# Scandinavian Influence on the Historical Development of English

**Kosić, Marija**

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Marija Kosić

# Scandinavian Influence on the Historical Development of English

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**izv. prof. dr. sc. Tanja Gradečak-Erdeljić**

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Summary

The English language belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. The connection between English and other Indo-European languages can be recognized in the words such as *father* or *brother*, which are composed of similar sounds in almost all languages in the family. Although the pre-history of the Indo-European family of languages is relatively unknown, linguists managed to reconstruct the language that is a common ancestor to all Indo-European languages and it is called Proto Indo-European (PIE). The English language belongs to the Germanic group of languages. Germanic languages are divided into East, West and North Germanic. In that categorization English falls in the West Germanic group. Its development can be divided into periods: Old English (450 – 1150), Middle English (1150 – 1500) and Modern English (since 1500). The development of the English language is characterized by several foreign influences which caused major changes in English when it comes to vocabulary, but also grammar. One such significant influencecame from Scandinavian countris which began with the Viking raids in the eighth century and was reinforced with the establishment of the Danelaw. The influence can be seen in surnames and place names. The contact between the English and Scandinavian people was the contact of two similar cultures. The vocabulary that entered from Scandinavian languages into English proves that the interaction between the speakers of those languages included everyday-life activities. The influence also extended to syntax and some of the key morphological classes, e. g. pronouns. The last chapter shows the corpus research of the lexemes from Scandinavian languages that entered English. Our research conducted on the etymological corpus from *The Online Etymological Dictionary* and the *Oxford Engleish Dictionary* showed that he words of Scandinavian origin were usually adopted in the early Middle English andthat most of them have retained the same meaning that they had upon entering English.

Key words: *the English language, historical development, foreign influence, Scandinavian influence, grammar, vocabulary*

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# 1. Introduction

The English language that is used today is the product of the long process that began in the fifth century and that can be divided into three main periods. The historical development of English is characterized by different foreign influences which caused the great changes in the English language, especially vocabulary. These influences were mainly the consequence of different movements of people through centuries. The British Isles were more than once the target of conquerors and people who were in search of new settlements. The nature of the contact between the conquerors and the inhabitants of the British Isles is reflected in language. In its beginnings the English language was purely Germanic, while today a lot of words are from French or Latin, languages that belong to the Romance group of languages. Still, the words that are most frequently used in today's English are Germanic.

The following chapters show the development of the English language through the centuries with the emphasis on the contact between the Scandinavian and the English language. The English language has gone through many changes due to its contact with other languages. It has been changed according to the speakers' needs and circumstances that they have lived in. One of the most important contacts was the one with the Scandinavian language and its influence is still recognizable. A number of words that are used in the English language on a daily basis have Scandinavian origin, but its influence is not confined to vocabulary. It also extends to syntax and morphology.

## 2. The history of the English Language

The English language belongs to the Indo-European family of languages and it can be proved by examining the characteristics of the English language that also appear in other languages in the Indo-European family of languages. The correspondences between English and German can be recognized very easily, as well as the correspondences of the English language with some other European languages, including even Latin and Greek. The usual example of the connection between these languages is the noun *father* which corresponds to Dutch *vader*, Gothic *fadar*, Old Norse *faðir*, German *vater*, Greek *patēr*, Sanskrit *pitar-*, and Old Irish *athir*. The noun *brother* also has its correspondaences in other languages: Dutch *broeder*, German *bruder*, Greek *phrātēr*, Sanskrit *bhrātar-*, Old Slavic *bratū*, Irish *brathair* (Baugh, Cable, 2005:16). In *A History of English* Barbara Fennel says that these similarities between words are in fact based on systematic and regular sound correspondences between component segments in semantically related words which we refer to as cognates (Fennel, 2008: 20).

The pre-history of the Indo-European language group is relatively unknown because there are no written records, but there are ideas about how the Indo-European languages developed and spread (Fennel, 2008: 17, 18). The hypothesis that a number of languages belong to the same family was reinforced with the discovery and analysis of the Sanskrit, a language of ancient India. It was proven that Sanskrit also belongs to the same group as majority of European languages. It showed similarities in the system with other European languages and led to the conclusion that European and Indian languages were once one language. The analysis of the Sanskrit by Hindu was a great contribution to the study of the connection and comparison of the other languages in the group, especially when it comes to vocabulary and inflection (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 17 – 19). Linguistic reconstruction based on observed sound correspondences enabled linguists to reconstruct the proto-language, Indo-European, as the original or unitary language for a group of languages that now range geographically from India and Iran in the East to Britain and North America in the West (Fennel, 2008: 23).

As another important step in the study of Indo-European languages Baugh and Cable in their *History of the English language* point out Grimm's explanation of the correspondences between certain consonants in the Germanic languages and those found, for example in Sanskrit, Latin or Greek. According to Grimm, *p* in Indo-European, which is preserved in Latin and Greek, for example, is changed to an *f* in Germanic languages. Thus English equivalent for *piscis* and *pes* are *fish* and *foot*. The same explanation is applied for *k* and *t*. The original

voiceless stops (*p, t, k*) are changed to fricatives (*f, þ, h*). Also, the original voiced stops (*b, d, g*) are changed to voiceless ones in the Germanic languages. Formulation of these correspondences is known as the Grimm's Law, named after Jacob Grimm. This change in consonants probably happened during the segregation of the Germanic from neighbouring dialects. It is also assumed that the change was caused by the contact with non-Germanic population. The Germanic sound-shift is the most distinctive feature marking off the Germanic languages from the other languages to which they are related (Baugh, Cable, 2005:19). Another sound-shift occurred inside Germanic languages, known as the Second or High German Sound-Shift. It includes further change of consonants and it accounts for such differences as English *open* and German *offen*, English *eat* and German *essen*. Further explanations of the consonant change were explained by Karl Verner (Verner's Law). Verner's Law confirmed the regularity in the sound change that had previously been suggested by Grimm's Law (Baugh, Cable, 2005:20). Grim's Law and Verner's Law together are referred to as the First Germanic Consonant Shift. The Second Consonant Shift affected Modern High German, but not English (Fennel, 2008:38).

The Indo-European languages show different degrees of similarity to one another. The similarities are usually shared between the geographically close languages. Accordingly, they fall into eleven principal groups: Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Hellenic, Albanian, Italic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic, Celtic, Hittite, and Tocharian (Baugh, Cable, 2005:20).

## 2.1. Germanic group of languages

The English language belongs to the Germanic branch of Indo-European languages. The common form that the languages of the Germanic branch had before they became differentiated is known as Germanic or Proto-Germanic (Baugh, Cable, 2005:28). There are no data on Germanic until the fourth century CE and that is the reason why early history of Germanic is largely based on reconstruction (Fennel, 2008:31). The languages descended from Proto-Germanic fall into three groups: East Germanic, West Germanic, and North Germanic. The principal language of the East Germanic is Gothic. The earliest record of a Germanic language is written in Gothic, translations of the New Testament and the Gospels. North Germanic languages are spoken in Scandinavia, Denmark, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands. Runic inscriptions from the third century preserve the earliest traces of the language. The earlier form of Scandinavian language is known as Old Norse. West Germanic is divided into High and Low German by the operation of Second Sound-Shift. Low German includes Old Saxon, Old Low

Franconian, Old Frisian, and Old English. High German is chronologically divided into Old High German, Middle High German, and Modern High German (Baugh, Cable, 2005:28, 29).

## 3. Periods in the Development of the English Language

In *A History of the English Language* Baugh and Cable divide the development of the English language into three stages: Old English (450 – 1150), Middle English (1150 – 1500), and Modern English (since 1500) (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 46). Fennel in divides the development into four stages: Old English (500 – 1100), Middle English (1100 – 1500), Early Modern English (1500 – 1800), and Modern English (1800 – present) (Fennel, 2008: 1).

### 3.1. Old English

Although British Isles have been inhabited at least from the Stone Age, the English language has a much younger history. The history of the English language begins in the fifth century and it is connected to the Celtic people. They are the first inhabitants on the British Isles together with the Picts. Celtic languages in England are divided into two branches: Gaelic or Goidelic and a Brythonic branch.Celtic was probably the first language spoken in England. Latin was spoken for a period of about four centuries before the birth of English and it was introduced to Britain when Romans conquered the island. The first invasion in the first century B. C. did not influence the language of the people on the British Island. The second invasion in 43 A. D. was much more successful. The Romans conquered the island and their influence on the language and the culture is clearly evident. Several uprisings of the Celtic people occurred, but it was not enough to overthrow the Romans who ruled the island for the next 300 years. After the conquest of Britain there was the Romanization of the island. Romanization also included the use of Latin. A great number of inscriptions written in Latin confirm its usage, but the inscriptions were probably written by military and official classes. Latin did not replace the Celtic language because its use was confined to members of the upper classes or a few people who lived in cities and towns. The use of Latin in Britain started to decline when the Roman legions withdraw from the island (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 39, 40, 41).

When the Romans withdrew from the British Isles, Germanic tribes invaded it and founded the English nation. Germanic invasions on the British Isles were recorded by Bede in Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. According to Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* the tribes that invaded Britain in the fifth century were Jutes, Angles and Saxons. (Baugh, Cable, 1993: 41, 42). All these tribes had the one significant similarity and it was their language. Their languages probably differed, but they were similar enough to ensure communication between the members of the different Germanic tribes. In *Ecclesiastical History of the English People* Bede refers to all Germanic peoples in the country as *gens anglorum* and he does not explain the term. The first person recorded as giving the name of the vernacular language in the vernacular is king Alfred. Though a West Saxon, he calls it *ењlisċ*. (Strang, 1977: 378).

Old English was not an entirely uniform language. In Old English times four dialects can be distinguished: Northumbrian and Mercian, which together are called Anglian, West Saxon, and Kentish (Freeborn, 1998:36). Kentish is the dialect of the Jutes in the southeast. West Saxon is the dialect in which there is an extensive collection of texts. This dialect attained the position of a literary standard and it made the basis of the study of Old English. The differences between Old and Modern English concern spelling, pronunciation, the lexicon, and the grammar (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 47).

Fennel lists several important features that characterize Old English: OE was synthetic language, the noun, verb, adjective, determiner and pronoun were highly inflected, there were weak and strong declensions of nouns and adjectives, and weak and strong conjugations of verbs, vocabulary was overwhelmingly Germanic in character (Fennel, 2008: 59). The words from Old English that have survived are the basic element of the English vocabulary and they are very frequent. Apart from pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs and the like, they express fundamental concepts like *mann* (man), *wīf* (wife), *cild* (child) etc. (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 49).

The writing system for the earliest English was based on the use of signs called runes. The best surviving examples can be seen in Scandinavian countries. Later after the establishment of the Church in England, Roman alphabet was used (Freeborn, 1998: 21, 24). When it comes to pronunciation, the long vowels in particular have undergone considerable modification. Old English used different characters for presenting the same sounds that are pronounced in Modern English. Some words from Old English that look very different from words in Modern English are actually pronounced in a very similar manner, if not the same. It is important to mention that differences in spelling are often apparent than real because they represent no difference in speech, while those in pronunciation reflect the following of certain laws and because of that we soon learn to recognize the Old and Modern English equivalent(Baugh, Cable, 2005:47, 49).

The most important feature that distinguishes Old English from Modern English is its grammar. While Modern English is an analytic language, Old English is a synthetic language, which means that it indicates the relation of words in the sentence largely by means of inflections. Modern English uses prepositions, auxiliary verbs and depends upon word order in the sentence. Old English grammar resembles the grammar of modern German. The inflection of Old English nouns indicates distinctions of number (singular and plural) and case (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 49, 50).

There are four cases in Old English and the endings of the cases vary with different nouns, but they fall into broad categories or declensions. There is a vowel declension and consonant declension, also called the strong and weak declension, according to whether the Germanic stem ended in a vowel or a consonant. The gender of Old English nouns is not dependent upon the considerations of sex. Although nouns designating males are often masculine and those indicating females feminine, those indicating neuter objects are not necessarily neuter. Often the gender of Old English nouns is quite illogical. Also, the important feature of Old English is the development of a twofold declension of the adjective: the strong and the weak declension. The definite article was also fully inflected. In Old English a personal pronoun had distinctive forms for practically all genders, persons, cases, and number (singular, plural, and dual) (Baugh, Cable, 2005:50 – 53).

When it comes to verbs, Old English distinguished only two simple tenses by inflection, a present and a past. It recognized the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods and had the usual two numbers and three persons. Verbs were also divided into two classes, the strong and the weak often known in Modern English as regular and irregular verbs. These terms, which are commonly used in modern grammars, are rather unfortunate because they suggest an irregularity in the strong verbs that is more apparent than real. The strong verbs, like *sing, sang, sung,* which represent the basic Indo-European type, are so called because they have the power of indicating change of tense by a modification of their root vowel. In the weak verbs, such as *walk, walked,walked,* this change is effected by the addition of a "dental," sometimes of an extra syllable.Old English used a number of prefixes and suffixes to form new words. Some of the prefixes are: *ā-, be-, for-, fore-, ge-, mis-, of-, ofer-, on-, tō-, un-, under-,* and *wiþ-*, suffixes: *-ig, -full, -lēas, -līce, -nes,* and *–ung, -sum, -wīs, -dōm, -end, -ere, -scipe etc.* (Baugh, Cable, 2005:53 – 55, 60).

### 3. 1. 1. Foreign influences on Old English

Old English is not just the mixture of dialects of Jutes, Saxons and Angles. It is a language that was under the influence of other languages, mainly Celtic language, Roman and Scandinavian languages. The influence of the Celtic language can be seen in the place names (*Kent, Devonshire, London, Winchester, Salisbury, Exeter, Gloucester, Worcester, Lichfield, Thames, Avon, Dover* etc). Besides the place names, Celtic language did not significantly influence Old English (Baugh, Cable, 2005:67) The Celts were dispersed by the Romans to the extreme areas of the country and they lived in small groups. Their culture was not sophisticated

as Roman, and they were not well organized administratively or militarily. Fennel claims that those are probably the reasons why Celtic did not have a greater influence (Fennel, 2008: 89).

Unlike Celtic, Latin had a great influence on Old English. It was not the language of the conquered people, but the language of a great civilization from which Anglo-Saxons adopted different cultural patterns.The contact between the Germanic people and the Romans occurred even before Germanic tribes invaded the British Isles, so the period in which a certain Latin word entered Germanic language can date back to the times when Germanic people were part of the Roman Empire (Baugh, Cable, 2005:70 – 73). The words that Anglo-Saxons adopted indicate the new concepts that were introduced to Germanic people by more sophisticated culture (*wine, street, cheese, silk, copper* etc.). (Fennel, 2008: 89).

