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Influence of Old Norse on the Lexicon of the English Language

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis “Influence of Old Norse on the Lexicon of the English Language” has been composed by me and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree, except where states otherwise by reference.

In Dolní Cerekev on 15th May 2021

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Abstract

This bachelor's thesis aims to explain the influence of Old Norse on the lexicon of the English Language during its development from Old English to Standard Modern English. With the aid of authoritative printed and online sources, this project will describe the historical background of the influence. It will also provide the reader with linguistic criteria for identifying Old Norse borrowings in the lexicon of the English language. The thesis also examines Old Norse influenced lexis in Old English and Middle English in a diachronic perspective. It also gives the reader a brief insight into Old Norse borrowings in Modern British Dialects and presents the etymological analysis of Old Norse derived expressions that survived in Modern English.

1.0. Introduction

The research of the influence of Old Norse on English lexis (and grammar) has been popular since the second half of the nineteenth century. (Friðriksdóttir, 2014, 3) The number of linguists that have dealt with this topic is immense and includes such renowned names as Albert E. Egge, Erik Björkman, Mary S. Serjeantson, George Tobias Flom, Walter William Skeat, John Geipel, William Burley Lockwood or Dieter Kastovsky, Richard Dance, Matthew Townend and Magdalena Bator, to list more recent ones.

The amount of books, articles, essays and theses regarding this topic is also of considerable size. However, these works and treatises mostly deal with a partial aspect of the problematics - whether it is an influence of Old Norse on British dialects or Modern Standard English, concise overviews of such an impact within bulky works on the history of the English language or linguistic analyses of the Old Norse influence in particular Old English or Middle English literary works.

The presented bachelor's thesis is based on the author's non-professional long-term interest in the history and culture of Scandinavia and the study of Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic and Faroese, (with the focus on the comparison of their lexis and syntax) and intense fondness for the English language in all its varieties. The need to explore and fathom the influence of Old Norse on English has resulted from these two lifelong passions of the author.

The project has been designed to combine a description of the historical outline of the Viking conquest of Britain, historical and social conditions leading to the Old Norse influence on English and an explanation of the phonological criteria of identifying Old Norse borrowings. It also presents the Old Norse influence on the English language from a diachronic perspective, compiling early Scandinavian loanwords from Old English to Modern Standard English. The outline of the Old Norse influence on Modern British dialects does not reflect the impact in its breadth and complexity and requires further examination.

1.1. Definitions

1.1.1. Lexicon

Lexicon ordinarily describes a book comprising a selection of a language's meanings and words, arranged alphabetically according to specific rules. The word *lexicon* itself is derived from the Greek expression *lexis*, simply meaning a „word“. Within linguistics is Lexicon used to label the total amount of meaningful units in a language, including words and idioms and also, for example, affixes. (Crystal, 2019, 128) The size of the English lexicon is undoubtedly considerable. The number of entries in Merriam Webster reaches 490,000. The Oxford English Dictionary runs to even a more significant score of 600,000 entries. (Crystal, 2019, 129)

1.1.2. Borrowing

According to Yule, borrowing is one of the most common sources of new words in English. (Yule, 2010, 60) The term „Borrowing“ refers to replicating a particular linguistic feature from a donor language into a receiving or borrowing language. Such words are usually referred to as loanwords. (Durkin, 2014, 3) When the donor language influences the borrowing language's lexis, the result is that the latter has a new word form or its meaning, or both, included in its lexicon. (Durkin, 2014, 8)

1.2. EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT

English belongs to the Germanic branch of Indo-European, more precisely into the West Germanic group. (Hogg, 2011, 15) The ancient predecessor of Modern English, seems to have separated from other Germanic dialects, together with North Germanic (Scandinavian languages) and Inland Germanic by the end of the fourth century. (Hogg, 2011, 15) The language spoken in Britain, although dialectically diverse, from the 5th century on to c. 1150 is labelled as Old English. (Durkin, 2014, 7) However, Hogg draws a more detailed line between *Prehistoric* or *Proto-OE* (up to c. 700), with no significant, textual material, *Standard* or *Classical OE* (about the last 100 years before the Norman conquest), connected with the emergence of *Schriftsprache*,

and finally *Late OE*. (Hogg, 2011, 15–16) The evolution of English is further divided into *Middle English* (c. 1150 - c.1500) and *Modern English* from c. 1500 onwards (usually subdivided into *Early Modern English*, up to c. 1750 and *Later Modern English*, from this dating on). (Durkin, 2014, 7)

Like immense numbers of other languages ever spoken in the world, English is not an unalloyed or undiluted substance. Since its infancy, English has been contaminated from the exterior by tongues of allies, patois of conquerors, vernaculars of trading partners or lingos of the subjugated nations. Owing to this fact, the English language has absorbed scores of lexical borrowings. Commonplace words like a *croissant*, *piano*, *yoghurt*, *sofa*, *pretzel* or *tattoo* are beyond all dispute copybook loanwords. (Yule, 2010, 54) Durkin names twenty-five prolific sources, so-called donor languages to have enriched English lexically throughout its history. (Durkin, 2014, 24). According to his analysis, Latin, French, or Greek has markedly outnumbered German, Italian, Spanish, Dutch and early Scandinavian. Such languages as Tamil, Zulu, Xhosa, or Polish are found at the opposite end of the scale, having had the negligible influence on the English language's lexical borrowing process. (see Durkin, p 25–27)

Languages show growth rings, like the rings of a tree (Hurford, 2014, 28), which means every single human language comprises archaic features as well as new ones. Some layers, regrettably, remain hidden under drifts of time. Celtic settlers did not leave any literary trace, apart from a few borrowings still preserved in Modern English like *crag* (deep valley), *carr* (rock), *brock* (badger) or *torr* (peak) (Crystal, 2019, 8). Williams lists words like *rice* (kingdom), *ambiht* (servant) or *dun* (hill), *bratt* (cloak), *bannuc* (a piece of cake), or *gafeluc* (a small spear) to be both pre-and post-Anglo-Saxon borrowings. (Williams, 1975, 54). We can also discover very few Celtic-based river names, chiefly in southern/eastern England, like *Thames*, *Avon*, *Exe*, *Usk*, *Wye*, or town names as *Dover*, *Eccles*, *Bray*, or *London* in the present-day English language corpus. Crystal, however, states that there cannot be more than 24 Celtic loan words altogether. (Crystal, 2019, 8) We should not overlook later borrowings from Irish, Scottish or Welsh, too. Among these words belong expressions like *shamrock*, *leprechaun*, *banshee*, *clan*, *bog*, *slogan*, *whiskey*, *gull* or *penguin*. (Williams, 1975, 55)

The second language that came into contact with idioms spoken in Britain and was to have a huge impact on the English language's lexis was Latin (Cannon, 1972, 51). No later than 100 BC

Rome turned its attention towards England (Ackroyd, 2012, 22) Regardless of earlier Julius Ceasar's raids in 55 and 54 BC, Latin had not had any substantial lexical effect on the development of English until Emperor Claudius had successfully conquered Britain in 43 AD. (Culpeper, 2009, 11) The earliest Latin loans are nouns - the names of concrete objects (Serjeantson, 1961, 15). About half of the borrowed words have something to do with plants, animals, food and drink, and household items: *pise* (pea), *plante* (plant), *win* (wine), *cyse* (cheese), *catte* (cat), *cetel* (kettle) or *candel* (candle). (Crystal, 2019, 8) Other words such as *weall* (wall), *ceaster* (city), *stræt* (street) or *wic* (camp) refer to buildings or settlements. (Crystal, 2019, 8)

The assertion that English does not originate in Britain may sound daring. However, the origin of English can be traced back to the languages of tribes that once populated north-west Germany. (Culpeper, 2009, 10) In the year 449, Vortigern invited Angles, Saxons and Jutes, led by brothers Hengist and Horsa to contain raiding pictures and the Scotti. (Bede, 2008, 27) "Then a pack of cubs burst forth from the lair of barbarian lioness, coming in three keels, as they call warships in their language", commented Gildas exasperatedly on their arrival. (Winterbottom, 1978, 26) Larger forces soon joined them, and after some time a dispute about their rations with their Celtic hosts led to sacking almost the whole island. (Stenton, 2001, 2) Representatives of these three tribes were certainly not the first Germanic people to arrive in Britain. As Wall puts it, for many generations, there had been thousands of German soldiers in the Roman army. (Wall, 2016, 14) These peoples had brought their own vision of the world, their gods and, of course, their vernaculars, which later gave rise to the formation of a language called Old English.

