong verb (wæs, wære)), (Mahmoud, 2012). During Middle English (c.1200-1500) where there was much more written material, the influence of historical changes, dialectal variation and contact with foreign languages, like ON, was reflected. This resulted in the change of the plural forms; OE 1st, 2nd and 3rd person sind(on) or beoð were replaced by earun, aron and earan, which later became are, the form of the verb we know today. The ON forms are erum, eruð, eru (Lass, 1992, p.140). This alteration, like the –s ending, originated in the northern part of England and eventually the northern form became the standard form (Lass, 1992).

3. Synonyms
There are two different types of synonyms explored in this chapter. The first type of synonyms explored are examples where both synonyms are tolerated. There are several explanations to this, e.g. differences between dialects, stylistic levels and individual habits. The following examples will first explore the ON borrowing and then the preferred synonym, as it was revealed that in most instances the ON term was subordinate. Perhaps they were subordinate because borrowings from Latin and/or French were considered being of higher intellectual subjects or more fashionable mundane matters (Jespersen, 1905). The following examples were retrieved from etymonline.com; boon, ON bón, to the preferred Old French peticion, Mod.E ‘petition’. Crook, ON krókr, to the preferred OE counterpart hoc, Mod.E ‘hook’. Fleck, ON flekkr, to the preferred OE spott, Mod.E ‘spot’. Geld, ON gelda, to the preferred Latin counterpart castrate. Murk, ON myrkr, to the preferred OE counterpart deorcynsse, Mod.E ‘darkness’. Sleuth, ON slóð, still prominent in the Scottish term sleuthhound meaning ‘bloodhound’, to the preferred Old French counterpart trailler, Mod.E ‘trail’. Want, ON vanta, to the OE counterpart *lac (*unrecorded), Mod.E ‘lack’ – both words are of equal status and widespread within in spoken and written English. Scathe, ON skaða, still prominent in the form unscathed, to the preferred Old French counterpart hurter, Mod.E ‘hurt’ – other Germanic languages tend to use some form of ‘scathe’. Sag, ON sökkva, to the preferred OE counterpart sincan, Mod.E ‘sink’. Span-new, ON spán-nýr lit. ‘fresh cut
chips from wood’ Mod.E ‘really new’ to the preferred OE counterpart *brand-new* lit. ‘fresh from the fire’, is used in some dialects. *Thrall*, ON *þræll*, still prominent in *thrälldom* and *enthall*, to the preferred Old French *esclave*, Mod.E ‘slave’. *Thwart*, ON *þvert*, to the preferred Anglo-French counterpart *an cros*, Mod.E ‘across’. *Slaver*, ON *slafra*, to the preferred Frisian counterpart *slobberje*, Mod.E ‘slobber’, slaver is perhaps used in higher stylistic levels. In some instances both words derived from ON, *mire*, ON *mórr*, to the preferred counterpart *swamp* from ON *svöppr*. And *oaf* and the preferred *elf*, both derive from ON *álfr* (Harper, 2013). For further details see Appendix 1.5.

The second type will look at examples where the ON synonym became obsolete. OE words deviated for ON terms, and the other way round. ON terms vanished from English as time elapsed. Either they became subordinate to other terms, or what they stood for became obsolete. For example, *huscarl*, or *housecarl*, ON *húskarl*, was another word for ‘manservant’ or ‘bodyguard’. *Ettin*, ON *jötunn*, from Norse Mythology, a type of giant. *Husting*, ON *húsping*, was another word for meeting or more accurately ‘meeting of the men who formed the household of a nobleman or king’. *Skall*, ON *skalli* lit. ‘bald’. *Waithman*, ON *veiðimaðr* lit. ‘hunter’ or ‘a person who fishes’ (Björkman, 1900, p.310-353). *Barda*, ON *borði*, near ON *knörr* and *scegþ*, ON *skeiðr*, were different sorts of warships that became obsolete in the English language. Except *barda* still exists in phrases like ‘step on board’ and in the compound *starboard*. *Orrest*, ON *orusta* lit. ‘battle’. *Fylcian*, ON *fylgi* lit. ‘to collect, marshal’. *Lip*, ON *lið* lit. ‘flee’ (Jespersen, 1905, p. 72). In some instances the words still exist in English but show extreme restriction. For example, *holm*, ON *hólmi* Mod.E ‘island, islet’, however before the Viking invasion *holm* existed in OE poetics meaning ‘sea or wave’ (Harper, 2013). *Swain*, ON *sveinn* ‘boy or attendant’ in Mod.E ‘beau or lover’ (Harper, 2013). *Wassail*, ON *vesheill* ‘be healthy’ now a salute or refers to a beverage (Harper, 2013). All of the examples listed in this chapter were incorporated into the English lexicon during the Viking invasion or soon after (c.1200). The reason for the terms departure from English and their subordination to later borrowings is perhaps best explained by the French/Latin terms that took over because they were of higher intellectual status within the English nation during Middle English (c. 1200 – 1500). For further details see Appendix 4.1.
3.1. Semantic Change