The introduction of Christianity also meant the introduction of new concepts, philosophical and spiritual, and consequently the introduction of new vocabulary. Some of the Latin words that the English language borrowed in this period are *abbot, alms, altar, angel, anthem, Arian, ark, candle, canon, chalice, cleric, cowl, deacon, disciple, epistle, hymn, litany, manna, martyr, mass, minster, noon, nun, offer, organ, pall, palm, pope, priest, provost, psalm, psalter, relic, rule, shrift, shrine, shrive, stole, subdeacon, synod, temple,* etc. Church also influenced domestic life of the people which is seen in the adoption of many words such as the names of the clothing items and household use (*cap, sock, silk, purple, chest, mat, sack*), words denoting foods (*pear, radish, doe, oyster, beet*), names of trees, plants, and herbs (*box, pine,aloes, balsam, fennel, hyssop, lily, mallow, marshmallow, myrrh, rue, savory*). Some words that are related to learning and education show another aspect of the church's influence (*school, master, Latin, grammatic(al), verse, meter, gloss, notary*). All these words belong in the group of the earlier borrowings (Baugh, Cable, 2005:77).

The third influence on Old English was the Scandinavian influence and it changed the English language in the ways that other languages have not. Besides the vocabulary, it influenced morphology and syntax as well and thus it can be said that Scandinavian influence is one of the most important influences on the English language. This part will be presented in more detail in the chapter *The Danelaw and Scandinavian Influence on the English Language*.

### 3. 1. 2. The Norman Conquest

In 1066, William, Duke of Normandy, defeated English king Harold at Hastings and became King William I of England. He was crowned on Christmas Day in 1066. His reign

brought enormous changes on social, political and religious level in Britain (Fennel, 2008: 95). Battle of Hastings and William's coronation marked the beginnig of the Norman Conquest in Britain. After William's coronation majority of the English nobles were replaced with Norman and French nobility and French started to settle in Britain (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 101).

When they settled in Britain, French people used their own language. French thus became the language spoken among upper classes, whether their members were French or English. The English language was still used by the lower class and it was the language of the masses. Although the English language was not spoken amog the upper classes, majority of their members could understand it. Also, those people who had conatact with both classes had the ability to speak both languages. The influence of French on English was so great because English kings after Norman Conquest were also Norman dukes and they kept relations between the two territories (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 101 – 116).

At the beginning of the thirtheen century, English ruler John lost Normandy. This marked the end of the period of northern French domination. England lost its ties with property on the continent and English and French interests were not the same anymore. The loss of connections with the continent also resulted in the re-establishment of English (Fennel, 2008: 96, 118). During the thirteenth century the English language was advancing and French was still spoken but the reasons for its use were not the same as in the previous centuries. French was not a mother tongue inherited from Norman ancestors. It was a cultivated tongue supported by social custom and by business and administrative convention. During this period English became the language spoken by the upper classes also, and in this period French words started to enter the English language. French was still the language of the court and it was spoken in Parliament, but by the middle of the thirteenth century French was treated as a foreign language. At the beginning of the fourteenth century English was once more known by everyone. In this century English also became the language of the court and legal proceedings (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 116 – 124, 136).

## 3. 2. Middle English

Middle English is the period in which the English language experienced great changes in vocabulary, but also in grammar. At the beginning of the period English is synthetic language, at the end of the period it is analytical. When it comes to vocabulary, many Old

English words are lost and large number of French and Latin words entered English (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 146).

In the Middle English period morphology and phonology are so intertwined that certain differences, which might be regarded as differences of pronunciation, can only be understood in the light of morphological patterning (Strang, 1977: 235). Middle English grammar is marked by the loss of inflections. Endings of the noun and adjective marking distinctions of number and case and often of gender were so altered in pronunciation that they lost their distinctive form and usefulness. The same thing happened with verbs (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 146, 147).

When it comes to nouns, the distinctive endings *–a*, *-u*, *-e*, *-an*, *-um*, etc. of Old English were reduced to *–e* by the end of the twelfth century. In the noun there is one inflectional relic left in the singular, the genitive *–es*. In the plural one form serves for all (Fennel, 2008: 101).

In the adjective the leveling of forms had even greater consequences. The form of the nominative singular was early extended to all cases of the singular and same happened with the plural forms, both in the strong and weak declensions. The only ending which remained to the adjective was often without distinctive grammatical meaning and its use was not governed by any strong sense of adjectival inflection (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 149).

Complex system of pronouns found in Old English was radically reduced and it most visible in the complete loss of the morphological expression of the dual number. Still, substantial differentiation among case forms is retainend in the category of pronouns (Fennel, 2008: 102).

The principal changes in the verb during the Middle English period were the serious losses suffered by the strong conjugation. In the Middle English period nearly a third of the strong verbs from Old English had died out. Some were rare in Old English and some were in competition with weak verbs of similar derivation and meaning which superseded them. The weak conjugation offered a fairly consistent pattern for the past tense and past participle, while there was much variety in the different classes of the strong verb. By the 14$^{th}$ century movement was at its height and after this period there are fewer changes. In a number of verbs weak participles appeared later and the strong form was often used even after the verb had definitely become weak (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 150 – 152). Fennel claims that in comparison with declined morphological classes, the verb reflects lesser degrees of change. As in Old English, there are still strong and weak verbs in Middle English (Fennel, 2008: 103).

One of the consequences of the decay of inflections was the loss of grammatical gender. In the north where inflections weakened fearliest, grammatical gender disappeared first. With

the disappearance of the grammatical gender sex became the only factor in determining the gender of English nouns (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 153, 154).

As the grammatical endings are lost in Middle English word order patterns become more fixed. By the end of the period word order within sentences was not significantly different from that of Modern English (Fennel, 2008: 106).

In the Middle English vocabulary, i. e. among loanwords, there is a sharp difference between Romance words (Latin and French) and Scandinavian ones. The Roman words are found equally throughout the country, but more in certain social and educational classes than in others. Scandinavian loans are oral, non-literary and every day in character. They are distributed geographically in the first instance where there was a Scandinavian community (Strang, 1977: 239).

In the process of borrowing French words two stages can be distinguished, an earlier and a later with the year 1250 as the approximate dividing line. The borrowings in the first stage are such as the lower classes would become familiar with through contact with a French-speaking nobility. After 1250 French words entered the English language because people who were accustomed to speak French started to use English. Whether to supply deficiencies in the English vocabulary or in their own imperfect command of that vocabulary, or perhaps using a word that comes more naturally to them, they carried over into English a large number of French words. There are several categories in English vocabulary that contain a large number of French loan words: governmental and administrative words (*crown, empire, state, noble, duke, princess* etc.), ecclesiastical words (*religion, theology, convent, absolution, devotion, sacrilege* etc.), law (*judge, attorney, proof, evidence, heritage, tenant* etc), army and navy (*peace, enemy, soldier, defense, combat, spy* etc.), fashion, meals and social life (*frock, veil, boots, blue, scarlet, dinner, feast, beef, veal, vinegra, mustard, chair, screen, blanket, towel* etc.), art, learning, medicine (*colour, painting, mansion, palace, prose, romance, tragedy, logic, geometry, grammar, physician, anatomy, poison* etc.) (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 155 – 160).

The Middle English period is also a dialectal phase of English. While the dialects have been spoken at all periods, it was in Middle English that divergent local usage was normally indicated in writing (Strang, 1977: 224). Writers naturally wrote in the in the dialect of that part of the country to which they belonged and they were aware of the diversity that existed. It is difficult to decide how many dialectal divisions should be recognized, as well as mark their boundaries, but it is customary to distinguish four principal dialects of Middle English: Northern, East Midland, West Midland, and Southern. The Northern dialect extends as far south as the Humber, East Midland and West Midland together cover the area between the Humber

and the Thames, and Southern occupies the district south of the Thames, together with Gloucestershire and parts of the counties of Worcester and Hereford (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 176).

The differences between these dialects are partly a matter of pronunciation, partly of vocabulary, partly of inflection. The feature most easily recognized is the ending of the plural, present indicative, of verbs. In Old English this form always ended in *–th* with some variation of the preceding vowel. In Middle English this ending was preserved as –eth in the Southern dialect, in the Midland district it was replaced by *–en*, while in the north it was altered to –es. Another distinctive form is the present participle before the spread of the ending –ing. Dialectal differences are more noticeable between the Northern and the Southern; the Midland dialect often occupies an intermediate position, tending toward the one or the other. Thus the characteristic forms of the pronoun they in the south were *hi, here, (hire, hure), hem*, while in the north forms with *th-* (modern *they, them, their*) early became predominant. There were also considerable differences in pronunciation between northern and southern dialects (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 177).

The Midland dialect presents a kind of compromise between northern and southern dialects. It was not as conservative as Southern dialect and it was less radical than Northern dialect. East Midland type of English was the basis for the standard language in the fifteenth century. East Midland was the largest and most populous of the major dialect areas. In this area first universities were established in the fourteenth century, Oxford and Cambridge and they were two important intellectual centers. The most influential factor in the rise of Standard English was the importance of London as the capital of England. In the latter part of the fifteenth century the London standard had been accepted in most parts of the country, at least in writing (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 177 – 181).

### 3. 3. Modern English

The Modern period of the English language starts in the sixteenth century. The new factors in this period that affected the language were the printing press, the rapid spread of popular education, the increased communication and means of communication, the growth of specialized knowledge, and the emergence of various forms of self-consciousness about language. (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 187)

The printing press was introduced into England in about 1476 by William Caxton and it made a rapid progress. It presented a powerful force for promoting a standard, uniform language. Education was also making progress and literacy became more common

among people which enabled the influence of the printing press on the language. Another important factor for language in modern times is the way in which different parts of the world have been connected through trade, transportation, means of communication etc. Among the educated Latin was less and less the vehicle for learned discourse. All these factors stimulate the growth of vocabulary but at the same time work toward the promotion and maintenance of standard. The results are great changes in vocabulary and slight changes in grammar (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 187 – 189).

In order to meet the demands caused by the period from the sixteenth century English, like the other vernacular European languages of thelay, had to establish itself in fields where Latin had been the dominant force before. English had to establish a regular and uniform orthographical system and to expand its vocabulary in order to meet the demands caused by the demise of Latin and developments in science and new discoveries (Fennel, 2008: 157).

In the sixteenth century the question of orthography was very important to English speakers. There was no generally accepted system that everyone could conform to. It was neither phonetic nor fixed. In spite of all the variety that Elizabethan spelling presents, there was by 1550 a nucleus of common practise. Richard Mulcaster wrote a book on English spelling in which he put the emphasis on the custom and usage rather than phonology and phonetics. His book helped in standardising a large number of current spellings (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 193 – 198).

Inventions and discoveries in the modern period led to an influx of a new vocabulary. Sometimes the words were borrowed because there was no adequate word in English to express the meaning of an invention or a concept. Words were also borrowed if the ones that had already existed in the language were not suitable for conveying of a certain idea. The greater number of these words was borrowed from Latin, some from Greek, many from French and not a few from Italian and Spanish. The words that were borrowed at this time were often basic words (nouns, adjectives, verbs). Some words, on entering the language, retained their original from, others underwent change. It is not always possible to say whether a certain word borrowed at this time was taken over directly from Latin or indirectly through French (*consist, explore, conformation* etc.). The Italian and Spanish words borrowed at this time reflect the general commerce of ideas. Borrowing of foreign words was not the only method of enriching the vocabulary. During this period old English words were revived. Poets also invented new words and some words were adaptations and derivatives of old words (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 199 – 216).

Shakespeare also wrote in this period and his contribution to English is very significant. He had the largest vocabulary compared to any English writer. Some of the new words that Shakespeare introduced are: *critical, demonstrate, emphasis, emulate, hereditary, modest, accommodation, assassination, obscene* etc. (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 216, 217).

As many new words were coming into the language, a few dictionaries also appeared. Dictionaries usually explained difficult, rare and borrowed words. Robert Cowdrey wrote *A Table Alphabeticall*, John Bulokar *An English Exposition*, Nathaniel Bailey *An Universal English Dictionary*. Samuel Johnson started to plan *A Dictionary of the English Language*. The original purpose of Johnson's dictionary was to "fix" the language and establish a standard for the use of words and their spelling (Fennel, 2008: 149).

Changes in pronunciation that English words underwent in passing from Old to Middle English were not great when compared to changes that happened in Modern English. All Middle English long vowels underwent extensive alteration in passing into Modern English, but the short vowels remained stable. All the long vowels gradually came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue and closing of the mouth, so that those that could be raised were raised, and those that could not without becoming consonantal became diphtongs. The spelling of English had become fixed in a general way before this shift occurred. It is the reason why vowel symbols do not correspond to the sounds they once represented (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 218 – 224).

In this period the structure of the language is very similar to its structure in Present-Day English. Except the Great Vowel Shift, were still to come, short vowels, consonants, morphology and syntax were quite the same as today (Fennel, 2008: 138).

In the eighteen century there was the great desire in England for standardising the language. There was a need for a dictionary that should record the proper use of words and a grammar that should settle the correct usages in matters of construction. English wanted to standardize, refine and fix their language and they looked up to Italian and French. This is the period when many grammars are written. Some of the grammarians were Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, Noah Webster and others. With them belongs the group of rhetoricians and the most important among them was Thomas Sheridan. Eighteenth century grammarians aimed to do three things: to codify the principles of the language and reduce it to rule, to settle disputed points and decide cases of divided usage, and to point out common errors. Their work resulted in the language which had many rules, although some of the rules have been set aside in the course of time (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 242, 248, 261, 269).

The Modern English period is also the period in which the use of the English language has been vastly extended. The English language has since been used in British colonies which include North America, India, Australia. New territories introduced new products, concepts, activities which lead to the extension of vocabulary (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 273, 274). When it comes to grammar, the most important change was the wide extension of the use of progressive forms of the verbs. The extension of such forms to passive was an even later development (Baugh, Cable, 2005:275).

In the nineteenth and twentieth century the English language was once again enriched in its vocabulary. New inventions and events brought new words (loan words and compounds) into language. This period was designated by the rapid changes and developments, especially in the twentieth century, in science and in field of intellectual activity which was accompanied by the increase of new words (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 279).

## 4. The Danelaw and the Scandinavian Influence on English

The Scandinavian influence on the English language began soon after the arrival of the Scandinavians on the British Isles. The Norsemen, usually Norwegians and Danes, began their raids on the British ground at the end of the eighth century. They came to plunder, but also to settle on the new land. The arrival of the Norsemen or, as they were also called, Vikings in the late eighth century marked the beginning of the period in the English history known as the

Viking age. After years of battles between the two civilizations, began the period of assimilation of the Danes and Norwegians with the English people (Fennel, 2008: 57, 58). The district known as the Danelaw was also established and it occupied the eastern parts of the northern British territory. The two civilizations were very similar and even used the similar language. Thus the influence of the Scandinavian language on the English was very significant. In the period of about two centuries, during which the Vikings dominated on the British ground, they left their mark on the language which can be recognized even today (Freeborn, 1998: 43, 46, 48).