2.0. A HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF THE VIKING INVASION

2.1. Viking: The Definition

Although we can find the word "Wicings" five times in the Anglo-Saxon chronicle, mostly connected with a small group of looters, rather than in the meaning of armed forces (Richards, 2007, 11), the manuscript speaks of these intrepid warriors primarily as of Danes. Other common names referring to Scandinavia's raiders used by occupants of Britain were Dark Heathens, Dark Foreigners, Pirates, Pagans, Rus or Northmen. (Williams, 2018, 44) It is necessary to mention that the etymology of the word Viking is no less than problematic itself. Most modern academics

have rejected the ethnic dimension of the word. It means that not every inhabitant of Scandinavia would have been labelled as a Viking. It could have been a title for people coming from a bay because Old Norse word *Vik* means a creek or inlet or an area of *Vik*, an area around the Oslofjord. (Richards, 2007, 11). Williams comes with a remarkable note that the word *Vikingr* was in Old Norse poetry intended for labelling foes to Scandinavian kings, as well as domestic raiders. (Williams, 2018, 39) So the title can match best people who went *a-Viking* - on a seaborne, adventurous voyage, most probably to make a name for themselves, improve their position in the hierarchy of the group, or amass wealth. (Richards, 2007, 11)

2.2. Reasons for the Viking Raids

Both Alcuin (735–804), a Northumbrian monk acting as a scholar at Charlemagne's court, and Alfred the Great (848/49–899) regarded the Viking raids as a godly punishment. If we put away such an anachronical religious perspective, we may arrive at several remarkable coincidences that might have rendered Scandinavian pirates set out on a looting sea expeditions. Some historians and archaeologists have suggested that the main reason for plundering might have been a sharp increase in population in Scandinavia. (Hadley, 2006, 16) This rise is said to have caused a lack of land, and thus it might have been a cause for younger unmarried men and adventurers to seek new prospects for a better life outside their homeland. The reason for this risky venture or self-imposed exile might also have been a flight due to the growing, despotic power of kings ruling over Norway at the close of the eighth century (Richards, 2007, 23). Economic factors cannot be omitted, too. Long before the Viking raids, according to archaeological finds, there must have existed a considerable contact between Britain and Scandinavia (a trading route connecting the North Sea and the Baltic). Hadley also believes that those who could not benefit from the trade might have become Vikings. (Hadley, 2006, 18) According to Adams, Viking Age emerged from the clash of unstable networks within the Scandinavian society (Adams, 2020, 21)

2.3. Sporadic Plundering

"787 {787} Here Beorthric took King Offa's daughter Eadburh. And in his days came first 3 ships of Northmen from Hordaland. These were the first ships of the Danish men which sought out the land of the English race" (Swanton, 2000, 55). This historical record, extracted from The Petersborough Manuscript, seems to be the first written account of the British Isles' Viking

presence. These Northmen landed at Portland on the Dorset coast and presumably had not come with good intentions. These unannounced visitors killed the reeve Beaduheard and all his men instead of following him to explain their intents to king Beorthric. (Richards, 2007, 27) Six years later, the heathen men miserably devastated God's church in Lindisfarne, as we can read in the aforementioned manuscript again. (Swanton, 2000, 57). In year 794, Vikings struck again - plundering the monastery of Jarrow, once the home of the Venerable Bede. (Bartlett, 20007, 20) Similar attacks continued to occur in the following years, for example, a repeated sack of Iona at 795, 802 and 806 and looting Hartness and Tynemouth in 800. (Williams, 2018, 50) The sporadicness of these early raids might be seen as a side product of the Norse colonization of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides (Richards, 2007, 30).

2.4. The Great Heathen Army

Vikings or rather Danes resumed assailing England again in the second quarter of the ninth century. From the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle records in 835 and on, we can deduce that the Scandinavian invaders commenced making landfall on the British Isles on a much larger scale and more frequently. (Richards, 30) The heathen men or raiding ship-army advanced to beat and slaughter English kings and ealdormen at Cornwall (835), Portland (837), London and Rochester (839), Carhampton (840). (Swanton, 2000, 63–65) Naturally, the narrative of the Viking raiding is not just a story of a total English defeat. The English had succeeded in vanquishing Vikings in several encounters, e.g., as in the clash at the mouth of the Parret (845), the total defeat of pagan armies at Aclea (851) or in the battle of Winchester in 860. (Swanton, 2000, 67) A dramatic change in raiding polity was set in when the heathen army first wintered in Thanet (850) and then a year later in Sheppey. (Swanton, 2000, 65–67). However, the absolute turning point in the turn of events seems to have been the arrival of The Great Heathen Army to Britain in 865/6. From now on Vikings would systematically continue to seize most of England by sword and fire. From this moment on, we can undoubtedly talk about a genuine conquest.

As we can read in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, *Micel Here* or the Great heathen army promptly embarked on a pitiless mission. First, they raided Kent (865), overwintered in East Anglia (865), took the capital of Northumbria, York (866) and also Nottingham, lying at the heart of Mercia a year later. (Swanton, 2000, 69) The attacks on Wessex in the years 870, and 871 led to Alfred's buying the Vikings off, and their subsequent retreat to London. In the winter of 873, the

raiding-army aimed its attention to East Mercia.

The army of Vikings seemed to be unbeatable. However, the reversal of fortune was to happen in short. The significant landmark seems to have been the "The Twelfth-night" ambush of Alfred the Great at Chippenham. King Alfred luckily fled to the Somerset marshes, spent winter in Athelney where after being tracked down by Danes and assaulted again, he and Devon's men are said to have slain 800 Vikings and got hold of their famed and allegedly victory ensuring banner named "the Raven". (Wall, 2016, 120) The decisive blow was yet to take place. In 878, the army of Guthrum pitted his strength with Alfred the Great and men of Wiltshire, Hampshire and Dorset. They encountered at Ethandun (Eddington), and the result was unequivocal. Alfred achieved a significant victory, a real breakthrough of the events, as we can make it out of Asser's documenting the very battle: "He destroyed the Vikings with great slaughter." He then pursued the raiders back to their camp, besieged them for fourteen days until they, having been terrified by hunger, cold and fear finally surrendered to him. (Asser, 2004, 84–85) Guthrum's baptism in Aller and the subsequent Treaty of Wedmore (886) had drawn an entirely new Anglo-Scandinavian relations area. Boundaries of Danelaw were established and the English and the Danes, although not for long, started to live peacefully side by side. (Richards, 2007, 35)

2.5. Anglo-Scandinavian Society and the Politic Conquest

The Scandinavian marauders, originally troubling Russia, had turned their attention to the West again in the last two decades of the tenth century. Anglo-Saxon lacked a thoroughgoing policy to fight off the Vikings, which resulted in ransom money called Danegeld being paid to the looters. (Richards, 2007, 42) In this respect, The Peterborough Manuscript refers to the year 991, when the Vikings raided Ipswich and soon after the English lost the battle of Maldon. After these events, it was first decided that the tax should be paid to the Danish men. (Swanton, 2000, 127) The levy was adjusted to 10 thousand pounds of silver. According to Williams, the amount of protection money had risen more than fourfold by the year 1012. (Williams, 2018, 346)

Two formidable raiders, Olaf Trygvasson, a leader of the Viking campaign culminating at the battle of Maldon mentioned above, and Sweyn Forkbeard, a future English king bore down on London in 994 with 94 ships. (Bartlett, 2007, 42) London was fortunate and endured the raid thanks to Alfred's restoration of the Roman city walls and a large garrison, so the Vikings had to

look for somewhere else to loot. Three years later, the Viking pillaging continued in Devon, Cornwall, the Severn Estuary, North Wales, and a year later Vikings looted Dorset. Ethelred's command to unleash a pogrom on Danes living in the southern English towns on 13 November 1002 resulted in a furious Sweyn the Forkbeard's revenge. What ensued was the whole southern England's seizure, and the English throne passed to Sweyn. (Wall, 2018, 174, 178, 186) After Sweyn's sudden death in 1014, and a brief Ethelred interregnum, his son Edmund Ironside and Sweyn's son Cnut, later known as Cnut the Great, claimed the throne.

On 30 October 1016, Cnut had become king of entire England, and after that of Denmark, and Norway. (Bartlett, 2007, 158) Cnut the Great is said to have been sensitive to Anglo-Saxons and their traditions, yet he had asked for an astounding levy of 72,000 pounds and additional 10,500 pounds in silver to expedite his fleet's leaving off London, in the first year of his reign. (Wall, 2018, 194) England had been seized by Danes at last. On the other hand, Cnut's efforts to restore laws and just jurisdiction with his genuine Christianity had been a welcome change compared to the anarchy under Ethelred's long rule. (Wall, 2018, 195) Regrettably, his two sons and successors to the throne, Harold Harefoot and his half-brother Harthacnut, reversed to their heathen forebears' barbarity and mercilessness. (Wall, 2018, 196).

On Harthacnut's unexpected death in 1042, the throne passed to his half-brother Edward the Confessor. (Wall, 2018, 197) Unluckily, his devout character did not forestall a rising tension with a dominating Godwin's family governing Wessex. (Wall, 2018, 200) In 1052, Godwin of Wessex returned together with his son Harold, a soon-to-be king and rendered Edward to capitulate and become a puppet king. Edward died on 5 January 1066. The Anglo-Saxon times were to be over shortly. Harold Godwinson, a quondam earl of Wessex, was acclaimed a king just a day after Edward's funeral. (Wall, 2018, 204) He was the one to defeat Harold Hardrada at Stamford Bridge on 25 September 1066, yet to fall victim to William the Conqueror's troops in the momentous Battle of Hastings on 14 October 1066. (Morgan, 2010, 118) On Harold Godwinson's death, three hundred years of the Viking raids and conquest were over. (Wall, 2018, 217)

3.0. THE INFLUENCE OF OLD NORSE ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

3.1. Peoples and Languages in Contact - Danelaw

Three hundred years is a sufficiently long time for languages in contact to influence one another's lexicon or even grammar or undergo a process of creolisation so that a new mixed language is born. We must be mindful that Vikings did not colonise inhabited areas. Norwegians mostly had settled in the north-west of Britain. In contrast, Danes had inhabited regions of East Anglia, the areas of Five Boroughs (Leicester, Lincoln, Nottingham, Stamford, Derby) (Swanton, 2000, 110), and the Yorkshire's territory. (Bator, 2010, 28) The Scandinavian element's significant presence in the area can be inferred from some 1400 place names of the Norse origin and distinctive features of the manorial organisation, local government or legal procedure, for example, from a list of wergilds from the kingdom of York, which was a list of penalties imposed on those who broke the peace of the church. (Stenton, 2001, 508)