In extension to the chapter above, this subchapter will examine ON borrowings that underwent semantic change. Where the Mod.E meaning of the term has completely changed from the ON meaning. This happened over a long period of time and the reason as to why this happened is material for another thesis. These ON borrowings can be divided into several different types of semantic change. The examples listed in this chapter were retrieved from etymonline.com, (Harper, 2013). For example, *awe*, Mod.E ‘admiration’, from ON *agi* ‘fright’; *hit*, Mod.E ‘strike’, from ON *hitta* ‘meet with’, still lives in phrases like ‘hit it off’ and ‘hit the road’; *queasy*, Mod.E ‘nauseous’, from ON *kveisa* ‘cyst or abscess’, these borrowings can be classified as terms which have underwent expansion, so that the word can be used in more contexts than were appropriate before the change (Ruhr-Universität Bochum, [n.d.]). *Husband*, Mod.E ‘a man joined to another through marriage’, from ON *húsbóndi* lit. ‘the farmer of the house’ or ‘householder’, this borrowing underwent narrowing, the word can be used appropriately in fewer contexts than before the change (Ruhr-Universität Bochum, [n.d.]). *Gasp*, Mod.E ‘draw breath sharply’, from ON *geispa* and/or *gapa* ‘yawn’; *ill*, Mod.E ‘sick’, from ON *illr* ‘evil or bad’, the original meaning still lives in compounds like *ill-fated* and *ill-tempered*; *kid*, Mod.E ‘child’, from ON *kið* lit. ‘young goat’ and *sky*, Mod.E ‘atmosphere’, from ON *ský* ‘cloud’ (Harper, 2013), are terms which belong to the type of semantic change called metonymy, which includes additional senses which were originally not present but which are closely associated with the terms original meaning (Ruhr-Universität Bochum, [n.d.]).

4. Old Norse in English Dialects

English is a widely spoken language and as a result differs in dialect. Standard English, as has been pointed out, borrowed numerous terms from ON. However, there are some English dialects where ON is more apparent. According to Geipel (1971), and Thorson (1936), the places where ON influence are more substantial are Orkney, Shetland, parts of Scotland and the Northern-part of England. The next two subchapters will look at Norn, the language spoken in Orkney and Shetland until the eighteenth century and Yorkshire dialect, which is the dialect of English spoken in the Northern part of Britain. Both Norn and Yorkshire dialect include many ON terms in their vocabulary.
4.1. Norn

The term Norn derives from ON norræna ‘Norse language’ first recorded in 1485, and describes the language that was spoken in various parts of Scotland during the Viking Age (1984, Trudgill). It was closely related to the extinct ON and today it is known as the language that existed in Orkney and Shetland up-until the eighteenth century (1984, Trudgill). The Vikings arrived there during the eighth century and ON dialect, or Norn as it came to be called, persisted there until the eighteenth century or even into the early nineteenth century. Scholars were not interested in Norn until it was too late and Norn was practically out of use. Perhaps that was because of the remoteness of the isles or the immaturity of the linguistic sciences. ‘Norn’ became an extinct language, leaving little evidence of its existence behind (Hnolt, 2012). However, Trudgill (1984) mentions that the evidence of Norn in present-day dialects of Orkney and Shetland can be found in some specific areas of the vocabulary, similar to those discussed in this thesis, e.g. fauna and natural terms and furthermore, seasons, holidays, food and etc. He also notes that Shetland speech is rich in words and expressions which have to do with fishing, many of which come from Norn. Trudgill does not, however, discuss at length what these terms are. Although, this was revealed to some extent in chapter 2.1. Fauna Terms and Appendix 2 in the Orkney bird names. It must also be similar to the examples at the end of this chapter. The majority of place names in Orkney and Shetland are of ON descent. A study on the place names of Foula ON Fugley, one of the Shetland Islands, revealed that there is one Scottish or hybrid name to every one hundred Norn names. It is likely that the proportion would be similar throughout the Northern Isles (1984, Trudgill, p.365).

For those who want to learn about Norn, there is still hope, since there are Norn enthusiasts that are currently working on reestablishing this lost language. They have created a dictionary, based on an etymological dictionary of Norn and various old texts; they are calling this lexicon Nynorn or ‘New Norn’ (Hnolt, 2012).
The following examples were retrieved from http://nornlanguage.x10.mx (Hnolt, 2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dagaljus, ON dagaljós</td>
<td>‘daylight’</td>
<td>ljud, ON ljótr</td>
<td>‘ugly’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grindhval, ON grindhvalr</td>
<td>‘pilot whale’</td>
<td>murod, ON móraudr</td>
<td>‘maroon’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvamm, ON hvammr</td>
<td>‘small dale’</td>
<td>pilk, ON piltr</td>
<td>‘boy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illek, ON ill-legr</td>
<td>‘ugly appearance’</td>
<td>smyr, ON smjör</td>
<td>‘butter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>klokk, ON klokka</td>
<td>‘clock’</td>
<td>uster, ON austr</td>
<td>‘east’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Nynorn dictionary includes numerous terms of ON/Norn origin. The examples listed above are terms that describe the most mundane things. These examples were chosen simply because the borrowings are obviously extremely similar to the corresponding ON term, e.g. hvamm, ON hvammr. The same could be said about most of the terms listed in the Nynorn dictionary.

4.2. Yorkshire Dialect

Yorkshire dialect is a dialect of English spoken in Yorkshire, and in some neighboring areas. According to Thorson (1936), Yorkshire has the most ON loans of all the counties in Britain. And as mentioned by Geipel (1971), to the great-great-grandparents of many of today’s Yorkshire folk,

“pigs were grice, heifers quees, and bulocks stots, yellow was gool, soft was blowt, large was stor and steep was brandt; bairns would laik where nowadays children play and a man would risp if he had a lop on his rig where today he would scratch if he had a flea on his back” (p.77).