The Scandinavian invasions, according to Anglo-Saxon chronicles, started in 787 and the period from the middle of the eighth century to the middle of the eleventh century is known as the Viking age. There are two possible etymologies of the word Viking. One is from the Old Norse word *vik*, which means *bay*, suggesting a man from the bays or inlets of the North Sea , while the other is from the Anglo-Frisian word *wic*, meaning settlement, so that it means settler. (Fennel, 2008: 58). The Vikings began their attacks on the north-east coast, then north-west and the east coast of Britain (Freeborn, 1998:39, 40). From 866 the Danes started to attack the western and the middle parts of the land, Mercia and Wessex (Strang, 1977: 319). Fennel names the three stages of Scandinavian attacks on Britain: the raiding stage, the settlement stage and the period of political assimilation. In 878 the Treaty of Wedmore, singed by the Danish leader Gutrhum and the English king Alfred, documented the establishment of the Danelaw. The border between the Alfred's and territory under the Danish law was the line from Chester to London. To the east of the line were the inhabitants under the Danish law (Fennel, 2008: 58).

Their settlement in the eastern parts of Britain is evident from the Scandinavian place names and surnames. Place names like *Grimsby, Whitby, Derby, Rugby*, etc. with the ending *–by* witness the settlement of the Danes beacuse *by* in Scandinavian means *farm* or *town*. Endings *–thorp* (village) in *Althorpe, Bishopsthorpe, Gawthorpe, Linthorpe* , *thwaite* (piece of land) in *Applethwaite, Braithwaite, Cowperthwaite, Langthwaite,Satterthwaite*, *-toft* (a piece of ground, a messuage) in *Brimtoft, Eastoft, Langtoft, Lowestoft, Nortoft* also witness the Danish influence (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 87, 89). Freeborn mentions that suffixes *–hyrst* (copse, wood), *-ham* (dwelling, fold), *-wic* (village), *-tun* (settlement) and *–stede* (place) in *Wadhurst, Newnham, Norwich, Berwick, Heslington, Maplestead* are also indicators of the Scandinavian settlement in England (Freeborn, 1998: 49, 50). The same thing can be said of the surnames containing suffix *–son* (*Williamson, Johnson, Stevenson*, etc.). This suffix in Old Norse meant "son of", e. g. Orm Gamalson meant *Orm, son of Gamalson*. Freeborn argues that today this interpretation is unlikely, but that surnames with the *–son* suffix are adopted from Scandinavian.

They created personal names by adding *–suna/-son* as a patronymic suffix (name derived from the father) and this custom was adopted by British people (Freeborn, 1998:49).

As it was already mentioned, Old Norse and Old English were quite similar languages. Linguists sometimes argue that it is difficult to say whether a certain word was borrowed or it was from Old English. "One of the most reliable criteria for recognizing a borrowed word are differences in the development of certain sounds. The easiest to recognize is palatalization of /*sk*/. In Old English /sk/ became /*ʃ*/, but the words borrowed from Scandinavian retain /*sk*/ as in *sky* or *skill*" (Fennel, 2008: 91). However, at the beginning of the contact between the two languages, Old English borrowed "the words that were related to sea-roving and predatory people (*barda* – beaked ship, *liþ* - fleet, *orrest* – battle, *dreng* – warrior) and words associated with the law. The word *law* itself is of Scandinavian origin. Other words are *māl* (action at law), *hold* (freeholder), *wapentake* (an administrative district), *hūsting* (assembly), etc." (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 89).

Later, when the settlement was reinforced by the establishment of the Danelaw, the borrowings from Old Norse were related to everyday activities. Among nouns there are *bank, birth, crook, dregs, dirt, egg, leg, fellow, root, scales, sister, sky*, etc., adjectives *awkward, flat, ill, loose, sly, tight,* etc, verbs *call, die, gape, gasp, give, raise, sprint, take*, etc. (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 90, 91). The Scandinavian influence on Old English extended to some of the key morphological classes as pronouns, prepositions, adverbs and even part of the verb *to be (are)*. Personal pronuons *they*, *their* and *them* are of Scandinavian origin. Old English eqivalents were *hie*, *hiera*, *him* which probably caused confusion with the singular forms and thus the Scandinavian forms survived. *Both* and *same* are also of Scandinavian origin, as well as prepositions *till,fro*, and adverbs such as *aloft*, *athwart* or *seemly* (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 92).

The influence was so deep that it affected even the English grammar. The ending *–s* in 3rd person singular, participial ending *–and* in Northumbrian dialect (now replaced by *–ing*), or the final *t* which denotes the neuter adjective ending of Old Norse in words *want* and *scant* are all consequences of the Scandinavian influence. The most important change under the Scandinavian influence was simplification of the inflections. After the contact with the Scandinavian language, inflections gradually disappeared from the English language and it shifted from synthetic to analytic type (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 93). In syntax there are also traces of Old Norse language like the omission of the relative pronoun in relative clauses and retention or omission of the conjunction *that.* The use of *shall* and *will* in the MidE are much the same as in Scandinavian. Also the tendency to put a strong stress at times on the preposition and the

occurrence of locutions such as “he has some one to work for” is common to both, Scandinavian and the English language, but not in other Germanic languages (Baugh, Cable, 2005: 94).

It can be said that the Scandinavian influence on the English language is evident not just in vocabulary, but also in grammar and syntax. The words of Scandinavian origin are still used in everyday life and even in a larger amount in the northern English dialects. Thus we can say that the influence of the Scandinavian language has been one of the most important involvements in the structure of the English language.

## 4. 1. Scandinavian Words in Old English and Middle English Texts

This part of the paper will show a research of words of Scandinavian origin in Old English and Middle English texts. The aim is to show if the meaning of those words changed, and which meaning of the word was dominant in Middle English and which is dominant in Modern English. Although the Scandinavian influence began in the period of Old English, in this research most of the words are found in Middle English texts. Researched texts are: *Beowulf, Dream of the Rood, The Ormulum, The Battle of Maldon, Havelok the Dane, Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, and The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer.

The words listed below are taken from secondary sources (*A History of the English Language* by Baugh and Cable, and *From Old English to Standard English: A Course Book in Language Variation across Time* by Dennis Freeborn) and their etymology is taken from the Online Etymology Dictionary. There is the approximate date of the entrance of each word into English. Cognates, i. e. words of the same origin, are also given. Below the information about etymology and examples, there are short comments on the change of the meaning of each word. Etymology of these words is also taken from the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), as well as the earliest quotes recorded in OED that contain the researched words.

List of words and examples

**birth (n.)** – early 13 c., from a Scandinavian source such as Old Norse **byrðr* (replacing cognate Old English *gebyrd* “birth, descent, race; offspring; nature; fate”) from Proto-Germanic **gaburthis* (cognates: Old Frisian *berd,* Old Saxon *giburd,* Dutc *geboorte,* Old High German *giburt,* German *geburt,* Gothic *gabaurþs*) from PIE **bhrto* past participle of root **bher-* (1) “tocarry, to bear children” (cognates: Sanskrit bhrtih “a bringing, maintenance”, Latin *fors,* genitive *fortis* “chance”.

*With sterres, whan that he his birthe took,/ That he for loce sholde han his deeth, alas!/ And in hir walk this blynde man they mette, / Croked and oold, with eyen faste yshette.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

Although the word entered the language in early 13c., in this research it is found only in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* which were written in the fourteenth century. The quotation from Chaucer shows that the word is used in the same context as today and that the meaning of the word is also the same (beginnig of a life).

**cast(v.)** – c. 1200, "to throw, fling, hurl", from a Scandinavian source akin to Old Norse kasta "to throw" (cognate with Swedish *kasta,* Danish *kaste,* north Frisian *kastin*), of uncertain origin. Meaning "to form in mold" is late 15c. In the sense of "warp, turn" it replaced Old English *weorpan* and itself largely has been superseded now by *throw*, though *cast* still is used of finishing lines and glances. Meaning "calculate, find by reckoning; chart (a course)" is from c. 1300.

*He cast his eye upon emelya,/ And therwithal he bleynte and cride, a!* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And many a lovely look on hem he caste,/ And namely on this carpenteris wyf. (*Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)
*And þenne a meré mantyle watz on þat mon cast/ Of a broun bleeaunt, enbrauded ful ryche/ And fayre furred wythinne with fellez of þe best,/ Alle of ermyn in erde, his hode of þe same;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Sone he caste him on his bac,/ Ant bar him hom to hise cleve,/ And bitaucte him Dame Leve/ And seyde, "Wite thou this knave,/ Al so thou wit mi lif save!* (Havelok the Dane)

The word *cast* is found in the texts from the fourteenth century *Canterbury Tales* and *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, but also in the *Havelok the Dane*, text that is written at the end of the thirteenth century. The meaning of the word in the quotation from *Canterbury Tales* is "to throw" but the meaning is not literal. In *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* and older text, *Havelok the Dane*, the word has the literal meaning. This proves the statement that the word *cast* in its literal meaning has through centuries been replaced by throw and today usually has

the figurative meaning. The form of the word is slightly changed today (final –e is omitted), although in *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* word *cast*, i. e. participle of the verb is the same as in today's usage.

**clip (v.)** - "to cut or severe with a sharp instrument", c. 1200, from a Scandinavian source (compare Old Norse *klippa*, Swedish *klippa*, Danish *klippe* "clip, shear, cut") probably echoic.

*She made to clippe or shere his heres away,/ And made his foomen al his craft espyen;/ And whan that they hym foond in this array,* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*They bounde hym faste and putten out his yen./ But er his heere were clipped or yshave,/*
*Ther was no boond with which men myghte him bynde;* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

In both quotations from Chaucer the word is used in the same meaning to cut. Although the word entered English c. 1200, it is found only in Chaucer's fourteenth century text. The form of the word in these examples is similar to the forms of its cognates in Scandinavian languages, but it is easily recognizable from today's point of view. Double "p" in the word is retained only in participles and derivatives (n. clipping) today.

**crook (n.)** – early 13 c., "hook-shaped instrument or weapon" from Old Norse *krokr* "hook, cornes", cognate with Old High German *kracho* "hooked tool", of obscure origin but perhaps related to a widespread group of Germanic *kr-* words meaning "bent, hooked". Meaning "swindler" is American English, 1879, from *crooked* in figurative sense of "dishonest" (1708). *Crook* "dishonest trick" was in Middle English.
*To fynde deeth, turne up this croked wey,/ For in that grove I lafte hym, by my fey,/ Under a tree, and there he wole abyde;* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

Chaucer's usage of the word indicates the figurative meaning of the word (dishonest) and in this example it is used as an adjctive. Modern form of the word is slightly different, but the meaning is similar.

**fellow (n.)** – "companion, comrde", c. 1200, from Old English *feolaga* "partner, one who shares with another", from Old Norse *felagi*, from *fe* "money" + *lag*, from verbal base denoting "lay". The root sense of *fellow* is "one who puts down money with another in a joint venture".

Meaning “one of the same kind” is from early 13c.; that of “one of a pair” is from c. 1300. Used familiarly since mid-15c. for “any man, male person”, but not etymologically masculine (it is used of women, for example, in Judges xi: 37 in the King James version: “And she said unto her father, Let this thin be done for me: let me alone two months, that I may go up and down upon the mountains, and bewail my virginity, I and my fellows”). Its use can be contemptuous or dignified in English and American English, and at different times in its history, depending on who used it to whom, it has carried a tinge of condescension or insult. University senses (mid-15c., corresponding to Latin *socius*) evolved from notion of “one of the corporation who constitute a college” and who are paid from its revenues. *Fellow well-met* “boon companion” is from 1580s, hence *hail-fellow-well-met* as a figurative phrase for “on intimate terms”.
*O regne, that wolt no felawe have with thee!/ Ful sooth is seyd that love ne lordshipe/ Wol noght, his thankes, have no felaweshipe* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*But sle my felawe eek as wel as me;/ Or sle hym first, for though thow knowest it lite,/ This is thy mortal foo, this is arcite,/ That fro thy lond is banysshed on his heed,/ For which he hath deserved to be deed.* (Chaucer, The canterbury Tales)

The word *fellow*in the quotations above means “a man” and “a companion”. The word still has the similar, if not the same, meaning today. In the first example Chaucer also uses derivative “felaweshipe” (fellowship) which is also used today.

**flat (adj.)** – c. 1300, “stretched out (on a surface), prostrate, lying the whole length on the ground”; mid-14c., “level, all in one plane; even, smooth”; of a roof, “low-pitched”, from Old Norse *flatr* “flat”, from Proto-Germanic *flata- (cognates: Old Saxon flat “flat, shallow”, Old High German *flaz* “flat, level”, Old English *flet*, Old High German *flezzi* “floor”), from PIE **plat*- “to spread” (source of Greek *platys* “broad, flat”). From c. 1400 as “without curvature or projection”.
*Colde clengez adoun, cloudez vplyften,/ Schyre schedez þe rayn in schowrez ful warme,/ Schyre schedez þe rayn in schowrez ful warme,/ Fallez vpon fayre flat, flowrez þere schewen,* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The word *flat* is found only in the fourteenth century text *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. The form of the word is the same as today and the meaning in which the word is used in the

example above is also similar to the meaning which the word has today (without raised parts, smooth).

**gap (n.)** - early 14c., "an opening in a wall or hedge; a break, a breach", mid-13c. in place names, from Old Norse gap "chasm, empty space", related to gapa "to gape, open the mouth wide", common Proto-Germanic (cognates: Middle Dutch, Dutch gapen, German gaffen "to gape, stare", Swedish gapa, Danish gabe), from PIE *ghai- "to yawn, gape". From late 14c. as "a break or opening between mountains"; broader sense "unfilled space or interval, any hiatus or interruption" is from c. 1600.

*Tho chaungen gan the colour in hir face,/ Right as the hunters in the regne of trace,/ That stondeth at the gappe with a spere,/ Whan hunted is the leon or the bere* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*For outher I moot sleen hym at the gappe,/ Or he moot sleen me, if that me myshappe, --/*
*So ferden they in chaungyng of hir hewe,/ As fer as everich of hem oother knewe.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

The word *gap* is also found in *Canterbury's Tales*. The meaning of the word is the same as the meaning in which the word is used today (an opening, empty space in the middle of something), but the form of the word has changed. The modern form of the word is equal to the form in Old Norse. The Middle English form of the word is very similar to its cognates in Dutch or German.