The amalgamation itself was boosted because the Scandinavians and the Anglo-Saxons had lived side-by-side for several hundred years. What also contributed to this status quo was the Vikings' high adaptability, as we can see, for example, in their acceptance of the Wessex dynasty as the ruling power and their relatively swift conversion to Christianity. (Bator, 2010, 28) Naturally, the ethnic melange of Anglo-Saxons and Vikings had not always treated one another genially but co-habited quite peacefully most of the time side by side. (Baugh, Cable, 2002, 86) Both English and Danish kings attempted to rectify relations between the two peoples until Cnut had acceded to the throne and fully politically united the area of Danelaw in 1016, but regrettably not for good. (Strang, 1970, 282) This "communicative community" was, according to Bator, the main breeding ground for social and linguistic interaction and subsequent lexical and grammatical influence of Old Norse on the English language. (Bator, 2010, 28) According to Björkman, the loanwords' main bulk was introduced into English when Scandinavian settlers gave up their original tongue and nationality and the process resulted in the amalgamation of both Old Norse and Old English. It probably took place in the 11th century. However, this process seems not to have been completed in some areas of England until the 12th century. (Björkman, 1900, 22)

3.2. Old Norse

The linguistic term Old Norse, sometimes referred to as Old Scandinavian, has reflected various approaches towards defining a language spoken from about the 7th to 15th century in Scandinavia. Old Norse can be viewed as the language used in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Iceland, and Scandinavian colonies in the Viking Age (c. 750–1050) and the early and high Middle Ages (c. 1050–1350). On the other hand, some linguistic scientists have demarcated Old Norse's use strictly to Norway's area during the Middle Ages. (Barnes, 2008, 1) The third attitude has specified Old Norse as the language of Norway (c.750–1350) and Iceland from the first settlements (c. 870) to the Reformation (1550) - labelled as norræna in Iceland, norrønt in Norway and sometimes also as Old West Norse. (Barnes, 2008, 1). It is relevant to point out that this thesis is based mostly on sources referring to Old Norse as a linguistic concept to designate it as the language spoken by Scandinavians in the Viking Age, which means the project will employ the term, interchangeably with Old Scandinavian and with the identical sense, in such rigorously defined meaning.

3.3. Mutual Intelligibility of Old Norse and Old English

The major problem of comparing Old English and Old Norse emerges when we attempt to study their lexis and grammar in the synchronic approach. Even though both languages belong to the same language family, this comparative method encounters a sticking point. We cannot lean on any temporary Old Norse literary sources going back to the Viking raids era. The earliest manuscripts are dated to c. 1150, although the majority of them emerged from the thirteenth and fourteenth century on and in Iceland even later. However, these sources are considered rather Icelandic or Norwegian than Old Norse. As Barnes points out, before 1150, we are merely dependent on runic inscriptions, pieces, and verses recorded in foreign languages and medieval manuscripts, which disables us from collecting and further analysing an adequate corpus of linguistic data. (Barnes, 2008, 2)

Before we give the reader insight into the example of an Old English and Old Norse text of The Lord's Prayer, it is crucial to pose a question in the same way as Professor Townend did: "Did the Anglo-Saxon learn to speak Old Norse or was it the other way round?" or "Did the speakers enjoy sufficient mutual intelligibility while speaking their own language?" (Townend, 2008, 21)

At this point, we are talking about a phenomenon called "languages in contact." The melting point of this amalgamation of Scandinavian and English dialects, sometimes called Sprachmischung, fusion or intimate mingling, was Danelaw. (Hogg, 2005, 327) Such a close connection has always initiated or quickened restructuring tendencies within a language, which also happened to Old English during its gradual transition to Middle English. Danelaw, especially Northumbria, was such a progressive part of land spreading linguistic changes into the rest of the country. Unfortunately, we are short of direct evidence while trying to map linguistic situation in Danelaw from 900-1200. (Hogg, 2005, 327)

Skeat asserts the difference between languages of Angles and the invading Northmen must have been negligible, citing the Saga of Gunnlaugr Ormstunga that "there was at that time (in the eleventh century) the same tongue as in England as in Norway and Denmark." (Skeat, 1887, 455) Björkman deduces likewise, claiming that the difference between the Old English and Old Norse vocabulary must have been subtle, making the two languages' mixing easier. (Björkman, 1902, 8) Strang claims that there must have existed unquestionable mutual intelligibility because both Old Norse and OE dialects belong to the same German language family. On the other hand, Baugh and Cable observe that Anglian and Scandinavian may have been mutually intelligible to a limited extent. Finally, Hansen is wholly sceptical in this matter, excluding the possibility of Old Norse and Old English being interintelligible. Kastovsky also adds that the probability lowers because of morphological and syntactical differences in the mentioned languages, which means that the only vehicle of the linguistic influence must have been bilingualism. (Hogg, 2005, 327–329)

3.3.1. The Lord's Prayer in Old English and Old Norse

Due to the limited space of this project, the author has decided to illustrate similarities or differences between Old English and Old Norse by presenting a short text, The Lord's Prayer. The Old English text will be represented by West Saxon dialect (Crystal, 2004, 45-46), whereas the Old Norse variation belongs to Old West Norse (Russell, Cohn, 2012, 8).

The Lord's Prayer (Old English)

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum

Si þin nama gehalgod

The Lord's Prayer (Old Norse)

Faþer vár es ert í himenríki

Verði nafn þitt hæilagt

To becume þin rice, gewurþe ðin willa	Til kome ríke þitt, værdi vili þin
On eorðan swa swa on heofonum	Sva i iarðu sem í himnum
Urne gedæghwamclican hlaf syle us to dæg	Gef oss í dag brauð vort dagligt
Forgyf us ure gyltas	Ok fyr gefðu oss synþer órar
Swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum	Sem vér fyr gefom þeim er við oss hafa misgert
Ne gelæd þu us on costnunge	Leiðd oss eigi í freistni
Ac alys us of yfele. Amen	Heldr leys þv oss frá ollu illu. Amen.

3.4. Identification of Scandinavian Borrowings

The vocabulary of English indicates substantial Scandinavian influence. However, when it comes to an individual word's history, we have to deal with probabilities rather than certainties of its real origin. In some instances, it is not sure if any influence occurred at all. By contrast, some words bear the appreciable Old Norse influence, yet we are not confident about the mechanism of how they became English borrowings. (Durkin, 2014, 190) Björkman claims that apart from the standard phonological criteria, there must exist another method to assess how originally Scandinavian words became English ones. He asserts that if we cannot find a particular word in the English vocabulary before the Danelaw times, it is probably a borrowing.

On the other hand, Björkman states that the two vocabularies were identical to a very great extent, so these words in question might have been a part of the native English lexicon but, for some reason, only remained unrecorded in literary sources at that time. (Björkman, 1902, 193) However, Björkman also adds that if a word doesn't bear a clear pattern of the English sound law system and whose origin can be considered or assumed as Scandinavian, we can regard it as a Scandinavian loanword. (Björkman, 1902, 30) Durkin suggests that distinct evidence of the early Scandinavian influence on the English vocabulary can be inferred from cases when either cognates existed in both languages or when a word form appears in later English, which developed from one of the two languages. Thirdly, he assumes that formal criteria indicate that the borrowing from early Scandinavian word could have constituted the later word form in English, whereas the Old English predecessor could not have. Finally, the nonexistence of the preceding variant in Old English, which could explain the later form, points to the Scandinavian

influence's high possibility. (Durkin, 2014, 191) However, Durkin advises us against succumbing to the impression that all words, assessed mainly by the phonological criteria, showing the Scandinavian influence must have necessarily been straightforward loanwords. He explains this doubtful situation by the possibility of displacement of a native cognate by the Scandinavian word within a specific bilingual community-Danelaw. (Durkin, 2014, 192)

As far as the phonological criteria are concerned, they provide us with the more solid ground when assessing possible Scandinavian influence. Thus this project will enable a reader to explore these criteria to assess a possible loanword for situations where English and Scandinavian cognates co-existed, competed or replaced each other, and situations where no English cognates were found.