The most notable ON borrowings in Yorkshire dialects are the topographical terms. These terms have influenced numerous place names in Yorkshire. The terms listed below were retrieved from the website The Viking Network, (2004), *Yorkshire Dialects of Old Norse Origin* and the place names were retrieved from Simpson, (2009), *Yorkshire Place-Name Meanings*. Unfortunately, there were not enough place names to give examples for all the listed topographical terms.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topographical Terms</th>
<th>Place Names</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>dale, ON dalr ‘valley’</strong></td>
<td><em>Arkengarthdale</em>, perhaps ON <em>Arnkell</em>, personal name, <em>garth</em> ‘garden’, <em>dale</em> ‘valley’, meaning ‘Arnkell’s garden in the valley’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>-ey, ON ey ‘island’</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fell, ON fjall ‘mountain’</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>foss/force, ON foss/fors ‘waterfall’</strong></td>
<td><em>Fangfoss</em>, perhaps the foss or ditch belonging to someone called Fang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>gill, ON gil/gjel ‘narrow valley’</strong></td>
<td><em>Scargil</em>, perhaps ON <em>Skarði</em> ‘Hare-Lip’ and <em>gil</em>, ‘Hare-Lip’s valley’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>gate, ON gata ‘street’</strong></td>
<td><em>Whipmawhopmagate</em>, it is thought to have been the place where dogs called whappets were whipped on St Lukes Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>moss, ON mosi ‘bog, marsh’</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ness, ON nes ‘headland, promontory’</strong></td>
<td><em>Hackness</em>, perhaps ‘hook-shaped headland’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>scar, ON sker ‘cliff’</strong></td>
<td><em>Ravenscar</em>, perhaps ‘cliff inhabited by ravens’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>tarn, ON tjörn ‘pond, lake’</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>thorp(e), ON þorp ‘village, town’</strong></td>
<td><em>Fridaythorpe</em>, perhaps ‘the village belonging to Frigdæg’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>thwait(e), ON tweit ‘cleared land’</strong></td>
<td><em>Langthwaite</em>, perhaps ‘long [cleared] land’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>toft(s), ON toft ‘homestead’</strong></td>
<td><em>Langtoft</em> perhaps ‘long homestead’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Further details see Appendix 2.
5. Productive Words

A productive language is a language that frequently produces new terms. There are a few explanations as to why new words emerge in a language, e.g. occasionally words drop out of the language and new ones take over (as seen in chapter 3. Synonyms, where OE orrest, was replaced by Old French bataille, Mod.E battle), new concepts (as mentioned later in this chapter, e.g. gearshift) and/or slang (e.g. wingman, dating-sidekick, explanation by author). English, like many other languages, answer the demand for new words frequently by utilizing words that already exist in the language (as was discussed in chapter 1.2. Old Norse Evidence in English, were in OE bread, meant fragment or bits but acquired a new meaning through the ON counterpart). Expand the words, for example, by changing adjectives into nouns or verbs, e.g. wrongness, huggable and vice versa and/or putting together two words to form one new word jailbait, cupcake and mini-skirt. Moreover, as was discussed above borrowing words from another language.

Many of the terms from the Appendices at the end of this thesis can also be viewed as productive terms since they are still being used in neologisms, e.g. cupcake, as in ‘small cake baked in a cup’; fundraiser, as in ‘raising money’; gearshift, as in ‘changing gears’; jailbait, as in ‘a girl/boy under the legal age of consent’ and wingman, as in ‘dating-sidekick’, explanations from author. Nouns, verbs and adjectives have the most productive terms, i.e. these categories acquire the majority of new terms and terms from these categories are more frequently used in creating new terms. For further details and more examples see Appendix 4.2.

5.1. Productive Personal Names

There are many English personal names of ON origin, which have remained in English since the Viking Age. For example, Ronald, ON Rögnvaldr; Osmond, ON Ásmundr and Carl, ON Karl (1971, Geipel, p. 197-210). The following examples were retrieved from Behind the Name, [n.d.], Old Norse Origin Names. There has been some recent activity in onomastics where ON names are concerned. For example, Erica, a female name (alternate spellings Erykah, Erika and Ericka). Erica comes from the ON masculine name Eiríkr meaning ‘(for)ever ruler’, it was a popular name during the Viking Age and there are several kings who bear this name. The
name did not gain popularity until the nineteenth century, which might be due to the children’s book *Eric, or Little by Little* which was published in 1858. *Erica*, was first used in the eighteenth century and was at its most popular around the year 2000. *Dustin*, a male name from ON *Þórsteinn*, meaning ‘Thor’s stone’. At first *Þórsteinn* was adapted to *Thorsten* which eventually became *Dustin*. According to both Björkman (1900) and Townend (2002), the Norse god Thor was very popular as a first element in personal names during the Viking Age. The famous actor Dustin Hoffman popularized the name and until the beginning of the 1970’s the name was uncommon. There are several other names of ON origin that have in the last two centuries become extremely popular within English speaking countries. Proving that personal names of ON origin are still productive in Mod.E. For example, *Halle*, a male and female name (alternate spellings *Halley*, *Haliegh*, *Hallie* and *Hallee*) from ON *Hallr* ‘rock’, *Finn*, a male name from ON *Finnr* ‘man from Finland’, *Espen*, a male name from ON *Ásbjörn*, ás meaning *god* and *björn* *bear*, *Corey*, a female and male name (alternate spellings *Cori*, *Koree*, *Korey*, *Corrie* and *Corie*) from ON *Kóri/Kári* ‘has curly hair’. See Appendix 3.1. for further details.