**get (v.)** – c. 1200, from Old Norse *geta* (past tense *gatum*, past participle *getenn*) "to obtain, reach; to be able to; to beget; to learn; to be pleased with", a word of a very broad meaning, often used almost as an auxiliary verb, also frequently in phrases (such as *geta rett* "to guess right"). This is from Proto-Germanic **getan* (cognates: Old Swedish *gissa* "to guess", literally "to try to get"), from PIE root **ghend-*, also **ghed-* "seize, take" (cognates: Greek *khandanein* "to hold, contain", Lithuanian *godetis* "be eager", second element in Latin *prehendere* "to grasp, seize", Welsh *gannu* "to hold, contain", Old Church Slavonic *gadati* "to guess, suppose").
Old English, as well as Dutch and Frisian, had the verb almost exclusively in compuounds (such as *begietan*, "to beget"; *forgietan* "to forget"). Vestiges of an Old English cognate **gietan*

remain obliquely in modern past participle *gotten* and original past tense *gat*, also Biblical *begat*.

In compound phrases with *have* and *had* it is grammatically redundant, but often usefully indicates possession, obligation, or necessity, or gives emphasis. The word and phrases built on it take up 29 columns in the OED 2nd edtion; Century Dictionary lists seven distinct senses for *to get up*.
*Get me a staf, that I may underspore,/ Whil that thou, robyn, hevest up the dore.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Hastou nat herd, quod nicholas, also/ The sorwe of noe with his felaweshipe,/ Er that he myghte gete his wyf to shipe?* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*'Hit is sothe,' quoþ þe segge, 'and as siker trwe/ Alle my get I schal yow gif agayn, bi my trawþe.'* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Thenne lachchez ho hir leue, and leuez hym þere,/ For more myrþe of þat mon moȝt ho not gete.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Of Havelok havede he michel drede,/ For he was strong and wel mouthe ete/ More thanne evere mouthe be gete;* (Havelok the Dane)

*Havelok sette him dun anon/ Al so stille als a ston,/ Til he havede ful wel eten;/ Tho havede Havelok fayre geten.* (Havelok the Dane)

The number of examples in which the word *get* is attested shows that the word was frequently used in Middle English. Meanings of the word in the examples are not different from the meanings that the word has in Modern English (to obtain, to receive).

**gift (n.)** – mid-13c. “that which is given” (c. 1100 in surnames), from a Scandinavian source such as Old Norse *gift, gipt* “gift; good luck”, from Proto-Germanic **giftiz* (cognates: Old Saxon *gift*, Old Frisian *jefte*, Middle Dutch *ghifte* “gift”, German *Mitgift* “dowry”), from PIE root **ghabh-* “to give or receive”. For German *Gift*, Dutch, Danish, Swedish *gift* “poison”.

Sense of “natural talent” (regarded as conferred) is from earlier sense of “inspiration, power miraculously bestowed” (late 12c.), as in the Biblical gift of tongues. Old English cognate gift is recorded only in the sense “bride-price, marriage gift (by the groom), dowry” (hence gift (pl.) “ a marriage, nuptials”). The Old English noun for “a giving, gift” was giefu, which is related to Old Norse word. Sense of “natural talent” is c. 1300, perhaps frome earlier sense of “inspiration” (late 12c.).

*Ȝe, be God,' quoþ Gawayn, 'good is your speche,/ Bot þrete is vnþryuande in þede þer I lende,/ And vche gift þat is geuen not with goud wylle.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The word *gift* here is used in the same meaning as it is used today. *Gift* refers to something that is given to someone.

**glitter (v.)** – c. 1300, *glideren* (late 14c. as *gliteren*), from an unrecorded Old English word or form a Scandinavian source such as Old Norse *glitra* “to glitter”, from Proto-Germanic **glit-* “shining, bright” (cognates: Old English *glitenian* “to glitter, shine; be distinguished”, Old High German *glizzan*, German *glitzern*, Gothic *glitmunjan*), from PIE **ghleid-* (cognates: Greek *khlidon, khlidos* “ornament”), from root *ghel- (2) “to shine”, with derivatives referring to bright materials and gold. Other Middle English words for “to glitter” include *glasteren* and *glateren*.

*In as muche as the servyce sholde be/ The moore noble and riche in his degree,/ Duc theseus leet forth thre steedes brynge,/ That trapped were in steel al gliterynge,/ And covered with the armes of daun arcite.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And al watz rayled on red ryche golde naylez,/ Þat al glytered and glent as glem of þe sunne.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The meaning of the word in the Middle English is the same as its meaning in Modern English. It means to shine, reflect light.

**hap (n.)** – c. 1200, “chance, a person's luck, fortune, fate“; also “unforseen occurrence“, from Old Norse *happ* “chance, good luck“, from Proto-Germanic **hap-* (source of Old English *gehæp* “convenient, fit“), from PIE **kob-* “to suit, fit, succeed“ (cognates: Old Church Slavonic

*kobu* “fate, foreboding, omen“, Old Irish *cob* “victory“). Meaning “good fortune“ in English is from early 13c. Old Norse seems to have had the word only in positive senses.
*It <u>happed</u> on a day,/ To telle it yow as shortly as I may,/ A worthy duc that highte perotheus,/ That felawe was unto duc theseus/ Syn thilke day that they were children lite,/ Was come to atthenes his felawe to visite,/ And for to pleye as he was wont to do;* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And on a day it <u>happed</u>, in a stounde,/ Sik lay the maunciple on a maladye;/ Men wenden wisly that he sholde dye.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Such glaum ande gle glorious to here,/ Dere dyn vpon day, daunsyng on nyȝtes,/ Al watz <u>hap</u> vpon heȝe in hallez and chambrez/ With lordez and ladies, as leuest him þoȝt.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The word in the examples is used as a verb. The meaning of the word is not changed in Modern English, but the word is not frequently used today. It is superseded by the word *happen* which is formed from the word *hap* (Oxford Dictionary).

**ill (adj.)** – c. 1200, “morally evil“ (other 13c. senses were “malevolent, hurtful, unfortunate, difficult“), from Old Norse illr “ill, bad“, of unknown origin. Not considered to be related to evil. Main modern sense of “sick, unhealthy, unwell“ is first recorded mid-15c., probably related to Old Norse idiom “it is bad to me“. Slang inverted sense of “very good, cool“ is 1980s. As a noun, “something evil“, from mid-13c.
*And þat my legge lady lyked not <u>ille</u>, / I wolde com to your counseyl bifore your cort ryche.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)
The word *ill* in the quotation from *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* refers to sick, unwell and not to morally evil. The adjective *ille* refers here to noun *legge* (legs). Although Online Etymology Dictionary says that the word “ill” in the sense of “sick, unhealthy, unwell” is first recorded mid-15 c., the same meaning is found in *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, text that is written in the second half of the fourteenth century.

**lift (v.)** – c. 1200, from Old Norse *lypta* “to raise”, from Proto-Germanic **luftijan* (cognates: Middle Low German *lüchten*, Dutch *lichten*, German *lüften* “to lift”; Old English *lyft* “heaven, air”). The meaning “steal” (as in shop-lift) is first recorded 1520s.

*And er that he agayn were in his sadel,/ Ther was greet showvyng bothe to and fro/ To lifte hym up, and muchel care and wo,/ So unweeldy was this sory palled goost.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*þuhte me þæt ic gesawe syllicre treow/ on lyft lædan, leohte bewunden,/ beama beorhtost.* (Dream of the Rood)

*Grundstalwyrthe man he sholde be/ That mouthe liften it to his kne;/ Was ther neyther clerc ne prest,/ That mithe liften it to his brest.* (Havelok the Dane)

In the quotations from Middle English texts (*The Canterbury Tales* and *Havelok the Dane*) the word *lift* is used in the same meaning that we use it today "raise". In the Old English text, *Dream of the Rood*, this word does not have that meaning. It means "sky" which is the usual meaning of the word *lift* in Old English.

**leg (n.)** – late 13c., from a Scandinavian source akin to Old Norse *leggr* "leg, bone of the arm or leg", from Proto-Germanic **lagjaz*, with no certain uletrior connections, perhaps from a PIE root meaning "to bend". Compare German *Bein* "leg", in Old High German "bone, leg". Replaced Old English *shank*.
*Ful longe were his legges and ful lene,/ Ylyk a staf, ther was no calf ysene.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And over hym leye my leg outher myn arm,/ He groneth lyk oure boor, lith in oure sty.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Þenne set þay þe sabatounz vpon þe segge fotez,/ His legez lapped in stel with luflych greuez,/ With polaynez piched þerto, policed ful clene,/ Aboute his knez knaged wyth knotez of golde;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The word is used in its literal meaning (part of a body) and the word still has the same meaning. The examples from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* show the use of both, singular and plural, forms. Singular form of the verb is the same as the form that is used in Modern English.

**loose (adj.)** – early 13c., "not securely fixed"; c. 1300, "unbound from Old Norse *lauss* "loose, free, vacant, dissolute", cognate with Old English *leas* "devoid of, false, feigned, incorrect", from Proto-Germanic **lausaz* (cognates: Danish *løs* "loose, untied", Swedish *lös* "loose, movable, detached", Middle Dutch, German *los* "loose, free", Gothic laus "empty, vain"), from PIE **leu-* "to loosen, divide, cut apart". Meaning "not clinging, slack" is mid-15c. Meaning "not bundled" is late 15c. Sense of "unchaste, immoral" is recorded from late 15c. Meaning "at liberty, free from obligation" is 1550s. Sense of "rambling, disconnected" is from 1680s.

*And whan the hors was laus, he gynneth gon/ Toward the fen, ther wilde mares renne,/*
*And forth with wehee, thurgh thikke and thurgh thenne.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And folden fayth to þat fre, festned so harde/ Þat yow lausen ne lyst--and þat I leue nouþe;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

Adjective *loose* in the quotations from *The Canterbury Tales* and *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* has the same meaning as it has in Modern English (not firm). The form of the adjective is different in Middle English and it resembles more the Old Norse word *lauss* from which the English word originated.

**low (adj.)** – "not high", late 13c., from *lah* (late 12c.), "not rising much, being near the base or ground" (of objects or persons); "lying on the ground or in a deep place" (late 13c.), from Old Norse *lagr* "low",or a similar Scandinavian source (compare Swedish *låg*, Danish *lav*), from Proto-Germanic **lega-* "lying flat, low" (cognates: Old Frisian *lech*, Middle Dutch *lage*, Dutch *laag* "low", dialectal German *läge* "flat"), from PIE **legh-* "to lie".
Meaning "humble in rank" is from c. 1200; "undignified" is from 1550s; sense of "dejected, dispirited" is attested from 1737; meaning "coarse, vulgar" is from 1759. In reference to sounds, "not loud", also "having a deep pitch" it is attested from c.1300. Of prices, from c. 1400. In geographical usage, low refers to the part of a country near the sea-shore (c. 1300, as in *Low Countries* "Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg", 1540s). As an adverb c. 1200, from the adjective.

*So feble eek were his spiritz, and so lowe,/ And chaunged so, that no man koude knowe/ His speche nor his voys, though men it herde*. (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*The cartere overryden with his carte:/ Under the wheel ful lowe he lay adoun.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Þe alder he haylses, heldande ful lowe, / Þe loueloker he lappez a lyttel in armez,/ He kysses hir comlyly, and knyȝtly he melez.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Þay laȝed, and made hem blyþe/ Wyth lotez þat were to lowe;/ To soper þay ȝede as-swyþe, Wyth dayntés nwe innowe.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Speke I loude or spek I lowe,/ Thou shalt ful wel heren me* (Havelok the Dane)

Word *low* in the first example from Chaucer has figurative meaning (feeling sad, depressed, etc.) andthat meaning is also frequently connected with the word *low* in Modern English. In the second example from *Canterbury's Tales* the word is used in its literal meaning, as well as in the examples from *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. In *Havelok the Dane*, the word *low* refers to voice which is also common in Modern English.

**mire (n.)** – c. 1300, from a Scandinavian source such as Old Norse *myrr* "bog, swamp", from Proto-Germanic **miuzja*- (source of Old English mos "bog, marsh"), from PIE **meus*- "damp". *Allas! a thousand folk hath rakel ire/ Fully fordoon, and broght hem in the mire.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

According to the quotation from *Canterbury's Tales* word mire had the same meaning and form in Middle English as it has today. It refers to swamp.

**score (n.)**–late Old English *scoru* "twenty", from Old Norse *skor* "mark, notch, incision; a rift in rock", also, in Icelandic, "twenty", from Proto-Germanic *skura-, from PIE root **(s)ker*- (1) "to cut"

The connecting notion probably is counting large numbers (of sheep, etc.) with a notch in a stick for each 20. That way of counting, called *vigesimalism*, also exists in French: in Old French "twenty" (vint) or a multiple of it could be used as a base, as *in vint et doze* ("32"), *dous vin et diz* ("50"). Vigesimalism was or is a feature of Welsh, Irish, Gaelic and Breton (as well as non-IE Basque), and it is speculated that the English and the French picked it up from the Celts.

The prehistoric sense of the Germanic word, then, likely was "straight mark like a scratch, line drawn by a sharp instrument", but in English this is attested only from c. 1400, along with the sense "mark made (on a chalkboard, etc.) to keep count of a customer's drinks in a tavern". This sense was extended by 1670s to "mark made for purpose of recording a point in a game or match", and thus "aggregate of points made by contestants in certain games and matches" (1742, originally in whist).
*For I wol paye yow wel and redily/ Fro day to day, and if so be I faille,/ I am youre wyf; score it upon my taille,/ And I shal paye as soone as ever I may.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

The word *score* in this quotation probably means "to keep count". The word in this meaning is still used today.

**scrap (n.)**–"small piece", late 14c., from Old Norse *skrap* "scraps, trifles", from *skrapa* "to scrape, snatch, cut" (*see *scrape* (v.)). Meaning "remains of metal produced after rolling or casting" is from 1790. *Scrap iron* first recorded in 1794.
*scrape (v.) – early 13c., probably from Old Norse skrapa "to scrape, erase", from Proto-Germanic *skrapojan (cognates: Old English *scrapian* "to scrape", Dutch *schrapen*, German, *schrappen*), from PIE **skerb-*, extension of root *(s)ker- "to cut". Meaning "gather by great effort, collect with difficulty" is from 1540s.