3.4.1. Non-existence of /sk/ > /f/ in Old Norse

Levelling of dental sibilant S and velar voiceless stop K > /sk/ to voiceless palato-alveolar fricative/f/ in Old English most probably took place in the language's early history. The earliest forms of Old Norse or Scandinavian, however, lack such a sound change. (Hogg, 2005, 108) Thus, there is good reason to regard words with /sk/ in the initial position or medial position followed by a front vowel as in SCATHE or SKY as possible Old Norse borrowings. (Durkin, 2014, 192) The bilingual climate of Danelaw rendered the situation where both English and Scandinavian doublets existed side by side for some time (Hogg, 2005 108). For example, an Old English word SCYRTA, where the initial consonant blend was palatalised and later became SHIRT, was used alongside Old Norse SKYRTA whose initial sound remained unchanged and became English word SKIRT later. (Durkin, 2014, 191)

3.4.2. Non-existence of /k/ > /tʃ/ in Old Norse

Non-existence of palatalization of k/>/tʃ/ suggests that Old Norse might have influenced such a word, or it is a direct Scandinavian borrowing. (Durkin, 2014, 194) However, Durkin remarks that the absence of /k/>/tʃ/ in these words might also point to possible poor documentation of failure of such a change in northern dialects of Old English. (Durkin, 2014, 194) Thus, for example, the word KETTLE, originally a loanword from Latin, in both Old English and Old Norse, may indicate a borrowing the form from the latter because the Old English variant Cītel or Ċetel was palatalized. Of course, it is also possible that this native word was only reshaped

after its Old Norse cognate. (Durkin, 2014, 194) Similarly, the Scottish word KIRK, besides native CHURCH, shows either Scandinavian borrowing or influence. (Durkin, 2014 194)

3.4.3. Non-existence of /g/ > /j/ and /gg/ > /ddʒ/ in Old Norse

Similarly, the absence of palatalization of /g/ > /j/ before a front vowel is a signal of the Old Norse influence, for example, as we can observe from the modern pronunciation of the verbs GET and GIVE, whereas the Old English variants *Ġietan* and *Ġiefan* remained palatalized. (Durkin, 2014, 195) Such a stated principle can also be applied to expressions like GEAR, GIFT, probably GUILD and perhaps GUEST, even though it is a more complicated case. (Durkin, 2014, 195) The only word showing clear evidence of the Scandinavian influence, apart from possible alternations such as northern RIG or southern RIDGE, or northern BRIG or southern BRIDGE, seems to be the verb TO EGG (ON). (Durkin, 2014, 195) We also have to bear in mind that a Scandinavian word can be slightly dissimilar in meaning than its English cognate, so sometimes it is probable that what happened was a borrowing of the meaning rather than the borrowing of the word itself. (Serjeantson, 1961, 63)

3.4.4. Absence of Old English development of Germanic *ai > ā

Germanic *ai developed in Old English to *ā* or *æ* as can be seen in the transition from Germanic *haisiz (command) to Old English *hæs*, or as in *dailiz > *dæl* (portion) or *laizijana > *læran* (teach) (Fulk, 64). However, in Old Norse, the diphthong *ai remains the same and is realized as *ai* or *ei* in later Middle English borrowings (Ringe, 2006, 88; Durkin, 2014, 196) So, the verb TO BAIT and the noun BAIT come from Old Norse, not from the Old English cognate *bætan* (<from Germanic *baitjan). (Durkin, 2014, 196) Likewise, words like HAIL (healthy) – borrowed from Old Norse *Heill*; regional word "LAIK" (game) borrowed from Old Norse *Leikr*; SWAIN (farmhand, shepherd, lover – see the Oxford D., 891) borrowed from Old Norse *Sveinn*; NAY borrowed from Old Norse *Nei*, or the verb RAISE, borrowed from the Old Norse form *Reisa* belong to the same group. (Durkin, 2014, 196) Durkin suggests that words BLEAK (from Old Norse *Bleikr*), WEAK (from Old Norse *Veikr*), and STEAK (from Old Norse *Steik*) fall into the same category of borrowings. The difference in the modern pronunciation of STEAK from the preceding ones stems from variation in the early modern period. The original vowel in these borrowings in Middle English was *ē*. (Durkin, 2014, 197)

3.4.5. The Shift of Germanic *au > ēa in Old English

Old Norse diphthong AU corresponds with its earlier variant in Germanic *Au. This diphthong is realized as Au, Ou or Ū in Middle English borrowings. The word WINDOW thus indicates a borrowing from Old Norse (from early Scandinavian Vindauga). The conjunction THOUGH reflects Old Norse form's borrowing, where the diphthong Au was monophthongized before the voiceless glottal fricative H. The adjective LOOSE (compare the Old Norse Lauss) shows a similar mechanism of borrowing. (Durkin, 2014, 197)

3.4.6. The Shift of *jj > gg in Old Norse

The Verschärfung or, in the older term Holtzmann's law was most likely responsible for developing a distinct Scandinavian form of EGG, instead of Old English palatalized *æġ* and its incorporation in English vocabulary. (Durkin, 2014, 197) In West Germanic, the glides' gemination occurred. The first part of the lengthened sound became vocalized, giving rise to a diphthong with the preceding short vowel. Hence, Proto-Germanic *ajja became *æġ* in Old English. In contrast, thanks to occlusion and gemination in the other Germanic branches, the change gives rise to -ggj- and -ggw-, resulting in Old Norse egg. (Askedal, 2015, 204) Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology dates EGG's appearance in English vocabulary to the 14th century when it superseded Middle English variant EY. (see the Oxford D., 303) Durkin places the first mention of the word in Middle English Dictionary from 1366 onwards. (Durkin, 2014, 197)

3.4.7. The Shift of *iu > y in Old Norse

The change of the Germanic diphthong *IU to front vowel y in Old Norse strongly indicates that the word SISTER is borrowing from early Scandinavian. Middle English forms *soster* or *suster* are probably only developments from the Old English cognate *sweostor* or *swuster*. (Durkin, 2014, 198) The word was first recorded in East Anglian and northern texts in the 13th century, and it probably had superseded native cognates by that time. (see the Oxford D., 830)

3.4.8. Loss of Final Nasals in Old Norse

Modern English phrase TO AND FRO, reflecting northern Middle English *frā* and southern

Middle English *frō*, shows a probable Scandinavian borrowing through an early loss of final nasals, which occurred in Old Norse. On the other hand, the Old English cognate *fram* where no loss of final nasal occurred gave rise to modern English preposition *FROM*. (Durkin, 2014, 198).

4.0. EARLY BORROWINGS

„An Englishman cannot *thrive* or be *ill* or *die* without Scandinavian words; they are to the language what *bread* and *eggs* are to the daily fare.“ (Jespersen, 1912, 80) This famous Jespersen's quotation might be tempting to assume that Old Norse profoundly influenced the English language's lexicon. However, assessing the expressions *thrive*, *ill*, *die*, or *bread*, mentioned earlier, guides us to somewhat shaky linguistical grounds. (For further details see Askedal 205–206). In Old English, up to ca 1100, can be found ca 150 loanwords referring to types of ships, legal institutions, money, warfare etc (Hogg, 2005, 320–321) The primary source of these words is Anglo-Saxon Chronicle and The Laws; some of them come from vocabularies and a few from Northumbrian texts as the Lindisfarne and Rushworth Gospels and the Durham Ritual. (Serejeantson, 1961, 64) The following list of the loanwords will merge Serejeantson's and Kastovsky's classification of this period's borrowings.

4.1. THE FIRST PERIOD (up to 1016)¹

Types of ships / Seafaring terms

Serejeantson lists the following words:

Barð – barque (< ON *Barð* = armed prow, stem); **Barða, Barda** – beaked ship (< ON *Barði* = kind of ship, ram); **Cnearr** – small ship (< ON *Knorr* = ship, merchant ship); **Flæge, Flege, Floege** – little ship (< ON *Fløy, Fley* = little ship); **Scegð, Scæd** – light ship, vessel (< ON *Skeið* = a kind of warship from the *langskip* class)

Persons / Legal terms

Bond, Bōnda, Hūsbonda, Husbonda – householder, husbandman (< ON *Bóndi, Búandi* =

¹ See Serejeantson (64 – 74) and (Hogg, 333 – 335).

husbandsman); **Dreng** – warrior (< ON Drengr = warrior); **Feolaga** – fellow, colleague (< ON Félagi = comrade); **Hold** – a title „vassal“ (< ON Holdr = owner of allodial land); **Liesing** – freedman (< ON Leysingr, with approximation to Old English Līesan „to set free“); **Niðing**, **Niþing** – villain (< ON Niðingr = villain); **Ðír** – maid-servant (< ON Þír = serf, slave); **Ðræl**, **Þræll** – slave (< ON Þræll - slave); **Útlaga**, **Utlaga** – outlaw (< On Útlagr = outlawed)

Other Social Terms

Brýd-hlōp, **Brydhlop** – bridal, wedding (< ON Brúð-hlaup = wedding); **Bý*** – dwelling (< ON = Býr = farm); **Cann** – cognizance (< ON Kanna); **Grip**, **Grið** – truce (< ON Grið); **Husting** – tribunal, court, assembly (< ON Húsping = meeting called by a king or earl); **Lagu** – law (< ON Lög = law); **Öran**, **Ora** – Danish coin, legal tender (< ON Aurar); **Marc** – half a pound (< ON Marc or Mork); **Targe** – small shield (< ON Targa = small round shield); **Wæpen-tæc**, **Wæpengetæc** – Wapentake, an administrative district (< ON Vápna-tak); **Wrang** – wrong (< ON Vrangr = wrong, unjust)

Miscellaneous

Ceallian* - to call (< ON Kalla = to call); **Efne** – material (< ON Efni); **Farnian** – to prosper (< ON Farnask); **Sparrian** – to bar (< ON Sparra); **Ðweng**, **Þweng** – band (< ON Þvengr = thong); **Sang** – bed (< ON Sæng); **Eggian**, **Geegian** – egg on, incite (< ON Eggia = egg on); **Eorcnan-stān** – precious stone (< ON Jarkna-steinn)

4.2. THE SECOND PERIOD (1016–1150)

Commonplace Objects

Cniþ – knife (< ON Knīfr = knife); **Scinn** – skin (< ON Skinn = skin, hide); **Grā-scinnen** – of grey skin (< ON Grá-skinn); **Rōt** – root (< ON Rót = root); **Snearu** – snare (< ON Snara = a trap, snare); **Lit** – colour, dye (< ON Litr = colour); **Loft** – air (< ON Lopt = air); **Læst** – fault, sin (< ON Lostr = fault, misbehaviour)