### 5.2. Productive Place Names

Worsaae, the philologist that was mentioned in the introduction, was the first to recognize the significance of Scandinavian place names in the British Isles. Worsaae regarded around 1,400 Scandinavian place names in Britain, reflecting the influence of the Vikings language (Geipel, 1971, p.111). When the Vikings settled in England they used their own language to give names to settlements and to topographical features (Townend, 2002). Townend (2002) argues, that there are three sorts of Scandinavianised place names in the British Isles. First, there are hybrids, that is compound names where one element is ON and the other is English. Second, there are simple names where one would argue that an ON element has replaced a cognate or phonetically similar English one. And third, there are names (both simplex and compound) where an ON sound has replaced an English one, resulting in a name without semantic content (p.54). Some of the following examples can be categorized according to this statement, e.g. *Oglesby*, the first element root is thought to be of Welsh origin *uchel* ‘high’ and ON *býr* ‘farmstead’.

Studies conducted since Worsaae’s time, have established that many of the Scandinavian place names in Britain were formed after the Vikings had left Britain.
This is due to the fact that a large part of the Scandinavian toponymic terms, incorporated into English many centuries ago, have continued to produce productive place name ingredients up to the present-day (Geipel, 1971). There are numerous place names in the US of ON origin. The reason being that the English people migrated to North America and took the names of their towns and villages with them. Many of those US places were not even established until the twentieth century, which indicates that ON toponymic terms are still relevant in the discussion on which ON terms are still productive in Mod.E, that is many English place names of ON origin have in recent times been used when naming new towns and villages. It is probable that there is at least one place name of ON origin in any of the fifty states of the US. It was coincidental that Texas was the state chosen to give examples of towns that have an ON toponymic stem and/or place names that correspond to a synonymous place name in the British Isles. For example, Kirby (one of many various spellings of this name, e.g. Cerby, Cerbee, Kirkby, Kirkebye) meaning ON kirkja ‘church’ and ON býr ‘homestead’. Kirk, is a popular suffix in Scottish and north-country place names where even the inhabitants nowadays use the form kirk for ‘church’ in daily speech (Geipel, 1971). Place names, which include the stem kirk within the British Isles, are almost certainly instances where the Vikings gave names to pre-existing nucleated settlements with a church, in replacement of the English one (Townend, 2002). Kennedale, (established in 1886 from Old Irish cinneide ‘ugly head’ + ON dalr ‘dale or valley’); Oglesby, (the root is thought to be from the Welsh uchel ‘high’ and ON býr), Thorndale, found both in Texas and Pennsylvania, (OE/ON þorn + ON dalr); Crosbyton, (OE cros + ON býr + anglo-saxon suffix –ton, a mixed Anglo-Norse place name) for further details on mixed Anglo-Norse place names see Geipel (1971, p. 122). The towns and their history were retrieved from the Texas State Historical Association [n.d.]. For further etymological details on the place names see Appendix 3.

Another ON borrowing which is still productive in Mod.E is the Icelandic term geysir, from the hot spring in Haukadalur Iceland, derived from the ON verb geysa ‘to gush’. Although rare, it is customary when new geysers (hot springs) are discovered to include the term ‘geyser’ as the second part of the name, for example Steamboat Geyser and Excelsior Geyser in Wyoming, US (Richter, 2010).
6. Conclusion

This thesis, in accordance to the aforementioned highly influenced aspects by Geipel (1971) attempts to categorize the ON borrowings found in English into groups. What was revealed was that in regards to Standard English the aspects that required ON terms were fauna, natural and topographical, Norse mythology and negative terms. Furthermore, that some English dialects, e.g. Norn and Yorkshire dialect, were more influenced by ON than Standard English. The ON borrowings found in English have remained in the language since the Viking Age. Naturally, some words became obsolete yet a large fraction of these terms are productive in English, i.e. many Mod.E neologisms stem from ON terms.

The difference between this thesis and earlier publications on this subject is the categorization of ON borrowings found in English, as the following Appendices will demonstrate. Previous surveys have simply gathered ON borrowings in English and listed them alphabetically. This is, for example, done in the publications of Björkman (1900), Geipel (1971) and Thorson (1936). The ON borrowings listed in this thesis are categorized by what aspects of the vocabulary they denote.

The English terms that derive from ON have become essential for everyday speech. They have held their place in English throughout the centuries and the English tongue would be unadorned without them. To quote Otto Jespersen again “An Englishman cannot thrive or be ill or die without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what bread and eggs are to the daily fare” (Jespersen, 1905, p. 80).
Appendix 1

Standard English

Only a part of the numerous ON borrowings found in Mod.E during the compilation of this thesis were covered in detail above. A part of the terms listed in the following Appendices below, were not examined in the thesis above. These terms were, however, included in these Appendices for both enjoyment and to strengthen the thesis statement, i.e. the ON borrowings found in Mod.E.