*He gete þe bonk at his bak, bigynez to scrape,/ Þe froþe femed at his mouth vnfayre bi þe wykez,/ Whettez his whyte tuschez; with hym þen irked/ Alle þe burnez so bolde þat hym by stoden/ To nye hym on-ferum, bot neȝe hym non durst for woþe;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The meaning of the word *scrape* is the same as the meaning that is connected to this word today. *Scrape* in this quotation stands for removing dirt or some other substance from the surface with a sharp instrument.

**sister (n.)**– mid-13c., from Old English *sweostor, swuster* "sister", or a Scandinavian cognate (Old Norse *systir*, Swedish *syster*, Danish *søster*), in either case from Proto-Germanic **swestr-* (cognates: Old Saxon *swestar*, Old Frisian *swester*, Middle Dutch *suster*, Dutch *zuster*, Old High German *swester*, German *Schwester*, Gothic *swistar*).
These are from PIE **swesor*, one of the most persistent and unchanging PIE root words, recognizable in almost every modern Indo-European language (Sanskrit *svasar-*, Avestan

*shanhar-*, Latin *soror,* Old Church Slavonic, Russian *sestra,* Lithuanian *sesuo,* Old Irish *siur,* Welsh *chwaer,* Greek *eor*). French *soeur* "a sister" (11c., instead of **sereur*) is directly from Latin *soror,* a rare case of a borrowing from the nominative case.
According to Klein's sources, probably from PIE roots **swe-* "one's own" + **ser* "woman". Used of nouns in Old English; of a woman in general from 1906; of a black woman from 1926; and in the sense of "fellow feminist" from 1912. Meaning "female fellow-Christian" is from mid-15c. *Sister act* "variety act by two or more sisters" is from vaudeville (1908).

*There gode Gawan watz grayþed Gwenore bisyde,/ And Agrauayn a la dure mayn on þat oþer syde sittes,/ Boþe þe kynges sistersunes and ful siker kniȝtes;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Havelok, that was the eir,/ Swanborow, his sister, Helfled, the tother,/ And in the castel dede he hem do,/ Ther non ne micte hem comen to/ Of here kyn, ther thei sperd were.* (Havelok the Dane)

Word *sister* in the quotations from *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* and *Havelok the Dane* is used to show the family relationships. The word is used in some other senses today as well.

**skin (n.)** – c. 1200, "animal hide" (usually dressed and tanned), from Old Norse *skinn* "animal hide, fur", from Proto-Germanic **skintha-* (cognates: Old English *scinn* (rare), Old High German *sinten,* German *schinden* "to flay, skin"; German dialectal *schind* "skin of a fruit", Flemish *schinde* "bark"), from PIE **sken-* "to cut off" (cognates: Breton *scant* "scale of a fish", Irish *scainim* "I tear, I burst"), from root **sek-* "to cut"
Ful of fleissche Y was to fele, Now...Me is lefte But skyn & boon. (hymn, c. 1430)

*With nayles yelewe and brighte as any gold,/ He hadde a beres skyn, col-blak for old.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Of gooth the skyn an hande-brede aboute,/ The hoote kultour brende so his toute,/ And for the smert he wende for to dye.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

Word *skin* also has the same meaning in Modern English as it had in Middle English. It refers to natural outer layer of a body.

**skill (n.)** – late 12c., "power of discernment", from Old Norse *skil* "distinction, ability to make out, discernment, adjustment", related to *skilja* (v.) "to separate; discern, understand", from Proto-Germanic **skaljo-* "divide, separate" (cognates: Swedish *skäl* "reason", Danish *skjel* "a separation, boundary, limit", Middle Low German *schillen* "to differ", Middle Low German, Middle Dutch *schele* "separation, discrimination". Sense of ability, cleverness" first recorded early 13c.

*I oghte deme, of skilful juggement,/ That in the salte see my wyf is deed.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*For greet skile is, he preeve that he wroghte./ But he ne tempteth no man that he boghte,/ As seith seint jame, if ye his pistel rede.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*And yow wrathed not þerwyth, what were þe skylle/ Þat so ȝong and so ȝepe as ȝe at þis tyme,/ So cortayse, so knyȝtly, as ȝe ar knowen oute--/ And of alle cheualry to chose, þe chef þyng alosed/ Is þe lel layk of luf, þe lettrure of armes;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

The examples from *Canterbury Tales* and *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* show that the word *skill* had the same meaning in Middle English as it has today. It means to be able to perform well at something.

**skirt (n.)** – early 14c., "lower part of a woman's dress", from Old Norse *skyrta* "shirt, a kind of kirte". Sense development from "shirt" to "skirt" is possibly related to the long shirts of peasant garb (compare Low German cognate *Schört*, in some dialects "woman's gown"). Sense of "border, edge" (in *outskirts*, etc.) first recorded late 15c. Metonymic use for "women collectively" is from 1550s; slang sense of "young woman" is from 1906; *skirt-chaser* first attested 1942.

*And his arsounz al after and his aþel skyrtes,/ Þat euer glemered and glent al of grene stones;* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

In the quote from *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* word *skirt* probably refers to the part of men's apparel, while today the word usually refers to women's clothes.

**sky (n.)** – c. 1200, "a cloud", from Old Norse *sky* "cloud", from Proto-Germanic **skeujam* "cloud, cloud cover" (cognates: Old English *sceo,* Old Saxon *scio* "cloud, region of the clouds, sky", Old High German *scuwo,* Old English *scua,* Old Norse *skuggi* "shadow" Gothic *skuggwa* "mirror"), from PIE root **(s)keu-* "to cover, conceal"
Meaning "upper regions of the air" is attestd from c. 1300; replaced native *Heofon* in this sense. In Middle English, the word can still mean both "cloud" and "heaven", as still in the skies, originally "the clouds".

*And fostred in a roche of marbul gray/ So tendrely that no thyng eyled me,/ I nyste nat what was adversitee,/ Til I koude flee ful hye under the sky.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales).

*Sky* in this example has the same meaning as it has in Modern English, although the word was used to refer to *cloud* when it entered English.

**slaughter (n.)** – c. 1300, "killing of a cattle or sheep for food, killing of a person", from a Scandinavian **slahtr,* akin to Old Norse *slatr* "a butchering, butcher meat", *slatra* "to slaughter", *slattr* "a mowing" from Proto-Germanic **slukhtis,* related to Old Norse *sla* "to strike". Meaning "killing a large number of persons in battle" is attested from mid-14c. Old English had *slieht* "stroke, slaughter, murederer, death; animals for slaughter", as in*sliehtswyn* "pig for killing".

*The slaughtre of cristen folk, and dishonour/ Doon to his doghter by a fals traytour,/ I mene the cursed wikked sowdanesse/ That at the feeste leet sleen bothe moore and lesse.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Hasard is verray mooder of lesynges,/ And of deceite, and cursed forswerynges,/ Blaspheme of crist, manslaughtre, and wast also/ Of catel and of tyme.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

Chaucer uses the word *slaughter* in the same meaning that it is used today (killing of people or animals) He also uses the derivative *manslaughter*.

**sly (adj.)** – c. 1200, "skillful, clever, dexterous", from Old Norse sloegr "cunning, crafty, sly", from Proto-Germanic *slogis (cognates: Low German slu "cunning, sly", German schlau), probably from base *slak- "to strike, hit", with an original notion of "able to hit". Compare

German verschlagen “cunning, crafty, sly”, schlagfertig “quick-witted”, literally “strike-ready”, from schlagen “to strike”. A non-pejorative use of the word lingered in northern English dialect until 20c. On the sly “in secret” is recorded from 1812. Sly-boots “a seeming Silly, but subtil Fellow” is in the 1700 “Dictionary of the Canting Crew”.

*But honestly and slyly he it spente,/ That no man wondred how that he it hadde.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

The example from Chaucer’s *Canterbury’s Tales* shows that the word *sly* had different connotations in Middle English. It meant “clever”. Today this word usually has the negative connotation and it refers to cunning or deceitful behavior.

**snare (n.)** – “noose for catching animals“, late Old English, from Scandinavian source such as Old Norse *snara* “noose, snare“ related to *soenri* “twisted rope“, from Proto-Germanic **snarkho* (cognates: Middle Dutch *snare*, Dutch *snaar*, Old High German *snare*, German *Schnur* “noose, cord“, Old English *snear* “a string, cord“. Figuratively from c. 1300.

*Now wol I turne to arcite ageyn,/ That litel wiste how ny that was his care,/ Til that fortune had broght him in the snare.* (Chaucer, The canterbury Tales)

*Snare* had the same meaning in the Middle English as it has in Modern English. The example from Chaucer’s *Canterbury Tales* shows that *snare*meant a kind of trap which is still the meaning of the word.

**take (v.)** – late Old English *tacan* “to take, seize“, from a Scandinavian source (such as Old Norse *taka* “take, grasp, lay hold“, past tense *tok*, past participle *tekinn*; Swedish *ta*, past participle *tagit*), from Proto-Germanic **takan*- (cognates: Middle Low German *tacken*, Middle Dutch taken, Gothic tekan “to touch“), from Germanic root **tak*- “to take“, of uncertain origin, perhaps originally meaning “to touch“. As the principal verb for “to take“, it gradually replaced Middle English *nimen*, from Old English *niman*, from the usual West Germanic **nem*- root (source of German nehmen, Dutch nemen). OED calls *take* “one of the elemental words of the language“; take up alone has 55 varieties of meaning in that dictionary's 2nd print edition. basic sense is to “lay hold of“, which evolved to “accept, receive“ (as in take my advice) c. 1200;

"absorb" (take a punch) c. 1200 ; "choose, select" (take the high road) late 13c.; "to make, obtain" (take a shower) late 14c.; "to become affected by" (take sick) c. 1300.

*For if it so bifelle, as God forbede,/ That thurgh youre deeth youre lynage sholde slake,/*
*And that a straunge successour sholde take/ Youre heritage, o, wo were us alyve!* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*If that thou vouche sauf, what so bityde,/ Thy doghter wol I take, er that I wende,/*
*As for my wyf, unto hir lyves ende.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Bot to take þe toruayle to myself to trwluf expoun,/ And towche þe temez of tyxt and talez of armez/ To yow þat, I wot wel, weldez more sly3t/ Of þat art, bi þe half, or a hundreth of seche/ As I am, oþer euer schal, in erde þer I leue,/ Hit were a folé felefolde, my fre, by my trawþe.* (Sir Gawain and the Green Knight)

*Acc wollde shæwenn whatt he wass;/ Þurrh heofenlike takenn.* (The Ormulum)

*Thanne he havede taken this oth/ Of erles, baruns, lef and loth,* (Havelok the Dane)

Word *take* in Middle English had multiple meanings as it still has. The examples show the use of the word in different contexts (take someone's heritage, take somebody as a wife, take an oath, take upon oneself) All these meanings are still in usage today.

**thrift (n.)** – c. 1300, "fact or condition of thriving", also "prosperity, savings", from Middle English *thriven* "to thrive", influenced by (or from) Old Norse *þrift,* variant of *þrif* "proseperity", from *þrifask* "to thrive". Sense of "habit of saving, economy" first recorded 1550s (*thrifty* in this sense is recorded from 1520s). *Thrift shop* attested by 1919.

*Owre hoost upon his stiropes stood anon,/ And seyde, goode men, herkeneth everych on!*
*This was a thrifty tale for the nones!* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*She is honoured over al ther she gooth;/ I sitte at hoom I have no thrifty clooth.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

The word *thrift,* i .e *thrifty* in this examples from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* has the meaning that is connected with profit, thriving. Today this word is usually used to refer to someone who is careful when spending money.

**trust (n.)** – c. 1200, "reliance on the veracity, integrity, or other virtues of someone or something; religious faith", from Old Norse *traust* "help, confidence, protection, support", from Proto-Germanic abstract noun **traustam* (cognates: Old Frisian *trast,* Dutch *troost* "comfort, consolation", Old High German *trost* "trust, fidelity", German *Trost* "comfort, consolation", Gothic *trausti* "agreement, alliance"), from Proto-Germanic **treuwaz-*, source of Old English *treowian* "to believe, trust", and *treowe* "faithful, trusty". From c. 1300 as "reliability, trustworthiness; trustiness, fidelity, faithfulness"; from late 14c. as "confidence placed in a one who holds or enjoys the use of property entrusted to him by its legal owner"; mid-15c. as "condition of being legally entrusted". Meaning "businesses organized to reduce competition" is recorded from 1877. *Trust-buster* is recorded from 1903.
trust (v.) – from Old Norse *treysta* "to trust, rely on, make strong and safe", from *traust*.

*For if a preest be foul, on whom we truste,/ No wonder is a lewed man to ruste;* (Chaucer, The canterbury Tales)

*For trusteth wel that dukes, erles, kynges/ Were gadered in this noble compaignye,/ For love and for encrees of chivalrye.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

Word *trust* in examples from *Canterbury Tales* has the same meaning as it has today (to belive in someone's ability, to find someone or something reliable).

**want (v.)** – c. 1200, "to be lacking", from Old Norse *vanta* "to lack, want", earlier **wanaton,* from Proto-Germanic **wanen,* from PIE **we-no-,* from rot **eue-* "to leave, abandon, give out". The meaning "desire, wish for, feel the need of" is recorded by 1706.

*And whan this wise man/ Saugh that hym wanted audience, al/ Shamefast he sette hym doun agayn.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Comth muchel harm; thus was me toold and taught./ In muchel speche synne wanteth naught.* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales)

*Therinne <u>wantede</u> nouth a nayl,/ That evere he sholde therinne do.* (Havelok the Dane)

The word *want* in Middle English was used similarly, if not in the same way, as today. Meanings conveyed in the quotations from *The Canterbury Tales* and *Havelok the Dane* confirm that the meaning of the word *want* was the same in Middle English as it is in Modern English (to ask for something, to desire someting).

**The Oxford English Dictionary corpus**

**birth (n.)** – according to OED this noun appears in several different forms through the history of the English language: *burðe(y), birðe, burþe, birþ(e), byrþe, burþ, berþe, (briþ, breth), burth(e), birthe, byrth(e), bryth, berth, birth*. In early Middle English the form was *byrþ(e),burð(e), birþ(e)*. The form was probably foreign to Old English since the word came from Old Norse **byrð*(*i*)*r* str. fem. (Osw. *byrþ*, Da. *byrd*), genit. *burðar* (on this form Icelandic formed new nominative, *burðr* masc.) It is connected to Gothic *ga-baurþs*:---OTeut. *(*ga-*)*burþi-z*, f. the stem of ber-an to bear, with suffix *-þi-* (= Aryan -ti-s, cf. Skr. bhrtís, OIr. *brith*). The OTeut. word had shifting stress, and consequently, according to Verner's law, *þ* and *d* interchanged in the inflexion: in ON. and Gothic these were levelled under *þ*, but in WGer. under *d* (High G. t), in OS. giburd, OHG. *giburt, burt* (MHG., mod.G. *geburt*), OE. *gebyrd*. The latter was probably the source of ME *birde, burde*, 'race, descent'; but could hardly be that of birth, unless the latter was assimilated to nouns in *-þ, -þe*, or influenced by ON.
The word has multiple meanings in English, literal and figurative. OED lists twelve meanings of the word with the list of qoutes among which the earliest dates back to 1200: *On þe ehteðe dai efter his burþe*(Trin. Coll. Hom. 47). Here the word means the bearing of offspring, viewed as an act of the mother.