Seafaring Terms

Ha – oar-thole (< ON Hár = thole); **Hamele** – rowlock (< ON Hamla = oarloop); **Wrang(a)** – hold of a ship (< ON Vrong = rib in a ship); **Hæfen**, **Hæfene** – haven, port (< ON Hōn = port);

Hā-sæta, Hasæta – oarsman, rower (< ON Háseti = rower); **Lið, Lip** – fleet (< ON Lið = host, fleet); **Liðsmann, Lipsmann** – follower, sailor (< ON Liðsmadr = follower, warrior)

Persons / Legal Terms

Carl = man (< ON Karl = man, husband); **Bütse-carl, Butsecarl** – sailor, boatsman (< ON Búza = boat; Karl = man); **Hūscarl** – a household warrior (< ON Hūskarl); **Hofding** – chief, leader (< ON Hofþingi = leader, ringleader); **Sweġen** – man (< ON Sveinn = man); **Fylcian** – to arrange (< ON Fylkja); **Gærsume, Gærsum** – treasure (< ON Gersemi, Gørsum = costly thing, jewel); **Māl** – suit, case; terms, pay (< ON Māl); **Sala** – sale (< ON Sala = sale)

Verbs

Diegan* - die (< ON Deyja = die); **Tacan** – take (< ON Taka); **Hittan** – hit (< ON Hitta)

Adjectives

(Ġe)crōcod – crooked; **Ragg(iġ), Ræggig** – rough, shaggy (< ON Raggigr); **Witter** – wise (< ON Vitr)

Measures and Coins

Manslot – portion of land allotted to the head of a family (< ON Manns-hlutr); **Sceppe** – measure of wheat and malt (< ON Skef = bushel); **Scoru** – score (< ON Skor = score)

War Terms

Orrest – battle (< ON Orrosta = battle); **Tapor-æx, Taparæx** – small axe (< ON Tapar-øx, Taparøx = small tapering axe; a probably first Slavic borrowing in English, transmitted by the Vikings)

Kastovsky also adds the following Old Norse loanwords fitting into the categories mentioned above, yet without exact dating of their Old English lexicon appearance. So, these words are excluded from Serejantson's scheme and listed here as follows. (Hogg, 333 – 335)

Seafaring Terms

Snacc – small vessel (< ON Snekkja = swift sailing ship); **Æsc** – warship; ash (< ON Askr – ash;

small ship, barque); **Lænding** – landing site (< ON Lending); **Healdan** – to proceed, steer (< ON Halda skipi = to hold a certain direction); **Wederfæst** – weatherbound (< ON Veðrfastr = weatherbound); **Steor(es)mann** – pilot (< ON Stýrismaðr = steersman); **Æchere** – Viking army; **Æscman** – Viking, pirate; **Scegðmann** – Viking.

Legal Terms

Formæl / Formal – negotiation, treaty (< ON Formáli = preamble); **Friðmal** – article of peace (< ON Friðmál = words of peace); **Lahbreca** – law-breaker and **Lahbryce** – breach of the law (< ON Logbrót = breach of the law); **Lahmenn** – law-man (< ON Løgmenn = a men who have knowledge of law); **Lahriht** – legal right (< ON Logrétr = legal personal right); **Lahwita** – lawyer; **Sac** – guilty (< Sekr = guilty); **Sacleas** – innocent (< ON Sak-lauss = not guilty); **Unsac** – innocent (< ON Ósekr = innocent); **Sehtan, Sehtian** – conciliate, settle, **Seht** – settlement (< ON Sætt); **Utlagian** – to banish, **Utlah** – outlawed (< ON Útlagr = outlawed); **Unlagu** – abuse of law (< ON Ólög = violation of law); **Mund** – money paid by bridegroom to bride's father, **Cwiddian** – to make a claim against, **Stefn** – summons, **Stefnian** – to summon; **Drincelean** – entertainment given by the lord to his tenants (< ON Drekkulaun = gratification of the king); **Landceap, Landcop** – fine paid to the lord on the alienation of the land (< ON Landkaup = purchase of the land); **Festermenn** – bondsmen (< ON festarmaðr = betrothed man).

War Terms

Brynige – mail-shirt (< ON Brynja); **Fesian, Fysian** – put to flight, banish (< ON Brynja); **Genge** – troop (< ON Gengi); **Rædan On** – attack (< ON Ráða = attack); **Heafodmann, Heafdesmann** – captain (< ON Hofuðsmadr = captain, leader)

Measures and Coins

Oxangag, Oxnagang – eighth of a plough-land, hide (< ON Oxnagang); **Ploh, Plogesland** – land-measure = what a yoke of oxen can plough in a day; **Ðrefe** – measure of corn or fodder (< ON Þrefi = measure).

Nouns

Becc – brook, beck (< ON Bekkr = brook); **Mæl** – speech (< ON Mál = faculty of speech);

Þriðing – third part of a county (< ON Þridjungr = third part); **Wæð** – ford (< ON Vað); **Rædesmann** – counsellor, steward (< ON Ræðismaðr = manager, steward).

Adjectives

Dearf – bold; **Dearflic** – bold, presumptuous and the derivate **Dearfscipe** – boldness, presumption (< ON Diarfr); **Fere** – fit for military service; **Unfere** – unfit, disabled (< ON Færr = able, capable, fit); **Stor** – strong, great (< ON Storr = big, great, important); **Goldwrecen** – covered with gold (< ON Gullrekinn = gilded or inlaid in gold).

Verbs

Farnian – proper (< ON Farnask = speed well); **Serðan** – rape, lie with (< ON Serða = violate).

Kastovsky also includes six questionable words into his list of the early Old Norse borrowings. The study casts doubt upon actual Scandinavian influence on the words (a few of which have been marked by asterisk * in the previous text) *Bý*, *Ceallian*, *Diegan/Degan*, *Scipere* and *Sumorlida* (for more info see Hogg, 2005, 335-336).

5.0. LATER BORROWINGS

Compared to the number of Old Norse borrowings in Old English, which is approximately 150, the number of loanwords increases to several thousand words in Middle English. (Hogg, 2005, 320) Middle English Compendium states 1437 words of Old Norse origin (Middle English Compendium, 2021) – there are 738 nouns, 408 verbs, 170 adjectives, 61 adverbs, 14 participles, 9 times gerund, 9 suffixes, 8 prepositions, 7 prefixes, etc.

The main reason for the delayed emergence of Scandinavian influence on English syntax and lexis is the lack of early written resources. Only few words make their appearance one hundred and fifty years after the Norman Conquest. Even areas heavily settled with Scandinavians show scarcity of Scandinavian influence – see, for example, *Ormulum* with only 120 loans in 20,000 lines of the text. The main reason for this situation might be that Old Norse was never a literary language in Anglo-Saxon times. As Burnley points out, "Contact between the two languages took place in the spoken mode, and largely with reference to questions of immediate interest only to the local community." He also claims that West Saxon *Schriftsprache* as administrative language

and perception of the Scandinavian-derived forms as a non-literary register vocabulary might have postponed Old Norse's borrowings appearance in the literary sources, too. However, English Dialect Dictionary, issued in the 19th century, contains more than 1150 expressions beginning with /Sk/, and perhaps a half originates in Old Norse. (Blake, 2006, 418–419) So, it took several hundred years for Old Norse derived words to make it to the English lexicon, as we can see.

The following insight into the appearance of Old Norse loanwords in Middle English is based exclusively on Serjeantson's work. Serjeantson based her research on various literary sources coming under the period of Middle English. They include manuscripts, legends, proverbs, sermons and poems. The number of Scandinavian borrowings in her work is extensive, so terms that had already appeared in Old English and are also part of Middle English's lexis will not be listed in this part. The expressions listed below their Middle English literary sources occurs only in Middle English, not in Old English.

The Peterborough Manuscript (12th Century)

Serjeantson lists just five words found in TPM, one of which seems to be etymologically problematic: **Baðe** (both; ON *bāðir*), **Brennen** (burn; ON *brenna*), **Hærnes** (brain; ON *hiarni*), **Till** and **Scaterian** (scatter). The verb "scatter" poses a problem. Despite the initial /sk/ sound, which might refer to the Scandinavian origin, the etymological identity is somewhat obscure. According to OED the Old English verb **sc(e)aterian* might have constituted both verbs scatter and shatter, even though „scatter“ is predominantly found in the Northern texts. Meanwhile, in the Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, we come across the information that "scatter" probably originated from "shatter", with /SK/ substituted for /f/ under the Scandinavian influence. (ODEE, 795)

Hymns of Saint Godric (about 1170)

Serjeantson mentions only one word, in this work, which is **burth** (birth; ON *burðr*).

Legends of St. Katherine; St. Margaret and St. Juliana (12th Century)

Bond (bond; ON *band*), **Bōn** (prayer, boon; ON *bōn*), **Bule** (bull, ON *bule* – already found in a place-element in OE), **Crōk** (crook, evil device; ON *krókr*), **Gapen** (gaze, Old East Scandinavian

gapa), **Casten** (cast, ON *kasta*), **Lān** (loan, reward; ON *lán*), **Mēoc** (meek; ON *mjúkr*), **Wanten** (want; ON *vanta*), **Grā** (grey, unfriendly, hostile; ON *grár*), **Greipen** (to prepare; ON *greiða*), **Hap** (luck, success; ON *happ*), **Keiser** (emperor; ON *keisari*), **Liðen** (listen; ON *hlýða*), **Līre** (face, skin; ON *hlýr*), **Mensk** (grace, honour, dignity; Old Swedish *mænška*), **Nowcin** (hardship; ON *nauðsyn*), **Skēr** (pure, clear; ON *skær*) and **Stōr** (strong, great; ON *stórr*).