These following Appendices were in compliance with the thesis, i.e. divided into categories where the ON borrowings were the greatest. For example, fauna, natural and topographical, Norse mythology, negative terms, dialectical, extinct/restricted terms and neologisms. It also goes further into provable loans, ambiguous loans and partial loans, e.g. compounds which include one or more ON stem and/or cognates with OE. These Appendices are therefore more detailed than most other similar wordlists.

Appendix 1 includes Standard English words, found in every-day-language. What was revealed, as was discussed in the thesis, was how influenced some word-groups were, e.g. fauna terms found in nouns, negative terms in adjectives and verbs. It is also worth mentioning the th-words found in pronouns, adverbs and conjunctions.

The primary source for the terms listed here are Online Etymology Dictionary, Harper (2013). A few terms were retrieved from Geipel, J. (1971) and Thorson, P. (1936) - marked with *.

1. Provable Loans

1.1. Fauna Terms

**auk** ON álka (see p.11)

**bitch** ON bikkja ‘son of a bitch’ ON bikkju-sonr (see p.11)

**calf** ON kálfi

**down** ON dúnn

**egg** ON egg

**eider** ON æþar, æþr (see p.11)

**elk** ON elgr (see p.11)

**filly** ON filja (see chapter p.11)
1.2. Natural and Topographical Terms

*bark ON bökr
*berk ON berg (see p.13)
brink ON brekka (Geipel) (see p.13)
*by ON býr (see p.13/26)
*by-law ON býjarlög
*fell ON fjall (see p.13/24)
fjord ON fjörðr (see p.13)
floe ON flóí (see p.13)
fog ON fok
garth ON garðr (see p.13)
geyser ON geysir (see p.13/27)
*jokull ON jökull (see p.13)
maelstrom ON malstraumr (see p.13)
mire ON myrr (see p.13/20)
reef ON rif (see p.13)
root ON rót
sky ON ský (see p.13/21)
swamp ON svöppr (see p.13/20)

1.3. Norse Mythology

Aegir ON Ægir (see p.15)
Arngrim ON Arngrímr
Asgard ON Ásgarðr (see p.14)
Balder ON Baldur (see p.14/berserk)
Berserk ON Berserkr see nouns
‘berserk’ (see p.15)
Bifrost ON Bifröst (see p.14)
Bjorn ON Björn
Bolvar ON Böllvar
Brann ON Brjánn
Brunnhilde/Brynhildr ON Brynhildr (see p.14)
Einherjars ON Einherjar (see p.15)
Elfheim ON Álfheimr (see p.15)
Eonar ON Einar
Ettn ON Jötunn (see p.15 and Appendix 4.1.)
Fafnir ON Fáfnir (see p.15)
Fenris/Fenrir/Fenran ON Fenrir (see p.15)
Frey ON Freyja (see p.14)
Frigga ON Frigg (see p.14)
Garm ON Garmr (see p.15)
Gladsheim ON Gladhsheimur (see p.15)
Gungnir ON Gungnir (see p.15)
Halgarsson ON Helgason or Helgarðsson
Heimdall ON Heimdallr (see p.15)
Hela ON Hel (see p.15)
Hodir ON Höðr (see p.15)
Hugin ON Huginn (see p.11/15)
Ida ON Íðunn (see p.15)
Ingvar ON Ingvar
Ivar ON Ívar
Jotun ON Jötunn (see p.15)
Kraken ON Krákan (mythical creature)
Laufey ON Laufey (see p.14)
Loki/Loken ON Loki (see p.14)
Magni ON Magni
Midgar(d) ON Miðgarður (see p.15)
Midgardsormr/Midgardserpent ON Miðgarðsormr (see p.14)
Mjölnir ON Mjölnir (see p.15)
Munin(n) ON Muninn (see p.11/15)
Odin ON Óðinn (see p.11/14)
Orgrim ON Þórgrímr
Ragnarok/Ragnaros ON Ragnarök (see p.15)
Randgris ON Randgríðr (see p.15)
Sif ON Síð (see p.15)
Skidbladnir ON Skíðblaðnir (see p.15)
Sleipnir ON Sleipnir (see p.15)
Surtur ON Surtur (see p.15)
Thor ON Þórr (see p.14)
Thorim ON Þógrímr
Thrall ON þrauil (see p.15 and Appendix 1.1. nouns)
Trollbane ON Tröllabani (see p.15)
Tyr ON Týr (see p.14)
Utgard ON Útgardr (see p.15)
Valhalla ON Valhöll (see p.14)
Valkyrie ON Valkyria (see p.15 and Appendix 1.1. nouns)
Vanaheim ON Vanaheimr (see p.15)

Vidar ON Víðarr (see p.15)
Vigroð ON Vígríðr (see p.15)
Yggdrasíl ON Yggdrasill (see p.11/15)
Ymir ON Ýmir (see p.15)

1.4. Negative Terms
anger ON angr
angry ON angr, öngurfullr (see p.16)
awkward ON öfugr (see p.16)
clumsy ON klumsa (see p.16)
die ON deyja (see p.16)
*dirty ON drit (see p.16)
drown ON drukna (see p.16)
ill ON illr (see p.16/21)
nasty Scand. naskug/nasket (see p.16)
rotten ON rotinn (see p.16)
scab ON skabb
scathe ON skaða (see p.16/19)
scream ON skraema (see p.16)
ugly ON uggaluggligr (see p.16)
weak ON veikr (see p.16)
wrong ON rangr (see p.16)