**cast (v.)** - Pa. tense and pa. pple. cast. Forms of the verb that have appeared in the English language are: *casten, (castin, -yn), kaste(n), keste(n), caste, cast. pa. tensecaste, kast(e), kest(e), (cest, kiste, keist, kyste),* Sc. *cuist,* Sc. *coost, cast; also casted, -id(e. pa. pple. north. casten, -in, -yn, caste, kast(e), kest(e), (icast),* Sc. *cassin, -yn, caissen, cast; also castid.*
In ME. *cast-en,* a. ON. *kasta* wk. vb. to cast, throw (Icel. and Sw. *kasta*, Da. *kaste*, North Fris. *kastin*): cf. *kös* (kasu), *köstr* (:---kastuz), pile, heap thrown up, which has been compared with L. *gerere* (ges-) gestus. It took in ME. the place of OE. *weorpan,* and has now in turn been

largely superseded in ordinary language and in the simple literal sense by *throw*, q.v. ‘Cast it into the pond’ has an archaic effect in comparison with ‘throw it into the pond’. But it is in ordinary use in various figurative and specific senses, and in many adverbial combinations, as *cast about*.

General arrangement: I. To throw. II. To throw down, overthrow, defeat, convict, condemn. III. To throw off so as to get quit of, to shed, vomit, discard. IV. To throw up (earth) with a spade, dig (peats, a ditch, etc.). V. To put or place with haste or force, throw into prison, into a state of rage, sleep, etc. VI. To reckon, calculate, forecast. VII. To revolve in the mind, devise, contrive, purpose. VIII. To dispose, arrange, allot the parts in a play. IX. To cast metal, etc. X. To turn, twist, warp, veer, incline. XI. To plaster, daub. XII. Hunting and Hawking senses, those of doubtful position, and phrases. XIII. Adverbial combinations.

There are 82 meanings of this verb listed in OED. The earliest written record is from 1200: *þe se flouweðþe hi casteð ut þat water of hire stede into þat lond* (Trin. Coll. Hom. 177). Here the word is used in the sense of cast out.

**clip (v.1)** – other forms of the word in English: *clyppan, (clioppen, cliopen), -en, cluppe(n), clep(pe), clyppe, clyp, clepe, clipp(e), (clype, klyppe), clip*.

OE. *clyppan* weak vb.:---OTeut. type **kluppjan*: cf. OFris. *kleppa* in same sense (cleppa and kessa' Richthofen); North Fris. *klêbin* to kiss (Johansen); also ON. *klýpa*‘toclip’, pinch, and Ger. *kluppe* ‘barnacles, corntongs’, OHG. *chluppa* tongs, clamp, split stick to grasp or hold. Outside Teutonic, Hildebrand in Grimm, s.v. *klafter*, compares Lith. *glôbti* to embrace, and OSlav. *glibnjati*, *glubeti* to be seized.

There are three meanings of the verb *clip* in OED. The first text in which the verb is attested is from 950: *Clioppende [Rushw. cliopende] wæs* (Lindisf. Gosp. Mark ix. 36). Here the word means to clasp with the arms, embrace, hug. This use is archaic and dialectal.

**clip (v.2)**

ME. *clipp-en*, at first northern, and probably comes from ON. *klipp-a* (Norw., Sw. *klippa*, Da. *klippe*) in this sense. In same sense also LG. has *klippen* (Schütze), Fris. (Wangeroog), *klip-pen*, N.Fris. *klappen*, *kleppen*.

The ON. and LG. *klippa*, *klippen*, was prob. identical with LG. *klippen* to make a sharp sound, cited under clip v.3, the application being transferred, as in clack, click, clank, clink, clap, from the sound to associated sharp actions; senses 6, 7, and clip n.2 4, show that the notion of cutting

is not inseparable from the word. There may also have been onomatopeic influence: in the utterance of clip, as of snip, there is a cut-short effect, which aptly suits the act.
Under this entry OED lists nine meanings. The earliest qoute that contains the word is from 1200 and here the word is used as a transitional verb and the meaning is to cut or snip (a part) away, off, out, from: *To clippenn swa þe cnapess shapp* (Ormin 4106).

**crook (n.)** – different forms of this word have been attested in English texts: *croc, croke*, Sc. and north. *cruk, crok, kroke, cruke, crooke*, Sc. *cruik, crook*. In Middle English this word appears as *crok, croc* apparently after Old Norse *krókr* (Sw. *krok*, Da. *krog*) crook, hook, barb, trident; unknown elsewhere in Teutonic, but apparently belonging to the same ablaut series (*krak-, krôk*), as OHG. *chracho, chracco* hook; cf. ON. *kraki* boat-hook. OED lists fifteen meanings of the word. Fourtheenth meaning is dialectal, while fifteenth includes phrases of which the word *crook* is part. The earliest qoute in which this word is attested also dates back to 1200 and the meaning of the word in the qoute is figurative, a crooked piece of conduct, a trick, artifice, wile; deceit, guile, trickery: *þa wære he þurrh þe deofless croc I gluternesse fallenn* (Ormin 11635).

**fellow (n.)** –the word has had a number of forms: *féola-a, fela-e, felau, felaw-e, fe-, feolah(e), feolawe, felauh*, south. *vela-e, felay, -loy, -lo-(e), felagh(e)*, (south. *velaghe*), *fala, fela, felaw(e), felow(e), ( fel(l)o, feloe), fellowe, fellow*. Also Sc. *fallow*, ( *fallowe, falow*); and in renderings of dialectal and vulgar speech, *fally*, *felly*, *fellaw*, *feller*. In Late Old English it appears as *féola-a* weak, masculine, from Old Norse , f. *fé* = OE. feoh property, money (fee n.1) + *lag-* (in ON. *leggja*, OE. *lec-an*:---OTeut. **lagjan*) to lay. The primary sense is ‘one who lays down money in a joint undertaking with others’; the related ON. *félagstr*. neut. is ‘a laying together of money’, a business partnership, hence a partnership or society generally. There are fourteen meanings of the word listed in OED. The earliest quote that contains the word fellow included in OED is from 1200: *He lið fram alle hise felaw-es* (Vices & Virtues (1888) 139). Here the word has the meaning of one that is associated with another in habitual or temporary companionship; a companion, comrade. Now rare, except in plural, or with constructions.

**flat (a., adv., n.)** – other forms in which this word appears in the English language are: *flatte*, (dial.) *flatt, flat*.
The word comes from ON. *flatr* (Sw. *flat*, Da. *flad*) = OHG. *flaz*:---OTeut. **flato-*. Cf. flet.

No certain cognates are known; connection with OAryan **plat-, plath-* (Gr. *platèv*, Skr. *prthú*, broad) is plausible with regard to the sense (cf. F. *plat* flat, believed to be ultimately from *platèv*), but the representation of OAryan *t* or *th* by Teut. *t* (exc. when reduced from *tt* after a long vowel) is anomalous. The synonymous Ger. *flach* is unconnected.
As an adjective this word has fifteen meanings among which the last two meanings listed in OED are combinations and special combinations of the word *flat* and other words. As an adverb the word has four meanings and as a noun it has seventeen meanings listed in OED. The earliest recording of the word in OED is from 1400: *He felle to þe flat erthe* (Destr. Troy 7326). In this quote the word is used in its literal sense and it means horizontally level; without inclination, not tilted.

**gap (n.)** – other forms of this word that have appeared in English are: *gappe, gapp.* The word comes from ON. *gap* chasm (only in the mythological name *Ginnunga-gap*), wide-mouthed outcry (Sw. *gap,* Da. *gab* open mouth, also opening, chasm); n. related to ON. and Sw. *gapa,* Da. *gabe* to gape. OED lists nine meanings of this word, from which the second meaning is figurative and the nineth meaning includes combinations with the word *gap*. The earliest quote that contains the word *gap* recorded in OED is from 1380: *So harde þay þrewe a_en þe wal_And succh a gappe þay made þer-on* (Sir Ferumb. 4989). In this quote the word is used in the sense of a breach in a wall or hedge, as a result of violence or natural decay.

**get (v.)** - Pa. tense got (arch. gat). Pa. pple.got (gotten). Pres. pple. getting. Other forms of the word in English have been: *geten, (getyn), gete, (geit, geyt, gite, Sc. gat(e), gyte, Sc. gait), gett, (gette, gitte, gytt, dial. git), get.pa. tense gate, (gait, get, pl. gaten, geton, -yn, geetun, getton, geten), gatt, (gatte), gat, got, (got(t)e). pa. pple. geten, (-eten, getun, getin, geteyn, giten, -in, gyten, -in, getyn, geton), getten, (gettyn, getton, gitten), gete, (i-gete, y-gete, gyte), gette, (y-gette), gett, (get), gotin, goten, (gotyn, gote, y-goten, goton, gothen), Sc. gottin, -yn, gotton, gotten, got, (y-got).*
The word comes from ON. *geta* (*gat, gátum, getenn*) to get, obtain, to beget, also, to guess (Sw. *gitta*, Da. *gide* to be able or willing, MSw. *gäta*, Da. *gjette* to guess) = OE. *-gietan* (only in the compounds *a-*, *be-*, *for-*, *ofer-*, *on-*, *under-gietan*: see beget, forget), OFris. (*ur-*, *for-*)*jeta,* OS. (*bi-*, *far-*)*getan* (MDu. *ver-gheten,* Du. *ver-geten*), OHG.*gezzan, kezzan* (once in pple. *kezzendi*, _adeptus', otherwise only in *bi-*, *int-*, *ir-*, *fer-gezzan*; MHG. *er-*, *ver-gezzen,* mod.G. *ver-gessen*), Goth. (*bi-*)*gitan*:---OTeut. **getan, gat-, gêtum, getono-*.The OAr.root**ghed, *ghod* 'to seize', 'take hold of', is found also in L. *praeda* (:---**prae-heda*) booty, praedium an estate, perh. also

in hedera ivy (literally the ‘clinger'); and with inserted nasal in L. *prehendere* to catch, lay hold of, Gr. *khandanein*‘to hold, contain, to be able’.Of the compounds of *gietan* which existed in OE. (see above), only *begietan* and *forgietan* survive in the modern language, and the normal equivalents *beyet* and *foryet* were displaced in later ME. in favour of *beget* and *forget*. Gower is app. the last author who employs *beyet*; *foryet*. It disappears in the 15th c. except in Sc., where it is not yet extinct. This change was probably due to the influence of the simple verb. Conversely, the solitary example in ME.of *geten* without prefix may be referred to the influence of *bigeten*. The forms of the pa.pple.retainingthe original vowel (ON. *getenn*) are found in literature down to the 16th c., and in the north midlands and Yorkshire *getten* is still the dialectal form. From the beginning of the English history of the vb., however, it has, like most verbs with ME. open*e* in the present stem, tended to assume the conjugation of vbs. of the *e, a, o* series (originally confined to roots ending in a liquid); thus in the 13th c. we find *geten, gat, goten* parallel with *stelen, stal, stolen*. In the 16th c. the pa.tense was often *got*, by assimilation to the pa. pple.; in the 17th c. this became the usual form, though *gat* is used in the Bible of 1611 and still occurs in archaistic poetry. In England the form *gotten* of the pa.pple.is almost obsolete (exc. dial.) being superseded by *got*; in U.S. literature *gotten* is still very common, although Webster 1864 gave it as ‘obsolescent'.

The word get has multiple meanings listed in OED (81) and in the earliest quote from 1200, the word is used in the sense of obtaining possession: *Forr whase itt iss þatt gredi_ iss To winnenn erþlic ahhte, A__ alls he mare & mare gett A__ lisste himm affterr mare* (Ormin 10219).

**gift (n.)** – forms of the word through history of English: *ift, yft, ift(e, (iefte), eft, yft(e), yeft(e), (efft, yeffe, yifte, yyft, yft, yeffte) yefþe, -the, yfth, gifte, gyft(e), gyfft, (giuete, gifit, giftt, gefte, gieft), guift(e), gift*.Com. Teut.: OE. gift str. fem. (recorded only in the sense ‘payment for a wife’, and in the plural with the sense ‘wedding’) corresponds to OFris. *jeft* fem., *gift*, MDu. *gift(e)* (Du. *gift* fem., *gift*, *gift* neut., now more commonly *gif*, *poison*), OHG. *gift* fem., *gift, poison* (MHG., mod.G. *gift* fem., *gift*, neut., *poison*), ON. *gift*, usually written *giptgift* (Sw., Da. *-gift* in compounds), pl. *giptar*‘a wedding’, Goth. *-gifts* in compounds:---OTeut. **gifti-z* fem., f. root *geÿ- *give* v.

The OE.sense does not appear to have survived into ME.; forms are perhaps new formations from the verb while the type, to which the mod. English form belongs, is probably (as the guttural seems to show) adopted from ON. There are nine meanings of the word in OED. Quote from 1175 is the earliest recording of the word: *We ne ma_en ðe fond from us driue, ne mid sworde ne mid kniue, bute hit beo ðurh godes žifte* (Lamb. Hom. 69). Here the meaning of the

word is “a faculty, power, or quality miraculously bestowed, e.g. upon the apostles and other early Christians; a Christian virtue looked upon as an emanation from the Holy Ghost; extended further to endowments bestowed by heathen deities or some supernatural agent; occasionally in sense of inspiration;the gift of tongues”.

**glitter (v.)** - forms of this word in the English language are: *gliter, gleter, glyter, glittre, glitter*. Not recorded in OE.; ME. *gliteren* is prob. a. ON. *glitra* = MHG., mod.Ger. *glitzern*; a frequentative formation from the Teut. root **glyt*- in OS.*glîtan* str. vb., OHG. *glîzzan*(mod.Ger. *gleiszen*) to shine, ON.*glit* brightness, *glita* to shine, Goth. *glitmunjan* to shine; the pre-Teut. root **ghleid*-, *ghlid*- seems to occur in Gr. *clidá* luxury.
There are only two meanings of this verb listed in OED. The meaning to shine with a brilliant but broken and tremulous light; to emit bright fitful flashes of light; to gleam, sparkle is conveyed in the quote from 13??: *Golde naylez, þat al glytered & glent as glem of þe sunne* (Gaw. & Gr. Knt. 604).