Proverbs of Alfred (the mid-12th century)

Being a southern text, Proverbs of Alfred contain very few, precisely four words of Scandinavian origin: **Again** (against; ON origin is doubtful because *aȝein* was a native form), **Fro** (from; ON *frá*), **Ille** (ill; ON *illr*, *illa*), and the verb **Late** (let; ON *lætan*).

Manuscript Stowe 340 (a prose dialogue published as *Vices and Virtues*)

Apart from a few words already found in OE (see above), we can mention just two Old Norse derived terms in this south-eastern originating text: **Kanunk** (canon; ON *kanunkr* – originally a borrowing from Latin – *canonicus*) and **Skenting** (amusement; ON *skemta*).

Lambeth Homilies and the Trinity Homilies

Sharing just a few Old Norse derived words with previous sources (like *crooked*, *both*, *low*, *law*, *egg* and *grip*), either of the homilies does not proffer more than two originally Scandinavian expressions to the researcher: **Skill** (skill, discrimination, reason > original meaning in ME); ON *skil*) and **Wing** (wing; ON *vengr*) replacing OE word *feþera*.

Brut (late 12th century)

16,000 lines long epic poem Brut by Worcester poet Layamon, contains less than 40 Scandinavian borrowings (Serj, 80). Expressions, which are not mentioned in older sources, include **Attlen** (to go, to turn, to think, to purpose; ON *ætla*), **Brunie** or **Brinie** (coat of mail, corselet, cuirass; ON *brynja*), **Farkost** (a kind of boat, condition, circumstances; ON *farkostr*) and **Wandrep** (misery, state of misery; ON *vandræði*). Another version of Brut (made some fifty years later) contains also **Leg** (leg; ON *leggr* – the earlier version has native *Sconken*), **May** (maiden), occasionally **They** and **Thursday** (the original version has native *Dunresdæi*).

Ormulum (around 1200)

With more than 120 words is Ormulum, a literary work from north-midlands, the first text to contain a significant number of Scandinavian borrowings. Some of them survived in Standard Modern English. On the other hand, some of these expressions' occurrence is limited linguistically only to Middle English or geographically to North Midland areas or exclusively to Ormulum. (Serjeantson, 1961, 81) The first category of the words will be explained in detail in section 4.6. Three other categories will be briefly outlined below, excluding expressions that are common in the previous works or already existing in Old English (for more see Serjeantson, 1961, 81–84).

Among words found in Ormulum and Middle English texts in any part of the country belong, for example: **Gre33þen** (prepare), **Ha3herr** (skillful; ON hagr), **Lasst** (fault), **Make** (wife; which might be also of English origin or ON maki), **Sēr** (separate) or **Summ** (as).

Expressions found in Ormulum and northern text include, for example: **Addlen** (earn, ON oðlask), **Be33sk** (harsh, ON beiskr), **Biggen** (dwell, ON byggja), **Brāþ** (angry, ON bráþr), **Brodd** (sprout, spike, ON broddr), **Bulaxe** (axe, O.Danish buløx), **Fere** (power, ON fœri), **Førrgarrt** (destroyed, condemned), **Gæte(læs)** (without care, ON gæta), **Gloppnenn** (to be terrified, ON glúpna „to be surprised), **Hæþelig** (scornfully, ON háþ „scorn“), **Heþen** (hence, ON heðan), **Hōf** (measure, reason, ON hóf), **Immess** (variously, ON ýmiss), **Le3he** (hire, pay, ON leiga), **Le33k** (play, sport), **Le33kenn** (to play, ON leika), **Le33tenn** (to look for, ON leita), **Lo3he** (fire, ON logi), **Merrke** (mark, ON merki), **Mineþþ** („has in mind“, ON minna), **Nowwt** (oxen, ON naut), **Occ** (and, ON ok), **Radd** (afraid, ON hrædr), **Rāþ** (counsel, ON ráþ), **Rō** (quiet, ON ró), **Rōs** (praise, ON hrós), **Sammtale** (agreed, ON saman „together“), **Sīt** (pain, illness, ON sýta „to afflict“), **Skēt** (quickly, ON skiótr), **Skiledd** (divided, ON skil „discernment, discrimination“), **Skīr** (clean, ON skír), **Sterrne** (star, ON stjarna), **Þrinne** (three, ON þrinnr), **Ummbe** (about, ON umb), **Upp-brixle** (object of reproach, ON brigsli).

Finally, thirteen words can be found just in Ormulum in Middle English: **Afell** (strenght, ON afl), **Ammbohht** (maidservant > originally Celtic, ON ambótt), **Broþ-fall** (epilepsy, ON brotfall), **Downnenn** (to smell, ON daunn), **Ēpenn** (to cry, ON øpa), **Glūternesse** (gluttony, ON glutr „extravagance“), **Nāþe** (grace, ON nāþ), **Rowwst** (voice, ON raust), **Sannen** (to prove, ON

sanna), **Skirrpepp** („rejects“, ON skirpa), **Sowwþ** (sheep, ON souþr), **Trigg** (truth, ON tryggr) and **Ūsell** (wretched, ON úsæll).

Serjeantson's survey goes far beyond the 12th century and covers an incredible number of the Old Norse borrowings, which this work cannot fully cover. Her further research is based on analysis of the following works such as:

Ancrene Riwe or Rule of Recluses, better known as **Ancrene Wisse**, the most important prose work printed about 1220-1230 with 30 different Scandinavian words; the poem **The Owl and the Nightingale** with a very few Old Norse borrowings (13 words); a paraphrase of **Exodus and Genesis** from about 1250 from the East Midlands (over 60 words); **Bestiary** - a translation of Latin work named *Physiologus*, also from the East Midlands (24 words); the Romance **Havelok the Dane** from the second half of the 13th century (over 120 words); a less popular Romance **Floris and Blancheflur**, which actually was a translation of a French work (12 words); a rhymed history of England from Gloucestershire composed towards the end of the 13th century **Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle** (36 words); **Southern Legend Collection** written in the South Midlands with only 11 Old Norse derived words in the first thousand lines, the poetical version story of **Iacop and Iosep**, written in South Midlands (8 words); **Cursor Mundi**, the chronicle of the world written in the North of England (85 words), the poem **The Anturs of Anters** with a fairly large number of Old Norse words; the poem **Sir Adamace** written probably in the North-West Midlands with less Scandinavian words than the previous poem; **Handlyng Synne or Treatise on Sin** from the first half of the 14 century with 18 different Norse words in the first thousand lines; **The Prose Psalter** from the mid-fourteenth century with quite a small Norse words; **The Azenbite of Inwit or Remorse of Conscience**, written at Canterbury by Dan Michel of Northgate with very few Norse forms; **The Festial of John Mirk**, a collection of sermons for the Church's year from the West Midlands, written about 1400; **The Poems of William Herebert**, a Franciscan friar of Herebert with but few Scandinavian words or **Richard Rolle**, a hermit and mystic, and his works **Form of Living**, **Ego Dormio** and **Commandment of Love** with a fairly large Scandinavian element. Finally, we cannot omit **Chaucer** and his **Prologue to the Canterbury Tales**, in which we can discover twenty-seven definitely Scandinavian words. (Serjeantson, 1961, 84-102)

6.0. OLD NORSE AND MODERN ENGLISH DIALECTS

„Although the number of Scandinavianisms that have found their way into standard English is impressive, the dialects of northern England and Scotland continue to be the greatest repositories of Norse terms in Britain.“ (Geipel, 1971, 73) Logically, after spending almost one hundred years in close contact with the Norse neighbours in Danelaw, speakers of northern and eastern English dialects happened to incorporate a large number of Old Norse borrowings into their lexicon. These originally Norse terms do not refer only to natural entities such as waterfalls or rivulets but also to daily life vocabulary. (Geipel, 1971, 73) Many of these words can be found even in the modern variants of these dialects. Such an influence can be supported not only by the loan words found in their modern forms but also by significant Scandinavian or Scandianvianised place names in Leicestershire, Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, southern Derbyshire, Yorkshire and Cumbria. According to the Domesday Book records, place names in Yorkshire show 48% of Scandinavian influence in the East Riding, 46% in the North Riding and 31% in the West Riding. (Hadley, 2006, 99)

Naturally, the Old Norse influence reached far beyond the territory of former Danelaw. We can discover its traces as far as in the Northern Isles (Shetland and Orkney) or Caithness, where the effect of Old Norse influence lasted longer. (Millar, 2007, 99) To be more precise, we have to talk about *Norn* influence instead of Norse influence in the dialects of Northern Isles, Northern Scots and Caithness dialect. On the other hand, Old Norse influenced *Scots* directly through the Northern English dialects. (Millar, 2007, 100) In Shetland, for example, the use of Scandinavian dialects disappeared in the eighteenth century. (Millar, 2007, 5)

Norn is an extinct North-Germanic language spoken in Shetland and Orkney up about to 1850. (Russell, Cohn, 5), which is currently experiencing a renaissance as Nynorn thanks to the work of enthusiasts in Shetland (see Nornlanguage, 2021) The other two dialects spoken in Shetland and Orkney are Shetlandic and Orcadian dialect, which bear some Norn traces but are variations of Insular Scots. (Russell, Cohn, 2012, 117)