1.5. Additional Terms
Nouns:
awe ON agi (see p.21)
bag ON baggi
ball ON böllr
bang ON bangæ
berserk ON berserk
boon ON bón (see p.19)
bow ON bógr
birth ON byrðr
*bunch ON bunki
bait ON beita
cake ON kaka
crook ON krókr (see p.19)
dream ON draumr
def ON álfr (see p.20)
fellow ON félagi
fleck ON flekkr (see p.19)
freckle ON freknr (plural)
Friday ON friggjardagr (see p.14)
gasp ON geispa (see p.21)
gear ON gerva
girth ON gjörð, gírdi
guess ON geta
husband ON húsbóndi (see p.21)
kid ON kið (see p.21)
kindle ON kyndil, kynda
knife ON knífr
law ON lög
leak ON leki, leka
leg ON legr
loan ON lán
murk ON myrkr (see p.19)
oaf ON álfr (see p.20)
pussy ON puss
saga ON saga
sale ON sala
skald ON skáld
ski ON skíð
skill ON skil
skirt ON skyrta
skin ON skinn
snare ON snara
spud ON spjót
steak ON steik
sleuth ON slóð (see p.19)
sly ON slægr
stern ON stjórn
thrall ON præll (see p.15/21)
Thursday ON þórsdagr (p.14)
till ON til
troll ON tröll
trust ON traust
Tuesday ON týsdagr (see p.14)
Valkyrie ON Valkyrja
Viking ON vikingr
Wednesday ON óðinsdagr (p.14)
Window ON vindauga
Yule ON jól

Adjectives:
big Norw. bugge
bleak ON bleikr
flat ON flatr
happy ON happ
likely ON líklegr
loose ON lauss
low ON lágr
odd ON oddi
queasy ON kveisa (see p.21)
same ON sami, samr
*sheer ON skærr
*span-new ON spánnýr (see p.19)
tight ON þéttur

Verbs:
are ON eru (see p. 19)
call ON kalla (see p.9)
cast ON kasta
cut ON kuti
doze ON dusa
drag ON draga
*fast ON fasta
geld ON gelda (see p.19)
hit ON hitta (see p.21)
hug ON hugga
irk ON yrkja
prod ON broddraise ON reisa
ransack ON rannsaka
rid ON ryðja
sag ON sökkva (see p.19)
scoff ON skaupskop
scrape ON skrapa
screak/screech ON skrækja
skip ON skopa
slaver ON slafra (see p.20)
sway ON sveigja
take ON taka
thrive ON þrífast
thrust ON þrýsta
toss Norw. tossa
want ON vanta (see p.19)
waive ON veifa
wisk ON visk

Pronouns:
fro ON frá
both ON báðr
same ON sami
their ON þeirra genitive of þeir (see p. 16)
them ON þeim dative of þeir (see p. 17)
they ON þeir (see p. 16)

Preposition:
till ON til
until ON und
upon ON upp á

Adverb:
thwart ON þvert

2.2. Ambiguous Loans

Nouns:
bread ON brauð cognate with OE ‘bread’ (see 9/16/25/28)
daily ON daglega cognate with OE ‘dagleg’ (see p.16/28)
fare ON far cognate with OE ‘fær’ ‘journey, ride’ (see p.16/28)
folk ON fólk cognate with OE ‘folc’
hawk ON haukr cognate with OE ‘hauk’ or ‘hafoc’ (see p.11)
rook ON hrókr cognate with OE ‘hör’ (see p.11)
sister ON systir cognate with OE ‘sweostor’
sparrow ON spörr cognate with OE ‘spearwa’ (see p.11)
stag ON steggr cognate with OE ‘stagg’ (see p.11)
starling ON stari cognate with OE ‘stærinc’ (see p.11)
swallow ON svala cognate with OE ‘swealwe’
swamp ON svöppr cognate with ME ‘sompe’
thrush ON prōstr cognate with OE ‘pyrsce’ (see p.11)

Pronouns:
thou ON þér cognate with OE ‘þu’

Adverbs:
there ON þar cognate with OE ‘þær’

Conjunction:
though ON þó cognate with OE ‘þeah’
Appendix 2

Norn and Yorkshire Dialect

Scottish and Northern dialects were more influenced by ON than Standard English, especially Norn and Yorkshire dialect. Norn is a language that derived from ON, it is the language spoken in Orkney and Shetland until the eighteenth century. Fauna terms (especially bird terms) are, like Standard English, highly influenced by ON borrowings. There are also many natural and topographical terms.

The primary sources for the terms listed here are *Yorkshire Dialects of Old Norse Origin* (2004), Orkney Bird Names [n.d.], *Online Etymology Dictionary*, Harper (2013), *Dictionary of Nynorn*, Hnolt, (2012) and few terms from Geipel, J. (1971). The date behind the terms shows the source from which the term came from. Except the terms from Orkney Bird Names, [n.d.], which will be marked with *.