**hap (n.)** – archaic noun, other forms are also *heppe, happe, hape, happ*. The word is from Early Middle English and it comes from Old Norse *happ*, neut. which means chance, hap, good luck. The same root is found in Old English *gehæp* adj., fit, *hæplíc* equal. Four meanings of the word appear in OED. The earliest appearance of the word is attested in the text from 1205: *His hap [_1275 heppe] wesþa wurse* (Lay. 3857) in the sense of chance or fortune (good or bad) that falls to anyone; luck, lot.

**ill (a. and n.)** – in English this word has appeared in different forms:*ille, (ile, hil(l), hyl), yll(e), yl, il, (el, yle).*
Early ME.*ill,* word comes from ON. *illr* ill, bad, wicked, difficult, injurious, etc. Ulterior etymology unknown; not related to OE.*yfel*, evil.
As an adjective, *ill* is now much less used in general English than as an adverb, and survives chiefly in certain connections, as *ill health*, *ill humour*, *ill temper*, *ill success*; as an adverb (the opposite of well), it is, in certain constructions, regularly hyphened to the word which it qualifies, e.g. *ill-advised*, *ill-bred*, *ill-conditioned*, *ill-spelt*, etc.: in imitation of these, apparently, and from the feeling that it is not a general adjective, but one that goes only with particular substantives, the adjective is also often hyphened to its noun, as in *ill-humour*, *ill-will*, etc.; but this is quite unnecessary; *ill humour* stands to *ill-humoured* just as *grey hair* to *grey-haired*. Although *ill* is not etymologically related to *evil*, the two words have from the 12th

c. been synonymous, and *ill* has been often viewed as a mere variant or reduced form of *evil*. This esp. in Sc., where *v* between two vowels early disappeared, and *devil, even, Levenax, preve, shovel, Steven,* became *deil, ein, Lennox, pree, shool, Steen,* so that *evil* might have become *eil*; hence, in 15-16th c. Sc., *euil, euyl* is found often written where *ill* was the word pronounced: e.g.1500-20 Dunbar Poems xli. 10 (Bannatyne MS.)*Be _e ane tratlar, that I hald als ewill* [rimes thrill, will, still]. 1560 Rolland Crt. Venus iv. 117 *And take the best, and set on syde all euill* [rimes till, will, fulfill]. 1662 Epitaph (on Bailie Sword) at St. Andrews, *The svord doeth often kill_This svord doeth no svch eivell*.

In the quote from 1200 the word is used as an adjective in the sense of morally evil, wicked, iniquitous, depraved, vicious, immoral, blameworthy, reprehensible: *Lutel lac is gode lof þet kumeð of gode wille And ec-lete muchel _eue of þan þe herte is ille* (Moral Ode 74 in Cott. Hom. 165). The quote from the 1200 is the earliest recording of this word in OED. Beside the meaning of the word which is already written and put under number one in OED, there are nine more meanings of the word as an adjective and seven different meanings of the word as a noun.

**leg (n.)** – also pl. *legges (leggis, leggys), lege, legge*.

Word comes from Old Norse *legg-r* leg, (in compounds) leg or arm, limb (Sw. *lägg*, Da. *læg*, calf of the leg):---OTeut. type **lagjo-z*.Cf. '*Lombard lagi _coxa super genuculum*' (Ed. Roth. 384). By some scholars the word is referred to the West Aryan root **laq-* of Gr.*laktâzein* to kick, L. *lacertus* arm. OED lists seventeen different meanings of this word. The earliest quote is from 1275: *Hii soten hire legges [c 1205 sconken]* (Lay. 1876). The word is used here in the sense of a limb; one of the organs of support and locomotion in an animal body; esp. one of the two lower limbs of the human body; in narrower sense, the part of the limb between the knee and foot.

**lift (v.)** - other forms of this word that have appeared in English are: *leftyn, lifte(n), lyft(e), lyften, -yn, lift. pa. tense left(e), lyft(e), lifte, lift, liftd, -id, -ud, lifted pa. pple. lifte, lyfte,* (poet.) *lift, lifted.* Also*i-lift*.

The word comes from ON. *lypta* (Sw. *lyfta*, Da. *løfte*) = MHG., mod.G. *lüften*:---OTeut. type **luftjan*, f. **luft-us* (ON. *lopt* air, sky = lift n.1). The etymological sense is therefore to move up into the air.

The verb which occurs in the phrase *lutenn* and *lefften*, very frequent in the *Ormulum*, but not found elsewhere, has been commonly identified with this vb., but neither the form nor the sense favours the identification. Apparently the phrase (which is followed by a dat. of person) means

‘to show respect to (a superior), ‘to condescend graciously to’ (an inferior). It does not seem possible to connect *lefften* with OE. *lyffettan* to flatter.
There are fourteen meanings of the word listed in OED. The earliest quote in OED in which this word is attested is from 1300: *Abram_Bi betel lifted an auter neu* (Cursor M. 2388 Abram). In this quote the word has the meaning to raise into the air from the ground, or to a higher position; to elevate, heave, hoist.

**loose (a. and adv.)** - *lousse, (also dial.) lowse, (loss), lause, loos, lose, lous, louse, lawse, lewse, loce*, Sc. *lowis, lowsz, lowsse, loose*.
ME. word*los* (with close o), in north. dial. *lous*, comes from ON. *lous-s, laus-s* (Sw. *lös*, Da. *løs*), = OE. *léas* lease a.,
As an adjective the word loose has ten meanings listed in OED, as a noun, it has two meanings, and as an adverb the word has three meanings. The earliest quote that contains the word is from 1300: *Quat man þat þou lesess o band, For lous [Fairf. lause, Trin. louse] he sal in heuen stand* (Cursor M. 13333). In this quote the word is used as an adjective and the meaning of the word is unbound, unattached, said of living beings: free from bonds, fetters, or physical restraint.

**low (a. and n.)** – other forms of this word in the English language are: *lah* (inflected *la_e*), *lah_h, laih, la_h, lagh*(*e*), *lohe, louh, lo_*(*e*), *loghe, lou_*(*e*), (*lowh, loew_*), *lough, low_e, lowe*, (*loe, lo*), *low*. Also Sc. and north.*lawe*, *lau*(*e*), *lauch*(*t*), *lawch*, *lawgh, lewche*, *leuch*(*e*),*leugh.*
Early ME.*lah*from ON. *lág-r* (Sw. *låg*, Da. *lav*) = OFris. *lêge*, *lêch*, MDu. *lage*, *laech*,*lege*, *leech* (Du. *laag*), MHG. *læge* flat (early and dial. mod.G. *läg*), OE. with different meaning **læ_e* in *læ_hrycg* (see lea a.):---OTeut. *lægio- from the root of *lie* v.1
As an adjective word low has 22 meanings, including special combinations and collocations, listed in OED. The earliest record of the word in OED as an adjective is from 1150: *þin hus_bið unheh and lah,_ðe hele-wa_es beoð la_e, sid-wa_es unhe_e* (Grave 17 in Thorpe Analecta (1834) 142). The word has the meaning of small upward extent or growth; not tall; little, short (now rarely of persons, though still commonly said of stature). As a noun and quasi.noun this word has five meanings. The earliest recording of the word used as a noun or quasi.noun is from 1175: *Adam ure forme feder þet alihte from hehe in to lahe* (Lamb. Hom. 79). Here the word is used in the sense of what is low, a low place, position, or area.

**mire (n.)** – forms: *myre, myr, myere, meore, mir, mure, muyre, myer, moyre, mier, mire*. Middle English word comes from Old Norse *mýr-r* fem. (mod.Icel. *mýri*, Sw. *myr*, Da. *myre*,

*myr*):---OTeut. **miuzjâ:*---**meuzjâ* f. **meus*- (cf. OE. *méos moss*, OHG. *mios*, MHG. *mies*), ablaut-var. of **mus*-: see moss. OED lists four meanings. The earliest quotes are from the fourteenth century; one of them is: *Now Kyng Hobbe in the mures _ongeth.*(Exec.Simon Fraser in Pol. Songs (Camden) 216). In this quote the word is used in the sense of a piece of wet, swampy ground; a boggy place in which one may be engulfed or stick fast; in generalized sense swampy ground, bog.

**score (n.)**–other forms of this word are: *scoru, scor, schore, skor, skore*, Sc. *scoyr, skowre, scoure, scoore*, Sc. *scower, skoir, scoare*, Sc. *scoir, score*.
In Late OE.scoru str. fem.from Old Norse skor str. fem., notch, tally, the number of twenty (cf. skora wk. fem., notch):---OTeut. type *skura, f. *skur-, wk. grade of *sker- to cut. There are twenty-one meanings listed in OED. The earliest written record of this word in OED is from 1290: Folke_bi manie scor to-gadere (S. Eng. Leg. I. 101/13 ). The word in this quote is used in the sense of a group or set of twenty.

**scrap (n.)** – other forms are:*scrappe, scrape, scrap*.
The word comes from Old Norse *skrap* scraps, trifles (Sw. *skrap*, Da. *skrab*), f. root of *skrapa* scrape v.
Six meanings of the word appear in OED. The earliest record of the word is from 1387: *_if I mi_te gadre som_what of þe crommes þat falleþ of lordes bordes._ And also _if I my_t gadre eny scrappes of þe releef of þe twelf cupes* (Trevisa Higden (Rolls) I. 15). In this quote word appears in the sense of remains of a meal, fragments (of food), broken meat.

**sister (n.)** – other forms of this word in English are: *sweostor, sweoster (swester, swæster, sw, su-, soester); swostor, -tur; swustor, -tur, -ter; swystor, -tar, -ter, swistor, -ter; suster (tir, -tyr), soster (zoster), sister (-terre, -tre, -tur), Sc. sistir (-tire, seister); scyster, syister, syster (-tre, -tur), systyr*, Sc. *-tir; cistir, -ter, cyster, -tire, -tyr.*
Common Teut.: OE. *sweoster, swuster*, etc. (see above), = OFris. *swester*, OS. *swestar* (LG. *swester*), OHG. *swester, swister* (G. *schwester*), Goth. *swistar*; forms without *w* appear in OFris. *suster, sister* (WFris. *sister, soster*, EFris. *süster*, NFris. *söster, sester*, etc.), MDu. and MLG. *suster* (Du. *zuster*, LG. *suster, süster*), ON. and Icel. *systir* (Norw. and Sw. *syster*, Da. *søster*). Of the three ME.types, *suster* and *soster* represent OE. forms with the *w* absorbed, while *sister* appears to be from Scandinavian. The Teut. stem **swestr*- stands for an original *swesr*-, and

has cognates in OSlav. and Russ. *sestra*, Lith. *sesu*, Skr. *svasa* (*svasr-*), L. *soror* (--**swesor*), OIr. *siur*, Welsh *chwair*.

The earliest text in which this word is attested dates back to 900: *Hæfde hine Penda adrifenne_forþon he his swostor [Laud MS. swustor] anforlet* (O.E. Chron. (Parker MS.) an. 658). In this quote the word is used in the sense of a female in relationship to another person or persons having the same parents. There are eleven meanings of the word recorded in OED.

**skill (n.)** – other forms of the word in English are: *skele, sckele, Sc. skeel; skile, skyle; skil, sckil, skyl (skylle), skyll, skill (skille), scule, scele, schele, schyle; schil, schyl, scill(e), scylle.*

The word comes from ON. *skil*, neut. (Icel. and Norw. *skil*, Sw. *skäl*, Da. *skjel*, *skel*) distinction, difference, etc., related to MLG. and MDu. *schele* (LG. *schele*, *schel*), MDu. and Du. *geschil*, *verschil*, LG. *schill*: cf. skill v.1

The great variety of usage in ME.often renders it difficult to assign particular examples to a definite sense.

There are nine meanings of the word in OED. The earliest quote in which the word is attested is from 1200: *_iff þu foll_hesst skill & shæd & witt i gode þæwess* (Ormin 1210). In this quote the word is used in the sense of a reason as a faculty of the mind; the power of discrimination.

**skin (n.)** – other forms of this word in Englis language are:*skinn, skyn (skiyn, sckyn), skynn, skynne, skinne, skine, skyne; schin(ne), scinne, scyn, scin.*

The word comes from Old Norse *skinn* (Icel., Norw., and Sw. *skinn*, Da. *skind*) neut., for earlier **skinþ*, related to OHG. *scindan* (MHG. *schinden*, *schinten*, G. *schinden*), MLG. *schinden*, *schinnen*, Du. *schinden* to flay, peel, etc. Cf. also G. dial. *schind*, *schinde* skin of fruit, obs. Flem. schinde bark, rind (Kilian). There are sixteen meanings of the word listed in OED. The earliest quote is from 1200: *Hiss girrdell wass off shepess skinn* (Ormin 3210). Here the word has the meaning of the integument of an animal stripped from the body, and usually dressed or tanned (with or without the hair), or intended for this purpose; a hide, pelt, or fur; also occas., an article made of this.

**skirt (n.)** – other forms of the word that have appeared in English: *skirte (-the, scirte), skirt (schirt, skeart); skyrte (-tte, scyrtte), skyrt; skurte, scurt; skort*.

The word comes from ON. *skyrta* (Icel. *skyrta*, Norw. *sjørte*, *sjorte*, *sjurte*; MSw. *skiurta*, *skiorta*, Sw. *skjorta*, Da. *skjorte*) shirt, = OE. *scyrte*: see shirt n. The development of the Eng.

sense is obscure, but the corresponding LG. *schört* has in some districts the sense of 'woman's gown'.

There are eleven meanings of the word listed in OED. The earliest quote in which the word skirt is attested is from 1300: *Sco lift hir skirt wit-vten scurn, And bar-fote wode sco þat burn* (Cursor M. 8963). In this quote the word is used in the sense of the lower part of a woman's dress or gown, covering the person from the waist downwards; also, esp. in modern use, a separate outer garment serving this purpose. In ME the meaning of the word was occasionally lap.

**sky (n.)**–other forms of this word in the English language are: *ski (scki, schi); skei, skey; skie, skye (schye), sky (pl. skyne)*. The word comes from ON. *ský* (Icel. *ský*, Norw., Sw., Da. *sky*) neut., cloud (:---original **skiuja*), directly related to OS. *skio* masc., OE. *scéo* (doubtful), and more remotely to OE. *scuwa*, ON. *skugge* shade, shadow.

In OED there are ten meanings of this word. The earliest recording of this word is from 1220: *Up he teð, til ðat he ðe heuene seð, ður_ skies sexe and seuene til he cumeð to heuene* (Bestiary 66). Here the word is used in the sense of a cloud.