The influence of Old Norse on the dialects of Scotland seems to have been substantial. Flom (see Flom, 1900), in his treatise on Lowland Scotch, lists some 400 dialect words influenced by Norse, not specifying which of these expressions belong to the West and East Norse language

group. He classifies thirty-two of them as Old Norse derivations, for example, "**Airt**" > to urge (ON *erta*), „**Bown**“ > ready, prepared (ON *búinn*), „**Cled**“ > clad, clothed (ON *klæddr*), „**Dey / Dee**“ > maid (ON *dægja*), „**Elding**“ > fuel (ON *elding*), „**Firth**“ – a bay (ON *fjörðr*), „**Gane**“ > be suitable (ON *gegna*) or „**Hoolie**“ > slow (ON *hógligr*), „**Ill**“ > evil, wicked (ON *illr*), „**Keik / Kek**“ > to peep, to pry (ON *kikja*), „**Lack**“ > to belittle, blame (ON *hlakka*), „**Mon / Man / Maun**“ > must (ON *monu / munu*), „**Nowt / Nout**“ > cattle (ON *naut*), „**On Loft**“ > up (ON *á loft*), „**Pirrye**“ > whirlwind (ON *birr*), „**Quey / Quoy**“ > a young cow (ON *kviga*), „**Ruse**“ > praise, a boast (ON *rósa / hrósa*), „**Saikless**“ > innocent (ON *saklauss*), „**Tarn**“ > a small lake (ON *tjörn*), „**Ug**“ > to dislike, abhor (ON *ugga*), „**Vath / Waith**“ > danger (ON *váði*), or „**Wale**“ > to select, choose (ON *velja*). (see Flom 25 - 72) The loanwords found in the lexis of Southern Scotch is similar to those found in Northwestern England, such as „**Blake**“ > yellow, pale (ON *bleikr*), „**Beck**“ > stream (ON *bekkr*), „**Cleg**“ > horsefly (ON *kleggi*), „**Flake**“ > hurdles (ON *flaki*), **Lake/Laike** > to play (ON *læika*), or „**Mense**“ > decency (ON *mennska*). (Flom, 3)

Some of the expressions are geographically limited. For example, words such as "**Snug**" > to strike, push, to prod with the horns (ON *snugga*) or "**Ball**" > to roll together, to put in disorder (ON *ballrast*) can be found only in Shetland. One of Orkney's unique Old Norse derived words is "**Quink**" > the brent goose or greylag goose (ON *kveinka*). Scandinavian borrowings attested only for Caithness are, for example, "**Leens**" (pastures of natural grass) or "**Ingy**" (to give birth to a lamb). (Millar, 2007, 99–100) Common words found in these areas are „**Brigg**“ (bridge), „**Knotty**“ (the game of shinty or the ball used in the game), „**Kirk**“ (church), or „**Swelchie**“ (a whirlpool in the sea). (Millar, 2007, 99)

It is no surprise that we can discover a vast Norse influence in the lexicon of dialects of Lancashire or Cumberland. Words like „**Leek**“ (like), „**Neet**“ (night), "**Steen**" (stone), "**Yek**" (oak) or "**Haver**" (oats) are, in fact, Norse expressions. Sentences like "**Ast thou be laking now, then?**" (Have you been playing?" or "**Gannen Yem**" (going home) reveals the former closeness of both languages. (Elmes, 2005, 213) However, at this point, the Yorkshire dialect will be the best pick for showing a reader the Scandinavian impact on the English lexis in the northern part of the country. (Naturally, we have to bear in mind that such Old Norse derived vocabulary may overlap with the lexicon of Midlands dialects and dialects of East Anglia.)

Kellet (Viking.no, 2021) states 166 words, derived from Old Norse, belonging to the active

lexicon of Yorkshire native speakers, forty-four of which might be etymologically problematic. Those words with unclear etymology are, for example, „**Biggerstang**“ (scaffold pole), „**Glocken**“ (when snow begins to clear away), „**Lop**“ (flea) or „**Mot**“ (ploughing or a rendezvous). The list includes a broad palette of both lexical and grammatical items, for example:

VERBS

Bait – to feed, to offer food (ON *beit*); **Ban** – to curse, to swear (ON *banna*); **Clap** – to apply quickly, to slap with the hand (ON *klappa*); **Deg** – to sprinkle (especially water) (ON *doegva*); **Ettle** – to intend (ON *ætla*); **Flit** – to move house (ON *flytja*); **Gawp** – to stare (ON *gapa*); **Kittle** – to tickle (ON *kitla*); **Mun** – must, will, shall (ON *mun*); **Rick** or **Reek** – to smoke (ON *reykja*); **Skrike** – to shriek, to cry out (ON *skrækja*) or **Storken** – to stiffen, to coagulate (ON *storkna*).

NOUNS

Barf – a long and low hill (ON *bjarg*); **Barn** – a child, an infant (ON *barn*); **Carr** – marshy woodland or shrubland (ON *kjarr*); **Crake** – crow (ON *Kraka*); **Dale** – valley (ON *Dalur*); **Fell** – hill, mountain slope (ON *fjall*); **Garth** – small grass enclosure adjacent to a house (ON *garðr*); **Gowk** – cuckoo (ON *gaukr*); **Keld** or **Kell** – spring, well (ON *kelda*); **Laithe** or **Leath** (often in place names) – barn, agricultural building (ON *hlatha*); **Nieve** – fist (ON *nefi*); **Slack** (in place names) – a small valley or depression in the ground (ON *slakki*) or **Yawd** – a horse of inferior breeding (ON *jalda*).

ADJECTIVES

Femmer – slight, light, weak (ON *fimmer*); **Gain** – near straight (ON *gegn*); **Gloppened** or **Glottened** – astonished, flabbergasted (ON *glupna*); **Jannock** – fair, right (ON *jamn*); **Sackless** – ineffectual, simple-minded or innocent (ON *saklauss*); **Snod** – sleek, smooth (ON *snoðinn*); **Strang** – strong (ON *strangr*).

7.0. OLD NORSE AND MODERN STANDARD ENGLISH

In contradistinction to OE, ME or English dialects, Standard Modern English has not retained too many Old Norse derived words. Although Crystal claims that most estimates suggest 400 - 500 loanwords in Modern English (probably including its dialectal forms), (Crystal, 2005, 74) World Loanwords Database (WOLD) states only 60 Old Norse borrowings that survived in Standard Modern English. (Wold, 2021)

Kastovsky lists eight *nouns* (**Band, Bank, Birth, Crook, Dirt, Dregs, Egg, Fellow**), eight *adjectives* (**Odd, Rotten, Scant, Seemly, Sly, Tattered, Tight, Weak**), numerous *verbs* (**Call, Cast, Clip, Crave, Crawl, Die, Droop, Gape, Gasp, Get, Give, Glitter, Raise, Rake, Rid, Scare, Scowl**), including phrasal verbs **Come on, Make up, Muck up** and **Muck about**. (Hogg, 2005, 320)

Crystal adds *nouns* **Anger, Bond, Cake, Fog, Freckle, Kid, Leg, Neck, Sister, Skill, Skirt, Smile, Thursday** and **Window**. His list of *adjectives* comprise **Awkward, Crooked**, and **Meek**. Crystal also lists following *verbs* – **Lurk** and **Seem**. (Crystal, 2005, 73) Bragg extends the list with expressions: **Guess, Happy, Hit, Husband, Knife, Law, Ransack, Root, Skin, Sky, Score, Take, Thrift, Trust, Want** and **Wrong** (Bragg, 2011, 32). Baugh adds three more words to the list – **Bask, Scrub** and **Whisk** (Baugh, Cable, 2002, 87).

Naturally, we must not omit to include grammatical items into the list, like pronouns **They, Them, Their, Both** or **Same** or prepositions **Till** (in the meaning of the direction TO) or **Fro** (in the phrase To and fro) and **Though**, which replaced Old English *þeah*. Modern forms *They, Them* and *Their*, replaced the original, highly inflectional OE forms of the third-person plural *Hi* or *Hie* (nominative/accusative), *Hira* (genitive) or *Him* (dative). Scandinavian influence might also be seen in the spread of Northern *ARE* (instead of Southern *SINDON*) and the S-suffix of the third person singular (instead of -ð, as in *He drifð > he drifes*). (Hogg, 2005, 320)

7.1. A Brief Etymological Analysis of Old Norse Derived Words in Standard Modern English

In the following sheet, readers can see a brief analysis with the aid of the Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology (ODEE) to prove Old Norse or Scandinavian source of the words. A problematic or unclear etymology, where Old Norse origin cannot be fully affirmed, is labelled with an asterisk* at the end of the presumptive donor's language expression (In the column ODEE / Derived from). Abbreviations in the column "The First Occurrence" mean the following textual sources (according to ODEE):

(AncrR) = Ancrene Riwe

(Cursor M) = Cursor Mundi

(La3) = La3amon

(Orm) = Ormulum

(RGlouc) = Robert of Gloucester

WORD	PART OF SPEECH	ODEE / DERIVED FROM	FIRST OCCURRENCE
Anger	Noun	angra; angr	XII (Orm)
Awe	Noun	agi	XIII.
Awkward	Adjective	afugr	XIV
Bag	Noun	baggi*	XIII (AncrR)
Bait	Noun; Verb	beita	XIII (Orm)
Ball	Noun	ball-, böllr	XIII (La3)
Band	Noun	band	XIII (Orm)
Bank	Noun	banki	XII (Orm)
Bark	Noun	börkr	XIII
Bask	Verb	baðask*	XIII
Birth	Noun	byrð	XII/XIII
Bond	Noun	bóndi	XIV
Cake	Noun	kaka*	XIII
Calf	Noun	kálfi	XII (Orm)
Call	Verb	kalla	XIII
Cart	Noun	kartr (partly)*	XIII (Orm)
Cast	Verb	kasta	XIII
Clip	Verb	klippa	XII (Orm)
Club	Noun	klubba	XIII
Crave	Verb	krøf*	XII
Crawl	Verb	kravla*	XIV
Die	Verb	deyja*	XIII
Dirt	Noun	drit	XIV
Dregs	Noun	dreggjar*	XIV
Droop	Verb	drúpa	XIII