### 2.1. Provable Loans

#### Nouns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arse</td>
<td>ON <em>ars</em> ‘ass’ (2004)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bairn</td>
<td>ON <em>barn</em> ‘child’ (1971) (see p.23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>craa</em></td>
<td>ON <em>kráka</em> ‘crow’ (see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crake</td>
<td>ON <em>kráka</em> ‘crow’ (2004)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>chaldro</em></td>
<td>ON <em>ijaldr</em> see</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shaalder‘oystercatcher’</td>
<td>(see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dagaljós</td>
<td>ON <em>dagaljós</em> ‘daylight’ (2012) (see p.23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dale</td>
<td>ON <em>dalr</em> ‘valley’ (2004) (see p.24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erne</em></td>
<td>ON <em>örn</em> ‘eagle’ (see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ey</td>
<td>ON <em>ey(ja)</em> ‘island’ (2004) (see p.23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fell</td>
<td>ON <em>fjall</em> ‘mountain’ (2004) (see p.24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>firth</td>
<td>ON <em>fjördr</em> ‘deap valley’ (2013)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gate</td>
<td>ON <em>gata</em> ‘street, road’ (2004) (see p.24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>gauk</em></td>
<td>ON <em>gaukr</em> ‘cuckoo’ (see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gill/ghyll</td>
<td>ON <em>gil</em> ‘ravine’ (2004) (see p.23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gowk</td>
<td>ON <em>gaukr</em> ‘cuckoo’ (2004)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grice</td>
<td>ON <em>grís</em> ‘pig’ (1971) (see p.23)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grindhval</td>
<td>ON <em>grindhvalr</em> ‘pilot whale’(2012) (see p.22)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hegrie</em></td>
<td>ON <em>hegri</em> ‘heron’ (see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>henchman</td>
<td>ON <em>hestamaðr</em> ‘horseman’ (2013)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>horsegowk</em></td>
<td>ON <em>hrossagaukr</em> ‘common snipe’ (see p.12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
*hrafn ON hrafn ‘ (see p.12)
hvamm ON hvammr ‘small dale’ (2012) (see p.23)
klokk ON klukka ‘clock’ (2012) see p.23
*loom ON lómr ‘loon’ (see p.12)
löp ON fló ‘flea’ (1971) (see p.23)
moss ON mosi (2004) (see p.24)
ness ON nes ‘headland’ (2004) (see p.24)
*oagle as in cattie-ogle ON ugla ‘owl’ (see p.12)
penning ON penningr ‘money’ (2013)
pilk ON piltr ‘boy’ (see p.23)
quées ON kvíga ‘young cow’ (1971) (see p.23)
rig ON hryggr ‘spine’ (1971) (see p.23)
rowan ON reynir (type of tree) (2013)
sca(u)r/skerry ON sker ‘barren rock in the sea’ (2004) (see p.24)
*scarf ON skarfur ‘cormorant’ (see p.12)
*shaalder ON tjaldr see chaldro ‘oystercatcher’ (see p.12)
*smyril Icel. smyrill ‘merlin’ (see p.12)
ON smjör ‘butter’ (2012) (see p.23)
*stare ON stari ‘starling’ (see p.12)
steg ON steggi ‘stag’ (2004)
*stock duck Icel. stókkönd ‘mallard’ (see p.12)
stots ON stóð (1971) (see p.23)
*sula ON súla ‘gannet’ (see p.12)
*swart back ON svarbakr ‘great black-backed gull’ (see p.12)
thorp(e)/T(h)rop ON þorp ‘village’ (2004) (see p.24)
thwait(e) ON tveit ‘part of land’ (2004) (see p.24)
toft ON toft ‘homestead’ (2004) (see p.24)
*tyst(i)e ON teista ‘black guillemot’ (see p.12)
uster ON aust ‘east’ (2012) (see p.23)
*whitemaa ON hvítmávr ‘glaucous gull’ (see p.12)
wuthering ON hviðr ‘breeze, gust’ (2013)

Adjectives:
blowt ON blautr ‘soft’ (1971) (see p.23)
brandt ON brattr ‘steep’ (1971) (see p.23)
gool ON gulr ‘yellow’ (1971) (see p.23)
illek ON ill-legr ‘ugly appearance’ (2012) (see p.22)
ljud ON ljótr ‘ugly’ (2012) (see p.23)
murod ON móraudr ‘maroon’ (2012) (see p.23)
sakless ON saklauss ‘innocent’ (2004)
stor ON stór ‘large’ (1971) (see p.23)
Verbs:

laik ON leika ‘play’ (1971) (see p.23)
risp ON rispa ‘scratch’ (1971) (see p.23)
thole ON pola ‘endure’ (2013)

Interjection:

skoal from ON skál ‘cheers’ (2013)
Appendix 3

Personal and Place Names

The names mentioned in 3.1. Provable Loans are by no means all the ON personal and place names found in Mod.E, since it was not the purpose of this thesis. Rather to prove that they still thrive in Mod.E. The personal names found in 3.1. Provable Loans were retrieved from Behind the Name, [n.d.], Old Norse Origin Names and Geipel, J. (1971) –marked with *. The place names were retrieved from Yorkshire Dialects of Old Norse Origin (2004), Geipel, J. (1971) and from a search engine for towns in Texas from the Texas State Historical Association [n.d.] – marked with *.

The place names found 3.2. Partial Loans are compounds that include one or more ON stem. The words were mostly retrieved from a search engine for towns in Texas from the Texas State Historical Association [n.d.] – marked with *, two from Richter (2010) a list of geysers, and two from Geipel, J. (1971). Place names from Simpson, (2009), Yorkshire Place-Name Meanings, are found both in 3.1. Provable Loans and 3.2. Partial Loans.