**slaughter (n.)** – other forms of this word in the English language are:*slahter, -tir, sla-ter (-tter), slaghter (-tre, -tur); slauh-, slau-ter, slaughter (slawghtir,-ter); sclawtur, sclauter, sklaut(t)er; slawter, -tyr, slauther, slauter.* Sc. *slachtir (-tyr, -ter), slawchtir (-tyr, -ter), slauchtir (-tyr), slauchter (-tre).*

The word comes from early Old Norse **slahtr* neut. (ON. and Icel. *slátr* butcher-meat, Norw. dial. *slaater* cattle for killing), f. the stem **slah-*. There are ten meanings of this word listed in OED. The earliest quotes that contain this word are from 1300: *Als schepe of slaghter wend er we* (E.E. Psalter xliii); *If þe son be risen þan, It sal be slaghter telld o man* (Cursor M. 6752). In the first quote the word is used in the sense of killing the cattle, sheep, or other animals. In the second qoute the word has the meaning of the killing or slaying of a person; murder, homicide, esp. of a brutal kind.

**sly (a., adv., and n.)** – other forms in which this word has appeared in English are: *sleh, sle, slee, sle-e, slegh(e), scle, sclegh; sleyh, sleih; slei-h, slei-e, sleei, scley; sleigh(e), sleygh(e), sley, sleye, scley; Sc. sle, Sc. slee; slyh(e), sli, sli-e, sly-(e), slygh, slyghe, sligh; sli, sclie, slie; slye, sly.*

ME. *sley* is adaptation of ON. *slæg-r* (Icel. *slægur*, Norw.*sløg*; MSw. *slögh*, older Da. *sløff*) clever, cunning, originally able to strike, f. *slóg-* pret. stem of *slá* to strike. The later development into northern *slee*, midland and southern *sligh, sly*, is normal. The corresponding abstract noun is *sleight*.

As an adjective the word has eight meanings recorded in OED. The earliest quote in which this word is attested is from 1200: *Her wass wiss Filippe sleh & _æp & ha_herr hunnte* (Ormin 13498). Here the word is used in the sense of a person who is skilful, clever, dexterous, or expert in doing something; possesing practical skill or ability; skilled, knowing, wise. As an adverb word sly has the meaning of a sly, skilful, or cunning manner; slyly. As a noun this word has two meanings recorded in OED.

**snare (n.)** – other forms of the word in English are: *sneare, snare, snayr, snayre*, Sc. *snair, snarr, snar*.

In the sense that is listed under 1 a. (A device for capturing small wild animals or birds, usually consisting of a string with a running noose in which a foot or the head may be caught. Also in fig. context.)in OED the word comes from ON. *snara* (Icel. *snara*, Norw. *snara, snora, snuru*; MSw. and Sw. *snara*, Da. *snare*) noose, snare, = OHG. *snarahha* snare, and related to OHG. and MHG. *snar* (obs. or dial. G. *schnarre*), OS.*snari* (MLG. and LG. *snare*, *snar*), MDu.*snare*, *snaer* (Du. *snaar*), string. Sense 2 (a.One of the strings of gut, rawhide, or (more recently) wire, which are stretched across the lower head of a side-drum; b. ellipt.for snare-drum) is probably from the Du. or LG. forms. Three meanings of the word are listed in OED. The sense of a device for capturing small animals or birds usually consisting of a string with a running noose in which a foot or the head may be caught is seen in the qoute from 1100: *Tenticulam, .i. decipulam, þelman, snearan, wocie* (in Napier O.E. Glosses (1900) 26/2). That is the earliest recording of the word documented in OED.

**take (v.)** - Pa. tense *took*; pa. pple. *taken*. There are many forms of this verb, some of them are: 1) infinitive and present: *tacan (tæcen), taken, -yn; tac*, Sc. *tak, taake, taik(e)*, Sc. *tack; take*; 2) imperative: *tac*, Sc. *tak, take; pl. takez, -es, -is, takeþ, contr. ta, pl. tas (tatz);*. 2nd pers. sing.*takes, -is, -yst, takest*.contr. *tas, taas*; 3rd pers. sing.*tæcþ, takeþ, -eð, takith*, (arch.) *taketh; takes*, (Sc. *takis, tekis*), contr. *tas*(*tath*), Sc. *tais, tase, tace*.

Late OE.*tacan*, *tóc*, **tacen*, comes from ON. *taka*, *tók*, *tekinn* (OSw. *taka*, Sw. *taga*, Da. *tage*), to grasp, grip, seize, lay hold of, take, which appears c 1100, in late parts of the OE. Chron., first in MS. D, and then a 1150 also in E, and elsewhere, but may have been in use in the Dane-

law district after 1000. In ME.it gradually superseded the OE. *niman* (see nim v.), and has been, during the later ME. and the whole mod.Eng. period, the simplest and most direct word for the general notion expressed by Da. *tage*, Sw. *taga*, Ger. *nehmen*, Du. *nemen*, Fr. *prendre*, It. *prendere*, Sp., Pg. *tomar*, L. *capere*, *sumere*, Gr. *lambänein*, Russ. bratь, vzyat, Heb. laqa, etc. ON. *taka* was app. cognate with MDu. and mod.EFris.*taken* to lay hold of, grasp, seize, catch; it was also in ablaut-relation to Goth. *têkan*, *taitôk*, *têkans* to touch (with the hands, etc.). With the sense in Gothic cf. ON.*taka á*, late OE. *tacan* on to touch.

A. Illustration of Forms and Inflexions.

*Take* is, like *shake*, *forsake*, a strong vb. of the 6th ablaut series. In northern ME.the *k* and following short vowel in *take*, *takes*, *taken* were often suppressed, leaving the forms *ta*, *tas*, *tan*, of which *ta*, *tay*, survives in Eng. dialects, *tane* in Sc. and many Eng. dialects, *ta'en* in Eng. poets. The reduction of the pa.tense to *to* is obs., rare, and doubtful. A weak pa.tense *taked* occurs from 13th c., and is, with *tayed*, *teaed*, *tade*, still dialectal. For the pa.pple *taken*, the pa.tense*took* has been common since 16th c. in vulgar speech and in dialects, which have also *tooken*, *tooked*. In the pa.pple.,*ton*(*e*) for the northern tan(*e*) occasionally appears.

B. Signification.

The earliest known use of this verb in the Germanic languages was app. to express the physical action ‘to put the hand on, to touch’ the only known sense of Gothic *têkan*. By a natural advance, such as is seen in English in the use of ‘lay hands upon’, the sense passed to ‘lay hold upon, lay hold of, grip, grasp, seize' - the essential meaning of Old Norse *taka*, of MDu. *taken*, and of the material senses of *take* in English. By the subordination of the notion of the instruments, and even of the physical action, to that of the result, *take* becomes in its essence ‘to transfer to oneself by one's own action or volition (anything material or non-material)’. This becomes then the general or ordinary sense of the verb, which falls into two main divisions, *take* in the sense of ‘seize, grip’, hence ‘appropriate’, and *take* in the sense of ‘receive or accept what is handed to one'. Subordinate to these are the non-material senses of ‘assume, adopt, apprehend, comprehend, comprise, contain’. For the common element of all these notions *take* is the simple and proper term, for which no simpler can be substituted. It is one of the elemental words of the language, of which the only direct explanation is to show the thing or action to which they are applied.

Take also enters a great number of idiomatic phrases, which are often difficult to analyse. Many of these are parallel to, and influenced by French phrases with *prendre*: see F. H. Sykes, French Elements in ME., Oxford 1899.

General arrangement of senses: I. To touch. II. To seize, grip, catch. III. Ordinary current sense, i. with material obj.; ii. with non-material obj. IV. To choose, take for a purpose, into use. V. To derive, obtain from a source. VI. To receive, accept, admit, contain. VII. To apprehend mentally, comprehend. VIII. To undertake, perform, make. IX. To convey, conduct, deliver, apply or betake oneself, go. X. Idiomatic uses with special obj. XI. Intransitive uses with preposition. XII. Adverbial combinations = compound verbs. XIII. Idiomatic phrases, and Phrase-key. Under these thirteen senses, other senses are listed and in total, OED has 94 meanings of the word *take*. The earliest written record of the word in OED is from 1100. There are several quotes taken from the same text: *Ac se kyngc_ hine let syðan tacan*(O.E. Chron. an. 1076 (MS. D)); *He_tóc [MS. E nam] swilce _erihta swa he him _ela_ade* (O.E. Chron. (MS. D) an. 1075); *And [hi] tócon þær inne mycele æhta* (O.E. Chron. (MS. D) an. 1076); *kyng nam heora scypa & wæpna,_&þa menn ealle he toc, & dyde of heom þæt he wolde* (O.E. Chron. an. 1072 (MS. D)). First three quotes are used to ilustrate the form of the word. The fourth quote is listed under the sense 'to lay hand upon, get into one's hand by force or artifice; to seize, capture, esp. in war; to make prisoner; hence to get into one's power, to win by conquest (a fort, town or country)'. Also, to apprehend, to arrest; to seize, by legal process.

**thrift (n.)** - *þrift*(*e*), (*þruft, þreft, þref*), *þryft, thryft*(*e*)(*threft*), *thrifte* (*thryfft*).
f. *thrive* v. + *-t* suffix (economical management, economy; sparing use or careful expenditure of means; frugality, saving; euphemistically, parsimony, niggardliness (obs.)): cf. *drift, gift, rift, weft*, etc.; also ON. *þrift*, occasional synonym of *þrif* thriving condition, well-doing, prosperity, which may have reinforced the word in the north of England.
In the earliest quote recorded in OED, which dates back to 1305, the word meant the fact or condition of thriving or prospering; prosperity, success, good luck: *Sorewe him mote bifalle And liþer þrift vpon his heued* (St. James 70 in E.E.P. (1862) 59). In early use it sometimes meant fortune (good or bad); luck. There are four other meanings of the word recorded in OED. The earliest quote in which the word is used in the sense of economical management, economy; sparing use or careful expenditure of means; frugality, saving dates back to 1553: *As bodylye foode is never founde to bee so pleasaunte nor so goode As whan fretting hongre and thrift hathe pincht afore*(Respublica v. iii. 1343).

**trust (v.)**–other forms of this word in the English language are: *trusten*, (*trusty*), *truste*, *trust*; *troste*(*n*), (*trosti*).Pa. tense and pple.*trusted*, (*trust*).

Early ME.ad. ON. *treysta*, assimilated in ME. to trust, trost, a. and n. Cf. Sw. *tröst* comfort, *trösta* to comfort, console, Norw. *troøste sig til* to confide in; OS. *trôstan*, MLG. *trôsten*, Du. *troosten*, OHG. *trôsten*, Ger. *trösten* (with the sense to comfort (cf. L. fortis strong), cheer, encourage)

There are eight meanings of the verb *trust* listed in OED. The meaning that was implied in the earliest quote that contains the word is to have faith, confidence; to place reliance, to confide. The quote is from 1225: *þeo þ[e] ham makieð& alle þ[e] on ham trusteð [v.r. trusten]* (Leg. Kath. 503). The word as a noun has eight meanings recorded in OED.

**want (v.)** - other forms of this verb in English are:*wannte, wonti(e), wont(e), wante, wantt(e),* Sc. *vant, whante, waunt*.

It probably comes from ON. *vanta* wk. vb. impers. = MSwed. *vanta*, also *vantas* refl., Swed. dial. *vanta* to be wanting, Norw. (Aasen) *vanta* to be lacking, absent, also trans. to lack, Da. (Jutland dial.) *vante* trans. to lack. From Scandinavian also is prob. mod. NFris.*waant* to need, fail, lack, do without (pers. and impers.). ON. *vanta* perh. represents an earlier **wanaton* with a derivative -t suffix not connected with the neut. adj. ending seen in the n. There are six meanings of this word listed in OED. The earliest recording of the word is from 1225: *Hwonne ou ne wonteđ nowiht, Ţeonne ueineđ he mid ou* (Ancr. R. 194). In this quote the word means to be lacking or missing; not to exist; not to be forthcoming; to be deficient in quantity or degree.

Most of the words listed above entered the English language in the twelfth and thirteenth century. Etymologies of those words show the cognates in other Germanic languages. Some cognates are also found in the languages that do not belong to the Germanic group such as Latin, Greek, Russian, Lithuanian, etc. The roots of some of the words can be traced back not just to Old Norse, but also to their Proto-Germanic and PIE roots.

All the words of Scandinavian origin whose etymology is traced in the research are still used today in the English language, although some of them have been replaced with words derived from them. Such word is the word *hap* which is today replaced by the word *happen*. The majority of the words listed above is used very frequently in everyday-life activities and conversations (e. g. *flat, get, lift, sister, sky, take*), while others may be used less frequently (e. g. *crook, glitter, mire*). Nevertheless, all of them reflect the relationship of Scandinavian and English people during the settlement of Scandinavian peoples on the British ground.

Besides retaining the meanings that they had when they entered English, words of Scandinavian origin have also gained other meanings. They have been used to make phrases and constructions in the English language. Multiple meanings of the word *get* or *take* mark these words as the words that make the basic vocabulary of the English language.

Words of Scandinavian origin are today well incorporated into English and they are rarely recognized as foreign words. The reason for such integration is probably the fact that English and Scandinavian belong to the same, Germanic, group of Indo-European languages and thus have Proto-Germanic as their common ancestor.

## 5. Conclusion

Historical development of the English language is an interesting overview of the history of the English people and their culture. The English language reflects all the circumstances in which its speakers have lived, contacts that they have had with other peoples and cultures, as well as the nature of those contacts.

Scandinavian influence was one of the major influences on the English language. The contact between Scandinavian and English people was the contact of similar cultures and a common background. Their languages did not differ very much and the communication of the two peoples was thus facilitated. Both languages belong to the Germanic group of Indo-European languages. Beside the vocabulary, their influence is evident in syntax and morphology, which are rarely influenced by another language. When it comes to vocabulary that was adopted during the Scandinavian invasions on British Isles and during the establishment of the Danelaw in Britain, it shows that the relationship of English and Scandinavian language was the one in which both languages had the same status. Scandinavian language was not the language of a culturally superior nation, as it was the case with the contact between English and French, or English and Latin. Words that are adopted from Scandinavian language are the result of communication between the people of the same social class and same interests.

The majority of the words of Scandinavian origin that are listed in the research presented above entered English in the Early Middle English period (twelfth and thirteenth century). Those words today usually have the same meanings that they had when they were adopted into English. Many of them are frequently used and have a number of meanings that have been developed through centuries. They are also used in different phrases and constructions which proves that they have become the integral part of the English language and that they are not recognized as foreign words.

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