Egg	Noun	egg	XV
Fellow	Noun	félagi	XI
Flat	Adjective	flatr	XIII
Freckle	Noun	freknur (pl.)	XIV
Gape	Verb	gapa	XIII.
Gasp	Verb	geispa	XIV (Gower)
Get	Verb	geta	XI. (placenames) / XIV (literature)
Gill	Noun	gill	XIII
Give	Verb	gefa	XIV
Glitter	Verb	glitra	XIV
Guess	Verb	gissa *	XIII
Guest	Noun	gestr	XIII
Gun	Noun	Gunnhildr	XIII (La3)
Happy	Adjective	happ	XIV
Hit	Verb	hitta	XIII (La3)
Husband	Noun	húsbóndi	XIII
Ill	Adjective	illr	XIII
Kid	Noun	kið	XII (Orm)
Knife	Noun	knífr	XI
Law	Noun	lagu	late OE
Leg	Noun	leggr	XIII (La3)
Lift	Verb	lypta	XIII (Cursor M)
Low	Adjective	lágr	XII
Lurk	Verb	?*	XIII (Havelok)
Meek	Adjective	miúkr, mjúkr	XII (Orm)
Mistake	Verb	mistaka	XIII (Cursor M)
Neck	Noun	OE hnecca*	XIV
Odd	Adjective	odda	XIV
Raft	Noun	raptr	XV
Rag	Noun	rogg	XIV
Raise	Verb	reisa	XII
Rake	Verb	raka	XIII
Ransack	Verb	rannsaka	XIV
Reindeer	Noun	hreindýri	XII (Orm)
Rid	Verb	ryðja	XIII
Root	Noun	rót	XIV
Rotten	Adjective	rotinn	XIII
Same	Adjective	same, sama	XII
Scant	Adjective	skamt	XIV
Scare	Verb	skirra	XII (Orm)
Scold	Noun	skáld	XIII
Score	Noun	skor	XI
Scowl	Verb	prob. of Scand origin*	XIV

Scrape	Verb	skrapa	XIV
Scrub	Verb	ME scrobbe*	XIV
Seem	Verb	sæma	XII (Orm)
Shriek	Noun	skrækja	XVI
Sister	Noun	systir	XIII
Skin	Noun	skinn	XI
Skill	Noun	skil	XIII
Skirt	Noun	skyrta	XIII (Cursor M)
Skull	Noun	unkn. origin, but remarkably similar to ON skoltr	XIII (AncrR)
Sky	Noun	ský	XIII
Sly	Adjective	slægr	XII (Orm)
Smile	Noun	smila, smile*	XIII (Cursor M)
Sweep	Verb	OE swipian or ON svipa*	XIII
Take	Verb	taka	XII
Tattered	Adjective	taturr	c. 1400
They	Pronoun	þeir	XII
Thrift	Noun	þrift	XIII
Thursday	Noun	partly associated with ON þórsdagr	?
Trust	Noun	traust	XIII (AncrR)
Ugly	Adjective	uggligr	XIII
Want	Verb	*want, vant	XIII (Cursor M)
Weak	Adjective	veikr	XIII
Whirl	Verb	hvirfla	XIV
Whisk	Verb	visk	XIV
Window	Noun	vindauga	XIII (AncrR)
Wing	Noun	vængir	XIII (RGlouc)
Wrong	Adjective	*wrangr, rangr	XIII

Etymologically problematic words (labelled with asterisk) found in the sheet are *Bag*, *Bask*, *Cake*, *Cart*, *Crave*, *Crawl*, *Die*, *Dregs*, *Guess*, *Lurk*, *Neck*, *Scowl*, *Scrub*, *Smile*, *Sweep*, *Want* and *Wrong*.

Skeat's „An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language“ (EDEL), „Etymonline“ - the online etymology dictionary and the online version of The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) has been used to cross-check, confirm or disprove the hypothesis of Old Norse origin of the above mentioned expressions.

WORD	PART OF SPEECH	EDEL	Etymonline	OED
Bag	Noun	confirmed	confirmed	disproved*

Bask	Verb	confirmed	disproved	confirmed
Cake	Noun	confirmed	confirmed	confirmed
Cart	Noun	confirmed	confirmed	uncertain*
Crave	Verb	disproved*	disproved*	disproved*
Crawl	Verb	confirmed	confirmed	uncertain*
Die	Verb	confirmed	confirmed	uncertain*
Dregs	Noun	confirmed	confirmed	confirmed
Guess	Verb	confirmed	uncertain*	disproved*
Lurk	Verb	confirmed	uncertain*	disproved*
Neck	Noun	disproved*	disproved*	uncertain*
Scowl	Verb	confirmed	confirmed	confirmed
Scrub	Verb	confirmed	uncertain*	uncertain*
Smile	Noun	confirmed	uncertain*	disproved*
Sweep	Verb	disproved*	disproved*	uncertain*
Want	Verb	confirmed	confirmed	confirmed
Wrong	Adjective	confirmed	confirmed	confirmed

After the etymological comparison, we may exclude *Crave*, *Guess*, *Lurk*, *Neck*, *Scrub*, *Smile*, and *Sweep* off the list for not being Old Norse borrowings. On the other hand, the etymology of *Bag*, *Bask*, *Cart*, *Crawl* and *Die* remain ambiguous. and their exact origin more likely belongs to the realm of etymological guesswork.

Although the analysis of Old Norse derived terms that survived in Modern English presented in this work has been based on careful research of authoritative linguistic and etymological sources, the final number of Scandinavian influenced words is perhaps much more significant. For example, the group of words with initial SC- or SK- consonant blends represent a potential area of Old Norse impact, and it deserves further research.

8.0. CONCLUSION

The thesis aims to explain the historical reasons that enabled Old Norse to affect the lexis of English and describe the linguistic background that allows a reader to understand the phonological criteria used for identifying Old Norse borrowings. The thesis also discusses the sociolinguistic milieu of Danelaw, which rendered Old English and Old Norse create a suitable linguistic environment for entering Old Norse borrowings into English. The project surveys the Old Norse influence on the English lexicon from the diachronic perspective. It offers an in-depth examination of the Old English words derived from Old Norse. The Middle English period takes

up less space than it might merit, and the author is aware of that fact. Unfortunately, the number of Old Norse borrowings found in Middle English extends to thousands, so it is not practicable to thoroughly map and analyse the linguistic corpus within the delimitation of this work. The thesis also researches the impact of Old Norse on modern English dialects. This area with its range goes beyond the project's scope and deserves a closer exploration in the author's future research. Although the etymological analysis of Old Norse derived lexis in Modern English works with authoritative sources, it is far from being exhaustive or complete. Also, the part dedicated to the mutual intelligibility of Old English and Old Norse will be given more space in the author's future work.

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Jméno a Příjmení:	Petr Pádívý
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Katedra:	Ústav cizích jazyků
Vedoucí práce:	Mgr. Jana Kořínková, PhD.
Rok obhajoby:	2021
Název práce:	Vliv Old Norse na lexikum anglického jazyka
Název práce v angličtině:	Influence of Old Norse on the Lexicon of the English Language
Anotace práce:	Tato bakalářská práce má za cíl vysvětlit a interpretovat dopad Old Norse na lexikum angličtiny během jejího vývoje od staré angličtiny až po současné dialekty a její moderní spisovnou formu. Za pomoci autoritativních tištěných a online zdrojů tato práce popíše historické pozadí tohoto vlivu. Zároveň poskytne čtenáři lingvistická kritéria pro identifikování výpůjček z Old Norse ve slovní zásobě angličtiny. Práce se rovněž z diachronického hlediska věnuje lexiku Old English a Middle English, které vykazuje vliv Old Norse, přibližuje čtenáři stručný vhled do lexikálních výpůjček z Old Norse v moderních britských dialektch a předkládá etymologickou analýzu výrazů odvozených z Old Norse, které se zachovaly v současné moderní angličtině.
Klíčová slova:	Old English, Middle English, dialekty, spisovná angličtina, Old Norse, Vikingové, Danelaw, Lexikum, Lexikální výpůjčky.
Anotace práce v angličtině:	This bachelor's thesis aims to explain and interpret the impact of Old Norse on the lexicon of the English Language during its development from Old English to contemporary dialects and its modern standard. With the aid of authoritative printed and online sources, this project will describe the historical background of the influence. It will also provide the reader

	with linguistic criteria for identifying Old Norse borrowings in the lexicon of the English language. The thesis also examines Old Norse influenced lexis in Old English and Middle English in a diachronic perspective. The project gives the reader a brief insight into Old Norse lexical borrowings in Modern British Dialects and presents the etymological analysis of Old Norse derived expressions that survived in Modern English.
Klíčová slova v angličtině:	Old English, Middle English, dialects, Standard English, Old Norse, Vikings, Danelaw, Lexicon, Borrowings.
Přílohy vázané v práci:	0
Rozsah práce:	45
Jazyk práce:	Angličtina