3.1. Provable Loans

Personal names:

Carl ON Karl (see p. 24)
Corey/Cori/Koree/Korey/Corrie/ Corie ON Kóri/Kári (see p. 25)
Dustin ON Pórstiinn (see p. 25)
Erica ON Eiríkr (see p. 24)
Espen ON Áshjörn (see p. 25)
Evander/Ever ON Ívar (see p. 25)
Finn ON Finnr (see p. 25)
Halle/Halley/Haliegh/Hallie/Hallee ON Hallr (see p. 25)
*Osmond ON Ásmundr (see p. 24)
Ronald ON Rögnvaldr (see p. 24)
Place names:
Arkengarthdale ON Arnkellsgarðsdalr (2009) (see p.24)
Cam Fell ON Kambafjall (1971) (see p.13)
Foula ON Fuglaey ‘Bird Island’ (1971) (see p.22)
Fridaythorpe ON Friggjudagsþorp (2009) (see p. 24)
Grimsby ON Grímsbaer (1971) (see p.13)
*Kirby/Cerby/Cerbee/ Kirkby/Kirkbye ON Kirkjubær (see p.27)
Langthwaite ON Langatveit (2009) (see p. 24)
Langtoft ON Langatoft (2009) (see p. 24)
Scargil ON Skarðagil (2009) (see p.24)
*Thorndale ON Porndalr (see p.27)

3.2. Partial Loans:
Applegarth see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘garth’ (1971) (see p.13)
*Crosbyton see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘by’ (see p.27)
Excelsior Geyser see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘geyser’ (2010) (see p.27)
Fangfoss ON Foss (2009) (see Appendix 2.1. nouns) (see p.24)
Great Barrier Reef see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘reef’ (see p.13)
Hackness see Appendix 2.1. nouns ‘ness’ (2009) (see p.24)
*Kennedale see Appendix 2.1. nouns ‘dale’ (see p.27)
*Oglesby see Appendix 2.1. nouns ‘by’ (see p.26)
Ravensscar see Appendix 2.1. nouns ‘sca(u)r/skerry’ (2009) (see p.24)
Steamboat Geyser see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘geyser’ (2010) (see p.27)
Whipmawhopmagate see Appendix 2.1. ‘gate’ (2009) (see p.24)
Wiberg see Appendix 1.2. nouns ‘berg’; synonymous with Viborg Denmark (1971) (see p.13)
Appendix 4

Extinct Words and Neologisms

There were numerous ON borrowings in English that became obsolete or show extreme restriction. These terms (mainly nouns) are found here in 4.1. Extinct or Restricted Words. The terms were retrieved from Online Etymology Dictionary (2013), Jespersen (1905) and Björkman (1900).

To strengthen the thesis statement, i.e. whether ON terms are still productive in English, it was essential to find some neologisms in Mod.E that stem from the words found in Appendix 1. The examples found in 4.2. (and in chapter 5) were taken from the vocabulary of the author and revised using Longman: Dictionary of Contemporary English.

4.1. Extinct or Restricted Words:

- **barda** ON bordi ‘board’ (n.) (1905) (see p.20)
- **cnear** ON knörr ‘ship’ (n.) (1905) (see p.20)
- **ettin** ON jötunn ‘giant’ (n.) (1900) (see p.15/20)
- **fylcian** ON fylgi ‘to collect’ (v.) (1905) (see p.20)
- **holm** ON hólmi ‘island, islet’ (n.) (2013) (see p.20)
- **huscarl/housecarl** ON húskarl ‘man-servant’ (n.) (1900) (see p.20)
- **husting** ON húsþing ‘meeting’ (n.) (1900) (see p.20)
- **liþ** ON lið ‘fleet’ (n.) (1905) (see p.20)
- **oaf** ON álfr ‘changeling’ (n.) (1900) (see p.20)
- **orrest** ON orusta ‘battle’ (n.) (1905) (see p.20/25)
- **skall** ON skalli ‘bald’ (n.) (1900) (see p.20)
- **scegb** ON skeiðr ‘ship’ (n.) (1905) (see p.20)
- **swain** ON sveinn ‘beau’ (n.) (2013) (see p.20)
- **waithman** ON veiðimaðr ‘hunter’ (1900) (n.) (see p.20)
- **wassail** ON ves heill ‘be healthy’ (v.) (2013) (see p.20)
4.2. Neologism:

caller id from ‘call’ (v.)

cupcake from ‘cake’ (n.)

draggingly from ‘drag’ (v.)

birthing class from ‘birth’ (n.)

flatline from ‘flat’ (adj.)

fundraiser from ‘raise’ (v.) (see p.25)

gearshift from ‘gear’ (n.) (see p.25)

head-banger from ‘bang’ (n.)

huggable from ‘hug’ (v.) (see p.25)

jack-knife from ‘knife’ (n.)

jailbait from ‘bait’ (n.) (see p.25)

kindle fire from ‘kindle’ (n.)

mini-skirt from ‘skirt’ (n.) (see p.25)

motorboat from ‘boat’ (n.)

murphy’s Law from ‘law’ (n.)

supertight from ‘tight’ (adj.)

take out from ‘take’ (v.)

wingman from ‘wing’ (n.) (see p.25)

wrongness from ‘wrong’ (adj.) (see p.25)
References


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